

EIGHTH BIANNUAL GCES SYMPOSIUM

PUBLIC, PRIVATE, AND PHILANTHROPY: EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF NEW ACTORS ON EDUCATION IN THE GCC

Conference Proceedings

April 7-9th, 2018 Ras Al Khaimah, United Arab Emirates

Hosted and Sponsored by



SHEIKH SAUD BIN SAOR AL QASIMI FOUNDATION FOR POLICY RESEARCH

Contents

2	Introduction
4	Philanthropy for Education: Challenges and Opportunities in the United Arab Emirates Dr. Catherine Hill and Dr. Nadera Alborno
13	Giving Back: Alumni as Assets for Generating Philanthropic Support for Higher Education in Bahrain Dr. Nina Abdul Razzak and Dr. Wafa Al-Mansoori
26	جامعة الشركات: مدخل لتطوير الشراكة بين الجامعة '' رؤية مقترحة ''والمجتمع د. عزام عبد النبي أحمد
43	Education Hubs in the GCC Region – Exploring Interplays of Local Visions and Global Influences for Higher Education Policy Marvin Erfurth
52	Exploring CSR Initiatives and Stakeholder Discourse of International Branch Campuses: A Stakeholder and Institutional Perspective Dr. Katariina Juusola
64	A Case Study on Student Preferences for Public, Private or Community College Education at a Private University in Saudi Arabia Dr. Ziad Shaker Eljishi and Heba Shehata
74	Learner Motivation: The Dynamic and Diverse Construct Nour Al Okla
83	It Takes Two (To Make a Thing Go Right): A Study of Factors Influencing Motivation and Self-Efficacy of Teachers Working with Refugees Max B. Eckert
97	Mobile Learning with Arabic Speakers in Sweden Lorna Bartram, Dr. Linda Bradley, and Khaled Al-Sabbagh



Introduction

The Gulf Comparative Education Society (GCES) held its eighth biannual symposium under the sponsorship of the Sheikh Saud bin Saqr Al Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research from April 7th to 9th, 2018. Guided by the theme "Public, Private, and Philanthropy: Exploring the Impact of New Actors on Education in the GCC," attendees presented research and discussed developments in the field of education in the Gulf.

The symposium was held at the Hilton Garden Inn Ras Al Khaimah in the United Arab Emirates and consisted of a pre-conference workshop, three keynote addresses, four featured panels, two special panels, and six breakout sessions with over 40 presentations by invited speakers, as well as by those who submitted abstracts that had been selected by a blind review.

In its eighth year, the symposium continued the tradition of convening a diverse group of guests and attendees from across the globe. This year's presenters came from a wide variety of countries including the UAE, Oman, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Canada, Spain, Australia, Germany, Sweden and the United States, representing different voices in the education sector, such as policymakers, academics and researchers, school providers and leaders, consultants, and teachers.

The theme for 2018 drew upon the growing involvement of emerging actors in GCC education and put a spotlight on the impact of philanthropy on education in the Gulf. In 2015, reports estimated a combined \$34bn worth of private donations to foundations. Philanthropic contributions, closely intertwined with private and public education, therefore hold the power to shape GCC education ecosystems, through scholarships and mentoring, as well as the creation of entire school systems and universities.

While the philanthropic sector is still in its infancy in the GCC, this years' symposium took the opportunity to apply a comparative lens through keynote speeches delivered by Professor Bob Lingard (University of Queensland), Professor Megan Tompkins-Stange (University of Michigan), and Professor Antoni Verger (Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona).

The speakers discussed topics, such as the emergence of philanthropists, edupreneurs, and consultants as new policy actors in education, the power and influence of elite private philanthropies in the US, and the main omissions and shortcomings of translating public-private partnerships (PPPs) into the educational policy field.

The featured panels and breakout sessions addressed the following key topics, among others:

- Higher Education in the GCC
- Informing Education Policy and Transforming Systems through Evidence
- Motivation, and Alternative Approaches to Learning

- Evaluating the Emergence of Private Actors in Education
- The Challenges and Prospects of Philanthropy in Education in the GCC
- Internationalization of Education: Effects on Students, Educators, and Institutions
- Globalization in Philanthropy and Human Resources

In addition, the symposium brought together over 80 participants working in a range of organizations across the Gulf and beyond, all of whom shared an interest in comparative education in the GCC countries. This year's symposium was further enriched by a special panel discussion joined by representatives from UNESCO, UNDP, and the Arab Gulf Program for Development (AGFUND). The discussion revolved around the Sustainable Development Goal 4 in the Gulf States and how partnerships can ensure quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.

Following the symposium, speakers were asked if they would like to submit an approximately 3,000-word paper on their presentation. This volume is the compilation of those papers that were submitted. While it does not cover all of the presentations that were given at the symposium, slides for some of the other presentations are available on the GCES website (www.gces.ae).

Dr. Abdullah Alajmi, President

Dr. Ahoud Alasfour, Vice President

Dr. Natasha Ridge, Secretariat Representative

David Dingus, Max B. Eckert, and Elizabeth Bruce, Proceedings Editors

Philanthropy for Education: Challenges and Opportunities in the United Arab Emirates

Dr. Catherine Hill Dr. Nadera AlBorno

American University in Dubai

Abstract

The philanthropic sector in the Middle East is in its infancy. Traditionally, the practice of giving for social purposes has been largely defined by religion and the requirements of Islam. Currently, however, many for-profit organizations, such as Al Ghurair and Al Habtoor, have been giving thought and consideration to social justice causes in more systematic and structural ways, as exemplified in modern forms of philanthropy such as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and social enterprise. Thus, philanthropy in general and philanthropy for education in particular is taking shape in this part of the world. Drawing from the preliminary results of an ongoing study, this paper presents a thematic discussion that tracks the emergence of philanthropy in the Middle East, specifically the United Arab Emirates (UAE), and explores concomitant challenges and

opportunities.

Introduction

The philanthropic sector in the Middle East is in its infancy. Despite the accumulation of great wealth, the practice of giving for social purposes has been largely defined by religion and the requirements of Islam, especially during Ramadan—when no less than 2.5% of one's estimated wealth and possessions is designated as *zakat* and offered according to Islamic practice.

Currently, however, more and more for-profit organizations, such as Al Ghurair and Al Habtoor, have been giving thought and consideration to social justice causes in more systematic and structural ways, especially in the field of education. It is becoming increasingly common for such corporations to identify offices within their organizations for addressing the needs of society. Thus, philanthropy in general and philanthropy for education in particular is emerging in this part of the world. As a result, learning lessons from the successes and failures of other nations is not only important to the evolution of this practice but also essential to understanding the pertinent challenges and opportunities that are taking shape in the Middle East.

Drawing from the preliminary results of an ongoing study, this paper presents a thematic discussion on the challenges and opportunities of an emerging philanthropic sector in the Middle East, specifically the United Arab Emirates (UAE).

Background

While the UAE consists of seven Emirates, this paper focuses on the development of philanthropy in the Emirate of Dubai. We chose Dubai for two reasons. First, as a global city, it is ranked as a leading multi-purpose and highly profitable trading and business center in the Middle East. Second, it is the locale with which we are most familiar. Moreover, Dubai offers a window on several types of philanthropy, ranging from traditional cash donations to more modern approaches that aim to have social impact. For example, Khalaf Ahmed Al Habtoor, the founder and chairman of the Al Habtoor Group, established the Al Habtoor Foundation in 2013 by allocating 20% of the group's shares, which total 370 million AED as of 2016. He has provided large-scale gifts for the improvement of education and human advancement in the UAE, as well as towards the alleviation of poverty, homelessness and hunger worldwide. The process of giving, however, is still very much aligned with traditional practice.

In 2015, UAE businessman Abdullah Al-Ghurair donated a third of his assets to establish a foundation focused solely on education. The Abdullah Al Ghurair Foundation has pledged to spend 4.2 billion dirhams over the next 10 years to "equip Arab youth with the knowledge and skills they need to become the leaders of tomorrow." The foundation awards grants and scholarships through "a clear and transparent process" based on a highly competitive application, which represents a step forward towards a more modern form of philanthropic giving.

Philanthropic entities in the UAE are currently grappling with all aspects of traditional and modern types of philanthropy. According to Coutts & Co.'s Middle East 2016 Report, traditional forms of giving, such as grants to friends, family, colleagues and/or charities, still prevail. Data from the 2016 Arab Giving Survey also note that while the spirit of giving in the region is generous, the recorded number of gifts still focuses on traditional targets such as individuals in need. In fact, 47% of respondents to the 2016 Arab Giving Survey identified "individuals in need" (e.g., the disabled, refugees and the elderly) as the preferred cause for donating (*Philanthropy Age*, 2016). However, new structures of philanthropic giving are also emerging. These include forms of government-funded foundations such as Dubai Cares (de Leon, 2017), Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), which will soon be compulsory in the UAE and forms of social enterprise designed to address a social need through a marketdriven business model. Looking ahead to the future, Abdulaziz Al Ghurair observed that "far too long our giving has been individual, fragmented and motivated by being charitable rather than results-driven. Going forward, I see a majority of philanthropists being more focused, asking tougher questions ... and demanding more impactful and long-term results" (Coutts & Co., Case Study: Abdulaziz Al Ghurair, the Abdulla Al Ghurair Foundation for Education, Q9).

While these initiatives continue to drive sustainable development throughout the UAE, the process of giving appears to be more traditional than modern.

Forms of Philanthropy

To extend the context for the study, the literature on philanthropy tends to distinguish traditional from modern forms of philanthropic giving in today's world—both in the UAE and in countries around the world (Dacin, Dacin, & Matear, 2010; Dietlin, 2011; Fauzia, 2010; Hess, 2005; Hess & Henig, 2015; Johnson, 2018; Johnson & Rahim, 2018; Merisotis, 2014).

Traditional Philanthropy

Traditional philanthropy in the Islamic world exists in the form of direct giving—usually in cash or in-kind—to address human needs and to meet the requirements of the Islamic faith. Essentially, traditional philanthropy is a form of charity in that the aim is to help someone or something immediately by giving directly to alleviate the need or the suffering (Dietlin, 2011). By definition, traditional philanthropy literally means benevolence or love for humanity. And, by extension, people who do good for others are called philanthropists. In line with this definition, the traditional philanthropy is an old practice long associated with companies and wealthy individuals who make cash donations or in-kind contributions to worthy causes and/or needy individuals. The giver or the philanthropist is typically motivated by the sincere desire to give something back to society, help the disadvantaged and/or to please God, according to Islamic practice. This type of philanthropy is sometimes referred to as impulse philanthropy, wherein the donor is primarily driven by emotion or a "feel good effect" (Crosta, 2017). To this day, impulse philanthropy remains the most common form of giving by individuals and corporations.

Despite the sincerity of donors who are dedicated to making a difference, without measurable results, there is little reason to think they are solving any of society's problems. As individuals and corporations, they are usually acting alone—without collaboration and the benefits of learning from others. At the same time very few are tracking their own impact (Kramer, 2009).

Modern Philanthropy

Modern philanthropy, on the other hand, is a form of giving with broader goals and is usually managed within and by civic institutions or corporate organizations (Fauzia, 2010). It is giving that is grounded in justice, aimed at producing change and focused on the impact of results. Thus, this type of giving is often referred to as impact or catalytic philanthropy (Crosta, 2017; Kramer, 2009). Typically, it focuses on root causes as opposed to individual needs or symptoms and aims to achieve measurable social results. It is designed to be systemic and not episodic, proactive rather than reactive (Merisotis, 2014). The organizational forms of modern or impact philanthropy include several mechanisms such as CSR and social enterprise.

As a form of philanthropy, CSR within an organization may include a variety of arrangements for charitable giving: grant making, employee volunteering and/or core strategies for improving the quality of life for all stakeholders and the community at large. It can be described as embracing responsibility so as to yield positive outcomes for the local environment; in other words, CSR is important for the community as well as valuable for the company.

Since 1966, the Al Ansari Exchange group has given high priority to the concept of social responsibility initiatives and charitable giving throughout the UAE. In fact, the Arab Organization for Social Responsibility recently honored Rashed Ali Al Ansari, General Manager of the Al Ansari Exchange, by conferring him with the Golden Shield Award for his efforts at instilling a culture of social responsibility in the private and public sectors in the UAE. The Al Ansari Exchange has acquired a reputation for ambitious CSR programs that provide financial support to needy families, the disabled and orphans; education; healthcare; and various charitable societies.

CSR was declared to be mandatory in the UAE through a Cabinet Resolution passed on February 5, 2018. The resolution calls for the development of an organizational framework and guidelines for the management and distribution of contributions made by companies to support socially responsible activities, such as economic, social and environmental programs and projects, in the UAE. Companies are now in the process of registering on the UAE CSR Smart Platform (KPMG, 2018). Data on outcomes and results for the first year will likely be forthcoming.

A newer concept of modern philanthropy is known as social enterprise. While there is no consensus on a single definition of social enterprise, most scholars would agree on a broad definition with two perspectives: the for-profit standpoint defines social enterprise as "businesses that trade for social purposes" (Sepulveda, 2014, p. 843), and the non-profit standpoint, which defines it as "organizations adopting commercial methods to achieve their social objectives" (Johnsen, 2017, p. 5). Thus, the emerging construct of social enterprise in the UAE reveals a dual nature which combines economic and social value creation aligned with global standards of sustainable social development. Across the existing UAE institutional landscape, this form of philanthropy is uncommon. However, it is an emerging sector. A prime example is Enable, a corporate initiative within the for-profit organization known as the Desert Group that evolved from a 2008 inclusion program aimed at employing individuals with special needs (https://desertgroup.ae/csr-enable/). In order to sustain the inclusion initiative, in 2015, the Desert Group formally introduced Enable as a more permanent and sustainable employment solution for individuals who are intellectually challenged. Since then, Enable continues to be operated by the Desert Group as a social enterprise. Other UAE-based organizations claim to be social enterprises, such as Evolvin' Women https://evolvinwomen.com, Social Bandage www.socialbandage.org and Taka Solutions https://takasolutions.com, but have ambiguous organizational structures that appear to be inconsistent with the concept of a sustainable social enterprise.

To summarize, social enterprises can be private for-profit, non-profit or hybrid organizations with a social mission that use business approaches to achieve their objectives (Dacin et al., 2010).

Philanthropy for Education

A growing number of philanthropic organizations are recognizing the importance of education—for their own success as well as for the economic health of their respective nations and for future generations. Thus, educational philanthropy appears to be a rising investment trend among the wealthy (Enskog, 2016), with 35% of the nearly 30,000 foundations worldwide focusing resources on the educational sector (Johnson, 2018). At the same time, however, new research is emerging that questions the role of philanthropy in education research and education reform (Feuer, 2016; Hess 2005; Hess & Henig, 2015). When, for example, highly renowned donors, such as the Gates, Broad, Walton and Lumina Foundations, make large contributions to schools and school systems, it is not uncommon for them to expect education policies and practices to conform to their understanding of the "what" and "how" of education (Cody, 2014). As a result, the haunting question is that of control and influence. The power of philanthropic organizations and individuals to shape educational agendas is growing in countless ways and yet very little is known about the extent and results of their investments. This lack of knowledge calls for urgent attention to research across countries and national borders.

Challenges

Obstacles and challenges related to the rapid growth of philanthropy and philanthropic models in the Middle East include the need for legal frameworks and defined infrastructures, the lack of research and reliable data in the Arab region, poor measurement and evaluation efforts and the unmet demand for specialized talent (Kuttab & Johnson, 2015). These challenges are also supported by the most recent information on philanthropy in the UAE, *Great Expectations: The Growth of Institutional Philanthropy in the United Arab Emirates*, published by the Belfer Center at the Harvard Kennedy School in partnership with Globesight (Johnson & Rahim, 2018). Insights from this report, which contributed to the *Global Philanthropy Report* (Johnson, 2018), were drawn only from a regional survey; supportive research is yet to be done.

The fact that no clear legal framework exists for establishing and regulating philanthropic organizations has led to a climate of giving that is both ambiguous and uncertain. Definitions remain unclear and structures are shaped according to the desires, wishes and interests of the respective families and founders. Beyond the typology defined in *Great Expectations* (2018, p. 38), there is no shared understanding of questions, such as: How do we define a foundation? How do we define an endowment or grant? How do we define the assets of a foundation? For family foundations, are the assets of the foundations and that of the family clearly segregated? (Kuttab & Johnson, 2015). However, the UAE Council of Ministers is beginning to address the need for a legal framework. In fact, and as stated above, the Cabinet Resolution passed in February 2018 aims to provide guidelines for the management of corporate responsibility mechanisms among 400,000 companies across the UAE (WAM, 2018). This is one small step toward the creation of legal framework.

In addition to the work of building a legal framework, the region needs more "big picture" thinking, focused less on outputs and outcomes and more on social justice and desired social impact. Limited infrastructure for philanthropy remains an obstacle for the emergence of a

coherent and systematic approach to philanthropic giving in the UAE. A legal framework needs to address the absence of data, underfunded measurement and evaluation efforts and the search for specialized talent—all of which are integral to success in this sector (Kuttab & Johnson, 2015). As the UAE and other Arab nations continue to look beyond the "old ways" of giving, beyond religion and geography, levels of trust and transparency will rise and a coherent system will flourish.

Opportunities

As the practice of corporate giving grows in the UAE, it is important to note that a variety of structures are becoming more visible and strategic while they still remain closely related to the government and ruling families. These include forms of CSR, social enterprises and foundations. In addition, it is likewise important to identify safeguards regarding the flow of money and the creation of partnerships that are transparent and socially responsive. At present, philanthropic gifts tend to be focused on material needs in general, health care and student scholarships in education. Among the 42 foundations that are known to exist in the UAE, 14 focus on education and community development projects (Johnson & Rahmin, 2018). Weakness in the ability or willingness to do "big picture thinking" around the outcomes and the impact of very generous philanthropic efforts exists. For example, by "big picture" thinking, the UAE could make a concerted effort to move from feeding workers during Ramadan to eliminating hunger in the Arab world.

The Abdulla Al Ghurair Foundation for Education can serve as a model in its attempt to respond to the key factors required for a successful, robust and coherent design for philanthropic giving. It has made great strides in the implementation of programs such as the Young Thinkers Program, the STEM Scholars Program and the Open Learning Scholars Program. In addition, they reported the employment of a measurement expert to document and emphasize the importance of evaluation of their programs and impacts (Johnson & Rahim, 2018, p. 35). However, no outcome oriented assessment data is available in the public domain to date.

Moving forward, the effectiveness of philanthropy in the UAE will be dependent upon public policy support and the clarity of a legal framework. In addition, philanthropic individuals and organizations will likely be expected to agree to a shared commitment to collaborate among key actors and across sectors, organized a typology of philanthropy and increase their investment in infrastructure. Structures for giving will probably continue to expand but in unique ways compatible with the unique culture of the UAE. Furthermore, relevant actors in the philanthropic sectors need to build compelling messages about why and how philanthropy in human capital, specifically in education, will benefit the nation in the long term.

Recommendations and Conclusion

It is important to observe that the UAE is a nation in a hurry. While admirable as a national vision, the impulse to hurry change circumvents the ability foster and engage in strategic and long-term growth. Shifting the focus of philanthropy from charity to justice is a long-haul effort

that will require persistence over decades. While charity is commendable, philanthropy that aims to achieve social impact has the potential to be transformative for the nation, the region and the world.

The prospects for Arab philanthropy are enormous because the amount of wealth in the region is striking. As structures for giving likely continue to expand and evolve in unique ways compatible with a unique culture, it is important to keep in mind that the future belongs to those nations that best educate the next generation.

References

- Cody, A. (2014). *The educator and the oligarch: A teacher challenges the Gates Foundation*. New York, NY: Garn Press.
- Coutts & Co. (2016). *Middle East 2016 report* [Online]. Retrieved from http://philanthropy.coutts.com/en/reports/2016/middle-east-gcc/findings.html
- Crosta, N. (2017). Think before you give: Impact philanthropy vs impulse philanthropy [Blog post]. *Medium*. Retrieved from https://medium.com/@Nico_Crost/impact-philanthropy-vs-impulse-philanthropy-7e8f516c2cb6
- Dacin, P. A., Dacin, M. T., & Matear, M. (2010). Social entrepreneurship: Why we don't need a new theory and how we move forward from here. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(3), 37-57.
- Dietlin, L. M. (2011). *Transformational philanthropy: Entrepreneurs and nonprofits*. Burlington, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.
- Enskog, D. (2016). Educational philanthropy a rising investment trend. *Credit Suisse Group AG.* Retrieved from https://www.credit-suisse.com/corporate/en/articles/news-andexpertise/educational-philanthropy-a-rising-investment-trend-201612.html
- Fauzia, A (2010). Philanthropy, Social Justice and Islamic Tradition, Alliance, 15(4), 31-32.
- Feuer, M. J. (2016). *The rising price of objectivity: Philanthropy, government, and the future of education research.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Hess, F. M. (Ed.). (2005). With the best of intentions: How philanthropy is reshaping K-12 education. Harvard Education Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Hess, F. M., & Henig, J. R. (2015). *The New Education Philanthropy: Politics, Policy, and Reform. Educational Innovations Series*. Harvard Education Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Johnsen, S. (2017). Social enterprise in the United Arab Emirates. *Social Enterprise Journal*, *13*(4), 392-409.
- Johnson, P., & Rahim, T. (2018). *Great expectations: The growth of institutional philanthropy in the United Arab Emirates*. Cambridge, MA: The Belfer Center for Science and International Affairs, Harvard University.
- Johnson, P. D. (2018). *Global philanthropy report: Perspectives on the global foundation sector*. Cambridge, MA: The Hauser Institute for Civil Society, Harvard University.
- KPMG. (2018). CSR in the UAE. Amstelveen, Netherlands: Author. Retrieved from

https://assets.kpmg.com/content/dam/kpmg/ae/pdf/UAEsYearofGiving-FINAL.PDF

Kramer, M. R. (2009). Catalytic philanthropy. Stanford Social Innovation Review, 7(4), 30-35.

- Kuttab, A., & Johnson, P. (2015). Better knowledge, better giving: The need for philanthropic data in the Arab Region. Retrieved from dar.aucegypt.edu
- Merisotis, J. (2014). *The leadership model of philanthropy*. Indianapolis, IN: Lumina Foundation for Education.
- *Philanthropy Age*. (2016). 2016 Arab Giving Survey. Retrieved from http://www.arabgivingsurvey.com/
- Ponce de Leon, J. (2017, February 15). Dubai Cares marks 10th anniversary. *Gulf News*. Retrieved from <u>https://gulfnews.com/news/uae/education/dubai-cares-marks-10th-anniversary-1.1979163</u>.
- Sepulveda, L. (2014). Social enterprise a new phenomenon in the field of economic and social welfare?. *Social Policy & Administration*, 49(7), 842-86.
- WAM. (2018, February 5). UAE to set up corporate social responsibility fund. Gulf News. Retrieved from https://gulfnews.com/news/uae/government/uae-to-set-upcorporate-social-responsibility-fund-1.2168982

Giving Back: Alumni as Assets for Generating Philanthropic Support for Higher Education in Bahrain

Dr. Nina Abdul Razzak Dr. Wafa Al-Mansoori

Directorate of Higher Education, Education & Training Quality Authority, Kingdom of Bahrain

Abstract

Several regional and global factors are posing various challenges for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council, including in Bahrain. These include a global financial crisis, a major shift in the economy, and an increase in the number of students entering higher education. Collectively, such factors are creating a greater need in HEIs for new sources of financial support that are less contentious than increasing the tuition fees, which are already on the rise at least in the private HEIs. One potential source could be in the form of philanthropic initiatives engaging alumni who would be willing to give back to their alma mater in a sustainable manner. However, are HEIs in Bahrain operating in ways that help them create philanthropic cultures that can result in such committed and enduring philanthropic alumni? And if not, what is needed, and which types of activities would be most effective in engaging alumni as donors in the Bahraini context?

The results of this qualitative study, were derived through an analysis of published quality assurance reports and researchers' field experiences with HEIs in Bahrain. These results indicate big steps that have yet to be taken by HEIs to create the needed philanthropic culture, as well as a need for alumni high-engagement philanthropies. The study concludes that for such philanthropies to serve as effective vehicles of change, they should support those who are most capable of innovating within their communities, rather than themselves attempting to set the agendas.

Introduction and Purpose

Several regional and global factors are posing challenges for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), including in the Kingdom of Bahrain. These factors include the global financial crisis; shifts in the economy from natural resources to knowledge and technology; and increases in the number of students entering higher education. Collectively, these factors and numerous others are creating a greater need in HEIs for new sources of financial support that are less contentious than increasing the tuition fees, which are already on the rise at least in private HEIs. This is especially important, since

with the issues highlighted above, it is expected that this need for financial support will continue to grow for the foreseeable future. One such source of support, which could be significantly effective among others, is in the form of philanthropic initiatives on the part of alumni, and in particular, those who would be willing to give back to their alma mater in a consistent and long-term manner and in different forms other than monetary funding, such as through their knowledge, expertise, and connections (Phills, 2008).

Although alumni philanthropic activities would mainly originate from private foundations, such activities could also come from individual donations. A private foundation is "an independent legal entity set up for solely charitable purposes ..." and its funding typically comes from a single individual, family, or corporation (Foundation Source, 2017, para.1). Although private foundations typically make grants, and do not focus on running their own programs (i.e., non-operating foundations), they can run programs or provide services in a continuing and sustaining fashion (i.e., operating foundations). The main advantages of a private foundation are control and flexibility: (1) control, in that it is legally independent and exclusively controlled by its own donors; it has the final say in how its assets are invested and spent; (2) flexibility, in that it can bring about change in many ways; for example, through making grants, awarding scholarships, giving funds directly to individuals, and making program-related investments (Foundation Source, 2017). Regardless of whether the alumni support will be from non-operating or operating foundations or even from individual contributions, the question is this: Are HEIs in Bahrain operating in ways that help them create philanthropic cultures that could result in committed and enduring alumni as donors? And if not, what is needed on the part of HEIs themselves and what forms of alumni philanthropy would be most effective in the Bahraini context? These questions guided our research inquiry, which relied on an examination of HEIs in Bahrain, a literature review on philanthropy in higher education, and an analysis of Quality Assurance (QA) reports and field experiences. This study concluded that HEIs in Bahrain are still falling short of creating such philanthropic cultures, which limits the impact alumni could have in supporting their institutions financially and in other scholarly and professional ways.

Background of the Study

Current Landscape of HEIs

Of the 14 HEIs in Bahrain, only one regional university (the Arabian Gulf University) is not subject to QA reviews carried out by the Directorate of Higher Education Reviews (DHR) of the Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority (BQA). The rest all undergo two main types of highly-structured review processes: program and institutional reviews, with follow-up evaluative visits conducted for cases falling short of successfully meeting BQA standards (Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority [BQA], 2018a). To date, all of these HEIs'

programs have been reviewed. Part of the emphasis during these reviews consists of an evaluation of graduates' standards, employability, work destinations, and satisfaction toward their HEI experience (Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority, 2014). The reviews result in published reports that record evidence-based findings about the programs or institutions reviewed.

Of these 13 HEIs, two are public (among them is the main public institution the University of Bahrain), and they have the largest student intake. The remaining HEIs are all private and almost all suffer from a serious shortage of students, which usually results in an increase in student fees in order to make up for the limited revenue from tuition. For the public HEIs whose student fees are merely symbolic, the relatively large student intake is starting to result in some noticeable cuts in resources and services with the current economic and financial crisis. Clearly, such cuts can negatively impact stakeholders' experiences, especially for the faculty and students.

Given this situation, new sources of financial support, such as philanthropies, are needed. This is what prompted the researchers of this study to (1) explore the ingredients necessary for the creation of philanthropic cultures within HEIs in general and (2) inspect the operations of HEIs in Bahrain and their relationships with their alumni specifically to deduce what could be the types of activities that would be most effective in engaging alumni as donors in such contexts and to understand how such relationships affect current policies and procedures.

Literature Review

In developing countries, there are many private activities supporting education, but these activities lack cohesiveness and a strong strategic connection to the larger education policy agendas (van Fleet, 2012). Additionally, due to lack of proper management and monitoring, there is a lack of transparency of the data related to such activities (van Fleet, 2012). For this reason, most of the evidence on philanthropic cultures is from the developed countries where loyal and sustaining alumni have traditionally been the greatest philanthropic reserve of HEIs and have been "the heart and soul of the most remarkable philanthropic cultures" ever created (Langley, 2014, para.8). The relationship between philanthropy and education is complex and creating philanthropic cultures within HEIs requires fostering three main elements: *appreciation, affiliation*, and *agency* (Langley, 2014).

In terms of *appreciation*, enhanced quality of learning experiences offered by HEIs help produce appreciative graduates who feel that the value of their education greatly exceeded the price of tuition so they are willing to give back to the institutions that gave them so much. As for *affiliation*, outreach initiatives/programs can facilitate communication, relationships, and

even partnerships with alumni. They can go beyond asking them for donations by providing them, for example, with opportunities to continue to learn from and with exceptional faculty members and talented peers, strengthening alumni affiliation to their HEIs and boosting their philanthropic spirit towards them. Similarly, in terms of *agency*, HEI programs/initiatives that help create a better world or have a powerful impact on one's community, such as serving the environment or finding a cure for a certain disease, also boost alumni's philanthropic activities since alumni feel that they are not just giving to their university but "also *through* it to create a better world" (Langley, 2014, para.16).

However, a word of caution is needed here with respect to the limits and dangers of philanthropy in education. As Fox (2017) explains, there is a danger of philanthropic parties beginning to assume that they know what people and/or institutions should want, rather than allowing them to reason on their own what best works for them. This could lead to centralized planning from the side of the philanthropic foundations in ways that impact the operations of these institutions apart from their missions and more towards a foundation's own agenda. Many times and for various reasons, these foundations start focusing on picking winners and losers in terms of departments or programs rather than concentrating on pushing and backing up the right ideas. With this in mind, this study set out to investigate the extent to which HEIs in Bahrain are fostering the three main elements: *appreciation, affiliation*, and *agency, which are* essential for the creation of philanthropic cultures within them, and to make recommendations related to policies and procedures needed for well-managed, effective, and diversified alumni donors.

Methods and Materials

This qualitative study was launched in December 2017, primarily using analyses of BQA/DHR reports, which are published on the official BQA website, and the researchers' knowledge from many years of field experiences with HEIs in Bahrain during the data collection. These analyses focused on the operations, practices, and relationships of HEIs over time, especially with respect to their alumni. The advantage of using the BQA reports is that they are rich in evidence-based data, thus enhancing their credibility and reliability. From their analysis, three main themes emerged, which are described below:

- HEI's Quality of Education: The extent to which HEI programs are meeting QA standards and graduating students with the needed knowledge and skills
- Nature of Relationships with Alumni: The types of links that continue to exist between HEIs and their students after graduation and the HEIs' approaches towards these relationships

Labor Market Research: The type of labor market scoping undertaken by HEIs to identify market needs in terms of graduates' employability skills, thus gearing HEIs' programs toward their fulfillment

Field experiences are advantageous because they yield a great depth of understanding and are more valid than surveys or experiments (Babbie, 2013). This is despite (1) the limitation of reactivity that is always linked to qualitative field research (Babbie, 2011) which, in this context, refers to the possibility of interviewees having responded differently than usual during BQA reviews just because they knew they were being interviewed and despite (2) the challenge of replication of the field research by others. From the analysis of field experiences, the following two themes emerged:

- HEIs' Outcomes and Labor Market Needs: The amount of fit between HEI graduates and actual needs in the labor market and
- Real Contributions to the Community: The extent to which HEIs are adding something of real or great value to the community.

Research Findings

BQA Review Report

➢ HEIs' Quality of Education

Since 2009, a total of 102 BQA program review reports have been published and more than 70% of the programs have met BQA standards. There is, thus, a level of trust in the quality and standards of their graduates. However, with respect to the remaining programs, the reviews have raised some concern about their ability to graduate individuals with the needed employability skills and knowledge (Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority [BQA], 2018b). This has negatively impacted stakeholder, including alumni, satisfaction with these programs. This finding is consistent with other studies (Mai, 2005; Zaheer-Butt & Rehman, 2010), which show the quality of a university degree and its prospects in furthering students' careers as among the most influential predictors of stakeholders' satisfaction.

➢ Nature of Relationships with Alumni

The BQA reports show that the HEIs' approach in maintaining their relationships with their alumni is neither systematic nor effective. In general, they do not have sufficient information about their graduates, and despite some recent improvements, HEIs still tend to have sketchy and scattered information about graduates' employability and their first and current employment destinations.

In addition, alumni reported during BQA reviews that they are rarely approached by their institutions and usually it is primarily for completing a survey of some sort. A review of the literature shows that rare and weak relationships between HEIs and their alumni are common worldwide and are not unique to Bahrain (Levine, 2009; Rattanamethawong, Sinthupinyo, & Chandrachai, 2018). This is despite the fact that, as Khanfar, Swaidan, and Mujtaba (2009) explain, "The need for HEIs to proactively create a healthy relationship with their alumni cannot be overemphasized" (p. 15) and despite research that has found alumni to be interested in staying connected to their universities mainly through mail, attendance of events, and participation in an advisory capacity for their major (Root, Taylor, Rose, & Lauderdale, 2017).

In relation to this, it was noted from review reports that most HEIs in Bahrain have recently engaged alumni in a number of program advisory boards. However, this has been found to be insufficient, as nearly all of these boards include only a single alumni member in them and meet only twice a year. Additionally, even though some alumni in Bahrain have reported that they continue to maintain a strong relationship with some individual faculty members, it appears that HEIs do not build on these relationships in more systematic ways.

Labor Market Research

A constituent theme in almost all review reports has been the absence of formal or scientific mechanisms in HEIs for scoping the labor market needs and the poor matching of program outcomes with the needs of employers. This applies even in the case of programs that met the BQA's standards and has been echoed in the BQA's annual reports (BQA, 2018a). The HEIs, therefore, also do not conduct formal studies on long-term changes needed at the level of the programs they offer. By not conducting such studies, the quality of some of these programs in terms of relevance and currency could be compromised and could consequently negatively impact the value that graduates and employers attach to such programs. This is a serious consideration, especially since the cooperation between HEIs and employers in relation to curriculum design and development is minimal in most cases. Were it higher, it could help improve the matching of graduates to existing and future jobs (Bartlett, Uvalic, Durazzi, Monastiriotis, & Sene, 2016), and thus would increase stakeholders' satisfaction and appreciation.

Field Experiences

➢ HEIs' Outcomes and Labor Market Needs

The 2005 national education reform project in the Kingdom was initiated due to, amongst other reasons, complaints by the labor market that the outcomes of HEI programs did not always match its needs, which resulted in having both unsatisfied employers and graduates. In addition, until now, the latest data provided by the Labour Market Regulatory Authority (2017) still indicates a rise in the employability of non-Bahrainis and a decline for Bahrainis.

This mismatch between the HEIs' output and labor market needs is not unique to Bahrain, as the study of Assaad, Krafft, and Salehi-Isfahani (2018) shows a parallel situation exists in other countries of the region such as in Egypt and Jordan. From many years of the researchers' experiences in the field, observations suggest that this is partly due to the traditional nature of programs offered by HEIs in general and their lack of agility to adapt to market needs.

Real Contributions to the Community

There is evidence in a few HEIs of some attempts to establish initiatives and programs that are customized to add real value to the community, impacting society positively by effectively responding to or raising awareness of existing issues and challenges related to social changes, economic shifts, climate, the environment, etc. Nevertheless, these attempts usually fail to pass their initial stage of development and do not materialize mainly due to intermittent funding, thus ending in inadequate contributions.

Because the human resources needed for these initiatives are clearly available and capable of innovation, they could benefit from other sources of funding that are more consistent and sustainable. Philanthropic support in this case would be beneficial not just to the HEIs themselves but also for the larger community to whom the HEIs' initiatives aim to add real value. Such philanthropy is viewed as being the most effective. As explained by Janet Hirst, the Chief Executive Officer of the Ian Potter Foundation, "Philanthropy works at its best when it seeks out and provides support to those who are best placed to innovate within their communities. Philanthropy is less effective as a vehicle for change when it is attempting to set the agenda" (Anderson, 2018, p. 14). The philanthropic support in this case does not have to be restricted only to funding but could also take the form of venture philanthropy, or "high-engagement philanthropy" as it has also been called, referring to donors helping the

organization/beneficiary not only through money, but also through their knowledge, expertise, and connections. This type of philanthropy has proven to be effective in helping organizations succeed (Phills, 2008).

Discussion & Recommendations

Research studies present the ingredients necessary for the creation of philanthropic cultures within HEIs as *appreciation*, *affiliation*, and *agency*. Specifically, graduates' willingness and motivation to give back to their alma mater become stronger when they feel that the value of their education and learning experiences outweighed the cost of tuition, they are continuously provided with opportunities to learn from and with members of their HEI community, and they see that their HEI is making great contributions to the environment and/or society.

With respect to Bahrain, this study's results show that HEIs are falling short of fostering these three key components. Cause for concern stems from the ability of HEIs to graduate individuals with the expected knowledge and skills and a lack of formal scientific mechanisms to conduct labor market research through which their programs could be kept current and relevant, which results in unsatisfied employers and graduates. This, consequently, can clearly and adversely impact alumni's feelings of *appreciation* toward the education they received and the institution that provided that education.

In addition, HEIs in Bahrain do not systematically nor effectively follow up with their alumni and fail to build on the good relations some of them have with individual faculty members. This reduces the chances of alumni having a strong *affiliation* with their HEIs. Finally, with HEIs' limited initiatives to add real value to the community, the element of *agency*, just like *appreciation* and *affiliation*, is far from being fostered, clearly reducing the chances of alumni's philanthropic spirit being boosted.

Based on the discussion above, the researchers recommend that HEIs in Bahrain should among other things:

- Maintain better links with their graduates by reaching out to them and by developing formal alumni associations where alumni can meet regularly and have fruitful conversations with their HEIs, which would help establish their sense of belonging and have them advocate for those HEIs.
- Increase the representation and strengthen the roles of alumni on program advisory boards and increase the annual number of meetings of such boards.

- Take advantage of and build more systematically strong relationships between alumni and individual faculty members.
- Regularly celebrate their successful alumni who have secured high posts in the Kingdom, to make them feel appreciated by their alma mater and proud, so that alumni might be willing to give back in different forms.
- Keep detailed information about their graduates, such as their employment history, to be able to better contextualize the graduates which could help HEIs develop programs that would attract and maintain their alumni relationships. Examples include offering PD training or academic programs offered by HEIs that would reflect the needs of their alumni.
- Keep detailed information about their graduates, such as their work destinations and employment history, to be able to better match areas in need of support within the institution with proven strengths in some of its successful graduates. Examples here include: identifying capacity building needs of HEI staff on the one hand with professional development training that could be provided by some alumni on the other hand; or matching academic programs in the HEI that are in need of being promoted with successful alumni from those programs, to have them help in improve those programs' image and student recruitment, etc.
- Formally assess the labor market and make program revisions accordingly to produce graduates with the skills that are in demand.
- Adopt policies that support and encourage greater cooperative activity with employers in relation to curriculum design and development to improve the matching of graduates to existing and future jobs.
- Improve the quality of their offerings by fully addressing the recommendations of BQA reviews.
- Seek philanthropic support for initiatives that desire to make real contributions to the community by raising awareness about such initiatives, their importance, and the difference they could make.

Although these recommendations are important, it is necessary to keep in mind the limitations and dangers of philanthropy in education, as mentioned earlier in the literature review, and which tend to manifest themselves in a type of centralized planning from the side of the philanthropic foundations in ways that serve their own agendas and interests. In light of this, it is crucial that the work of alumni philanthropies in Bahrain be managed and regulated by appropriate policies and robust systems of procedures so that such philanthropies would be held accountable for diversifying their revenue streams and appropriating their funds.

Concluding Remarks

This research study set out to investigate HEIs' operations in Bahrain in terms of creating philanthropic cultures that would result in committed and enduring philanthropic alumni. The

study's results showed that HEIs are still falling short of fostering the ingredients necessary for such cultures, which are *appreciation*, *affiliation*, and *agency*. As a result, recommendations are made for HEIs through which, if acted upon, the seeds for the creation of a philanthropic culture will be planted.

Bahrain as a small country has a considerable number of HEIs with a good potential pool of human capital in them, from competent and experienced academic to administrative staff members. These institutions have already graduated a generation of successful alumni who have reached high positions in the public and private sectors. It is therefore only logical that any activities to engage alumni as donors should target those who played a part in graduating such successful alumni and who are most capable of innovation in these HEIs. It should also allow those individuals to lead the innovation, set their agendas, and support their innovative endeavors in the process, rather than centralizing planning and possibly swaying the institutions' missions to serve donors' own interests.

This will ensure that alumni donors can be an effective vehicle for positive change, especially when alumni are provided with opportunities to be highly-engaged in benefiting others while also learning from and with them, instead of only playing a money-granting role. An interesting area of future research could be an investigation into the different roles that alumni donors in Bahrain could possibly engage in to generate the greatest results for their alma mater and society. Another area is related to the policies needed at the institutional level to manage and lead related initiatives, which effectively regulate these funds in ways that ensure adherence to the institution's mission rather than focusing only on serving the agendas of donors.

References

- Anderson, M. (2018). Maximising the impact of philanthropy in education. *Research Developments*, 25(4). Retrieved from <u>https://research.acer.edu.au/resdev/vol25/iss25/4</u>
- Assaad, R., Krafft, C., & Salehi-Isfahani, D. (2018). Does the type of higher education affect labor market outcomes? Evidence from Egypt and Jordan. *Higher Education*, 75(6), 945-995. Retrieved from <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-017-0179-0</u>
- Babbie, E.R. (2011). *The basics of social research*. Wadsworth, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Babbie, E.R. (2013). *The practice of social research*. Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority (2014). *Programs-within-college reviews* handbook. Manama, Kingdom of Bahrain: Directorate of Higher Education Reviews.
- Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority. (2018a). Annual reports. Retrieved from http://www.bqa.gov.bh/En/Publications/Pages/AnnualReports.aspx
- Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority. (2018b). Review reports. Retrieved from <u>http://www.bqa.gov.bh/En/Reports/Pages/default.aspx</u>
- Bartlett, W., Uvalic, M., Durazzi, N., Monastiriotis, V., & Sene, T. (2016). From university to employment: Higher education provision and labour market needs in the Western Balkans (Synthesis Report). Brussels, Belgium: European Commission Directorate General for Education and Culture. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/education/sites/education/files/2016-higher-education-labourmarket-balkans_en.pdf
- Foundation Source. (2017). What is a private foundation? Retrieved from <u>https://www.foundationsource.com/learn-about-foundations/what-is-a-private-foundation/</u>
- Fox, J.R. (2017, December). The importance of philanthropy to education. *Philanthropy NYU*. Retrieved from http://www.philanthropynyu.com/pollssueStory.cfm?doc_id=253

- Khanfar, N.M., Swaidan, Z., & Mujtaba, B.G. (2009). A study in relationship orientation and prioritization of alumni association preferences with college seniors in higher education. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 2(3), 15-22.
- Labour Market Regulatory Authority. (2017, Second Quarter). Bahrain labour market indicators. *Newsletter of Labor Market Regulatory Authority*. <u>Retrieved from</u> <u>http://lmra.bh/portal/files/cms/shared/file/Newsletter/Newsletter%20Q2_2017(En).pdf</u>
- Langley, J.M. (2014, July/August). Cultivating a culture of philanthropy: New approaches to new realities. *Trusteeship*. <u>Retrieved from</u> <u>https://www.agb.org/trusteeship/2014/7/cultivating-culture-philanthropy-new-approaches-new-realities</u>
- Levine, W. (2009). Communications and alumni relations: What is the correlation between an institution's communications vehicles and alumni annual giving? *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 8 (3-4), 176-197. https://www.doi.org/10.1057/ijea.2009.2
- Mai, L. (2005). A comparative study between UK and US: The student satisfaction in higher education and its influential factors. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 21, 859-878.
- Phills, J.A. (2008, October). How is the new philanthropy different? (Interview conducted by Ben Mattison and published by Yale School of Management). *Yale Insights*. Retrieved from <u>https://insights.som.yale.edu/insights/how-is-the-new-philanthropy-different</u>
- Rattanamethawong, N., Sinthupinyo, S., & Chandrachai, A. (2018). An innovation model of alumni relationship management: Alumni segmentation analysis. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, 39, 150-160. Retrieved from <u>http://www.elsevier.com/locate/kjss</u>
- Root, T., Taylor, E. Rose, K., & Lauderdale, W.J. (2017). Communication and contribution preferences: An investigation of millennial alumni. *Journal of Education Advancement* & *Marketing*, 2(2), 135-143.
- van Fleet, J.W. (2012). *Private philanthropy and social investments in support of education for all* (Report No. 2012/ED/EFA/MRT/PI/16). Retrieved from <u>http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002179/217920e.pdf</u>
- Zaheer-Butt, B., & Rehman, K. (2010). A study examining the students' satisfaction in higher education. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 5446-5450. Retrieved from

https://ac.els-cdn.com/S1877042810009286/1-s2.0-S1877042810009286main.pdf?_tid=f3900ff9-59cd-46dc-8485c34846921a45&acdnat=1530379789_86dca28b13ca31208033c2a9ad090974 جامعة الشركات: مدخل لتطوير الشراكة بين الجامعة والمجتمع

"رؤية مقترحة"

د. عزام عبد النبي أحمد قسم الأصول والإدارة التربوية كلية التربية – جامعة السلطان قابوس

المقدمة

يعد التعليم -بصفة عامة- والتعليم الجامعي -بصفة خاصة- وسيلة الدول لإعداد القوى البشرية القادرة على تحقيق النهضة الاقتصادية؛ حيث لم تعد قضية الإنتاج هي قضية أعداد وإنما قضية نوعية، فلابد من إعداد الخريجين من خلال نظام تعليمي يربط بين المناهج الدراسية وآليات واحتياجات سوق العمل، حيث تسعى دول العالم - النامي منها والمتقدم - إلى تحقيق أهدافها التنموية؛ والتي تتمثل في توفير معدلات مناسبة للنمو الاقتصادي، وتقديم خدمات أفضل في النواحي الصحية والتعليمية والاجتماعية وغيرها، وتلعب الجامعة دورًا هامًا في تحريك عملية التنمية؛ حيث تعد مسئولة عن إعداد وثيقًا مؤسسات الإنتاج والخيماعية وغيرها، وتلعب الجامعة دورًا هامًا في تحريك عملية التنمية؛ حيث تعد مسئولة عن إعداد وثيقًا مؤسسات الإنتاج والخدمات في المجتمع؛ حيث أن الجامعة لم تعد قادرة على مواجهة التحديات في هذا العصر وثيقًا بمؤسسات الإنتاج والخدمات في المجتمع؛ حيث أن الجامعة لم تعد قادرة على مواجهة التحديات في هذا العصر وثيقًا بمؤسسات الإنتاج والخدمات في المجتمع؛ حيث أن الجامعة لم تعد قادرة على مواجهة التحديات في هذا العصر بمفر دها دون مشاركة مؤسسات المجتمع المختلفة، كما إنها هي التي تكشف عن مشكلات المجتمع وتحاول أن تصنع الحلول لها، ومن ثم أصبح من الضروري توثيق العلاقة بين التعليم الجامعي وعالم العمل، وذلك بتدعيم الشراكة بين الحلول لها، ومن ثم أصبح من الضروري توثيق العلاقة بين التعليم الجامعي وعالم العمل، وذلك بتدعيم الشراكة بين ومتغيرات سوق العمل في الحاضر والمستقبل.

مشكلة الدراسة

في إطار عمليات التنمية الشاملة بدأت العديد من الدول النامية البحث عن آليات جديدة فعالة لمواجهة الأوضاع الاقتصادية الناتجة عن تطبيق سياسات الإصلاح الاقتصادي، ومواجهة سياسات السوق المفتوح التي تنتهجها معظم دول العالم الآن، كما أن قطاعات الأعمال تحتاج إلى توافر عمالة مدربة، بالإضافة إلى ارتفاع نسب البطالة وخاصة بين خريجي الجامعة وصعوبة الحصول على فرص عمل مناسبة، وكذلك صعوبة الحصول على التمويل اللازم لهذه المؤسسات؛ مما فرض على الجامعة البحث عن آليات تساعد في خلق فرص عمل جديدة، ودفع الاقتصاد وتنشيط عمليات نقل التكنولوجيا من خلال شراكة حقيقية بينها وبين المؤسسات المجتمعية(الإنتاجية والخدمية)، وكانت في مقدمة هذه البدائل أو الآليات - التي تقوم على الربط بين الجامعة بمؤسساتها المختلفة وقطاع الأعمال والإنتاج والخدمية)، وكانت في مقدمة هذه البدائل أو التكنولوجية، والجامعة المنتجة، ومراكز التميز، وتعتبر هذه الأليات من الحكنول العدمات علي المركات، والحاضات التكنولوجية، والجامعة المنتجة، ومراكز التميز، وتعتبر هذه الأليات من الحامية المولية التي قامت العدين من الدول

وتواجه الجامعات العديد من المشكلات والتحديات التي تعوق تحقيقها لأهدافها، والقيام بوظائفها كما هو متوقع منها ؛ ومن أهمها: نقص التمويل اللازم للجامعة للقيام بأدوارها كما يتوقع المجتمع منها، بالإضافة إلى انفصال البحث العلمي عن احتياجات المجتمع ومشكلاته، وضعف مستوى خريجيها وإعدادهم وفقًا لاحتياجات سوق العمل ومتطلبات العصر، مما يؤكد ضرورة البحث عن سبل لمواجهة هذه المشكلات، وتأتي الشراكة بين الجامعة ومؤسسات المجتمع في مقدمة الطرق التي تساعد على مواجهة هذه المشكلات، والتكيف مع متغيرات العصر و احتياجات سوق العمل ومتطلباته. **وفي ضوء ذلك تتلخص مشكلة الدراسة في السؤال الرئيس التالي:**

كيف يمكن تفعيل الشراكة بين الجامعة والمجتمع في ضوء التوجه نحو جامعة الشركات؟ ويتفرع من السوّال الرئيس الأسئلة الفرعية التالية:

- ما المقصود بالشراكة بين المؤسسات من حيث مفهوما و أهدافها، وأهميتها ؟
 - ما المقصود بجامعة الشركات ؟ومجالات الاستفادة منها؟
- ما الرؤية المقترحة لتفعيل الشراكة بين الجامعة والمجتمع في ضوء جامعة الشركات ؟

الأهداف

تسعى الدراسة التعرف على:

- ماهية الشراكة من حيث مفهومها وأهدافها، وأهميتها .
 - جامعة الشركات ومجالات الاستفادة منها.
- وضع رؤية مقترحة لتفعيل الشراكة بين الجامعة والمجتمع .

الأهمية

تكمن أهمية الدر اسة في:

- أنها تتماشي مع الاتجاه المحلي والعالمي الذي ينادي بالشراكة بين مختلف القطاعات في الدول وبين الدول وبعضها البعض.
- أنها تلقي الضوء على أحد السبل التي تساعد الجامعات في التغلب على مشكلاتها، بما يمكنها من إحداث التطوير والتحديث الذي يواكب مستجدات العصر ومتغيراته.
- أنها تزود صانعي القرار والسياسات ببعض الأليات التي قد تسهم في تفعيل الشراكة بين الجامعة ومؤسسات المجتمع، وإحداث التعاون والتكامل بينهما، بما يحقق أهداف الطرفين.

منهج الدراسة

استخدمت الدر اسة المنهج الوصفى من خلال تحليل الأدب النظري المتعلق بالشر اكة وجامعة الشركات .

الإطار النظري

ماهية الشراكة (المفهوم والأهداف والأهمية)

وسوف يتم توضيح ماهية الشراكة من خلال عرض لإشكالية المفهوم والفرق بين الشراكة و المشاركة، ثم عرض أهدافها، وأهميتها.

المفهوم

يوجد خلط كبير في استخدام مصطلحي الشراكة والمشاركة، فهناك من يستخدم مصطلح الشراكة على أنه مشاركة وهناك من يستخدم مصطلح المشاركة على أنه شراكة؛ وفيما يلي توضيح لهذه الإشكالية من خلال عرض لمفهوم الشراكة ومفهوم المشاركة ثم الفرق بينهما.

الشراكة Partnership: يرجع أصل كلمة الشراكة في اللغة إلى كلمة (شرك) بكسر أولها وسكون ثانيها، و هي تعني النصيب فكلمة شراكة و شركًا و شركة بمعنى واحد و هي تعني أن لكل منهم نصيبًا منه، و أشركه في أمره: أدخله فيه، و الشرراكة بهذا المعنى تعني اتفاق بين اثنين أو أكثر للقيام بعمل مشترك (مجمع اللغة العربية، 1972). وجاء في القاموس المحيط أن الشراكة تعني قد اشتركا و تشاركا و شارك أحدهما الأخر وجمعها شرائك في البيع و الميراث (الفيروزي، 1977). أما من الناحية الاصطلاحية فمصطلح الشراكة طبقًا للموسوعة الأمريكية يعني اتحاد شخصين أو أكثر من أجل تنفيذ عمل ربحي، و هي أي أكثر للقيام بعمل مشترك (مجمع اللغة وجمعها شرائك في البيع و الميراث (الفيروزي، 1977). أما من الناحية الاصطلاحية فمصطلح الشراكة طبقًا للموسوعة الأمريكية يعني اتحاد شخصين أو أكثر من أجل تنفيذ عمل ربحي، و هي أيضًا نتاج اتفاقية تعاقدية بين السركان الشرركاء و معالم الموسوعة الأمريكية يعني اتحاد شخصين أو أكثر من أجل تنفيذ عمل ربحي، و هي أيضًا نتاج اتفاقية تعاقدية بين السركاء الفيروزي، 1977).

وفي ضوء كل من الأصل اللغوي والاصطلاحي فإن الشراكة تعني عقد اتفاق بين الشركاء لتحقيق أهدافهم وتحمل المكسب والخسارة سواء أكان اتفاق الشراكة مكتوبًا أم غير مكتوب. كما أن الشراكة تقوم على وجود أهداف مشتركة بين الشركاء يسعون إلى تحقيقها من خلال عقد اتفاق بينهما يعمل على التزام كل طرف بمسئولياته تجاه الطرف الأخر، من خلال القيام بالأدوار والمسئوليات التي يتم تحديدها، وبما يعمل على تجميع القدرات والموارد للشركاء، وبالتالي تعظيم الفائدة للطرفين كما يتحمل الشركاء مخاطر العمل ومسئولياته.

• **المشاركة** Participation تعرف بأنها:" الإسهامات والمبادرات للأفراد والجماعات سواء كانت مادية أو عينية وتتصف تلك الإسهامات والمبادرات بأنها تطوعية وغير إلزامية، حيث تتم بناء على دعوة أفراد المجتمع ومؤسساته للإسهام في مجال تتموي أو اجتماعي، لكن هذا لا يعني أن لإسهاماتهم هذه أي نوع من أنواع الإلزام أو أن للمساهمين حقوقاً مماثلة لحقوق الذين دعوهم للمشاركة أو أن عليهم واجبات" (رئاسة الجمهورية، 2004). وتعرف بأنها " ما يقوم به أعضاء المجتمع من أنشطة لخدمة مجتمعهم في كافة مجالاته وتعتمد سلوكياتهم على التطوعية و ما يقوم به أعضاء المجتمع من أنشطة لخدمة مجتمعهم في كافة مجالاته وتعتمد سلوكياتهم على التطوعية والالتزام وليس على الجبر والإلزام، وقد تكون هذه الأنشطة نظرية أو عملية تمارس بطرق مباشرة أو غير مباشرة" (العجمي، 2007).

وفي ضوء ما سبق فإن المشاركة عبارة عن مجموعة من الأنشطة التي تقوم بها بعض المؤسسات أو الأفراد تجاه مؤسسات أخرى بشكل تطوعي غير إلزامي بدافع المسئولية الاجتماعية تجاه هذه المؤسسات بهدف تحقيق التنمية الاجتماعية والاقتصادية للمجتمع، ومن ثم تتفق الشراكة والمشاركة في أنهما قائمتان على الإسهامات والمبادرات التطوعية، إلا أن المشاركة لا تحمل معنى الالتزام مثل الشراكة، لذا لا توجد محاسبية في المشاركة، ولكن المحاسبية تعد من أهم مقومات الشراكة.

العلاقة بين الشراكة والمشاركة

يرى ولفند Wolfended أن الشرراكة تقع في نهاية خط مستقيم مكون من أربعة أجزاء تنتهي به الشرراكة كما يوضحها الشكل التالي:



شكل رقم (2) العلاقة بين الشراكة والمشاركة (S. Wolfended, 1989)

وفي ضوء الشكل السابق فإن مشاركة أفراد المجتمع ومؤسساته تكون بشكل تطوعي دون إلزام مما يؤدي في النهاية إلى شراكة حقيقية تقوم على الإلزام وتحمل المسئولية.ومن ثم تتفق الشراكة والمشاركة في أنهما قائمتان على الإسهامات والمبادرات التطوعية، إلا أن المشاركة لا تحمل معني الالتزام مثل الشراكة، لذا لا توجد محاسبية في المشاركة، ولكن المحاسبية تعد من أهم مقومات الشراكة، كما أن الشراكة قائمة على وجود أهداف مشتركة وتحديد للأدوار والمسئوليات، وكذلك التزام كل طرف بالقيام بأدواره وتحمل مسئولياته تجاه الطرف الآخر كما أن اتفاق الشراكة يكون في متكل رسمي مكتوب.

أهداف الشراكة

تسعى الشراكة إلى تحقيق المنفعة المتبادلة للشركاء، فهي تعمل على تحقيق الأهداف المشتركة والتي تم تحديدها لإجراء الشراكة، وتكون هذه الأهداف لصالح أطراف الشراكة بما يضمن تحقيق المنفعة المتبادلة، وتختلف أهداف الشراكة بإختلاف المؤسسات، ويمكن تصنيف أهداف الشراكة في ضوء المؤسسات المستفيدة منها إلى:

أهداف الشراكة بالنسبة للمؤسسات الجامعية

بالنسبة للجامعات فإن هدفها من الشراكة مع المؤسسات الإنتاجية والخدمية يتمثل فيما يلى (Prigge, 2005):

- تعيين خريجى الجامعات المؤهلين لممارسة مختلف الأنشطة الإنتاجية.
 - تزويد الطلاب بمزيد من الخبرات العملية.
- توظيف أعضاء هيئة التدريس كخبراء ومستشارين في تلك المؤسسات.
- الحصول على الدعم المادي لتمويل مراكز البحوث المشتركة بين الجامعات والشركات.

ومن هذا المنطلق فإن الجامعة تسعى لإقامة شراكة حقيقية بينها وبين مؤسسات الإنتاج بما يضمن لها تحقيق أهدافها وبما يعود عليها بالفائدة، حيث تتوقع الجامعة من هذه الشراكة، زيادة في الموارد المالية مما يمكنها من تقديم خدمة تعليمية أفضل وفقًا لمتطلبات سوق العمل واحتياجاته، وكذلك القيام بالأبحاث العلمية التي تخدم المجتمع وتسهم في حل مشكلاته، مما يمكن الجامعة من استعادة مكانتها وقيمتها داخل المجتمع.

أهداف الشراكة بالنسبة لمؤسسات الإنتاج وقطاع الأعمال

نتزايد أعداد المؤســسـات الإنتاجية في الدخول مع المؤســسـات التعليمية بصــورة كبيرة في علاقات شــراكة وتحالفات بهدف (Lankard, 1995):

- تحسين المهارات الفنية والتقنية وكذلك الأكاديمية للقوى العاملة التي تتطلع إليها، فالمؤسسات الإنتاجية حينما تدخل في علاقة شراكة تنظر في المقام الأول لما يعود عليها أو لما يمكن أن يعود عليها من تلك الشراكة؛ مثل ما يطرأ على القدرة الإنتاجية من تحسن وما يتحقق من أرباح، حيث تقوم بعض الشراكات على تطوير برامج التعليم المهنى.
- تنمية المواد والآلات الصناعية أو المستخدمة في الصناعة وكذلك المنتجات والموارد المالية، فهذه الشراكات ترك على برامج التدريب المهني التعاوني وتزود الكليات بالآلات والمعدات والتسهيلات والتدريب العملي اللازم لطلابها مما يعود بالفائدة على قطاع التجارة في صرورة برامج علاجية وتأهيلية للموظفين ودعم إداري من قبل الكلية، إضافة إلى برامج التزويد بالخبرة التي تعتبر من اهتمامات علاقات الشراكات أيضًا.
 - التعرف على نتائج البحوث والدر اسات التي أجريت بالجامعة، والاستفادة منها في مجالات العمل والإنتاج.
 - الاستفادة من جهود الأساتذة والباحثين في وضع الحلول المناسبة للمشكلات التي تتعرض لها قطاعات العمل والإنتاج.
 - استخدام المنشآت البحثية الجامعية؛ مثل: المختبرات والمعامل والورش والمكتبات.

ومما سبق فإن الشراكة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات المجتمعية - الإنتاجية والخدمية - لها العديد من الأهداف التي تسعى لتحقيقها بما يعود بالنفع على كلا الشريكين، حيث تسعى الجامعة لتحقيق أهداف خاصة بها؛ مثل زيادة الموارد وتحسين وتطوير العملية التعليمية ورفع مستوي العملية التعليمية ككل، بينما تهدف المؤسسات المجتمعية إلى الحصول على أيدي عاملة مواكبة لسوق العمل ومزودة بالمهارات والقدرات اللازمة لمواجهة متغيرات سوق العمل، وكذلك العمل على زيادة الإنتاج والأرباح، والقدرة على المنافسة في السوق العالمية.

أهمية الشراكة

ترجع أهمية الشرراكة إلى قدرتها على تحقيق العديد من الفوائد والنتائج والتي من أهمها توسيع الموارد وتوزيع المخاطر وزيادة الكفاءة والفاعلية، وتبادل المعرفة والخبرات، وزيادة المكاسب وتحمل المسئولية.حيث **يري برازيك Barczyk** أن الشراكة تحقق ثلاثة فوائد جوهرية هي (Barczyk, 2000):

- التعاضد: القائم على افتراض أن الشراكة تحقق أكثر مما يستطيع تحقيقه كل طرف على حدة.
- التحول: ويقصد به طريقة تأثير الشركاء الرئيسيين على أهداف وقيم بعضهم بعضًا من خلال التفاوض، والتي يتم من خلالها التوصل إلى معايير الاتفاق بين أطراف الشراكة.
 - توسيع الميزانية: ويقصد بها الحصول على الموارد الإضافية نتيجة تعاون الأطراف بعضهم مع بعض.

ومن العرض السابق فإن الشراكة لها أهمية كبيرة بالنسبة للمؤسسات التي تدخل في عملية شراكة، وترجع أهميتها لقدرتها على تحقيق العديد من الفوائد لهذه المؤسسات، ومن أهمها أنها تعمل على تجميع المهارات والموارد والميزانيات للمؤسسات التي تدخل في عملية شراكة بالإضافة إلى: تشجيع الأفكار الإبداعية، والتو صل للحلول المرنة؛ مما يسهم في تعظيم الفائدة لهذه المؤسسات، وتعد الشراكة من أهم العمليات التي تسهم في النهوض بالمجتمعات وتحقيق أهدافها ، وهناك العديد من الاتجاهات العالمية التي تعمل علي توثيق العلاقة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية، وتلاتو من المحقون شراكة فدافها الاتجاهات جامعة الشركات، والحاضنات التكنولوجية، ومراكز التميز ، وللاستفادة من هذه الاتجاهات، يتناول الفصل التالي هذه الاتجاهات وكيفية الإفادة منها في إقامة شراكة ناجحة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية، وتحقيق أهدافها ، وهناك العديد من هذه الاتجاهات وكيفية الإفادة منها في إقامة شراكة ناجحة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية، وتكوين شراكة فاعلة، ومن أهم هذه هذه الاتجاهات وكيفية الإفادة منها في إقامة شراكة ناجحة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية بين الاتجاهات، يتناول الفصل التالي

جامعة الشركات Corporate University

أصبحت جامعة الشركات اليوم ضرورة في ظل الاقتصاد العالمي سريع التغير، وتميل المنظمات التي تنمو بقوة إلى أن تكون منظمات غيرت من ثقافاتها عن طريق ربط رؤيتها وأهدافها بالنمو المهني والشخصي لموظفيها وإنجاز هم، و هذه المنظمات والمعروفة بمنظمات التعلم تخلق فرصًا لموظفيها ليصبحوا متعلمين مدى الحياة، وبهذا يصبح الموظفون هم مصدر الفائدة التنافسية للمنظمة، وفي سياق النمو التكنولوجي المذهل، أخذ عمر المعرفة يتناقص، وظهرت الحاجة إلى مصدر الفائدة التنافسية للمنظمة، وفي سياق النمو التكنولوجي المذهل، أخذ عمر المعرفة يتناقص، وظهرت الحاجة إلى تدريب وتطوير أشخاص مؤهلين جدًا لهم طاقة عظيمة وفي النهاية عمل هذا على نمو جامعة الشركات ,Andreu (Andreu، في من فرص التعليم من خلال تقديم كل تدريب وتطوير أشخاص مؤهلين جدًا لهم طاقة عظيمة وفي النهاية عمل هذا على نمو جامعة الشركات , من فرص التعليم الرسمي وغير الرسمي التي تعمل على دعم النمو الشخصي وكنك النمو المهني للأفراد في المؤسسة، وذلك داخل مناخ تنظيمي إيجابي داعم يسوده الاحترام لكل من الأفراد العاملين داخل المؤسسة وخارجها، وذلك لتحقيق أهداف ماخ تنظيمي إيجابي داعم يسوده الاحترام لكل من الأفراد العاملين داخل المؤسسة وخارجها، وذلك لتحقيق أهداف المؤسسة" (Jarvis, 2001) ومن ثم فهي أداة محورية و هامة للتطوير المهني في المؤسسة، كما أنها شكل من أشكال التنافس مع ماح التقليدية، ويوجد في العالم نحو 1600 جامعة شركة، أنشئ منها 400 في غضون السنوات العشر الماضية، فقد اعترف الجامعات التقليدية، ويوجد في العالم نحو 1600 جامعة شركة، أنشئ منها 400 في غضون السنوات العشر الماضية، فقد اعترف منشاط جامعة موتور ولا *بلودي 190* مالمالامية واندرت معلمًا بين أنجح جامعات نو عها، فهي تعمل بموازنة سنوية تبلغ بنشاط جامعة موتور ولا أمريكي، وتدير 90 المية تعليمية وتدريبية في 10 بلولي، 2003). وللت مالوية تبلغ المون يتم تناوله من خلال عرض فلسفة جامعة الشركات واهدافها وأنماطها.

فلسفة وأهداف جامعات الشركات

تعتمد فلسفة جامعة الشراكات على إعداد ما يسمى بـ " منظمة التعلم " حيث تنحصر مهمة الجامعة في العمل كعامل مساعد في إحداث التغيير والتطوير المستدام لدعم أهداف العمل التجاري فهي تزود عملائها بحلول تعليمية وتدريبيه علاوة على تزويدهم بأنظمة حتى يصبحون شركاء في تطوير طبقة مثلي من القوة العاملة (Jarvis, 2001). وتهدف جامعة الشركات تشجيع النمو الشخصي المستمر للعاملين والموظفين، وإشباع الحاجات التي تولدها استر اتيجيات العمل داخل إطار من ثقافة العمل التي تلتزم بالمعرفة؛ويري البعض أنها تسعى إلى تحقيق أهداف ثلاثة؛ هي (Frazee, 2002):

- تقديم نموذج فعال للتعليم: لقد تعلم معظمنا في موقف جماعي بالمدرسة، وفي داخلنا النزعة نحو المزيد والمزيد من التعليم المستمر مدى الحياة، ومما لاشك فيه أن جامعة الشركات تخلق لدينا التحدي نحو استكمال التعليم والتنمية الذاتية للفرد.
- توفير فرص تعليم متكافئة: أن أفضل ثمار جامعة الشركات تتجلى في توفير فرص للتعليم متكافئة، وكذلك فرص عمل متكافئة في ظل متطلبات سوق العمل.
- المساعدة على نمو كوادر جيدة في سوق العمل: مما لاشك فيه أن تزايد الحاجة نحو كوادر أكفاء خاصة في ظل عصر المعلوماتية والثورة التكنولوجية التي نحياها،وتكمن الصعوبة في كيفية إعداد هذه الكوادر وفي ظل جامعة الشركات يتم مراعاة الفروق الفردية في التعلم بين الأفراد ومن ثم استخدام أفضل الأساليب لتنمية القدرات والمهارات المختلفة اللازمة لمواجهة سوق العمل.

ونتيجة لما سبق فإن فلسفة وأهداف جامعة الشركات تعتمد على تكوين منظمة التعلم التي تعمل على رفع مستوي العاملين والأفراد الملتحقين بها من خلال تزويدهم بكل ما هو جديد في مجالات العمل المختلفة، ومن ثم فهي تعمل على إمداد مؤسسات الإنتاج بالقوى البشرية المؤهلة التي تساعدها على تحقيق الريادة والسبق في مجال عملها، مما يسهم في زيادة مواردها.

أنماط جامعة الشركات

وقد تم تصنيف جامعة الشركات إلى ثلاث مجموعات (Anony , M. , 2005):

- مدارس: تتصرف كمصدر لنشر المعرفة ومستجيب للاستر اتيجية وخدمة الأفراد بزيادة البرامج التدريبية.
 - كليات: تتصرف كمعيد لتوزيع للمعرفة تخدم المؤسسة من خلال تحديد الأهداف التنظيمية مع كفايات الأفراد.
- أكاديميات: تتصرف كموجه لتجديد المعرفة التي تعيد تنمية نقل المعرفة والتبادل، و تخدم كلا من المؤسسة والأفراد من خلال تكوين وإدراك الاستراتيجية.

وكل جامعة تكون فريدة ملائمة للشركة والأفراد الموجودين بداخلها, لهذا لا توجد جامعة مثالية ولا يوجد نموذج يمكن أن تقوم المؤسسة بتقليده، ويعد هذا التنوع في أنماط جامعة الشركات ليتيح الفرصة للمؤسسات الإنتاجية والشركات لتتبني النمط الذي يتلائم واحتياجاتها، وذلك وفقًا لقدراتها وإمكاناتها.

ويوجد العديد من نماذج جامعات الشركات في العديد من دول العالم، وذلك كاتجاه عالمي منتشر يسهم في تحقيق الشراكة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية، ويساعد في تحقيق أهداف كل طرف ويعود على كلا الطرفين بالعديد من المميزات والفوائد؛ **وفيما يلي عرض لهذه النماذج كأحد النماذج التطبيقية.**

جامعة هامبورجر Hamburger University

تعتبر جامعة هامبورجر مركز للتدريب الإداري لشركة ماكدونالد، فقد تم تصميمها من أجل تعليم الأفراد العاملين داخل شركة ماكدونالدز أو يتم توظيفهم من خلال نظام مستقل في المجالات المختلفة للعمل التجاري، فمطاعم ماكدونالد تقوم كل عام بتدريب أفراد أكثر من جيش الولايات المتحدة، كما يتم فيها عمل دورات تدريبية لإعداد المدربين الذين سيقومون بالتدريب، حيث يعتبر ذلك جزءًا من تكوين البنية الداخلية للشركة وأساس ثقافة الشركة.

وفي عام 1993م قامت ماكدونالدز باستثمار 40 مليون دولار في جامعة هامبورجر وتم القيام بإنشاء حرم جامعي على مساحة130.000 قدم مربع يقع في مكاتب شركة ماكدونالد في أوك بروك Oak Brook ؛ ويتضمن هذا الحرم ما يلي (Valhalla, 2008): 13 حجرة للدراسة، قاعات للاستماع /للاجتماع تتكون من 300 مقعد.، 12 حجرة لفرق التعلم التفاعلي، 3 معامل للمطبخ، معامل التدريب على الخدمة. (McDonald's, 2018c)

ويوجد اليوم في الولايات المتحدة 22 فريق للتدريب الإقليمي، بالإضافة إلى حرم جامعي لجامعة هامبورجر في سيدنى ومونيتش ولندن وطوكيو وهونج كونج والبرازيل، و يتم فيها تطبيق مداخل التعلم العالمية لجامعة هامبورجر، مما يسمح بتكامل المواد التدريبية والأدوات في لغات وثقافات مختلفة (McDonald's, 2018a).

وترجع نشأة جامعة هامبورجر إلى عام 1961م؛ حيث قام كل من فريد تورنر Frid Torner رئيس شركة ماكدونالد السابق وراى كروك Ray Crok بتأسيس جامعة هامبورجر على أساس مطعم ماكدونالد فى قرية إليك جروف بإلينونز Elic Grofe in Illinois. وفي 24 فبراير 1961 قامت الجامعة بتخريج أول فصل من 14 طالب، واليوم تقوم الجامعة بتخريج أكثر من 5000 طالب قاموا بالالتحاق بالجامعة (Valhalla, 2008)، ومنذ عام 1961 قامت الجامعة بتخريج أكثر من 80.000 مدير مطعم ومدير في الإدارة الوسطى ومالك و عاملين، ومنذ عام 1961م كانت جامعة هامبورجر أول جامعة شركات، وتبلغ مساحة الحرم الجامعي لماكدونالد 80 فدان في أوك بروك بضاحية شيكاغو، ويلتحق حوالي 5800 طالب بالكلية كل عام، ويمكن أن تقوم بتخريج ما يزيد عن70.000 طالب، وبالإضافة إلى المركز الرئيس توجد فروع أخري للجامعة بإنجلترا واليابان وألمانيا واستر اليا

.(McDonald's, 2018c)

أهدافها وفلسفتها

تسعى جامعة هامبورجر إلى تكوين قوى عاملة مدربة على أعلى مستوي تحقق لها أعلي إنتاجية وتسهم في إكسابها الشهرة العالمية والتميز في مجالها، فقد تم تصميمها من أجل تعليم الأفراد العاملين داخل شركة ماكدونالدز، وتتحدد رسالة جامعة هامبورجر في "أن نكون أفضل من يقوم بتنمية الأفراد مع تحقيق التزامهم بالجودة، والخدمة والنظافة والقيمة فى العالم". فالتزامها بتدريب أفرادها وتنميتهم أدى إلى أن: تصبح أول شركة مطاعم تقوم بتنمية مركز تدريب عالمى، أول مركز فعال لله (QSR) التي تلقت حاليًا توصيات اعتماد الكلية من المجلس الأمريكي القومي (ACE) فتعتبر الولايات المتحدة هي أقدم هيئة والأكثر ملائمة للتعليم العالي، الشهرة المستمرة بالامتياز في التدريب. (McDonald's, 2018a).

البرامج الدراسية

يكون البرنامج شاملًا من خلال وضع الأساس الكامل لتكوين وظيفة ذات قوة عالية. يعتبر ماكدونالد مؤسسة المطاعم الوحيدة التي حصلت على توصيات اعتماد ككلية من المجلس الأمريكي للتعليم وتقوم جامعة هامبورجر بتقديم برامج دراسية في أربعة مستويات؛ هي (McDonald's, 2018b).

برنامج مديري المطاعم

مديرين المطعم يقومون بتنمية طريقهم من خلال كورسات الإدارة بالمناوبة وإدارة النظم. ومتى تم الانتهاء من هذا البرنامج يذهب المديرين إلى جامعة هامبورجر؛ حيث يتعلم فيها المديرون مهارات ومعارف إضافية يحتاجونها من أجل إدارة مطاعم تدر دخلًا يقدر بملايين الدولارات.

برنامج مديري الإدارة الوسطى

مسارات تعلم الإدارة المتوسطة في جامعة هامبورجر تكون لاستشارات العمل التجاري ورؤساء الأقسام. فهي تقوم على مهاراتهم القيادية والاستشارية وتدرس للأفراد كيف يعملون بفاعلية في العمل التجاري وكيفية التدريب والاستشارة مع

الأخرين لإدارة المطاعم الكبيرة.

برنامج العاملين

يتم تنمية منهج العاملين وتدعيمه بواســطة العاملين في جامعة هامبورجر ، ويتم تنمية العمل من خلال المطعم. ويكون ذلك بالنسبة للعاملين أساس للإدارة وتدعيم المسار الوظيفي للعاملين.

برنامج التنفيذيين

تساعد مسارات تعلم التنفيذيين على تدعيم العمل التجاري الحالي ومهارات القيادة للإدارة العليا. ويكون البرنامج متاحًا في جامعة هامبورجر لبناء مهارات الكفايات القيادية التي توجد حاجة إليها من أجل تدعيم العاملين والمالكين / العاملين ونمو المبيعات.

برنامج الدرجة الجامعية

يعتبر المجلس الأمريكي للتعليم (ACE) الهيئة الماذحة للاعتماد في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية حيث قامت هذه الهيئة ب بالتعرف على جامعة هامبورجر والبرامج التي تقدمها؛ حيث تقدم للأفراد والشركة منهجًا للتدريب على مستوى عال، وقد وافقت الهيئة على أن يتم اعتماد طلاب جامعة هامبورجر للحصول على درجة جامعية من خلال البرنامج الخاص بعملهم. فقد أوصى المجلس الأمريكي للتعليم بنسبة 100% من البرنامج الخاص بمديري المطاعم ومديري الإدارة الوسطي للاعتماد بالكليات- بإجمالي 46 اعتمادًا، هذا يعني أن تدريب ماكدوناك للمديرين معروف الآن كبرنامج يعمل عند مستوى الجامعة ويؤهل للحصول على الاعتماد التي يمكن أن تنتقل إلى الكليات والجامعات (الخاصة والحكومية) ويتم تطبيقها المحصول على درجة لمدة 2 أو 4 سنوات، وتعتمد الجامعة في تقديم برامجها على الشراكة بينها وبين كليات وجامعات المجلس الأمريكي.

الفئة المستهدفة

تقدم جامعة هامبورجر البرامج الدراسية لجميع العاملين في شركة ماكدونالدز في مختلف المستويات الإدارية، حيث أن قد تم تصميم جامعة هامبورجر من أجل تعليم الأفراد العاملين داخل شركة ماكدونالدز، و منذ 1961 لقد ازداد معدل الحضور بالفصول من متوسط 10 طلاب إلى ما يزيد عن 200 طالب كل أسبوع وما يزيد عن 5000 في العام في برامج جامعة هامبورجر وأنشطة التعلم، حيث تم تخريج أكثر من 65000 طالب منذ نشأة الجامعة وحتي الأن (McDonald's, 2018

أعضاء هيئة التدريس

في جامعة هامبورجر 19 أستاذ يقومون بالعمل بشكل دائم مع خبراء في عمليات تشغيل المطعم- من أنحاء العالم- لتقديم المنهج التدريبي لماكدونالد، ويتم الاستعانة بهم من خلال شراكة بين جامعة هامبورجر وجامعات المجلس الأمريكي مما يساعدها على اعتماد برامجها الدراسية ومنح درجات جامعية.

الوسائل التعليمية

يتم تقديم البرامج الدراسية من خلال الفصول الدراسية والأنشطة بالمعامل والسيناريو هات التي تقوم على أهداف محددة ومديولات التعلم الإلكتروني باستخدام الحاسب، والعاملين في ماكدونالد يقومون بتوفيق التدريب مع المسارات الوظيفية الخاصة بهم.كما يؤدى التدريب المهني لجامعة هامبورجر وتصميم عمليات تشغيل العاملين إلى تسليم وتنفيذ المنهج الأساسي من خلال النظام باستخدام تقنيات تعلم مختلفة تتضمن عناصر الدراسة الذاتية والتدريب بالتعلم الإلكتروني والفصول الدراسية.ويتم تدريب الطلاب من الوقت الذين ينضمون فيه إلى المطعم لإعداد أنفسهم للتعلم المستمر في مراكز تعليمنا الإقليمية وجامعة هامبورجر. (McDonald's, 2018).

ومما سبق فإن جامعة هامبورجر تعد أولى جامعة الشركات التي تمتلك نظامًا متكاملًا لتقديم بر امجها وتحقيق أهدافها من خلال شرراكة بينها وبين الجامعة التقليدية، وذلك بهدف تحقيق التميز والريادة في مجال عملها، من خلال تحقيق التنمية المهنية المستدامة لأفرادها بما يوفر لهم كل ما هو جديد ومستحدث في مجال عملهم، كما تعمل علي تقديم بر امج لمنح درجات علمية معتمدة من المجلس الأعلى للتعليم العالي الأمريكي، مما أدى في النهاية إلي انتشار هذا النمط في أمريكا وسعي الشركات الكبرى لتكوين مثل هذه الجامعات.

مبررات ظهور جامعة الشركات

ومن أهم مبررات الشراكة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية مجموعة من المتغيرات؛ من أهمها:

- ظهور مجتمع الاقتصاد المعرفي: أدت ثورة المعلومات إلى وجود موجة ثالثة للمعرفة تقود الاقتصاد، وتعني هذه الموجة الثالثة بالتركيز على تجميع وتقسيم وابتكار المعرفة ونظرًا لحدوث هذه الثورة المعلوماتية فإن الشركات وجدت أنها تحتاج إلى أنظمة لتنظيم هذه المعرفة؛ حيث إن جودة الإنتاج هي نتيجة للقوة العاملة المتعلمة، كما أن استغلال أنها تحتاج إلى أنظمة لتنظيم هذه المعرفة؛ حيث إن جودة الإنتاج هي نتيجة للقوة العاملة المتعلمة، كما أن استغلال المعرفة المعرفة ونظرًا لحدوث هذه الثورة المعلوماتية فإن الشركات وجدت معالية المتاحة بالفعل لم يعد كافي ولكن يجب أن تسعى الشركات إلى تجديد المعرفة و إلا سوف تغشل (Anony) المعرفة المتاحة بالفعل لم يعد كافي ولكن يجب أن تسعى الشركات إلى تجديد المعرفة و إلا سوف تغشل (Anony) وأن الاقتصاد الذي سيسود في القرن الحادي والعشرين هو الاقتصاد المعرفي المعرفي والكن والعشرين معن المعرفة و إلا سوف تغشل (Anony) وأن الاقتصاد الذي سيسود في القرن الحادي والعشرين هو الاقتصاد المعرفي المعرفي المعرفة المعرفة و إلا سوف تغشل (Anony) المعرفة المتاحة بالفعل لم يعد كافي ولكن يجب أن تسعى الشركات إلى تجديد المعرفة و إلا سوف تغشل (Anony) وأن الاقتصاد الذي سيسود في القرن الحادي والعشرين هو الاقتصاد المعرفي والعشرين والعشرين و العشرين و إلى المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي والعشر والعشرين و والعشرين و إلى المعرفي والعام و وي المعلومات وتحويلها إلى "معرفة" لحل المشكلات، وأن تقييم الفرد في المستقبل سيعتمد على مقدار ما يستطيع أن يتعلم، وليس على مقدار ما يعرف، وهذه سيتكون السما مي الميزة للقوة العاملة المعرفية والمعافي المعرفي يتعلم، وليس على مقدار ما يعرف، وهذه سيتكون السما من الميزة للقوة المالم المعرفية المعرفية و أن المعرفية الفود المعرفي المعرفي والمعرفي المعرفي المعرفية المعرفية المعرفي أل المعرفي الالمعرفي المعرفية الفرد في الميزة القوة العاملة المعرفية والمعالي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفية المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي أل المعرفي أل المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي أل المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفي المعرفية الفوة المعاما
- التنافسية العالمية: نظرًا لتحول العالم ليصبح قرية كونية محورها اقتصاد السوق، فإن هذا التحول يتطلب وجود أفراد حاصلين على تعليم مرتفع الجودة، أصحاب كفايات ودافعية مرتفعة لقيادة المجتمع للحصول على مزايا تنافسية، وبالتالي فإن كافة المؤسسات بما فيها مؤسسات التعليم والتدريب، يمكن أن تقوم بدور في تحسين المهارات المتوفرة لدي الأفراد، وهذا لن يتأتى إلا من خلال مساعدة الأفراد أنفسهم لأنفسهم، ويسهم التعليم في المحاورات المتوارات المتوارات الموارات المؤلفي في معان المجتمع للحصول على مزايا تنافسية، وبالتالي فإن كافة المؤسسات بما فيها مؤسسات التعليم والتدريب، يمكن أن تقوم بدور في تحسين المهارات المتوفرة لدي الأفراد، وهذا لن يتأتى إلا من خلال مساعدة الأفراد أنفسهم لأنفسهم، ويسهم التعليم في المحافظة على استمرار الدول في مناخ التنافس الدولي من خلال قدرة سكانها على الإبداع في كافة المجالات (عبد الحميد، 2004).
- العولمة الاقتصادية: تفرض العولمة ضعوطًا على الجامعات طالبة منها التغيير وتبني واعتناق ثقافة التعامل مع الشركات، وأصبحت الجامعات لا سبيل أمامها من مواجهة هذه الضغوط والاستجابة لها، وفي حالة استجابتها هل
ستتغير الجامعات بكفاءة وبسرعة لمتطلبات عالم الشركات من تعليم وتدريب، وحيث أن الجامعات غير قادرة على تحديد الدور الذي ينبغي أن تلعبه أصبح من الصعب عليها أن تقرر كيفية الاستجابة لضغوط العولمة (Barnett,) 2000)

وبصفة عامة يمكن تحديد مجموعة من المبررات التي تؤكد على ضرورة تدعيم الروابط بين التعليم وعالم العمل وتكوين شراكات بين مؤسسات التعليم الجامعي ومؤسسات المجتمع؛ ويمكن تلخيص أهم هذه المبررات فيما يلي:

- بروز اقتصاديات المعرفة: حيث يعد التحول إلى مجتمع المعرفة مرحلة من مراحل تطور المجتمع وتقدمه، يقتضي الوصول إليها تضافر مختلف الجهود العلمية والإنتاجية في العديد من المجالات، فالهدف ليس فقط إنتاج معرفة ولكن القدرة على استخدامها، وهذا يحتاج إلى الربط المتواصل ما بين مؤسسات مسات مسناعة المعرفة ومؤسسات استهلاكها واستخدامها.
- توجه النظام الاقتصادي العالمي إلى العولمة: ومن أهم سامات هذا النظام عولمة النشاط الإنتاجي بمعنى أن النشاط لا يتم من بدايته حتى نهايته بواسطة مؤسسة واحدة وفى مكان واحد، وإنما أصبح يقوم على ما يعرف بنظام الحلقات وتحتاج كل حلقة إلى درجة مختلفة من الكثافة الرأسامالية وإلى مستويات مختلفة من المهارة لقوة العمل، وبناء عليه فإن مستوى مهارة وإنتاجية القوى البشرية أصبح هو المحدد للحلقة التي يمكن للدولة الدخول فيها. وظهور التكتلات الاقتصادية الضخمة: والسباق في الإنتاج والصناعة لكسب المزيد من الأسواق العالمية، والاتجاه المتزايد نحو الخصخصة انطلاقًا من قاعدة معلوماتية ضخمة لتصبح التكنولوجيا هى المورد الرئيسي للاقتصاد المتزايد نحو الخصخصة انطلاقًا من قاعدة معلوماتية ضخمة لتصبح التكنولوجيا هى المورد الرئيسي
- تزايد اهتمام الشركات متعددة الجنسيات بالتعليم العالي والجامعي: وصار لتلك الشركات تأثيرات واضحة على مؤسسات التعليم العالي والجامعي من خلال المشاركة في تمويل التعليم وتجويد الخدمة التعليمية، وتحمل بعض أعباء العملية التعليمية، والإنفاق على الموهوبين وذوي الحاجات الخاصة، وإعادة صياغة المهارات والمعارف التي يهتم التعليم الجامعي بنقلها للطلاب لتناسب المنظور العالمي.

الرؤية المقترحة (نموذج تطبيقي)

في ضوء ما تم التوصل إليه في الإطار النظري، يمكن تفعيل الشراكة بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية من خلال جامعة الشركات: حيث تقوم المؤسسات الإنتاجية من مصانع وشركات في مختلف المجالات بإنشاء مثل هذه الجامعات من اجل الوفاء بأغراض الشركة، وتأخذ جامعة الشركات عدة أشكال فقد تكون جامعة لها كيانها المستقل بعيدًا عن المؤسسة التي تنشئها، وتكون داخل هذه المؤسسة كأحد المراكز أو الأقسام التدريبية، وقد تكون بشكل افتراضي من خلال موقع للجامعة على شبكة الانترنت يتم من خلاله تقديم جميع الخدمات بما يحقق أهداف الجامعة.

يمكن تطبيق هذا النموذج في العديد من الشركات والمؤسسات الصناعية الكبري بالعديد من دول الخليج سواء التي تعمل في مجال نفط أو غيره من المجالات ، وعلى سبيل المثال لا الحصر يمكن تطبيق ذلك النموذج بـ: شركة "الإمارات العالمية للألمنيوم"، إحدى أكبر شركات الألمنيوم في العالم، شركة دبي للمرطبات، مجموعة سوداتل للاتصالات، الشركة العالمية لزراعة الأسماك، شركة الخليج للصناعات الدوائية، ارامكس، أرابتك، شركة ابوظبي الوطنية للطاقة (طاقة)، إعمار، اتصالات.

الفلسفة والأهداف

تنطلق الفلسفة من أن تحقيق التنمية الاقتصادية يستلزم تطوير مؤسسات التعليم الجامعي ومؤسسات الإنتاج عن طريق توثيق الترابط والتعاون بينهما من خلال شراكة ناجحة وفاعلة تحقق لكل طرف أهدافه، حيث تعمل الشراكة على تطوير التعليم الجامعي وتحديثه ليصبح أكثر قدرة على تخريج أفراد مؤهلين قادرين على تلبية الاحتياجات المختلفة لمؤسسات المجتمع المختلفة الإنتاجية والخدمية على حد سواء، ومزودين بالمؤهلات الأكاديمية والتطبيقية التي تتلاءم مع الاحتياجات المعتلفة لمؤسسات المجتمع بالإضافة إلى تطوير مؤسسات الإنتاج لزيادة معدلات الإنتاج وخفض التكلفة والقدرة على المنافسة العالمية. وتقوم هذه الفلسفة على مجموعة من المبادئ أهمها:

- التنمية المهنية المستدامة التي تعد عاملًا هامًا لرفع المستوى المهني للعاملين بمؤسسات الشراكة، وتحسين أدائهم.
- التعلم الذاتي والمستمر مدى الحياة الذي أصبح يلعب دورًا هامًا في تحقيق التنمية الذاتية للعاملين بمؤسسات الشراكة، بما يضمن لهم تجديد معارفهم وتحديث خبر اتهم.
- تنمية الأفكار الإبداعية التي لها مردود اقتصادي على المجتمع، هو الذي يميز مجتمعات المعرفة التي تهتم بتنمية رأس المال البشري ورعاية أفكاره ومشاريعه.
- حل مشكلات المجتمع والإســـهام في تطويره وتحديثه، والذي يقوم على تضـــافر الجهود والتعاون البناء بين الجامعات ومؤسسات المجتمع الإنتاجية والخدمية.
- المنفعة المتبادلة بين مؤسسسات الشراكة يعمل على تعظيم الفائدة وتحقيق المكاسب التي لا يمكن أن تحققها المؤسسات بمفردها.

وفى ضوء هذه المبادئ التي تقوم عليها فلسفة التصور فإنه يسعى إلى تحقيق مجموعة من الأهداف؛ تتمثل فيما يلي:

- توفير الدعم والتمويل والخدمات الإرشادية والتسهيلات المتاحة لأصحاب الابتكارات والأفكار داخل هذه المؤسسات.
- إعداد القوى البشرية للحصول على الدرجة الجامعية الأولي والدراسات العليا وفق احتياجات مؤسسات الإنتاج ومتطلبات سوق العمل.
- تشجيع النمو الشخصي والمهني المستمر للعاملين والموظفين بمؤسسات الشراكة من خلال برامج تدريبية متنوعة.
 - توفير آليات لتسويق أنشطة التصور ومنتجاتها من البحوث والبرامج التدريبية.

آليات التطبيق

تتضمن تلك الأليات أربع مراحل رئيسة هي التهيئة، والإعداد، والتنفيذ، والمتابعة والتقويم، بما يضمن تطبيق هذا التصور بفعالية عالية، وفيما يلي عرض موجز لتلك الأليات:

- ، مرحلة التهيئة: وتسبق هذه المرحلة التطبيق الفعلى لاتفاق الشراكة، وتتضمن ما يلي:
- نشر ثقافة الشراكة بين مجتمع الجامعة ومؤسسات الإنتاج، وتتضمن تعريف القيادات الإدارية والأكاديمية بمميزات الشراكة وما تحققه لهم من فوائد شخصية ومؤسسية، وإقناعهم بها وأنها ستساعدهم في التغلب على مشكلات مؤسساتهم التعليمية والإدارية والإنتاجية، وتساعدهم على إنجاز أعمالهم بأعلى جودة، وأقل وقت وجهد، وأقل تكلفة، وتتماشي مع التغيرات العالمية والمحلية.
- عمل ورش عمل ودورات تدريبية وندوات تثقيفية للعاملين في الجامعة ومؤسسسات المجتمع يتم فيها توضيح ماهية الشراكة ودورها في توفير الموارد المالية للجامعة التي تمكنها من تقديم مستوي تعليمي يتوافق مع متطلبات المجتمع واحتياجات سوق العمل، كما تسهم في إمداد مؤسسات الإنتاج بالقوي المؤهلة والمدربة التي تساعدها في زيادة الإنتاج والقدرة على المنافسة العالمية.
- قيام الجامعة بعمل ندوات تعريفية للمؤسسات المجتمعية بما تمتلكه من إمكانات وقدرات مادية وبشرية وكذلك التعريف بالأبحاث التي تقوم بها والمجالات التي تهتم بها، وذلك لتكوين قناعة لدي مؤسسسات الإنتاج بأهمية

الشراكة مع الجامعة والثقة في قدر اتها وامكاناتها.

- مرحلة الإعداد: وتسبق هذه المرحلة أيضا التطبيق الفعلي لاتفاق الشراكة، ويمكن تسميتها بالمرحلة التحضيرية،وفيها يتم الاستفادة من الاتجاهات العالمية المعاصرة في هذا المجال وتتضمن ما يلي:
 - تدريب القيادات الإدارية والأكاديمية على كيفية عقد اتفاقات الشراكة.
 - c استصدار القوانين والتشريعات التي تنظم العمل في ظل تطبيق اتفاقية الشراكة.
- c عقد اجتماعات بين أطراف الشراكة لمناقشة أمور مثل تحديد الأهداف المشتركة، وخطة العمل، والأدوار والمسئوليات المتبادلة، وكذلك مناقشة الإمكانات والقدرات لدي كل طرف مما يؤدي إلى تعظيم الاستفادة الممكنة لكل طرف من الشراكة.
- تكوين لجان مشتركة تعمل على وضع خطوات ومراحل عمل الشراكة بين الجامعة ومؤسسات المجتمع وكذلك المدة الزمنية التي تستغرقها كل مرحلة، مع مراعاة دور أطراف الشراكة بحيث يحدث تكامل بينهما بما يعظم الفائدة لكل طرف.
- تكوين لجان مشتركة من الجامعة ومؤسس السات المجتمع تقوم بمراجعة اتفاقيات الشرراكة والأدوار والمسئوليات المنوطة بكل طرف وكذلك تحديد العوامل التي تسهم في نجاح الشراكة، ومراجعة مدى التقدم في الشراكة، وتقويم الشراكة ومدي تحقيقها لأهدافها.
- إنشاء آلية بين أطراف الشراكة تسهل عملية الاتصال والتواصل بينهما بما يمكن نجاح عملية الشراكة ويضمان سرعة التواصل بين المؤسسات أطراف الشراكة.
- مرحلة التنفيذ: ويمكن أن يمر التنفيذ بمرحلتين أحدها انتقالية والأخرى نهائية، أو أن يتم التنفيذ بصورة كلية وفقا لإمكانيات وظروف الجامعة والمؤسسات الإنتاجية، ويتضمن التنفيذ ما يلي:
- تحديد الأهداف التي تسعى الجامعة ومؤسسات الإنتاج لتحقيقها، في ضوء در اسة الواقع الحالي باستخدام نموذج التحليل الرباعي SWOT، والتنبؤ بالمتغيرات المستقبلية المتوقعة، واحتياجات السوق.
- مجمع المعلومات بصفة دورية من مؤسسات المجتمع، وذلك لمواكبة المتغيرات والمستجدات في احتياجات هذه المؤسسات، ويمكن أن يتم ذلك من خلال التقارير التي ترد للجامعة من هذه المؤسسات، والإحصاءات الرسمية المحلية المتاحة، والمقابلات الشخصية، والمناقشات المفتوحة، واستطلاع رأي القائمين على هذه المؤسسات والعاملين بها.
- اشتراك كل القيادات الإدارية والأكاديمية في وضع الخطط الجامعية في ضوء الاحتياجات التي تم تحديدها من قبل وكذلك وضع خطط المؤسسات الإنتاجية.
- عرض الخطط على الأفراد والمؤسسات ذات الصلة بالخطة وأخذ رأيهم فيها قبل التنفيذ، وإحداث التعديلات المطلوبة، وأن تتسم الخطط بالمرونة التي تجعلها قابلة للتعديل وفق المتغيرات غير المتوقعة والمستحدثة.
- تنوع وتعدد قنوات الاتصال داخل تنظيم الشراكة، وأن يكون من خلال قنوات مفتوحة، وأن يتم بسرعة وبكفاءة دون حدوث أي لبس في فهم الرسائل المرسلة، وأن تتاح المعلومات للأفراد في الوقت الذي يحتاجونها فيه بأسرع وقت وأعلى دقة، وأن تستند في أداء ذلك على استخدام أحدث التكنولوجيات.
- سرعة اتخاذ القرارات المتعلقة بالشراكة، وأن يشترك قطاع كبير من العاملين بالجامعة في صنع
 القرار، واعتماد عملية صنع القرار على معلومات دقيقة وكافية وغير مكلفة، وأن تتخذ باستخدام
 التكنولوجيا الحديثة التي تتضمن السرعة والدقة، ومشاركة أعضاء هيئة التدريس في اتخاذ القرار.
- وضع نظام للمحاسبية والمسألة يمكن من خلاله قياس مدى التقدم في الشراكة وتحقيقها لأهدافها، وكذلك محاسبة أطراف الشراكة ومدي أدائهم لأدوار والمسئوليات المنوطة بهم.
- مرحلة المتابعة والتقويم: يتم في هذه المرحلة ومن خلال لجنة المتابعة والتقويم، قياس مدى تحقيق الشرراكة لأهدافها وذلك في ضوء خطة العمل الموضوعة بين أطراف الشراكة، و يتطلب ذلك التوجه نحو الرقابة الذاتية

للأفراد، وتوجيههم باستمرار نحو تحقيق الأهداف المرجوة بطريقة تعتمد على سرعة اتخاذ القرار وتحسين الأداء للحفاظ على المنافسة الدائمة.

البرامج الدراسية

ويتم تقديم برامج دراسية نابعة من احتياجات ورغبات المؤسسات الشريكة، من خلال تقديم مجموعة من المقررات الدراسية التي تعمل على رفع مستوي العاملين بما يحقق للمؤسسة القدرة على المنافسة العالمية وكذلك تحقيق زيادة في الإنتاجية وتقديم منتجات جديدة تتميز بالجودة العالية محققة لمواصفات الجودة العالمية بما يمكنها من المنافسة في الأسواق العالمية والمحلية. ومن هذه البرامج الدراسية ما يلي:

- برامج لا تمنح درجة علمية، ويتم تقديم هذه البرامج في المجالات التي تحددها المؤسسات الشريكة " الجامعة والمؤسسسات الإنتاجية" وتشمل: برامج التنمية المهنية، برامج التعليم المستمر، برنامج التأهيل للتعليم
 العالي، برامج التدريب التحويلي
- برامج الدرجة الجامعية الأولى (البكالوريوس الليسانس): يلتحق الفرد ببرنامج الدرجة الجامعية الأولي وتكون هذه البرامج في المجالات التي تحددها الشراكة، والتي تهتم بها المؤسسات الشريكة وتكون هذه البرامج متجددة باستمرار وفقًا لاحتياجات مؤسسات الشراكة، وذلك من خلال تقديم هذه البرامج بنظام الساعات المعتمدة أو التعليم عن بعد.
- برامج الدر اسات العليا: وتشمل الحصول على الدبلوم، أو الماجستير، أو الدكتوراه، وذلك في المجلات التي تعمل على تطوير وتحديث مؤسساتها، ويمكن توفير منح للحصول على درجة الماجستير والدكتوراه من الخارج.

الخاتمة

حاولت الورقة توضيح دور الشراكة بين الجامعة والمجتمع من خلال بناء شراكات قوية نتمثل في إنشاء جامعة الشركات التي تعمل علي تدعيم العلاقة بيم الجامعة ومؤسسات المجتمع، وذلك من خلال عرض لمفهوم الشراكة وأهدافها واهميتها، وكذلك عرض لأحد الاتجاهات الحديثة في مجال الشراكة بين الجامعة والمجتمع، والمتمثل في جامعة الشراكات، من خلال عرض لمفهوم جامعة الشركات، وفلسفتها واهدافها وأنماطها، واحد النماذج التطبيقية لها، وهي جامعة هامبورجر، ثم اختتمت الورقة بتقديم رؤية مقترحة أو نموذج تطبيقي لجامعة الشركات في الوطن العربي موضحا من خلال عرض النجايي التطبيق ومتطبات النجاح.

المصادر

أبادي ، مجد الدين الفيروز (1977). القاموس المحيط، الجزء الثالث، القاهرة، دار الحديث، ص. ص 308- 309.

- الباز، راشد بن سعد (2007). الشراكة المجتمعية بين مؤسسات المجتمع والأجهزة الأمنية، مجلس التعاون لدول الخليج العربية، الأمانة العامة، ص12.
- البنك الدولي (2003). بناء مجتمعات المعرفة: التحديات الجديدة التي تواجه التعليم العالي، **تقرير صادر عن البك الدولي،** القاهرة، مركز معلومات قراء الشرق الأوسط(ميريك)، ص.31
- رئاسة الجمهورية(2004). تقرير المجلس القومي للتعليم والبحث العلمي والتكنولوجيا،المجالس القومية المتخصصة، الدورة الحادية والثلاثون2004/2003، القاهرة، ص26.

طلعت عبد الحميد (2004). العولمة ومستقبل تعليم الكبار في الوطن العربي، فرحة للنشر والتوزيع، القاهرة، ص104.

العجمي، محمد حسنين (2007). المشاركة المجتمعية والإدارة الذاتية، المكتبة العصرية للنشر والتوزيع، المنصورة، ص 90.

مجمع اللغة العربية (1972). المعجم الوسيط، الجزء (1)، ط2، مطابع دار المعارف، القاهرة، ص480

- Andreu, R., Sieber, S., Grau, A., & Ranger, E. L. (2002). *Union Fenosa Corporate University: Teach and learn from experience*. Barcelona, Spain: IESE Business School.
- Barczyk, S. (2000). Understanding complex system of partnerships. In L. Montanheiro & M. Linehan, *Public and private sector partnership: The enabling mix* (pp. 105-121). Cork, Ireland: SHU Press, Cork Institute of Technology.
- Barnett, R. (2000). *Realizing the university in an age of supercomplexity*. Buckingham, UK: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.
- Anony, M. (2005): The *Corporate University : Riding the third wave*. Development and Learning in Organization, V.19, N.6, ABI/ INFORM Global.
- Frazee, B. (2002, November 1). Corporate universities: A powerful model for learning. Retrieved from https://www.clomedia.com/2002/11/01/corporate-universities-apowerful-model-for-learning/.
- Galbreath, J (1999). Preparing the 21st century worker: The link between computer-based technology and future skill sets. *Educational Technology*, *39*(6), 14-22.
- Jarvis, P. (2001). Universities and corporate universities: The higher learning industry in global society. London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

The Encyclopedia Americana (1998): International Edition, U.S.A, Vol.21, p 497

McDonald's. (2018a). Hamburger University – McDonald's Center of Training Excellence. Retrieved from https://corporate.mcdonalds.com/mcd/corporate.careers2/training.and.development

https://corporate.mcdonalds.com/mcd/corporate_careers2/training_and_development/ hamburger_university.html 4/2018

McDonald's. (2018b). Our curriculum. Retrieved from

https://corporate.mcdonalds.com/mcd/corporate_careers2/training_and_development/ hamburger_university/our_curriculum.html 4/2018

McDonald's. (2018c). Our facility. Retrieved from

https://corporate.mcdonalds.com/mcd/corporate_careers2/training_and_development/ hamburger_university/our_faculty.html 4/2018

McDonald's. (2018d). Our students. Retrieved from

https://corporate.mcdonalds.com/mcd/corporate_careers2/training_and_development/ hamburger_university/our_students.html 4/2018

- Prigge, G. W. (2005). University-industry partnerships: What do they mean to universities? *Industry and Higher Education*, *19*(3), 221-229.
- Valhalla. (2008). Hamburger University. Retrieved from http://everything2.com/index.pl?node_id=691683
- Wolfended, S. (1989). *Empowering parents and teachers partnership*. London, UK: Cassel. Lankard, A. Bettina (1995): Business- Education Partnerships, Eric Digest, No. 156, ED383856

Education Hubs in the GCC Region – Exploring Interplays of Local Visions and Global Influences for Higher Education Policy¹

Marvin Erfurth

University of Münster, Germany

Abstract

This paper investigates interplays between local and global discourses in policy making by examining *Vision 2021* in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Using a discursive research approach and applying Cultural Political Economy as a theoretical lens for its analysis, the analysis shows that the policy links challenges regarding social cohesion to economic demands and competitiveness as aims for governing higher education. On the one hand, this has been a successful approach to increase capacity in the UAE's higher education system(s) over the last years, but on the other hand, may have created a tightrope for governing higher education, making it harder to prioritize pedagogical rationales as action-guiding for the organization of higher education and learning.

Introduction

In one of its recent issues, the British weekly magazine *The Economist* dedicated a Special Report to the rapid social, cultural, economic, and political change over the past months in Saudi Arabia, a member state of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) (La Guardia, 2018). But the Special Report also touches on developments that are greater in scope than only occurring in Saudi Arabia, suggesting that they cut across the GCC region.² GCC member states have not only risen in political and economic power and influence over the last few decades, but their governments are pursuing ambitious reform agendas for what they hope will be future success. For instance, such reform agendas are developed in the form of what social scientists would call "policies," current examples of which are *Vision 2030* in Saudi Arabia, *New Kuwait, Vision 2020* in Oman, or *Vision 2021* in the United Arab Emirates (UAE).

¹ This conference proceeding and the presentation at the 8th biannual GCES Symposium are connected to research undertaken in conjunction with a chapter being published in the edited volume *Researching the Global Education Industry. Commodification, the Market and Business Involvement* by M. Parreira do Amaral, G. Steiner-Khamsi, and C. Thompson (2019). Please see this publication for a more in-depth and focused discussion on the UAE as an Education Hub, as well as the theoretical and methodological approaches used.

² The referenced Special Report by *The Economist* uses the term "Arab world"—a term that arguably deserves some clarifications on its own, and for which an in-depth discussion with regard to education can be found in the literature. As an example, please see, Mazawi and Sultana's (2010) *Situating the 'Worlds' of Arab Education*.

Though the above-referenced policies focus to a great extent on economic modernization and diversification, education—and higher education in particular—play a central role in all of them. This central role of (higher) education in contemporary national economic policy, mapped out in national development plans, such as the referenced policies, is very relevant for education research because of its impact on the organization of education and learning nationally and regionally. This could potentially result in economic aspects outweighing education policy goals and may initially lead to diverging rationales.

International and Comparative Higher Education Research currently aims at understanding this changing organization of education and learning by referencing the concept of *International Education Hubs* (IEHs), predominantly in connection with analyzing and/or developing education policy in countries in the Middle East and South-East Asia (see Knight, 2014). However, the impact of the potential entanglements of education with economic policy is very complex. To date, it remains uncertain the extent to which the described social phenomena may be analyzed adequately using the concept of IEHs and what additional value it provides to scholars and policy makers for understanding contemporary developments. Against this backdrop, this contribution reviews a central policy in the UAE's envisioned transformation into an Education Hub—*Vision 2021*—to elaborate on some of the potentially profound consequences for (higher) education policy in this GCC member state. In connection to this year's conference theme, these potential consequences also involve the inclusion of new private and philanthropic actors into local/national education policy, leading to complex interplays of "local visions" and "global influences" that appear somewhat veiled in this key policy.

To understand the potentially profound consequences of transforming countries into IEHs, the narratives conveyed in policies, such as *Vision 2021*, ³ are particularly insightful for understanding some contextual conditions that, in connection to this year's conference theme, enable "new actors" in education policy to exert their "impact." While some research on IEHs has already been undertaken regarding some GCC countries, these studies often focus on structural changes and the face value of this social phenomenon. Only to a lesser extent do they pay attention to the narratives, their inherent power, and the role of governments as their authors (see, for example, Dou & Knight, 2014; Fox & Al Shamisi, 2014; Ibnouf, Dou, & Knight, 2014). As such, I argue that a more comprehensive examination is needed with respect to the UAE, given the rapid developments currently occurring in higher education across all of its seven Emirates.

This contribution will proceed by elaborating on this social phenomenon and education policy in the next section. It will then briefly describe the theoretical and methodological approaches

³ For instance, see: https://www.vision2021.ae/en/uae-vision

used, before applying them for investigating *Vision 2021*. It concludes by pointing out the potential consequences for higher education policy in the UAE that need to be investigated in future research, and emphasizes higher education as a veiled enabler of realizing the goals outlined in *Vision 2021*. Furthermore, it highlights how logic, such as economic competitiveness, instead of social or pedagogical rationales, are becoming action-guiding for the organization of higher education and learning as a result of *Vision 2021*. The consequences of which are profound changes in organizing higher education in the UAE, where for-profit actors play a crucial role.

Education Policy and its Global Dimension

This section will briefly clarify some conceptual considerations for analyzing education policy as a research object in times of global interconnection. The referenced national development strategies tend to frame education, and in particular higher education, as a panacea for pressing social and economic issues (see Fischer, 2003). This discursive framing signals changing relationships between the state, economy, society, and higher education, pointing to an intensified role of economic rationales and interests in this particular education sector. Recent scholarly research on education policy reveals that the "framing" of education in national policies is increasingly influenced by traveling policy ideas stimulating a global circulation of quite similar concepts for education policy across geographical regions such as concepts and ideas circulating in global discourses about the knowledge-based economy (see Ball, Junemann, & Santori, 2017; or also Mundy, Green, Lingard, & Verger, 2016). This circulation profoundly impacts the narratives being told in national policies and strategies, framing (and somewhat altering) the historically close and complex relationship between state and (higher) education (see Archer, 1979; Benavot, Resnick, & Corrales, 2006; Green, 1997; Ramirez & Boli, 1987). In connection to this year's conference theme, new private and philanthropic actors appearing in education and policy might therefore be regarded as one expression of such changing relationships, opening up spaces and opportunities for novel "global players" to affect national education systems and their organization.

Through globalized discourses, as well as "global players" in education policy, it appears that a small number of resembling ideas and concepts inform and orient education policies in most national education systems today (see Verger, 2016). A growing strand of scholarly research – more recently coined Global Education Policy (GEP) (Mundy, Green, Lingard, & Verger, 2016)—accompanies this change in the practice of education policy. This research focuses on global discourses, agendas, and actors in the study of education policy to investigate the various implications of the changing contextual conditions in which education policy evolves such as the influence of intricate relationships between domestic and foreign actors on national education policy (see Marginson, 2016; Verger, 2016; see also Ball et al., 2017).

Economic Diversification in National Development Strategies: A Shared Objective of International Education Hub Policies in the GCC region?

In connection with the above conceptual considerations for analyzing GEP as a research object, this section succinctly elaborates on—in analytical terms—"discursive spaces" cutting across GCC countries through policies sharing similar rationales and narratives. A contemporary, paradigmatic example of narratives for organizing education and learning that resemble each other across several locales—involving novel private and philanthropic actors in the provision and management of education—may currently be seen in policies pursuing the creation of so-called IEHs that have been mentioned earlier (Knight, 2014). Several states, predominantly located in South-East Asia and the Middle East, currently use this label to discursively brand themselves as international destinations for learning, pursuing structural competitiveness in connection to their always-individual understandings of what knowledge-based economies are. IEHs are governmental politico-economic projects aiming at the transformation of selected territories into economically competitive and socially progressive areas by means of reforming education, in particular higher education.

With regard to the GCC region, IEH policies are often outlined in national development strategies that, in this particular region, currently share the objective of economic diversification as a cross-cutting theme. In connection with understanding education policy as obtaining a "global dimension" (as in GEP), such cross-cutting themes generate discursive spaces that are self-constituting through, for instance, the creation and repetition of resembling narratives and problem definitions in different national policies. In this context, the UAE is one of several GCC member states currently pursuing such a transformation into an IEH, with *Vision 2021* outlining this pursuit (as a somewhat master narrative). Against this backdrop, the following sections will look into how the relationship between education and the state is being framed in this policy, potentially having a profound impact on higher education policy in the UAE.

Conceptual Considerations

To analyze *Vision 2021* and its impact on education in the UAE, this contribution adopts *Cultural Political Economy* (CPE; Sum & Jessop, 2013) as a theoretical lens, reflects concepts brought forward by the *Comparative Case Study* approach (CCS; see Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017) methodologically, and is methodically oriented by CPE and the CCS through the use of a discursive research approach (see Fairclough, 1992; Wodak, 2004; Wodak, & Fairclough, 1997). For conceptualizing what is being conceived as, for instance, the "international" or the "national" in the policy, but also their complex relationship, the *culture-* and *context-sensitive lenses* brought forward by the CCS approach are adopted. This enables a conceptualization of education policy as a so-called *sociocultural practice* throughout scale, space, and time as interrelated analytical categories (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017). For conceptualizing (and tracing) policy as a sociocultural practice, CPE suggests analyzing the interplay of *ideational* and *material dimensions* of GEP as co-constitutive in connection to relational understandings of space (Jessop, Brenner, & Jones, 2008). With its analytical tools, a CPE perspective provides

a kind of circulatory lens for researching processes of understanding and shaping the world as inter-related, for which the co-constitutiveness of such ideational and material dimensions is a key consideration.

The Interplay of Local Visions and Global Influences in the UAE's Vision 2021

The elaborated analytical framework provides one possibility for studying GEP, which in this case focuses on the interplay of "local visions" and "global influences" (as globally-circulating policy ideas being re-iterated and locally adopted). Due to the focus and scope of this contribution, it will solely focus on illuminating the discursive framing of the relationship between the economy and higher education outlined in the policy, which may have a profound impact on higher education in the UAE. *Vision 2021* is a central policy in the creation of the UAE as a hub, launched by its government in 2010 to outline a vision for the country about the goals it should achieve by its golden jubilee in the year 2021. While some scholars would argue for the absence of a destined strategy outlining the transformation of the UAE into an IEH, the publicly available policy will be presented with a focus on illuminating this objective through the adoption of these analytical tools. By adopting a discursive approach for investigating the policy, guided by the theoretical tools of CPE, this contribution provides insight into (so-called) "selective understandings" of the world through processes of sense- and meaning-making (*semiosis* and *selectivities* in CPE), revealing economic rationales, such as economic competitiveness, as action-guiding for governing higher education.

Vision 2021 has a traditional structure of reform strategies. The policy identifies certain developments as problematic and constructs specific areas as issues before offering modifications to existing programs and the launch of additional initiatives to improve the current situation, but also elaborates on the achievement of overall goals (see Jungmann & Besio, 2018). The policy, which is divided into four overall themes, sets the scene with a preface reconstructing the UAE's remarkable progress over recent decades and the historical roots of this success. Its purpose is to unfold a vision for the UAE's golden jubilee, the achievement of which is described as potentially difficult due to challenges regarding the fabric of society, economic competitiveness, national identity, as well as "health, education, environment and well-being." The policy's relevance is emphasized by stating that an "ambitious nation like ours cannot achieve its goals by relying on its past achievements. We must work harder, be more innovative, more organized, and more vigilant in examining the trends and challenges that will face us." As an overall goal, the preface describes the method of the policy as proactive for "bequeath[ing] to future generations a legacy worthy of the pioneers who founded our great nation, a legacy defined by prosperity, security, stability, and a life filled with dignity and respect," which is further reflected in Vision 2021's slogan: "United in Ambition and Determination."

The solution to the challenges identified by the authors of the policy, such as pressures for the society and the economy, are—through an analytical CPE lens—selectively assessed in connection with a correspondingly selective understanding of the concept of the knowledge-

based economy and its prescribed requirements. It leads to a specific remedy "to solve the diagnosed problems and to realize socially constructed objectives" in the form of the presented visions: the creation of a global hub (as a so-called knowledge brand in CPE research; Sum & Jessop, 2013, p. 6). This social imaginary functions as the binding fabric uniting the society and its government in the efforts to proactively create the conditions necessary for success in the knowledge-based economy through the transformation of the UAE into such a global hub. Although the vision for this hub is described as one for business and innovation, higher education implicitly appears in several sections of the policy such as Theme Three, Leitmotifs One and Three. Higher education moreover appears as the actual (although somewhat veiled) enabler of the vision of the UAE's global hub, in CPE terms, it is conceptualized as an extraeconomic factor determining economic competitiveness by providing science, research, and opportunities for learning. The stunning growth in the number of higher education institutions in the country may serve as one material causality constituted by those ideational aspects of the policy, which are facilitated by using a model of free zones (in Dubai in particular) to attract foreign institutions, but also by improving the quality of learning and research at/of a small number of national universities.

On the one hand, the semiotic-discursive space created by Vision 2021 is, path-dependent on the UAE's legacy regarding trade and business, but on the other hand, also path-shaping for its future development. A changing mode of governing higher education envisioned in the policy can perhaps be best described by directly citing from Vision 2021, which (in Theme Two, Leitmotif Three) states that the "UAE will enhance its pivotal role as a regional business hub whose essential infrastructure and institutions provide a gateway linking our neighbourhood to the world, serving as a role model for the region." In this setting, the state functions as a guarantor of success, a guardian of complex change, and—as the themes "United in..." induce—a uniting entity to connect "the economic and government sphere, [...] build[ing] on sectors of excellence to export its model abroad, while constantly evolving to create new competitive advantages." Furthermore, as stated in Theme Three, Leitmotif Two, this IEH pursues economic advantages through relating research and education to the economy by "forg[ing] ever stronger international partnerships and capitali[zing] on them to boost trade and commerce." The powerful narrative, which unfolds throughout the policy relating it to globalizing discourses about economic and social challenges, presents the transformation of the UAE into a hub as the solution to those pressures and for achieving competitive advantages in connection with diversifying its economy.

Conclusion

The "envisioning" of the UAE as an IEH as presented in *Vision 2021* vividly depicts the integration and linkage of the issues and concepts, which have been described as "circulating" globally in one of the above sections of this paper, establishing an intricate relationship between "local visions" and "global influences" expressed in this policy. The policy predominantly links challenges regarding social cohesion to economic demands and competitiveness, (at least discursively) integrating them as aims for governing higher education and making economic rather than social or pedagogical rationales action-guiding for the organization of higher

education and learning. The adoption of those rationales for governing higher education that have been illuminated as discursive has a somewhat material impact on the UAE's IEH policies with, for instance, the creation of economic free zones for (higher) education and a growing number of predominantly private higher education providers—although approaches differ between the individual Emirates.

Those material effects in combination with their ideational "framing" arguably create a tightrope for governing higher education in this hub between notions of a somewhat "public service"—perhaps portraying higher education as bearing some very important social functions—and notions of "academic capitalism." By entangling academia in market-like behaviors, aspects such as effectiveness, efficiency, and, more profoundly, profitability are made to be action-guiding. Consequently, higher education may be stripped of some of its historically vital social functions and potentially shift the focus away from the needs of learners, lecturers, and researchers. In this context, the strategies adopted and outlined in *Vision 2021* may paradoxically impede the attainment of goals set out in this policy and supersede other education policy goals set out by the government.

These developments, including the complex impact of novel private and philanthropic actors on education, appear as a vital area for scholarly research on education policy within International and Comparative Education that, due to their complexity, command new comparative research approaches, and—perhaps most importantly—empirical research to better understand them (through comparison). Arguably, the trends highlighted here may currently be seen across the GCC region, potentially creating unintended, complex effects between single member states envisioned as IEHs. However, due to its scope and focus, this short paper can only briefly elaborate on some of the potential impacts of *Vision 2021* on higher education policy in the UAE, which also limits the generalizability/applicability of inferences drawn from it. Nonetheless, this contribution hints at some new and very important issues and challenges in education policy and education research, potentially guiding future research projects about education policy in the GCC region, especially in a time when several of its member states aim at transforming themselves into IEHs.

References

Archer, M. (1979). Social origins of educational systems. London, UK: Sage.

- Ball, S. J., Junemann, C., & Santori, D. (2017). Edu.net. Globalisation and education policy mobility. London, UK: Routledge.
- Bartlett, L., & Vavrus, F. (2017). Rethinking case study research. A comparative approach. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Benavot, A., Resnik, J., & Corrales, J. (2006). Global educational expansion. Historical legacies and political obstacles. Cambridge, MA: American Academy of Arts and Science.
- Dou, L., & Knight, J. (2014). Emerging hubs: South Korea, Sri Lanka, Mauritius, and Bahrain. In J. Knight (Ed.), International education hubs. Student, talent, knowledge-innovation models (pp. 165–182). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). Discourse and social change. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Fischer, F. (2003). Reframing public policy. Discursive politics and deliberative practices. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Fox, W. H., & Al Shamisi, S. (2014). United Arab Emirates' education hub: A decade of development. In J. Knight (Ed.), International education hubs. Student, talent, knowledge-innovation models (pp. 63–80). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Green, A. (1997). Education, globalization and the nation state. New York, NY: Palgrave.
- Ibnouf, A., Dou, L., & Knight, J. (2014). The evolution of Qatar as an education hub: Moving to a knowledge-based economy. In J. Knight (Ed.), International education hubs. Student, talent, knowledge-innovation models (pp. 43–61). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Jessop, B., Brenner, N., & Jones, M. (2008). Theorizing sociospatial relations. Society and Space, 26, 389–401.
- Jungmann, R., & Besio, C. (2018). Semantiken des Sozialen Wandels. Zur diskursiven Gestaltung von Innovation [Semantics of social change. About the discursive construction of innovation]. In S. Bosančić, S. Böschen, & C. Schubert (Eds.), Diskursive Konstruktion und schöpferische Zerstörung [Discursive construction and creative destruction] (pp. 11–42). Weinheim, Germany: Julius Beltz.
- Knight, J. (2014). International education hubs. Student, talent, knowledge-innovation models. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

- La Guardia, A. (2018, June 23). Special report: The new Arab revolution. The Economist, 1– 12.
- Marginson, S. (2016). The global construction of higher education reform. In K. Mundy, A. Green, B. Lingard, & A. Verger (Eds.), The handbook of global education policy (pp. 291–311). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Mazawi, A. E., & Sultana, R. G. (2010). Editorial introduction: Situating the 'worlds' of Arab education: Critical engagements. In A. E. Mazawi & R. G. Sultana (Eds.), Education and the Arab 'world'. Political projects, struggles, and geometries of power (pp. 1–39). London, UK: Palgrave.
- Mundy, K., Green, A., Lingard, B., & Verger, A. (Eds.). (2016). The handbook of global education policy. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Parreira do Amaral, M., Steiner-Khamsi, G., & Thompson, C. (Eds.). (2019). Researching the global education industry. Commodification, the market and business involvement. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ramirez, F. O., & Boli, J. (1987). The political construction of mass schooling: European origins and worldwide institutionalization. Sociology of Education, 60(1), 2–17.
- Sum, N.-L., & Jessop, B. (2013). Towards a cultural political economy. Putting culture in its place in political economy. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Verger, A. (2016). The global diffusion of education privatization: Unpacking and theorizing policy adoption. In K. Mundy, A. Green, B. Lingard, & A. Verger (Eds.), The handbook of global education policy (pp. 64–80). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Wodak, R. (2004). Critical discourse analysis. In C. Seale, G. Gobo, J. F. Gubrium, & D. Silverman (Eds.), Qualitative research practice (pp. 197–213). London, UK: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Wodak, R., & Fairclough, N. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.), Discourse as social interaction (pp. 258–284). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Exploring CSR initiatives and stakeholder discourse of international branch campuses: A stakeholder and institutional perspective

Dr. Katariina Juusola

The British University in Dubai

Abstract

This study explores corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives and stakeholder discourse of international branch campuses (IBCs) to generate an understanding of strategic stakeholder management in transnational higher education. This research is driven by two research questions: how branch campuses build legitimacy through CSR initiatives and how stakeholder expectations are identified and addressed in the CSR discourse. The findings reveal that IBCs address several types of stakeholders (students, faculty and staff, government, industry, professional associations, parents, and the broader community) in their stakeholder discourse and CSR initiatives and that IBCs are likely to adapt their CSR initiatives to locally suitable ones when operating in the host country. The findings implicate the existence of three distinct types of discourses defined as *altruistic*, *utilitarian*, and *political* discourses, each of which involve unique rationales directed towards different key stakeholder groups.

Introduction

This study focuses on exploring corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives and the stakeholder discourse of international branch campuses (IBCs), which are physical branches of universities in foreign countries that award degrees of the home institution. IBCs operate in complex global-local settings and have become a notable provision of transnational higher education. Currently, there are 33 IBCs in the UAE (Garrett, Kinser, Lane, & Merola, 2017). The motivation for the present study comes from the lack of empirical research on CSR initiatives and stakeholder management in IBCs, particularly on how IBCs identify and address the needs of a diverse sets of stakeholders to gain legitimacy in the host country.

Through identifying CSR initiatives and the stakeholder discourse practiced at IBCs in the UAE, the aim of this qualitative research is to generate an understanding of strategic stakeholder management in the IBC context. This research is driven by two research questions: *1. How do IBCs build legitimacy in the host country through CSR initiatives? 2. How are stakeholder expectations identified and addressed in the CSR discourse?*

The next section discusses stakeholder theory and a range of stakeholders in transnational higher education. This is followed by explanations of the research design, the findings of the empirical research, a discussion, and concluding remarks.

Background

Stakeholder Theory and Organizational Legitimacy

Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) addresses the responsibilities of firms to their internal and external stakeholders and offers strategies for improving organizational effectiveness by adding value through firms' operations. Stakeholders are defined as "any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organization's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, p. 5). Managing stakeholder concerns and complying with their expectations is central for organizational legitimacy (Suchman, 1995).

There are two main theoretical approaches in legitimacy research that help in understanding how stakeholder management is practiced. First, the institutional approach in stakeholder management focuses on how organizations build support for their legitimacy by maintaining normative and widely endorsed organizational characteristics (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). This typically involves the development and maintenance of institutional structures, procedures, and personnel that would signal trustworthiness and credibility to outside audiences, as well as compliance with community expectations on social and environmental outcomes (Castello & Lozano, 2011). The second approach, the strategic approach, is a more instrumental approach, which views legitimacy and CSR as strategic tools and operational resources that help organizations' economic objectives (Garriga & Melé, 2004).

Distinguishing different stakeholders and understanding their specific expectations and demands are central to stakeholder theory, but at the same time, organizations cannot provide all of the social value for every stakeholder group. Instead, they need to prioritize their stakeholders and treat them differently based on their perceived legitimacy, the level of urgency of their needs, and the power they have over the organization (Freeman, 1984). In practice, while organizations may address a wide range of stakeholders in their official stakeholder discourse, the actual CSR practices may be addressed only towards certain stakeholder groups that are the most crucial evaluators of an organization's legitimacy.

Stakeholders in Transnational Higher Education

Addressing the web of stakeholders and their expectations in IBCs is a complex task as they are evaluated by their key stakeholders in both the home country, as well as the host country, where each stakeholder group has their own demands and dynamics. There are six key groups of external stakeholders in transnational higher education: government, industry, professional associations, students, parents, and the broader community (Bolton & Nie, 2010). In addition, faculty and staff are important internal stakeholders. To date, there is only one existing study that aimed to identify stakeholders particular to IBCs (see Farrugia & Lane, 2012). Whereas Farrugia and Lane (2012) collected data from IBCs' mission statements to understand how IBCs aim to build legitimacy in the host country, the present study focuses on stakeholder discourses found in IBCs' marketing materials in explaining how stakeholder management takes place.

Research Design

This empirical research focuses on 24 IBCs operating in the UAE that offer programs in business management and/or finance/economics.⁴ Data was collected from IBCs' marketing materials, such as student prospectuses, and institutional websites, for 2016 through 2018. In addition, because organizations may engage in overstatements in their marketing language and exaggerate the impact of their practices, visible examples of CSR initiatives were searched from IBCs' social media sites (Facebook and Twitter) to validate their claims.

The data analysis involved two phases, each following a different approach: content analysis and discourse analysis. The first phase focused on understanding IBCs' institutional approaches in building and maintaining legitimacy through their CSR initiatives and stakeholder discourse, as well as understanding IBCs' strategic approaches to CSR in which legitimacy is treated as an operational resource and in which the demands of certain stakeholders (students, parents, faculty and staff, government, industry, the community, and/or professional organizations) are prioritized. The data obtained from IBCs was analyzed by applying a content analysis method, which is a suitable method for analyzing and categorizing textual content.

The second phase of the data analysis used the same set of data but focused on a deeper analysis of the different types of discourses to reveal the underlying rationales behind IBCs' stakeholder discourse. To do that, discourse analysis was used as it allows the deeper meanings of text embedded within the wider social phenomenon to be interpreted. As a result, three specific types of stakeholder discourses were identified that are driven by distinct rationales.

Findings

Phase I: IBCs' Institutional and Strategic CSR Initiatives and Stakeholder Discourse

The content analysis revealed that most IBCs address various stakeholder groups in their stakeholder discourse, but not necessarily all of them. Furthermore, most IBCs were found to have evidence of actual CSR practices that supported their stakeholder discourse. Appendix A summarizes the findings of the content analysis: how seven groups of stakeholders were addressed in IBCs' stakeholder discourse and examples of CSR initiatives directed at these stakeholders.

⁴ Amity University, BITS Pilani, Cass Business School, Curtin University, Heriot Watt, Hult Business School, INSEAD, London Business School, Institute of Management Technology, Manchester Business School, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Middlesex University, Modul University, Murdoch University, New York Institute of Technology, New York University Abu Dhabi (NYUAD), Rochester Institute of Technology, Shaheed Zulfikar Ali Bhutto Institute of Science and Technology (SZABIST), Strathclyde Business School, Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi (SUAD), SP Jain, Synergy University, University of Bradford, University of Wollongong.

IBCs' institutional stakeholder discourse and CSR practices, as found in the research materials, made several claims on how the IBCs address stakeholder concerns as well as what is practiced. IBCs seem to place the most emphasis on students, their discourse and actual CSR initiatives. Student stakeholders were addressed through elaborate descriptions on what kind of education and experience the IBC offers. Notions such as a "vibrant student experience" (Middlesex University, 2018), and "stimulation of critical thinking" (Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi, 2018a) were used to demonstrate IBCs' education and service offerings. Furthermore, the availability of student services, counseling, and guidance were highlighted by a number of institutions (e.g., Manipal University, Heriot-Watt). Concrete CSR initiatives involving students were very visible. For example, IBCs post photos of student activities, trips, and sports competitions on their social media sites, as well as photos of student volunteering and presenting their research in seminars and conferences.

While student stakeholders were extensively addressed in the stakeholder discourse, parents seemed to get less attention. Surprisingly, only two IBCs offering undergraduate programs addressed parents; Amity University and Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi had separate sections in their communication materials specifically addressing parents. These messages focused on persuading parents why they should consider this particular IBC for their children. These messages were mainly marketing messages aimed to sell and persuade but did not aim to engage parents in the IBC's activities.

Faculty and staff stakeholders, in contrast, were addressed to some extent in the stakeholder discourse. While addressing internal stakeholders is considered to be a prerequisite of good organizational governance, many IBCs, surprisingly, tended to neglect addressing them specifically. Although all IBCs had sections about their faculty and staff, the information (who the faculty/staff are, their references, and contact details), as well as organizational charts, were mainly directed towards students and other stakeholders. Thus, the communication material mainly sought to inform. Those IBCs that addressed faculty and staff specifically (e.g., Amity University, Institute of Management Technology, Middlesex University, NYUAD) seemed to highlight what kind of organizational culture and values drive their employment strategies and how employees benefit in practice, but evidence of such practices was sometimes not visible in actual CSR practices. However, NYUAD seems to act as a pioneer IBC, as it has developed a very proactive stance towards addressing staff and faculty needs. The NYUAD website and social media (https://www.facebook.com/NYUAD/, (https://nyuad.nyu.edu/en/) https://twitter.com/NYUAbuDhabi) show images of staff appreciation days and training sessions.

Government stakeholders were addressed by most IBCs through their discursive attempts to gain legitimacy in the local context. In practice, this means partnering with the government or government-affiliated organizations and supporting government's future visions. Such practices were visible both on a discursive level as well as in practice. For example, Modul University has been nominated as the official partner of the Hamdan Centre for the Future of Investment—a global initiative under the umbrella of Dubai Economy that aims to promote the

contribution of foreign direct investment to foster sustainable development. Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi, on the other hand, has partnered with both local government-affiliated organizations, such as Abu Dhabi Tourism and Culture Authority and Abu Dhabi Art, as well as with organizations affiliated with the French government, such as Institut Français des Emirats Arabes Unis and Alliance Française. The partnerships typically involve organizing joint-activities, which are widely publicized on social media and the respective IBC's press releases.

Industry stakeholders seemed to gain a lot of attention in the discourse of IBCs, as IBCs highlight their role in providing graduates for industry needs. This manifests in collaborations with local and international organizations and industries through workshops and seminars to facilitate an exchange of ideas on promoting investment that enable businesses and communities to grow sustainably, as well as events in which IBCs promote student work placements and internships and facilitate direct recruitment from the institutions.

Community stakeholders also gained a lot of attention in IBCs' stakeholder discourse and practices. By engaging the community, IBCs can integrate a wide range of stakeholders as well as engage in practices that promote sustainability, inclusiveness, and other important societal agendas. For example, Amity University conducted an "International Workshop on Recent Trends in Solar Power Generation and Energy Harvesting" in March 2017, while BITS Pilani organized an "International Conference on Sustainable Manufacturing."

Lastly, professional associations were approached in IBCs' stakeholder discourse mainly in passive form. While it is a common practice for universities to highlight their accreditation and ranking status, defined by their institutional or national accreditation bodies and ranking organizations, such information is mainly only used for marketing purposes to signal legitimacy and the trustworthiness of the institution. In practice, the IBCs only referred to meeting the criteria of external evaluative organizations but did not engage in specific dialogue nor include CSR initiatives directed towards them.

Phase II: IBCs' Strategies in Legitimacy and CSR Discourse

A deeper look into IBCs' strategic CSR initiatives and stakeholder discourse revealed a number of distinct discourses and practices. Through discourse analysis, the following rationales of CSR discourse emerged: *altruistic*, *utilitarian*, and *political* discourses. Each of these themes involves unique aims and objectives, is directed towards different key stakeholder groups, and materializes specific types of stakeholder and CSR discourse, which are illustrated in Appendix B.

The altruistic discourse focuses on building IBCs' institutional legitimacy in the local community by focusing on community engagement and promoting of sustainability. These activities are practiced consciously or unconsciously to signal institutions' worthiness and acceptability (Castello & Lozano, 2011). In practice, this discourse was organized around

themes touching on sustainability, philanthropy, corporate citizenship, and innovation discourses. For example, Modul University articulates its role as an institution that aims to:

transform and innovate the way people think through education, research and service while putting sustainability at the forefront of our priorities and develop strategies that meet the demands of the present without compromising the welfare of future generations. Our ambition is linked to sustainability to endure the test of time while we believe through consistency we create integrity and through integrity we breed trust in pursuit of excellence. (Modul University, 2018)

The utilitarian discourse differs from the altruistic discourse as it has a more practical and strategic purpose—to build IBCs' organizational legitimacy by focusing on aspects associated with good governance, practices that may be linked to organizational efficiency but focus on financial performance. The key themes in this stream of discourse focus on reputation, organizational strategy, and governance rhetoric. Utilitarian discourse manifests, for example, in Murdoch University's mission:

These values are an intrinsic part of the Murdoch University culture: Equity and social justice, global responsibility, innovation and entrepreneurship, sustainability. Engagement with internal and external stakeholders, including our students, staff, alumni, industry, government and communities in which we live and work, will underpin all of our activities. Commercial and financial rigour will underpin the University's decision making at all levels of the organisation, and will help increase resources for pursuing strategic priorities. (Murdoch University, 2018)

The political discourse, on the other hand, is a distinct type of discourse as it aims to build IBCs' political legitimacy and avoid stakeholders' criticism towards IBCs' activities by strategically addressing and prioritizing certain stakeholders, such as the government, and addressing their needs. This discourse manifests in IBCs' broader stakeholder statements that are directed at a wide range of institutional stakeholders. Such statements consist of institutional promises addressing the legitimacy of the institution and why it exists. For example, Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi aims to serve as a "true bridge between civilisations" (Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi, 2018b) by organizing concerts, panel discussion sessions, opera and musical concerts, theater and poetry evenings, art and photography exhibitions, and sports tournaments to engage and bond with various stakeholder groups.

Discussion and Conclusions

The findings of this paper support Farrugia and Lane's (2012) findings that IBCs address several types of stakeholders in their stakeholder discourse and CSR initiatives and that IBCs are likely to adapt their CSR initiatives to locally suitable ones when operating in the host country to accommodate the demands of the stakeholders in the host country.

The stakeholder discourse and CSR practices were found to involve both institutional and strategic approaches. From an institutional perspective, CSR initiatives and stakeholder management facilitate IBCs to be seen as more legitimate establishments for stakeholders, both in the home and host country. From a strategic perspective, the more legitimate and sustainable they are, the better, which may materialize in improved financial performance, a better internal and external reputation, and being subject to less criticism from stakeholders. This, in the long term, has an impact on IBCs' cognitive, taken-for-granted legitimacy, which is of utmost importance for organizational survival as organizations are dependent on stakeholders' support and acceptance (see Suchman, 1995). An ability to understand, generate, and harness this kind of unique social capital is crucial for IBC managers and their strategic planning.

Furthermore, the stakeholder discourse was found to follow three distinct types of discourses defined as *altruistic*, *utilitarian*, and *political* discourses. Each of these themes involves unique rationales, is directed towards different key stakeholder groups, and materializes in specific types of stakeholder and CSR discourses. According to Bolton and Nie (2010), transnational higher education offers the potential for value creation through building legitimacy. By strategically employing these three stakeholder discourses, IBCs have the potential to address different stakeholders and create value for them by addressing their needs and influencing them. IBC managers should build strategies for stakeholder management by identifying and prioritizing their key stakeholders based on their perceived levels of legitimacy, urgency, and power. Future research could address IBCs in different countries and explore the kind of stakeholder management and CSR practices that take place.

To conclude, this research discussed how IBCs practice CSR and how they identify and address the needs of stakeholders to gain legitimacy in the UAE. The findings are of relevance to the managers of IBCs as well as to academics studying transnational higher education. This research naturally has its limitations. It only focuses on those IBCs in the UAE that offer programs in business management and/or finance/economics and, hence, does not represent all IBCs. Future research could address IBCs in different countries and explore their stakeholder management and CSR practices.

References

- Bolton, D., & Nie, R. (2010). Creating value in transnational higher education: The role of stakeholder management. Academy of Management Learning and Education, 9(4), 701-714.
- Castello, I., & Lozano, J. M. (2011). Searching for new forms of legitimacy through corporate responsibility rhetoric. Journal of Business Ethics, 100, 11-29.
- DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. American Sociological Review, 48(2), 147-160.
- Farrugia, C. A., & Lane, J. (2012). Legitimacy in cross-border higher education: Identifying stakeholders of international branch campuses. Journal of Studies in International Education, 17(4), 414-432.
- Freeman, E. (1984). Strategic management: A stakeholder approach. Boston, MA: Pitman Publishing.
- Garrett, R., Kinser, K., Lane, J., & Merola, R. (2017). International branch campuses: Success factors of mature IBCs. London, England: OBHE/C-BERT.
- Garriga, E., & Melé, D. (2004). Corporate social responsibility theories: Mapping the territory. Journal of Business Ethics, 53(1-2), 51-71.
- Middlesex University. (2018). Strategy overview. Retrieved September 15, 2018 from https://www.mdx.ac.ae/strategy-overview
- Modul University. (2018). Vision & mission. Retrieved September 15, 2018 from https://www.modul.ac.ae/about-modul/general-information/vision-mission-and-values
- Murdoch University. (2018). Vision statement. Retrieved September 15, 2018 from http://www.murdochdubai.ac.ae/About-us/Vision-Statement/
- Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi (2018a). Prospectus: Master in sustainable development law. Retrieved September 15, 2018 from https://www.sorbonne.ae/
- Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi (2018b). Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi. Retrieved September 15, 2018 from https://www.sorbonne.ae/
- Suchman, M. C. (1995). Managing legitimacy: Strategic and institutional approaches. Academy of Management Review, 20(3), 571-610.

Appendix A

Stakeholder Discourse and CSR Initiatives vis-à-vis Key Stakeholders

Stakeholder	Stakeholder discourse	Examples of CSR initiatives
Students	Provides a caring, student-centric, enriching environment for students that helps in developing a wide range of skills and knowledge needed for success in a global, competitive environment, as well as placing importance on students' community engagement.	Student activities and trips, athletics, offering student counseling and information on well-being, self- development, etc. Involving students with volunteering in the local community and supporting participation in academic conferences, workshops, and seminars. Offering scholarships for high-achieving students with financial constraints.
Parents	Providing rationales for how the IBC offers good quality, rigorous education and how students will benefit from their education. Ensuring that the parents are getting the best return on their investment in their children's education.	NA
	Number of IBCs addressing this stakeholder group: 2	
Faculty and staff	Providing a good place to work, emphasizing support for continuous self-development in careers and in research, employee engagement and creation of high-performance culture.	Providing fair working and living conditions for faculty and staff, providing healthcare services, providing financial support for faculty research through research funds, staff and faculty appreciation days, offering training courses for faculty and staff.

	Number of IBCs addressing this stakeholder group: 5	
Government	Engaging with local, national, and global policy communities to take part in policy-making and for facilitating social mobility, skills, and productivity growth.	Partnerships and organization of joint-activities (e.g., seminars, panel discussions with cultural, scientific, and financial entities affiliated with the government). Creating strategic centers for the development of the government's future visions.
Industry	Collaboration with local and international organizations and industries, providing a platform for universities and industries to meet to discuss the latest research, practices, and future challenges in development of innovative products, processes, and practices with emphasis on environmental, economic, and societal aspects of the business.	Partnerships and organization of joint-activities (e.g., workshops, seminars) with local organizations, involving local organizations with student work placements and internships, and facilitating direct recruitment of students from IBCs.
	Number of IBCs addressing this stakeholder group: 8	
Community	Getting involved with the external community to engage and promote inclusive engagement of citizens and the IBC. All stakeholder groups are aimed to be engaged through practicing citizenship behavior.	Organizing cultural and communal events, celebrating religious and other occasions, involvement with local non-profit sector, such as advocacy groups and social philanthropic foundations, spreading awareness and attempting to impact on issues related to cultural tolerance and inclusiveness, as well as global issues such as climate change and poverty.
	Number of IBCs addressing this stakeholder group: 9	

Professional	Meeting the criteria of external evaluative organizations,	NA
associations	such as accreditation and ranking organizations.	
	Number of IBCs addressing this stakeholder group: 0	

Appendix B

Stakeholder and CSR discourse

	Altruistic discourse	Utilitarian discourse	Political discourse
Aims and objectives	This discourse aims to build IBCs' institutional legitimacy in the local community by focusing on community engagement and promoting sustainability.	This discourse aims to build IBCs' organizational legitimacy by focusing on aspects associated with good governance practices that may be linked to organizational efficiency but focus on financial performance.	This discourse aims to build IBCs' political legitimacy and avoid stakeholders' criticism towards IBCs' activities by strategically addressing the expectations of home and host country stakeholders by prioritizing certain stakeholders and addressing their needs.
Key stakeholder groups addressed	Local community, government, industry, students	Internal stakeholders, government	Internal and external stakeholders in the home and host country, mainly policy-makers
Key themes in stakeholder and CSR discourse	Sustainability, philanthropy, citizenship, innovation	Reputation, strategy, governance	Broader stakeholder dialogue addressing multiple constituents
Theoretical perspective on legitimacy and CSR	Institutional	Strategic	Institutional and Strategic

A Case Study on Student Preferences for Public, Private, or Community College Education at a Private University in Saudi Arabia

Dr. Ziad Shaker ElJishi Heba Shehata

Effat University

Abstract

This was a case study of undergraduate female students registered at a private university in Saudi Arabia on their preferences on deciding on a university to study at. The study surveyed and interviewed Saudi and non-Saudi students with a sample size of 363 (321 Saudi and 42 non-Saudi). The study's findings indicate that the majority of students surveyed favored private university over public university and community college. The interviews showed that student life and a high-quality education were the two main factors determining the students' preferences for a private university. The need for the study comes from little evidence reporting on Saudi female student preferences for university study found in the literature. The implications of the study inform government officials and university administrators on factors favored by Saudi female students regarding university choice.

Acknowledgement: I would like to acknowledge my GSEM 200 students for helping me in the data collection process.

Introduction

In our research, we discovered little existing literature on Saudi female preferences and motivation in selecting a college to study at. The motivation behind this research study was to give a voice of an important stakeholder, the female Saudi student. The need for this research project comes from the need to investigate Saudi female students' preferences of private university institutes and to identify the factors deemed important in influencing their university choice. With the liberalization of female rights in the country taking place now, female Saudi students represent important stakeholders in the strategic planning of institutes of higher education in the country, with the expected number of women seeking an education and employment in the Saudi "Vision for 2030" to increase and to gain more prominence. Thus, the main research question of this study asked students their preferences for public, private, or community college institutes and what the reasons for their choice were.

With the spread of globalization, the influence of the English language on higher education institutes of the Arab Gulf has been increasing, as has the number of private universities. Historically, the first universities founded were in the Arab world, with Jama'at Al-Qaraween in 859 recognized as the first proper university proper founded in the world (Denman & Hilal,

2011). The evolution of universities as state run institutions of learning saw them become either free tuition universities or tuition-based universities. Along the way came private universities with many founded and sponsored by religious institutions, such as Catholic private universities in the United States. Though some private colleges are founded as not-for-profit, most private colleges are known either to be for-profit or elitist institutions, charging high tuition fees for enrollment.

By contrast, public universities are meant to be more affordable and community colleges to be the least expensive option in the US. However, it is equally important to note that under the spread of globalization, public universities in the United States, for example, have witnessed a steady increase in tuition fees over the last decades with unprecedented tuition fees being charged today. In fact, there has been a 400% increase since the 1980s corresponding to a financial crisis affecting US-based public universities (Auter, 2017). The ramifications of this have negatively affected students as well, with the majority of college students in the US seeking student loans in order to finance their college education. The post-World War II era in the USA saw the evolution of the previously known two-year junior college into the community college (also known as the city college), with increased numbers of enrolled veteran students who needed to earn a quick education in order to be integrated into the workforce.

Under the influence of globalization, universities in the USA and around the world, have evolved into the new concepts of the *entrepreneurial university* and the *sustainable university*. The entrepreneurial university is the notion that a university can work with the government and industry to use its innovation to promote economic growth, as well as to increase its financial advantage for the institution itself and its faculty (Yarime et al., 2012). This concept has now given way to the idea of a sustainable university (Weenen, 2000). The sustainable university is concerned with promoting sustainable solutions towards social justice and environmental wellbeing for society (Yarime et al., 2012).

In the case of Saudi Arabia, many public and private universities exist today, with universities struggling to meet the demands of an increasing student body. Also, there has been the increased need to instill measures to safe-guard the quality of education being offered (Alkhazim, 2003). Education in Saudi Arabia is free for Saudi students in public universities with the added bonus of providing students with monthly stipends for personal spending. In the case of not-for-profit private universities, a scholarship program is in place to cover the tuition fees of students enrolled. Yet many Saudi students choose to study abroad to complete their post-bachelor's degree studies. With the help of the scholarship program initiated by the late King Abdullah, students are able to attend universities in the US, UK, and other countries. In the case of the United States alone, there were close to 60,000 Saudi students studying in 2015, and Saudi Arabia is cited as the fourth most common country of origin out of the top 25 countries with international students studying in the USA (Institute of International Education, 2015).

Conducting a literature review of student preferences for private, public, or community college yielded a limited number of studies. We began our literature review search with studies within the United States and then expanded our search beyond the US. At first, we found one paper by Kindle and Colby (2008) that discussed college preferences for a master's degree program in social work in the USA. In this study, like ours, they reported that in review of existing literature they were unable to find many papers related to social work, and that reported on student preferences for choosing a public university versus a private university. Thus, this literature review will be organized with a discussion of the studies we found in the US, followed by a discussion of the studies we found outside the United States.

First, we discuss the studies we found from the USA. The study by Kindle and Colby (2008) cited three studies on student college preferences: Fellin (1983) focused on students at the University of Michigan School of Social Work, while Sanchez, Mindel, and Saleebey (1980) and Bowie, Cherry, and Wooding (2005) surveyed minority students. Given the lack of data found in the social work field, Kindle and Colby (2008) expanded the scope of their literature review to include results of a report by Augusto (2000) that surveyed preferences of students across all disciplines in their choice of public versus private university.

Using a survey of 2,289 graduate students enrolled in college, Kindle and Colby's own study (2008) found that "reputation related and employment-related reasons" were the main reasons students gave for choosing to enroll at a private university. The major reason students chose a public university to study in was location. The Fellin (1983) study reported different results, with social connections being the dominant reason for choosing a college. In a survey given by Sanchez et al. (1980) to minority students in 1976, the results indicated that the ranked curriculum and location were the primary reasons for students' choice of college to attend. Bowie et al. (2005), who surveyed African American students at two Florida colleges and one Tennessee college, reported geographic location and type of program as the most important in student decision to join a graduate college.

Last of all, the report published by Augusto (2000) surveyed 1,142 graduate school applicants who took the GRE General Test in October 1999. Students preferred large or medium-sized universities and public over private schools (39.4% to 16.9%), with 42.3% of students reporting that the public/private distinction did not matter to them. Graduate students identified location and a program's academic reputation as the important factors in their decision to select a college to attend. However, location was not an obstacle as around 65% stated that they would move more than 100 miles from their current residence to attend a college (Augusto, 2000). Looking at the papers in sum, it appears that academic reputation of the program was the most common theme across the four studies considered.

Second, evidence from countries outside the USA shows that academic quality (quality of teaching and teachers) was the determining factor in students' assessment and satisfaction of their college experience. Findings from a case study at a private university in Turkey (Turan, Cetinkaya, & Ustun, 2016) indicate teaching and research as the most important factors for

students' assessment of their university. Similarly, a survey of student satisfaction with the higher educational institutes in Pakistan from both private and public university students (Butta & Rehmanb, 2010) show teacher expertise as the most important factor in students' evaluation of their college.

We can now easily draw a link between *academic quality* being an important factor in the studies from outside the USA and the *academic reputation* of colleges as an important factor cited in studies from the USA. Lastly, we found no studies presenting data on Saudi student preferences for private or public university study. This constituted the need for conducing this study of student choice for public versus private university in Saudi Arabia.

Methodology

This study used a non-experimental research design with a mixed methods approach. The quantitative data was collected through a close-ended questionnaire survey, while the qualitative data was collected through unstructured interviews of students, where students were asked to explain their answers given in the survey. A thematic content analysis approach was used to analyze the interview transcripts, and the various themes were coded with frequency numbers assigned to them to calculate percent response rates for each identified theme. The case study took place at a private university in Saudi Arabia where the participants were female undergraduate students from a variety of disciplines with a sample size of 363 (321 Saudi and 42 non-Saudi). The sample was chosen through a convenience non-random sampling method for both the surveys and interviews. All participants signed an informed consent form before joining the study.

Results

Overall, the survey results (Figure 1) for Saudi female students (n=321) showed overall that these students were in favor of private universities (47% of total responses), while second place was given to community colleges (30%). Public universities constituted 22% of the total responses, and no preference constituted 1% of the total responses.

Figure 1. Survey results for Saudi and non-Saudi female undergraduate students.



As shown in Figure 1, survey results for non-Saudi female students (n=42) were similar to those of Saudi female students, with 49% of total responses in favor of private universities, 28% in favor of community colleges, 19% in favor of public universities, and 4% had no preference.

Overall, the results show that preference is given by both Saudi and non-Saudi undergraduate students to private universities over public, in which it contrasts the literature where no preference was found for US students (Augusto, 2000).

Based on the survey results that indicated private universities as being the most popular choice of students, the follow-up interviews asked students who had chosen private universities, why they preferred private universities. The results (Figure 2) indicate that Saudi undergraduate female students (n=125) preferred private university for their university activities, relationships they could build with their peers, and the university's environment, followed by their perception that they would obtain a better quality education degree and have smaller class sizes. The results shown in Figure 2 depict the major themes found in Saudi female student responses, which constituted 80% of the total interview themes found.

Non-Saudi female undergraduate students (n=13) preferred the private university because of their perception that they would obtain a better quality educational degree, and have better instructors, the university activities and social environment provided. The results shown in Figure 2 only depict the major themes found in non-Saudi female student responses, which constituted 90% of the total interview themes found.

Figure 2. Interview results for the reasons female undergraduate students choose a private university.



Similar to what was found in the literature (Augusto, 2000; Butta & Rehmanb, 2010; Turan et al., 2016), both Saudi and non-Saudi undergraduate female students, indicated that the quality of education and instruction as determining factors in their choice of which university to study at. A quote taken from an interview of a Saudi undergraduate student illustrates this: "The quality of education in the private colleges has improved my decision to study in one of them." A non-Saudi undergraduate student reflects the same point: "I prefer the private universities because I believe they have a better quality of Education and are more challenging to study at." Moreover, both Saudi and non-Saudi female undergraduate students believe that the smaller classes at private universities allow students to better focus on the instructor. A Saudi undergraduate female student explains this: "The number of students is less and [the] focus is more."

As for instruction in the English language being an advantage, a Saudi undergraduate student explains: "For me the English language [sic] important things in private college." In addition, Saudi undergraduate female students see the flexibility in choosing a major as yet another advantage in choosing a private university over a public university: "The private college [sic] more flexible. ... the rules are more flexible. ...the private college can allow students [sic] choose their majors to study in."

What was unique in the findings of this study was the importance of the open environment of the university, the activities offered, and the relationships students could build with their peers. Both Saudi and non-Saudi students deemed student life that includes an open environment, where students could express themselves through activities that grow their personal development skills, social relations that strengthen their personalities and communication skills; and social relations with others as amongst the more important factors, regarded as advantages, offered by their choice of studying at a private university. A quote by a female

undergraduate Saudi student illustrates this: "because they focus on building your personality not just educate [sic] you. They also care about your future career and focus on each student specifically. ... I like the activities and how we become more independent and socially responsible." A quote by a non-Saudi undergraduate female student further explains this: "They don't care only for the education. They also have so much [sic] activities and entertainment that helps to improve the students' personality [sic] as well. Everyone treat [sic] the other like a family."

Hence, the two quotes above illustrate how students recognize that personal development is just as important as academic development in the universities that they choose to attend.

Overall, student quotes explain the quality of education, instruction in English, small class sizes, flexibility in choosing a major, an open learning environment, and activities as the most important reasons for their choice to attend a private university.

In summary, we have identified two factors as the most important in students' preference for private university: quality of education and student life Student life includes: students' participation in university planned activities inside and outside the university, the ability of students to study in a free academic environment including their ability to express their ideas and concerns, and students being able to build social relationships with their peers. All factors are deemed by students as important in promoting students' personal growth and providing skills outside academic learning. Second, there is a perception that the quality of their education is better at a private university because smaller class sizes lead to a better educational experience with more focus on students. In the case of Saudi students, the flexibility provided allows them to choose the major they want, and, lastly, their ability to study in the English language is also seen as an advantage.

Recommendations and Takeaways

Implications of the study inform both government officials in education and university administrators of private and public universities alike on what is important for students in their choice of private university and in choosing a university in general. Recommendations of the study are that government officials and university administrators in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries support student preferences for a college by: providing a vibrant university student life with an environment of academic freedom that is flexible and open to student participation; emphasizing the importance of maintaining a high quality of education for students by recruiting high quality instructors and maintaining high academic standards; providing smaller class sizes that give more attention to students; and strengthen the English language skills of the students.

The emphasis on good instructors and the quality of the teaching is not unlike what we have found in the literature in countries outside the US (Butta & Rehmanb, 2010; Turan et al., 2016). Student preferences for a strong academic reputation and strong curriculum were likewise similar to student preferences for colleges in the USA as cited in the literature (Augusto, 2000;

Sanchez et al., 1980). Students' recognition of smaller classroom sizes that lead to positive student, teacher, and academic achievements in the classroom correspond well with what has been long noted (Smith & Glass, 1980). Last of all, the emphasis on good English language preparation is most likely related to employment in a globalized economy that features many companies requiring a good command of the English language for prospective employees. Emphasis on good English language preparation is also a reason for studying abroad in English speaking countries, and an increasing number of Saudi students are going to the US, for example, for their graduate degrees (Institute of International Education, 2015).

A limitation of the study is that it surveyed and interviewed female undergraduate students registered at a private school in Saudi Arabia. The study necessitates a follow-up future research study that surveys and interviews female undergraduate students registered in a public university in Saudi Arabia in order to compliment the results collected in this study. Such a future study could ask students registered at a public university in Saudi Arabia about their preferences for public, private, or community college and capture their reasoning for their preference.

Conclusion

The results of this study show that both Saudi and non-Saudi female undergraduate students value student life, as well as the perception of obtaining a better-quality education, as major reasons for choosing a private university. In the context of the GCC, what was unique in this study was the importance given to student life by Saudi female undergraduate students. The activities provided by the university, the open-university environment, and students' ability to express themselves and build social relationships with their peers were very important in their preference for a private university to study in. As we did not find any references in the literature that address female Saudi undergraduate preferences for choosing a university to study at, we believe the results of this study contribute to providing data to address this gap in the literature. Moreover, the results of this study provide important information on possible reform for public universities which, as the case may be here in Saudi Arabia, may not offer enough of an openuniversity environment, with social and academic opportunities for student growth, flexibility in choice of major, or adequate preparation in the English language that students of the Arab Gulf today deem as important considerations when choosing a university. As such, this represents an opportunity for a future research study that might look at the motivation and obstacles faced by Saudi female undergraduate students enrolled in a public university in Saudi Arabia.
References

- Alkhazim, M. A. (2003). Higher education in Saudi Arabia: Challenges, solutions, and opportunities missed. *Higher Education Policy*, 16, 479-486. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave. hep.8300035.
- Augusto, J. (2000). A report on the uses of the Internet in selecting a graduate program: A collaboration between the National Association of Graduate Admissions Professionals and the Graduate Record Examinations. NAGAP Research Reports and Studies, June 5, 2005. Retrieved from http:// www.nagap.org/downloads/ets.pdf
- Auter, Z. (2017). What Gallup learned about higher education in 2017 [Blog post]. Retrieved from http://news.gallup.com/opinion/gallup/224444/gallup-learned-higher-education 2017.aspx?g_source=link_NEWSV9&g_medium=TOPIC&g_campaign=item_&g_co ntent=What%2520Gallup%2520Learned%2520About%2520Higher%2520Education %2520in%25202017
- Bowie, S. L., Cherry, D. J., & Wooding, L. H. (2005). African American MSW students: Personal influences on social work careers and factors in graduate school selection. *Social Work Education*, 24, 169-184.
- Butta, B. Z., & Rehmanb, K. U. (2010). A study examining the students satisfaction in higher education. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2010), 5446-5450.
- Denman, B. D., & Hilal, K. T. (2011). From barriers to bridges: An investigation on Saudi student mobility (2006–2009). *International Review of Education*, 57(2011), 299-318. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11159-011-9221-0
- Fellin, P. (1983). Student recruitment: Recommendations from an applicant survey. *Journal of Education for Social Work*, *19*(1), 31-37.
- Institute of International Education. (2015). Open doors fact sheet: Saudi Arabia. *Open Doors Report on International Educational Exchange*. Retrieved from http://www.iie.org /opendoors
- Kindle, P. A, & Colby, I. (2008). School selection preferences of public and private university MSW students: A retrospective study. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 44(3), 97-113.
- Sanchez, J. H., Mindel, C. H., & Saleebey, D. (1980). Factors influencing the decision of minority students to attend graduate schools of social work. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 7, 665-678.

- Smith, M. L., & Glass, G. V. (1980). Meta-analysis of research on class-size and its relationship to attitudes and instruction. *American Educational Research Journal*, 17(4), 419-433.
- Turan, F. K., Cetinkaya, S., & Ustun, C. (2016). A methodological framework to analyze stakeholder preferences and propose strategic pathways for a sustainable university. *Higher Education*, 72(6), 743-760.
- Weenen, H. (2000). Towards a vision of a sustainable university. *International Journal of* Sustainability in Higher Education, 1(1), 20-34.
- Yarime, M., Trencher, G., Mino, T., Scholz, R. W., Olsson, L., Ness, B., ... Rotmans, J. (2012). Establishing sustainability science in higher education institutions: Towards an integration of academic development, institutionalization, and stakeholder collaborations. *Sustainability Science*, 7(1), 101-113.

Learner Motivation: The Dynamic and Diverse Construct

Nour Al Okla

Al Ghurair University

Abstract

Motivational influences have been acknowledged to play an important role in the process of second language learning. However, the construct of learner motivation is rarely explored as a diverse and dynamic construct. This study investigates the various motivational factors which influence Arab undergraduate learners in the UAE. The data was collected using a survey, feeling graphic scale, and learners' written responses to written prompts. The findings of the study emphasized the importance of the construct of language learner motivation as a dynamic and complex construct in light of the second language motivational self-system. The data also revealed fluctuations among the learners' emotions, which in turn influenced their motivation to learn. While the participants held different attitudes and beliefs towards learning English, these factors were found influential in learner investment and motivation. The study calls for a new conceptualization of learner motivation considering the complexity and dynamicity of this construct. It also emphasizes the importance of raising the awareness of language learners and teachers of the vital role played by learner motivation in the success of language learners.

Introduction

Learner motivation has been acknowledged as an influential factor which plays a vital role in language learners' development (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Ushioda, 2001). The level of learner motivation is considered an indicator of learners' investment of time and effort in the learning process. Although learner motivation has gained increased attention during the past few decades, research has mostly concentrated on the quantitative aspect of motivation where it is usually measured by quantitative research methods. Moreover, research on learner motivation has focused on the investigation of the integrative and instrumental orientations of learner motivation, which limits the understanding of this complex and dynamic construct.

The purpose of this study is to focus on the complexity of language learner motivation by integrating qualitative research methods to depict the various aspects and influences of learner motivation on language learning. Therefore, the study aims to answer the question: How does learner motivation influence the language learning process? The study addresses this question from a comprehensive perspective using quantitative and qualitative methods where motivation is viewed from the learners' perspective. The findings emphasize the uniqueness, diversity, and dynamicity of language learner motivation.

This study provides an overview of the diverse studies on learner motivation including the second language motivational self-system, a brief account of the research methodology, and a discussion of the key findings, which indicate the complexity and the dynamicity of learner motivation.

Background

Motivation at a Glance

Learner motivation first gained importance through some of the early research, which was conducted by Gardner and his associates in 1959 and focused on motivation as a major factor in language learners' success in Canada. Second language (L2) learner motivation was researched from a socio-psychological perspective with the social context of learning taken into consideration (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Gardner and his associates viewed learner motivation as driven by two main orientations: integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. An integrative motivational orientation is comprised of the inner desire of a language learner to learn a target language and be an integrated part of the target language community (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). An instrumental orientation, on the other hand, refers to the practical reasons which encourage a learner to learn the language, such as job interests or academic purposes. Therefore, learners with integrative motivational orientations are believed to be more enthusiastic to learn the target language than learners with instrumental motivational orientations (Gardner et al., 1997; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Integrative motivation has been considered one of the most essential variables which influenced language learning for more than three decades (e.g., Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

Although the conceptualization of language learner motivation in Gardner's socio-educational model prevailed for a long time, it had its limitations, as many researchers viewed learner motivation as a construct driven by mainly two orientations, integrative and instrumental. The shift to a new conceptualization of language learner motivation occurred when Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggested that motivation should be viewed as a dynamic construct which can influence and be influenced by specific situational classroom experiences.

This call for a new conceptualization of learner motivation paved the way to introduce new theories in motivation such as the process-oriented approach in which motivation is viewed as a complex, dynamic, and situation-specific process (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). Researchers started to view learner motivation in relation to different contextual and personal factors such as the learners' past learning experiences, the role of the teacher, and the learners' beliefs and attitudes towards language learning. For instance, it was found that a learner's past learning experiences influence the way a learner perceives the learning process and affects their motivation, indicating that there is a positive correlation between the learning experiences and the level of motivation of language learners (Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, 2001). Moreover, positive influence of teachers was associated with high levels of learner motivation among language learners and vice versa (Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005).

Other factors, such as learners' self-confidence, investment, and beliefs and feelings about the target language, were also connected to language learners' motivation. The findings of these studies indicate a correlation between high levels of learner motivation and better learning outcomes.

The L2 Motivational Self-System

A recent shift in L2 motivational research occurred when motivation began to be viewed as closely related to the inner aspect of the learner's self. L2 learners need to be viewed as real people influenced by their own cultural and historical contexts (Ushioda, 2009). This conceptual move to explore the self-concept in relation to L2 learner motivation was led by Dörnyei (2005, 2009). Dörnyei created the "L2 Motivational Self-System," which consists of three main components: the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self, and the L2 Learning Experience (Dörnyei, 2009).

The Ideal L2 Self refers to the language learners' hopes for their futures as language learners. Therefore, it is highly associated with the images the learners have of themselves after they have gained the language. The Ideal L2 Self is considered the most powerful motivational drive because "it represents the learners' desire to reduce the discrepancy between their actual and ideal selves" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). The second component of Dörnyei's L2 motivational self-system, is the Ought-to L2 Self which consists of the external motives that are led by social norms and expectations. The Ought-to L2 Self is related to the extrinsic factors that influence language learners and, therefore, is considered a weaker motivational drive than the Ideal L2 Self.

Dörnyei added the L2 Learning Experience dimension to indicate the importance of the situated learning process. According to Dörnyei, the L2 Learning Experience "concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). The L2 Learning Experience includes the various influences of the teacher, the learning group, the curriculum, and the learner's past experiences of success.

These three components constitute the L2 Motivational Self-System as a comprehensive system that includes all of the influential factors on language learner motivation.

Research Methodology

The participants in the study included 37 female and male Arab undergraduate students from two universities selected randomly in the UAE. The data gathering period lasted for a total of 16-weeks spread over two successive semesters. The data was collected via three different research instruments: a survey, a feeling graphic scale, and learners' written responses to written prompts.

The survey included 13 closed items and three open-ended questions, which mainly addressed the participants' learning experiences, beliefs, feelings, and attitudes towards learning English

as a second language. The final question included a graph through which the participants were invited to reflect on possible changes in their feelings about learning English throughout the duration of the study. The graph was designed to measure the fluctuations in the learners' emotions and the influence of these emotions on the participants' motivation during the study.

The written prompts were designed to help the participants express their beliefs, convey their feelings, and comment on the use of English in their lives. They were also used to detect any possible changes that might influence the learners' motivation during the time of data collection. The written prompts were distributed electronically using emails and the WhatsApp Smart Phone Application.

Key Findings

The analysis of the data in this study revealed three main categories: learners' attitudes and beliefs, manifestations of the L2 motivational self, and the dynamicity of second language learner motivation.

Learners' Attitudes and Beliefs

Most of the participants in this study held positive attitudes and beliefs towards learning English as a second language. Ninety-seven percent of the participants highlighted the importance of the role of the teacher in the language learning process (Figure 1). This indicates that most of the participants showed awareness of the vital role that teachers play in influencing the learners in any field. This coincides with the results of previous studies where the role of the teacher influenced learner motivation in language learning, such as studies by Ushioda (2001) and Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005).

Another dominant result was the participants' beliefs in the importance of the English language as a means of attaining better job opportunities (80%). This refers to the pragmatic side of learner motivation where the Ought-to L2 Motivational Self is highlighted. Moreover, when the participants were asked about their previous learning experiences, 45% of them indicated that they had positive learning experiences with English, whereas only 14% of the participants recalled negative experiences. These results might have influenced the participants' inclination to invest in learning English, as 74% of them expressed their willingness to continue after graduating from college. Only 26% were not enthusiastic to do so. Such attitudes and beliefs indicate that most participants held positive feelings towards learning English as a second language. This is clearly shown in the results of the survey as 86% expressed positive feelings towards learning English, 71% indicated that they felt proud when they spoke or used English in their daily life, and 73% expressed that they felt self-confident when they used English in different contexts. While most of the participants pointed out positive feelings in connection with the English language, 26% of the participants had negative feelings, choosing the fear of embarrassment and lack of self-confidence as the reasons for their lack of participation in different learning settings. These results can be connected to the previous studies which found a correlation between learners' positive feelings and beliefs towards the target language, high levels of learners' self-confidence, and the learners' investment in language learning (Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, 2001).



Figure 1. Frequency of Learners' Beliefs and Feelings

L2 Motivational Self Manifested in the Learners' Selves

The manifestations of the L2 motivational self were inferred from the written responses that the participants submitted in response to the prompts provided. Most of the participants expressed a clear vision of their future jobs and their future need and use of English as a means of communication. For instance, one participant wrote that his English language proficiency would be flawless and that he wanted to become a teacher of management in English. This can be considered a clear manifestation of the Ideal L2 Self where the learner has a vivid image of his future including the English language. Another example that uses imagery as an indicator of the Ideal L2 Self was stated by a female participant who viewed her future as an English teacher and her "English will be perfect." Nevertheless, the Ought-to L2 Self was also manifested in the participants' written responses for English, as it was viewed as an instrument to attain a better job opportunity because "the market now needs English."

Motivation as a Dynamic Construct

As the participants were requested to mark their feelings throughout the duration of the study on a feeling graph, three patterns for the participants' feelings appeared. These patterns indicated consistent emotions, increase in some participants' positive emotions, and decrease in some participants' positive emotions during the study. Forty-five percent of the participants maintained the same level of their positive feelings throughout the duration of the study, 33% of them experienced an increase in their positive feelings towards the end of the study, and 21% of them had negative feelings towards learning English at the end of the study. The participants' feelings varied from negative feelings (sad, tired, confused) to positive feelings (enthusiastic, excited, proud). As the duration of the study lasted for sixteen weeks, the participants experienced different feelings and levels of motivation. For instance, by the end of the study, the participants were having their midterm exams which might have influenced their feelings towards learning the target language. The participants who experienced a decrease in their positive feelings were slightly demotivated to learn the language. This can be an indication of learners' fluctuating emotions impacting their language learning motivation.

The Complex Construct

The findings indicate that the participants' motivation is influenced by several factors including their attitudes and beliefs towards the English language, which can clearly influence their investment in learning and using the language. Moreover, the results of the feeling graph suggest that the fluctuation in the learners' emotions are influenced by many variables which in turn influence the learners' motivation as there is correlation between the learners' feelings towards the target language and the level of investment in the learning process. These findings provide evidence of the dynamicity of the construct of learner motivation as an evolving and changing construct. Therefore, learner motivation needs to be examined as a situational and dynamic construct that is likely to change over time.

Learner motivation, as concluded from the findings of the study, has proven to be a dynamic construct likely to change over time, a diverse construct in terms of the roles and influences that it plays in the learners' selves, and a unique construct that differs from one learner to another. This diversity of motivational influences, the uniqueness of the learners in their reflections and motivational derivations, and the dynamicity of language learner motivation are all indicators of the complexity of this evolving construct. This entails a new conceptualization of learner motivation as the old paradigm of integrative and instrumental orientations is not sufficient in this new vision of learner motivation.

Pedagogical Implications

The new conceptualization of the dynamic and complex construct of learner motivation taking into consideration the L2 motivational self-system entails many implications that are related to both language learners and language teachers.

Implications for Language Learners

Going forward, it is important that language learners understand that their motivation to learn an additional language is susceptible to change over time, which means that they might experience fluctuations in the level of their motivation. Learners also need to be equipped with various means to assist them in managing their emotions as these emotions play a vital role in their learning motivation. Therefore, language learners need be aware of the importance of their motivation and the dynamicity of this complex construct. This will help them better understand and manage these fluctuations and any feelings of frustration they might encounter throughout their learning journey.

Implications for Language Teachers

Language teachers need to understand the complexity and the dynamicity of learner motivation to be able to deal with it in the new conceptualization of this construct. Moreover, there is a need to raise awareness about the uniqueness of learners' motivation, which will enable teachers to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of learner motivation and deal with different situations that might arise throughout the learning process. Nevertheless, language teachers need assistance, training, and support to be able to manage their classes and efficiently and professionally overcome any challenges that may arise efficiently and professionally. In many cases, teacher training courses provide training on classroom techniques and methods, while the psychological factor is not taken into account in spite of its importance in the learning process.

As English is used in most of the Arab Gulf countries as a lingua franca, extra attention needs to be given to language learners' motivation as it constitutes a fundamental factor in language learning success. Understanding the complex nature of language learner motivation will assist educators in the Arab Gulf countries to develop the most effective policies and practices to motivate English language learners.

Future research can be directed towards highlighting the different variables that influence language learners' motivation and the different manifestations of the L2 motivational self-system among language learners in the Arab Gulf countries. Although this study was conducted on a small scale and in a short time span, it can be used to complement other comparative studies that compare learner motivational factors among learners in the Arabian Gulf countries with those of learners in other countries around the world.

Conclusion

Learner motivation has proven to be a vital component in the language learning process and therefore, needs to be viewed in light of the newest trends and theories to ensure that language learners receive the assistance and guidance they need during their learning journey. A learner's beliefs, self-confidence, and learning experiences play an important role in their success. Furthermore, L2 learner motivation is a complex self-system that is influenced by and influences various aspects of a learner's life. Educators need to view learner motivation from this new perspective to achieve the best learning outcomes possible. Such a view will enable teachers to understand the diversity among learners and the uniqueness of each learner, which entails the ability to view the diversity of motivational factors among different learners. Future research can assist in exploring the different dimensions of learner motivation and the various variables that play a role in the success of English language learners.

References

- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417-448. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, *41*, 469-512.
- Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(1), 19-36. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2005.00263.x</u>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition. Mahwah, NJ: L. Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self-system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 9-42). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ottó, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, *4*, 43-69.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow, UK: Pearson.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, 13, 266–272.
- Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P. F., & Masgoret, A. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: An empirical investigation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81(3), 344-362. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1997.tb05495.x</u>
- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A Meta-Analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 123-163. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00212</u>
- Shoaib, A., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Affect in lifelong learning: Exploring L2 motivation as a dynamic process. In P. Benson & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Learners' stories: Difference and diversity in language learning* (pp. 22-40). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(4), 505-518. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1995.tb05451.x</u>
- Ushioda, E. (2001). Language learning at university: Exploring the role of motivational thinking. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 93-125). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 215-228). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

It Takes Two (To Make a Thing Go Right): A Study of Factors Influencing Motivation and Self-Efficacy of Teachers Working with Refugees

Max B. Eckert

New York University Abu Dhabi

Abstract

This study investigates teachers' responses to the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. Against the backdrop of a sharp rise in Arabic-speaking refugees in Germany, this paper presents findings from fieldwork and surveys with teachers at vocational schools. The German case is used to examine how teachers working with refugees responded to these students and what makes a successful teaching and learning environment. Specifically, the study investigates how factors, such as experience and training, impact teachers' levels of motivation and self-efficacy. By analyzing factors that improve teachers' performance, the findings further underscore the importance of teaching certificates in the field of foreign language instruction, such as teaching German as a foreign language.

Introduction

Over the past four years, Europe has experienced the largest migration of refugees and asylum seekers since World War II. With approximately 1.8 million asylum seekers in 2017, Germany has become the primary destination for refugees in Europe. Consequently, at least 300,000 minor refugees have resettled in Germany since 2014 and enrolled in primary and secondary schools.

At the time of this study, most previous research had focused on the macropolitical impact of immigration and the economic implications for receiving countries, but relatively few pieces of empirical research had investigated the everyday interactions of refugees with their host communities. The present study responds to the underrepresentation of refugee issues in educational scholarship (Gagné, Schmidt, & Markus, 2017), as little is known about the interaction of refugee students with teachers and how to support teachers in such diverse classroom settings. Using the case of Germany, this study offers an outlook on research in the fields of refugee education and foreign language instruction. Findings may encourage further research in countries, including in the Middle East and North Africa, that have relevant priority populations, such as refugee or foreign language students.

With a majority of refugees hailing from Arabic-speaking countries, German administrators and policymakers have placed an emphasis on language acquisition for social and labor-market integration. Due to a large influx of foreign students, teachers were under pressure to teach new

material effectively, despite limited experience in teaching German to speakers of foreign languages. Certificates for teaching German, akin to the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) certification, have gained popularity, but effects of this have been understudied in the German context.

This paper introduces the key findings of an undergraduate thesis focusing on teachers and their interactions with refugees at German vocational schools, while using the German context as a vehicle to explore the effects of teacher training, such as through earning language certificates. The findings of this paper highlight the importance of certificates for teaching a language to speakers of other languages, by analyzing the factors of teacher motivation and self-efficacy and their correlations with mediating factors.

Its findings demonstrate a strong correlation between motivation and self-efficacy and highlight the benefits of refugee-focused teacher training through professional development and pre-service teacher education. This underscores the importance of incorporating the study of migration and teaching German as a second language into teacher education.

Background

Between 2014 and 2018, Germany received the largest share of refugees in Europe, recording over 1.6 million applications for asylum, which is more applications than were filed the previous 20 years combined (Lederer, 2018). A 2016 report by UNICEF estimated the overall number of minor refugees in Germany to be at least 300,000, a number that has grown significantly every year (UNICEF, 2016). Since the German education system makes it compulsory for students to attend school until the age of 18 or the completion of 10th grade, public schools were compelled to accept large numbers of refugee students. Over the course of a few weeks, secondary schools akilled lacross the country created new classes, ranging from intensive German instruction to basic literacy courses, for refugee students who came from varying educational backgrounds and brought with them unique requirements.

Benefits of Refugee Integration

While education is compulsory for all refugee students, attending classes at local schools is commonly cited as a decisive contribution to successful integration. Previous research has identified enrolment in the German education system as a key entry point into German social and economic life, fostering vocational and language skills (Eisnecker, 2016). Recognizing the acceptance of refugees as not only a moral obligation but also realizing that immigration and integration are necessary steps in order to avoid a looming demographic crisis caused by Germany's aging population (Mushaben, 2017), the success of welcoming refugees would hinge on two factors: social and labor-market integration.

Research on the integration of refugees has underscored the importance of refugees participating in the workforce, thereby reducing welfare costs, increasing government revenue, and responding to a shortage of skilled labor in certain industries (Bach et al., 2017). An investigation funded by the German Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs found that if 20% more refugees obtained vocational qualifications, the overall costs for integration would decrease by at least 500 million euros (Bach et al., 2017).

The Role of Vocational Schools in Germany

In order to obtain these workforce qualifications, local authorities enrolled many refugee students in vocational schools. Due to varying levels of education in their home countries, students were anticipated to benefit from pursuing less academic-driven, but more workfocused tracks, a decision that is supported by research demonstrating the positive impact of vocational training on migrants' social mobility (Tjaden & Hunkler, 2017). It is important to note that German vocational training offers a viable and lucrative alternative to higher education, providing a smooth school-to-work transition and stable employment (Tjaden & Hunkler, 2017). Accordingly, more than half of 25-34 year olds (56%) graduated from vocational school, a number that is one of the largest shares among OECD countries (Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2008).

During the peak of the refugee crisis, refugee student populations at vocational schools across the state increased more than fivefold over the course of two years, from 794 refugee students to more than 4,500 students in 2016 (Federal State Government, 2017). In response to news stories of understaffed schools and overwhelmed teachers that spread across cities and municipalities (Bausewein, 2015; Walther, 2014), governments invested resources into German as a foreign language programs.⁵

With schools largely given autonomy about how to spend the increased funding, many schools acquired new teaching materials, created more teaching positions, and hired new staff from a variety of backgrounds. Due to a shortage of teachers with an official certification to teach German as a foreign language, schools resorted to hiring staff from varying educational backgrounds on annual contracts, including student teachers and career changers without a professional teaching background.

Since research suggests that teacher quality plays a large role in determining student achievement (Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2008), the State Ministries of Education offered in-service teacher training and professional development seminars aimed at improving teachers' abilities to work with refugee students. While optional, in-service teacher training responded to the immediate challenges teachers faced. A long-term focus on teaching German as a foreign language also gained significance in pre-service teacher

⁵ In German this translates as Deutsch als Fremdsprache or Deutsch als Zweitsprache, abbreviated DaF or DaZ, respectively.

training. More language institutes now offer the certifications and an increasing number of universities incentivize a DaZ certificate with extra credits.

In order to analyze the impact of the teacher training, such as language courses, on the teacher's ability to respond to the needs of their students in real-life classrooms, this study collected original data from teachers.

Methodology

Following an inductive, mixed-methods approach, research was based on the iterative process of grounded theory (Singleton & Straits, 2010), allowing patterns and concepts to emerge from the field, rather than confirming or rejecting preconceived hypotheses. Data collection began with nine weeks of participant observation at the field site, a vocational school with approximately 130 refugee students and approximately 30 teachers working with refugees. Data from participant observation and semi-structured interviews (n = 15) was then analyzed and coded to form the basis for a survey that was piloted and conducted across 33 vocational schools in the state of Schleswig-Holstein (n = 94). While there was no reliable number of teachers working with refugees overall, the population of interest is estimated to be approximately 520.⁶

Following the findings from interviews and observations, the questionnaire included two psychometric scales measuring teachers' self-efficacy and motivation. Both lead to characterizations describe a collection of attitudes and beliefs that teachers hold, which have been shown to impact their effectiveness in improving students' attainment.

If a teacher has a high sense of self-efficacy, she believes that firstly, she has the appropriate skills and ability to improve students' learning, and secondly, she is able to bring about the desired learning, even in the face of difficult or unmotivated students (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015). High levels of self-efficacy are seen to be related to psychological wellbeing and lower teachers' desire to quit (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015). As evidence suggests that teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more likely to experiment with new teaching methods (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and invest more effort into preparing their lessons, their lessons are expected to yield higher results for students' interest and motivation (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015). Thus, higher levels of self-efficacy are anticipated to help teachers at vocational schools cope better with the challenges of refugee instruction and integration.

The study further asked for teachers' motivation and its impact on factors, such as self-efficacy, which allows us to make inferences about how teachers' decisions to teach refugees and their

⁶ 2016 statistical data shows that approximately 4,500 refugee students were taught at vocational schools, with a mean cohort size of 16. Therefore, an estimated 260 refugee classes/cohorts exist at vocational schools in the state. Generally, two teachers are assigned to a cohort, which allows me to estimate my overall population to be about 520 teachers.

attitudes impact their ability to teach well. The scale used in the survey, which measures values and professional beliefs of teachers⁷, is a reliable and valid indicator or a teacher's motivation to enter the profession (König & Rothland, 2012).

To analyze the data, I used the statistical software R to calculate descriptive statistics and perform multivariate regressions with the outcome variables motivation and self-efficacy.

Survey Design

The survey included a set of questions about demographic information, as well as the psychometric scales containing questions about self-efficacy and motivation. Basic demographic data was collected on factors, such as age, gender, teaching experience, and employment status (tenured versus non-tenured, reflecting short-term versus long-term hires).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Despite a small sample size (n = 94), the demographics reflect a diverse group of teachers, which show no signs of a skewed distribution that would be indicative of a sampling bias. While the mean age of teachers is 45 (SD = 11), participants fall on a wide spectrum, from 24-to 71-year-olds, with years of working experience varying accordingly. Overall, the survey sample included more female teachers (60%, n = 57), and the mean hours a teacher spent teaching refugees per week was 14 (SD = 6.4), ranging from minimal weekly commitments (1 hour/week) to full-time teaching positions (23 hours/week).

The main dependent variables of interest, namely self-efficacy and motivation, show considerably lower variation, with participants reporting moderate levels of self-efficacy and generally high levels of motivation. On average, respondents indicated a 5.7 (SD = 0.74) on a 7-point motivation scale and a 6 (SD = 0.83) on a 9-point self-efficacy scale.

The survey also asked participants to indicate their attitude toward teaching with 1 ("teaching refugees was against my preference," n = 2), 2 ("I felt indifferent," n = 26), and 3 ("I volunteered to teach refugees," n = 60). For the purposes of this analysis, a dummy variable was created that included teachers who opposed and felt indifferent about teaching refugees as one group and teachers who volunteered as another group.

⁷ These values and professional beliefs of teachers include personal utility and social utility values. An example of a personal utility values is satisfaction with pay. Enhancing social equity is an example of a social utility value (Watt & Richardson, 2012).

The survey sample revealed that overall, slightly less than half (n = 44) of the participants had completed the certificate for teaching German as a foreign or second Language (DaZ), but more than half (n = 54) of the teachers had attended professional development seminars, offered by the State Ministry of Education, which consist of on-the-job training for in-service teachers.

Regression Analysis: Self-Efficacy

A regression with the dependent variable self-efficacy reveals a statistically significant

correlation between self-efficacy and three variables: language teaching certificates, years of experience, and the belief in social equity. Overall, the model shows a moderate R squared (0.35) that demonstrates the effectiveness of the model (see Table 1, Column 4).

A look at the multivariate regression reveals that teachers with a German language teaching certificate report significantly higher levels of self-efficacy. This means that teachers who have a certificate consider themselves more capable of improving their students' learning and understanding of the material, as well as addressing difficulties in the classroom. Hence, a language certificate proves successful in providing teachers with techniques for teaching refugee classes. Additionally, more experienced teachers reported minimally higher levels of self-efficacy. According to the linear regressions, a one-year increase in work experience corresponds to a 0.02 increase in self-efficacy.

Different from the language certificates, which take between one to four semesters to complete, professional development seminars did not produce a statistically significantly increase in self-efficacy beliefs. Compared to language certificates, the short duration of these on-the-job training sessions could explain why language certificates prove to be more effective for teachers. Further research into the design, attendance, and content of on-the-job training sessions could seek to improve the effectiveness for teachers.

As a subscale of the teachers' motivation scale, the items measuring social equity show a strong correlation with self-efficacy. If teachers consider their job as creating more social equity and having a positive impact on their students' lives, their self-efficacy also increases. While overall motivation is highly correlated with self-efficacy, this effect disappears when including the subscale of social equity (see Table 1, Column 4). Thus, motivation as an overall concept is in fact related to self-efficacy; however, in the teacher sample, it is specifically the belief in social equity that has a significant impact on teachers' self-efficacy. In other words, the more teachers believe they contribute to an equitable society, the more they feel able to teach refugee classes well.

Although being a tenured teacher ("Civil Servant"; see Table 1, Row 1) as well as the factor motivation show a high correlation with self-efficacy (see Table 1, Column 2), they become insignificant when controlling for years of experience and the belief in social equity, which shows that out of all factors, these variables account for the difference in self-efficacy levels. A possible explanation for why tenured teachers, who studied education at university, believe in social equity so strongly, could be that for their studies, they invest considerable time, effort, and opportunity costs, which are correlated with their belief they have a positive impact on students. This motivation may be less pronounced among teachers who join the school for a short-term and may not see it as a long-term commitment.

Table 1

Self-Efficacy Coefficients

	Dependent variable:				
	Self-Efficacy				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
Civil Servant	0.42** (0.18)	0.33** (0.16)	0.42** (0.16)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.29 \\ (0.20) \end{array}$	
Motivation		0.39*** (0.11)	0.41*** (0.11)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.16 \\ (0.16) \end{array}$	
Professional Development		$\begin{array}{c} 0.21 \\ (0.17) \end{array}$		$\begin{array}{c} 0.06 \\ (0.18) \end{array}$	
Job Security				-0.14 (0.09)	
DaZ Certification			0.41** (0.16)	0.44** (0.19)	
Years Experience				0.02^{\bullet} (0.01)	
Stress Levels				0.02 (0.14)	
Age				-0.003 (0.01)	
Gender				$\begin{array}{c} 0.01 \\ (0.18) \end{array}$	
Belief in Social Equity				0.19** (0.09)	
Voluntary Choice				$\begin{array}{c} 0.07\\ (0.18) \end{array}$	
Constant	6.28*** (0.13)	3.97*** (0.64)	3.72*** (0.62)	4.16*** (0.94)	
Observations R ²	87 0.06	87 0.22	87 0.26	87 0.35	
Note:		*p<0.1;	**p<0.05; *	**p<0.01	

Regression Analysis: Motivation

Concurrent with previous research (Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy, 1990), the regression shows a moderate, statistically significant correlation between self-efficacy and motivation. According to the model, a one-step increase on the self-efficacy score is correlated with a 0.36 increase on the 7-point motivation scale.

Additionally, the multivariate regression in Table 2 reveals a statistically significant correlation between attending professional development seminars and motivation. Teachers who have attended at least one professional development seminar show a small increase in motivation. The coefficients remain significant after controlling for factors, such as age, voluntary choice, and years of experience. However, from these results we cannot fully understand the direction of the relationship, meaning that professional development seminars may increase teacher motivation, or it may be the case that more motivated teachers seek out professional development more frequently. Further research is needed to understand directional effects and rule out the possible influence of a third, unobserved factor.

Looking at the relationship between motivation and volunteering to teach shows that initial attitudes towards teaching refugees did not impact long-term motivation of self-efficacy beliefs. The model does not find a statistically significant relationship between motivation and whether or not people started teaching refugees on their own accord or because they were assigned the role.

It is likely that even though the teachers have initial preferences or reservations about teaching refugees, it does not affect their motivation or self-efficacy in the long run, because they may change their mind and embrace their new role as teachers in refugee classes. Considering instead the strong relationship between motivation and self-efficacy, motivation depends on whether or not teaching methods prove successful with students, suggesting dynamic attitudes towards teaching. Therefore, a positive takeaway could be that even if schools see themselves forced to assign teachers who are indifferent or reluctant to teach a new student population, this does not play as much of a role for teachers' motivation and self-efficacy, as other factors, such as training and certification.

Table 2

Motivation Coefficients

	Dependent variable:				
Motivation					
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)		
$\begin{array}{c} 0.15 \\ (0.16) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} -0.001 \\ (0.15) \end{array}$	-0.02 (0.15)	-0.01 (0.19)		
	0.36*** (0.09)	0.32*** (0.09)	0.36*** (0.10)		
		0.28* (0.15)	0.31* (0.17)		
			$\begin{array}{c} 0.02\\ (0.09) \end{array}$		
			-0.21 (0.19)		
			-0.01 (0.01)		
			-0.02 (0.14)		
			-0.01 (0.01)		
			-0.02 (0.17)		
			$ \begin{array}{c} 0.05 \\ (0.17) \end{array} $		
5.69*** (0.12)	3.45*** (0.59)	3.55*** (0.58)	3.78*** (0.85)		
87 0.01	87 0.16	87 0.19	87 0.23		
	0.15 (0.16) 5.69*** (0.12) 87	Motiv (1) (2) 0.15 -0.001 (0.16) (0.15) 0.36*** (0.09) 5.69*** 3.45*** (0.12) (0.59) 87 87	Motivation (1) (2) (3) 0.15 -0.001 -0.02 (0.16) (0.15) (0.15) 0.36*** 0.32*** (0.09) (0.09) 0.28* (0.15) 0.15) 0.15) 5.69*** 3.45*** 3.55*** (0.12) (0.59) (0.58) 87 87 87		

Discussion

Identifying effective teachers is crucial for improving the quality of teaching, which has positive outcomes for students and schools alike. In the German case, the chances for successful integration of refugees are expected to increase with teachers who have a high sense of self-efficacy. Overall, schools teaching language to speakers of other languages benefit from those teachers who show high levels of self-efficacy, motivation, and are, therefore, expected to be less likely to quit (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015).

Limitations

The present paper only provides a small overview of factors influencing the teachers'

experience in one state, which raises general questions about generalizability of the findings. Further research may confirm findings fully or only in part.

Additionally, the study did not include a reference group or a comparative sample of teachers who do not teach refugees. Therefore, it cannot be determined with certainty whether or not teachers in refugee classes show significantly higher levels of motivation or self-efficacy than their "regular" peers or whether the findings of the study mirror similar trends in teacher training in Germany.

Future Research

Administrators in Germany have addressed the challenge of integration by making *ad hoc* decisions in the absence of official policies; however, future successes of integration will be dependent on more systematic analyses and research of the role of teachers in the integration process. Further research should include the students' voices, attitudes, and performance, where possible. This would contextualize the role of teachers in relation to their students and the larger social context.

Further, survey data provides a snapshot of motivation and self-efficacy at one point in time. Since constructs like motivation and self-efficacy are flexible and prone to change over a longer period of time, longitudinal studies of teachers are needed to develop robust models predicting teacher success and satisfaction. Longitudinal data also helps to alleviate the shortcomings of a cross-sectional snapshot of teacher stress and self-efficacy.

Recommendations

Despite its limitations, my research points toward some key findings responding to current challenges faced by administrators at schools with both refugee students and foreign language students alike. In the German case, principals and department heads review their temporary staff annually and express recommendations about whether or not to keep teachers; however, final hiring decisions are up to the state's Ministry of Education. Although the immediate shortage of skilled teachers led to an increased hiring of temporary teachers, the integration of DaZ classes into the curricula of teacher education has led to more university graduates being formally trained to teach German as a foreign language. My research points to the success of this initiative, considering the positive effect a language certificate has on self-efficacy. Comparing professional development and language certificates' effectiveness for teachers has further shown the importance of comprehensive, pre-service skill development in the form of certificates obtained at universities.

Thus, integrating certificates for teaching foreign language into university curricula has significant positive implications for teachers working with refugees at vocational schools. Increased investments into these qualifications at an early stage, such as teacher training, yield substantive returns, demonstrated by a significant increase in self-efficacy for teachers later on in their teaching career.

Considering the beneficial effects of work experience on self-efficacy, schools should strive to staff refugee classes with permanent teachers, either by offering tenure to current teachers or by replacing temporary teachers with full-time, tenured teachers as soon as possible. A prerequisite for all teachers in refugee classes should be the certification of teaching German as a second language (DaZ), either enforced as an entry requirement for new hires or, where new hires are not possible or lack the certificate, the opportunity to complete one should be extended to current in-service teachers.

The factor motivation has a strong impact on self-efficacy; however, ensuring teacher motivation requires a holistic institutional support system for teachers and effective communication between division heads, principals, and teachers. It is, therefore, up to individual schools to identify motivated teachers and invest the time and resources to train effective and motivated teachers.

While the study focused on Germany as a case study, findings can nonetheless give hints about the opportunities of teaching in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), which has made the quality of education, and specifically of teachers, their goal. Findings from the present study underscore the benefits of language certifications as schools recruit teachers of English for students, who are predominantly Arabic-speaking. Especially Gulf countries, including the UAE, rely on the recruitment of skilled English teachers to teach diverse group of local and expatriate students. While the issue of job satisfaction and job longevity play as much of a role in the UAE as they do in Germany, the concepts of self-efficacy and motivation should be investigated further in the context of English-language instruction in the UAE. Findings from the present study identify language certifications as the key predictor of effective teachers; however, beliefs about teaching, such as the belief in social equity, have shown to increase self-efficacy significantly as well, indicating these traits to be important for characteristics for resilient and capable teachers.

Conclusion

While the survey captured only a small percentage of teachers, the underlying field work sheds light on refugee education and teacher training as a complex, interconnected issue. Additionally, the overarching takeaway underscores the importance of listening to teachers. A 2005 study of refugee teachers in England found that "integration may mean different things in different contexts. [...] However, the needs for language support, training and access to the right support for the right child at the right time are common factors in all circumstances" (Whiteman, 2005, p. 389).

While, arguably, ensuring the "right support for the right child at the right time" seems like a daunting task, teachers are invaluable informants and sources of inspiration. Field work has shown the complexity of teacher-student, teacher-teacher, and teacher-supervisor interactions and how difficult it is to extrapolate these findings onto the larger population of teachers in a state. Therefore, the institutional and local knowledge within school communities should not only be respected but be of paramount importance for staffing decisions and the implementation of future interventions. Considering each school as an ecosystem of factors, which influence the teacher's performance, self-efficacy, and motivation, policy makers should strive for policy solutions that are tailored to individual schools.

References

- Bach, S., Brücker, H., Haan, P., Romiti, A., Van Deuverden, K., & Weber, E. (2017). Refugee integration: A worthwhile investment. *DIW Economic Bulletin*, 7(3+4), 33-43. Retrieved from
 <u>https://www.diw.de/documents/publikationen/73/diw_01.c.551747.de/diw_econ_bull_2017-03-1.pdf</u>
- Bausewein, A. (2015, August 26). Offener Brief von Erfurts Oberbürgermeister zur Flüchtlingspolitik. [Open letter by the mayor of Erfurt about refugee policy]. *Thüringer Allgemeine Zeitung*. Retrieved from <u>https://www.thueringer-allgemeine.de/web/zgt/politik/detail/-/specific/Offener-Brief-von-Erfurts-Oberbuergermeister-zur-Fluechtlingspolitik-1072755033</u>
- Gagné, A., Schmidt, C., & Markus, P. (2017). Teaching about refugees: Developing culturally responsive educators in contexts of politicised transnationalism. *Intercultural Education*, 28(5), 429-446. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2017.1336409
- Eisnecker, Philipp et al. (2016). Integrating refugees: Insights from the past. *DIW Economic Bulletin*, 6(34/35), 387-390. http://hdl.handle.net/10419/146525
- König, J., & Rothland, M. (2012). Motivations for choosing teaching as a career: effects on general pedagogical knowledge during initial teacher education. *Asia-Pacific Journal* of Teacher Education, 40(3), 289-315. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2012.700045
- Lederer, H. (2018). *Schlüsselzahlen Asyl 2017* [*Key figures asylum 2017*]. Nuremberg, Germany: BAMF. Retrieved from http://www.bamf.de/SharedDocs/Anlagen/DE/Publikationen/Flyer/flyer schluesselzahlen-asyl-2017.html?nn=1694460
- Mushaben, J. M. (2017). Wir schaffen das! Angela Merkel and the European refugee crisis. *German Politics*, 26(4), 516-533. https://doi.org/10.1080/09644008.2017.1366988
- Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. (2008). OECD economic surveys: Germany 2008. Paris, France: OECD Publishing. <u>https://doi.org/10.1787/eco_surveys-deu-2008-en</u>

- Schiefele, U., and Schaffner, E. (2015). Teacher interests, mastery goals, and self-efficacy as predictors of instructional practices and student motivation. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 42,159–171.doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2015.06.005.
- Federal State Government (2017). Schulische Bildung in Schleswig-Holstein 2017 [School education in Schleswig-Holstein 2017] (18/5280). Kiel: Schleswig-Holstein State Parliament.
- Singleton, R., & Straits, B. C. (2010). *Approaches to social research*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Tjaden, J. D., & Hunkler, C. (2017). The optimism trap: Migrants' educational choices in stratified education systems. *Social Science Research*, 67, 213-228. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2017.04.004</u>
- UNICEF. (June 16). UNICEF-Lagebericht: Zur Situation der Flüchtlingskinder in Deutschland [UNICEF management report: On the situation of refugee children in Germany]. Cologne, Germany: UNICEF Deutschland. Retrieved from <u>https://www.unicef.de/blob/115186/de54a5d3a8b6ea03337b489816eeaa08/zur-</u> situation der-fluechtlingskinder-in-deutschland-data.pdf
- Walther, J. (2014, December 8). Schulen fordern Hilfe im Umgang mit Flüchtlingen. [Schools demand support in handling refugees]. Schleswig-Holsteinische Landeszeitung. Retrieved from <u>https://www.shz.de/lokales/landeszeitung/schulen-fordern-hilfe-im-umgang-mit-fluechtlingen-id8394661.html</u>
- Watt, H. M.G., & Richardson, P. W. (2012). An introduction to teaching motivations in different countries: Comparisons using the FIT-Choice Scale. Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 40, 185-197. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2012.700049
- Whiteman, R. (2005). Welcoming the stranger: A qualitative analysis of teachers' views regarding the integration of refugee pupils into schools in Newcastle upon Tyne. *Educational Studies*, *4*, 375-391. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055690500237348
- Woolfolk, A. E., Rosoff, B., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 6(2), 1990, 137-148. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051x(90)90031-y</u>

Mobile Learning with Arabic Speakers in Sweden

Lorna Bartram Dr. Linda Bradley Khaled Al-Sabbagh

Chalmers University of Technology

Abstract

We set out to investigate the pedagogical implications of mobile learning and to develop a language learning application for Arabic-speaking migrants in Sweden, by far the largest language group of newly arrived migrants during the past few years. Through a design-based, bottom-up approach, the smartphone as a learning tool is explored. In our two most recent studies, 26 individuals were surveyed about their mobile literacy and preferences for learning with their smartphone. Qualitative methods, such as focus group interviews, questionnaires, and observations, were used. We developed a model for evaluating app usability, where we iteratively involved users to get feedback on their experience with the app and to generate ideas for development. Results indicate that the pedagogical aspects in existing apps focus on traditional approaches with basic vocabulary training, while more active learning, such as pronunciation and speaking activities are less common. This resulted in the design of our app, displaying pronunciation training activities with phrases connected to situations in everyday life.

Acknowledgements: The research is part of the two-year Minclusion project: Integration with mobiles, funded by the European Asylum, Migration, and Integration Fund (AMIF) during 2016 and 2018.

Introduction

Learning to speak a language is one of the most crucial aspects for migrants to become included in a new society (e.g., Bradley, Berbyuk Lindström, & Sofkova Hashemi, 2017; Kukulska-Hulme et al., 2015). In fact, language learning is acknowledged as one of the key aspects of integration (Majhanovich & Deyrich, 2017). Sweden has a national Swedish language program for immigrants, *Swedish for Immigrants* (SFI), offering free Swedish courses to adults over 20 years old who do not speak Swedish as their mother tongue. The courses have a curriculum of different levels, from beginner to more advanced levels of Swedish. The time span when attending an SFI program is individualized according to educational background and previous knowledge, making the environment very fluid. Once migrants get a job, they struggle with managing their time between their language studies while maintaining a job, resulting in drop-outs before the Swedish courses are finished. In recent years, Arabic-speaking migrants, mainly from Syria, have been the largest group in SFI. In 2017, 40% of the SFI students spoke Arabic as a native language (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2018).

Our earlier research shows that migrants are generally interested in finding their way into society by means of mobile technology and have an interest in using technology to get informed and learn the language (Bradley et al., 2017). However, both migrants and SFI educators have been frustrated due to the lack of coordination of information, which has also been experienced in other countries that have received many migrants, e.g., Germany (Kaufmann, 2018). Improving digital infrastructure would affect migrants' possibilities of, for example, obtaining employment and housing as well as being informed about society (Kaufmann, 2018), which has an impact on well-being in the new country. Nevertheless, a large number of migrants own their own smartphone that they mainly use to stay in touch with friends and family. Our research shows that 84% of Arabic migrants have smartphones that could be used for integration purposes, such as learning the language and getting information about the new society that they live in, if they only knew how to find the right information amongst the wealth of existing apps (Bradley et al., 2017).

The purpose of this research is to investigate the role of digital and mobile technologies in learning Swedish amongst the new migrant community of Arabic-speakers in Sweden. However, the results can also be generalized and applied to any mobile language learning context geared at Arabic-speaking language learners. Specifically, this research explores the mobile literacy among newly arrived Arabic-speaking migrants to Sweden and how mobile learning can be used as a tool for facilitating more contact with the host society. Thus, our research questions are:

1. What is the existing situation for Arabic-speaking migrants concerning their digital literacy and use of mobile apps for language learning?

2. How can a mobile app be integrated into language learning activities for Arabic-speaking migrants?

First, we introduce the theoretical foundation and existing research in the area. Then, we give an account of existing mobile language learning apps and the learning activities Arabicspeaking migrants are engaged in with their smartphones when learning Swedish. Next, outcomes from the design of our app development in aiding migrants to learn the language to become more established are presented.

Theoretical Framing

Mobile learning, which has emerged from digital learning, is built on the premise that learning is taking place ubiquitously, in everyday situations by means of digital and mobile devices (Kukulska-Hulme & Pegrum, 2018). With increased globalization, there is growing mobility. Mobile learning in relation to migration must therefore be understood as any type of learning activities taking place on the move with a digital device. This research investigates mobile learning from a perspective in which the user is seen as active and part of the social environment where learning takes place and mobile language learning is considered a bridging activity (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011).

From a language learning perspective, mastering spoken language skills is one of the keys to being included in a new communicative environment (Thorén, 2014). For Arabic speakers, focus on practicing vowels becomes central since Modern Standard Arabic only has six vowel phonemes, whereas other languages generally have significantly more, e.g., Swedish has nine vowels which have long and short variations (Thorén, 2014.). Distinguishing between sound qualities in vowels becomes a challenge in a language that has other sound principles. In addition, vocabulary knowledge plays a central role in a person's ability to communicate, as well as read and understand written text (Heimann Mühlenbock & Johansson Kokkinakis, 2012). Thus, practicing pronunciation and vocabulary in phrases are two features found in language learning apps (Burston, 2015).

Research has shown that mobile technologies support informal and incidental mobile language learning (Hager & Halliday, 2006), in which learning takes place although it was not planned nor intended. This is what happens in everyday life in activities that are not traditionally designed as learning events, such as engagement in leisure pursuits or social interaction, which nevertheless create opportunities for language acquisition. For such ubiquitous learning, smartphones have been identified as having a central role (Park, 2011).

Categorizing apps for language learning, Rosell-Aguilar (2017) found that apps could (i) be developed for language learning, (ii) be used but not created for language learning, or (iii) provide wordlists and translation. This categorization is based on a framework of app evaluation according to four categories, which are overlapping to a certain extent: technology, pedagogy, user experience, and language learning.

Previous research shows, however, that mobile technologies for learning are driven by the functionality of the technology and what it can offer, rather than how it can be used (Burston, 2015). Thus, it is suggested that language learners need re-skilling to better adjust to a mobile world and its new learning resources (Kukulska-Hulme, 2013). In other words, learners need to be equipped with better strategies and tools to appropriate the target language and culture. It is claimed that user-generated opportunities for social interaction are increasing due to social

networking and game-based features (Thorne, 2013), but more research is needed on how social interaction is extended through the use of mobile devices.

Research on Migrants and Language Learning with Mobile Technology

Regarding research on mobile uses by migrants focusing on social inclusion, an early example is Ruge's (2012) research on adult migrants' use of technology to learn Greenlandic. These learners were using SMS tasks to overcome social and practical barriers in practicing the language. Another early example is a study of migrant groups' usage of mobile phones by Pearson (2011) in a Bangladeshi community in London to overcome barriers in employment. This study consisted of two groups of women, one enrolled in a formal language learning class and another group that did not attend formal classes. The findings suggested that using mobile phones for learning English enhanced the confidence levels in both groups.

In the SALSA-project, language training and intercultural communication were combined (Gaved, Greenwood, & Peasgood, 2015). Smartphones were explored, enabling citizens to take advantage of the infrastructure found in smart cities. The focus was on migrants in a city where they were provided information resources and language learning through smartphones, which were integrated into their daily routines and leveraged a city's network infrastructure. This offered both individual knowledge development as well as the opportunity to build communities.

Research on the effects of utilizing smartphones for language learning with Arabic speakers is scarce. However, in a study of digital learning, Alsaleem (2013) suggested that using the messaging and voice calling app WhatsApp had the effect of improving vocabulary word choice and writing skills with undergraduate Saudi students.

Concerning studies on digital means of learning as integration tools with Arabic migrants, Safa'a and Hanna (2017) investigated Information and Communication Technology (ICT) with Syrian refugees in Germany in a qualitative analysis of fifteen interviews. This study showed that ICT, in terms of social media, has the potential to promote integration and enhance wellbeing as well as an individual's sense of agency. This is supported by Kaufmann (2018) who investigated the role of smartphones and digital practices by interviewing ten recently arrived Syrian refugees in Vienna. The participants were involved in various informal language learning activities on their smartphone, such as looking up local food ingredients on Google and watching language lessons on YouTube. The multitude of uses led to their smartphone becoming key tool to cope with the everyday difficulties encountered in their new society.

In sum, to date there have been few studies examining the uses of mobile technology as a tool to learn a language and increase the understanding of a newly arrived migrants in their new

context. However, the existing studies point to mobile phones having the potential to engage users in informal language learning. This study contributes to the literature by showing how a combination of research and development of a mobile app for language learning can serve as an integration tool for migrants.

Methodology

During the entire project of two years, a number of field studies were conducted, first with the objective of learning about the digital literacy and the needs of migrants and later to test the usability of the current iterations of our own app development. The affordances and constraints around the smartphone as a learning tool were explored through a design-based approach starting from the bottom-up, i.e., investigating the needs of the migrants themselves.

The initial work consisted of mapping existing language learning apps for the target group according to certain criteria, e.g., Does the app offer contrastive elements between Arabic and Swedish? Is it free of charge for the user? Is it without major bugs and technical problems? From investigating existing apps, we developed a model for evaluation of mobile language learning resources (Sofkova Hashemi, Berbyuk Lindström, Bartram, & Bradley, 2017). This model informed further work when scrutinizing apps from a pedagogical perspective.

In our field studies, we met over 100 individuals at two NGOs and four SFI schools overall. In the first studies with the two NGOs and two of the SFI schools, we explored digital literacy among participants and conducted focus group interviews to find out what language learning activities the participants were engaged in. In the next two SFI schools, applying qualitative methods of investigation, we studied the use of our app development in addition to scrutinizing digital literacy and conducting focus group interviews. In all six studies, respondents were given pre-questionnaires with self-estimation questions regarding their background and digital literacy and were interviewed to elicit more information on the uses of their mobile devices, including their preferred ways of using them for learning Swedish.

From a total number of 54 Arabic-speaking participants in the two latter SFI schools, the data presented below concerns digital literacy and an evaluation of our app that is based on 26 participants (13 participants in each school) who had a sufficient level of digital literacy according to the pre-questionnaire and who were present in the SFI class for observation during the weeks of our studies. A post-questionnaire and complementary interviews with ten individuals in pairs were used during a follow-up.

There was an even distribution of gender amongst the participants (13 females and 13 males). Among the respondents, four (15%) reported that they spoke another language besides Arabic. Only two (8%) stated that they spoke English, the most widely spoken language in Sweden in

addition to the mother tongue, Swedish (European Commission, 2006). The majority (76%) of the participants came from Syria. The educational backgrounds varied from elementary school to university level; however, most had a background of at least nine years of school. Regarding professional background, teaching was the most common (31%) profession among the female participants; however, just as many had also been unemployed, staying at home. All of the men had a professional background. The majority were newly arrived migrants, covered by an establishment plan. This is valid for up to three years after receiving a residence permit, and SFI is a compulsory part of the plan.

As a complementary source of information, four SFI teachers were also interviewed about their experience with mobile and other digital technologies for language learning. The teachers had an average of 6 years and 9 months of experience working at SFI. In the interview, they were asked (i) if they had used apps to learn a language themselves; (ii) if they had any experience in using apps in their teaching; (iii) if they received questions from their students about language apps and what they recommended to their students; (iv) and in what areas they regarded that Arabic-speaking students needed more Swedish language training.

Analysis and Results

Findings in Existing Apps

From our analysis of existing apps, the focus was primarily on drill-training vocabulary, which is suggested to be a common activity in language learning apps (Burston, 2015), while learning that requires the user to be more productive, e.g., pronunciation and speaking, is less common (Sofkova Hashemi et al., 2017). At the end of 2017, we found approximately 40 apps on the Apple App Store and Google Play Store for Arabic users learning Swedish, mainly with a similar design. These contained text only or text and sound. Some of them even had the same content, being clones of one another. These apps were generally quite static, presenting an Arabic phrase and then a subsequent Swedish translation of it. The apps were not always easily found by the users. However, our investigation showed that the most preferred communication apps were translation services as well as voice calling and text messaging services, which were installed on all respondents' phones. This is in line with our results from the pre-study (Bradley et al., 2017).

In the focus group interviews, several respondents pointed out the importance of learning everyday phrases, such as being able to talk in the shop and with their children's teacher. The respondents' main motivation for learning Swedish was being able to communicate in the host society. In response to what the respondents thought they needed in order to be integrated into Swedish society, it was clear that the respondents acknowledged language as a primary key to integration, which is also supported by the research (e.g., Majhanovich & Deyrich, 2017). Furthermore, their interest was mainly in communication and using language in interaction

connected to vital aspects of everyday life, which is also what is suggested by Cabral and Martin-Jones (2017).

In terms of mobile language learning activities, all respondents reported that they used translation and word lists to manage their social interactions, both in direct communication, such as communication with teachers and in the supermarket, and in distance communication, such as translating letters from authorities. This conforms to research suggesting that translation services are considered a means to learn a language amongst the respondents in this study as well (Kaufmann, 2018; Rosell-Aguilar, 2017).

In the interviews with four SFI teachers, it was found that only one of them had experience in using language learning apps, both in terms of private use and in education. On the other hand, all teachers used web-based materials (such as online exercises and useful links to YouTube videos) made available for their students on educational platforms. Concerning the question of whether they received any requests from students about language apps, the teachers frequently got asked if they could give any recommendations. In this respect, the teachers felt that they could not contribute since they were not that familiar with language learning apps. For the question of which areas they regarded Arabic-speaking students needed more Swedish language training, pronunciation was cited, specifically practicing sounds and intonation, which is supported by Thorén (2014). Writing skills and spelling were other areas pointed out, due to the differences between written Arabic and Swedish.

Designing a New App

The development of our app was founded on basic requirements from the migrants, such as breaking the initial barrier in being able to communicate and mastering some of the sounds that are typical in Swedish. The functionality that would support this kind of learning was, therefore, elaborated on in our development, including multimodal means of learning (e.g., videos, audio, and text) together with the design and navigation. This resulted in the first iterative development of a module in the app targeting the pronunciation of vowels and everyday dialogues, where users can target specific weak spots in their own learning (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. The first development with everyday phrases.



The next version of our development was founded on additional interviews and observations of the migrants, resulting in refined designs and even more expanded content, such as connecting the app to a wider range of authentic and everyday situations and social aspects of communication (Kukulska-Hulme & Pegrum, 2018). One example of a generically interesting area is cooking (see Kaufmann, 2018), where users are moving between something that is already familiar but now put in a new setting, learning recipes from another country with new ingredients and in a new language. Hence, the *Cook and Learn* part of our app, which stemmed from ideas generated by newly arrived migrants and that were later processed at a student hackathon. These ideas were refined further in terms of design and usability until they could be included in the app (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. The second development with Cook and Learn.



CHOKLADBOLLAR



Concerning language learning, the central language learning features of repetition and feedback (Rosell-Aguilar, 2017) are important to also address in any language learning app. However, certain functionalities are easier to implement (e.g., presentation of text and images) than others (e.g., voice recognition and personalized feedback), resulting in apps becoming quite static. Our results show that a variation of modalities is preferred, aiming to implement multi-user functions and gamification to make the app more appealing to users as a way forward (Thorne, 2013).

Recommendations and Future Research

Our research aimed to contribute to the mobile language learning field by increasing the understanding of how mobile technology can be used as a potential bridge for migrants integrating into a new society, where learners are active in the process of learning (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011). By exploring digital language learning, we have highlighted the potential of smartphones in the learning process based on the habits of how individuals use these devices. These habits can facilitate their use when being connected to bridging activities, such as in the communication of everyday phrases and pronunciation.

Recommendations for development of mobile apps include focusing on the user perspective. The results in our studies support the fact that it is relevant to include activities that support everyday speech in connection to social interactions in an app. Concerning an app for migrants who are in the process of being integrated into a new society, we recommend that content and functionality should be connected to the users' everyday lives to increase the usability of the app. From a language learning perspective, repetition and feedback are key components of the learning process (Rosell-Aguilar, 2017), requiring a more longitudinal perspective, which should be explored further in future research.

Going forward, it should be emphasized that it is important to carefully plan how to engage migrants in a study. Migrants attending language learning classes, such as SFI, are a fluctuating and difficult group to study, which led us to conduct short-term studies in the project. Finding ways to capture migrants in a longer study would be relevant from a language learning perspective since language improvement takes time to develop, even for diligent users of apps for language learning training.

Even though the overall number of participants in our research was relatively low, our results indicate what the Arabic-speaking migrants' level of digital literacy is like and how an app can be designed to fit their needs. This research is not only applicable to learning Swedish but also to other languages, such as improving English skills to be able to access higher education.

Discussion and Conclusion

Our research concerns mobile learning from the perspective of newly arrived Arabic-speaking migrants in Sweden. This inquiry was made up of mobile literacy and the uses of existing apps for language learning in connection with the development of an app based on the needs of the target group. Analyzing the data, we applied a mixed-method approach consisting of questionnaires, interviews, and observations. Approaching users from different angles contributed to a multifaceted picture of the users' relationships with their mobile phones. Results of our studies showed that there were distinct discrepancies in relation to the available resources on the market and the actual use of these resources.

Concerning research question 1, the migrants in our study were digitally literate in the sense that they were moving in and out of different digital resources. The majority of the respondents were positive towards mobile technologies as a mediator to learn languages. However, despite the large availability of free apps for Arabic-speakers learning Swedish, only a small range of these apps were actually being used regularly. The reasons given by users included not being able to easily find them, not finding the apps useful in terms of content and/or functionality, or above all, finding it difficult to integrate such apps into daily routines so that they would become habitual. Instead, they were diligent users of apps and web pages to translate and look up words in glossaries.

Regarding research question 2, concerning implementing an app into language learning activities, there is a challenge from a development perspective, in adhering to user requirements in terms of design and content. Also, technical aspects, such as versions of smartphones and internet connectivity, play a role in how the performance of an app will appear to the user. Connecting an app for language learning to practical everyday usage is a likely way forward.

The interviews with the teachers also indicate potential areas for improvement to strengthen the digital infrastructure of resources in the SFI education system. Mobile technologies were not an integral part of the education, but rather dependent on the teachers' knowledge and interest in that. Both students and teachers showed an interest in how apps could be used for language learning.

References

- Akkerman, S. F., & Bakker, A. (2011). Boundary crossing and boundary objects. *Review of Educational Research*, *81*(2), 132-169.
- Alsaleem, B. I. A. (2013). The effect of "WhatsApp" electronic dialogue journaling on improving writing vocabulary word choice and voice of EFL undergraduate Saudi students. Arab World English Journal, 4(3), 213-225.
- Bradley, L., Berbyuk Lindström, N., & Sofkova Hashemi, S. (2017). Integration and language learning of newly arrived migrants using mobile technology. *Journal of Interactive Media in Education*, (1), 1-9. http://doi.org/10.5334/jime.434
- Burston, J. (2015). Twenty years of MALL project implementation: A meta-analysis of learning outcomes. *ReCALL*, 27(1), 4-20.
- Cabral, E., & Martin-Jones, M. (2017). Moving north, navigating new work worlds, and remooring: Language and other semiotic resources in the migration trajectories of East Timorese in the UK. In C. Kerfoot & K. Hyltenstam (Eds.), *Entangled discourses: South-north orders of visibility.* New York, NY: Routledge.
- European Commission. (2006). *Europeans and their languages* (Special Eurobarometer 243 / Wave 64.3 TNS Opinion & Social). Brussels, Belgium. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/commfrontoffice/publicopinion/archives/ebs/ebs_243_en.pdf
- Gaved, M., Greenwood, R., & Peasgood, A. (2015). Using and appropriating the smart city for community and capacity building amongst migrant language learners. In G. Avram, F. De Cindio, & V. Pipek (Eds.), *IISI International Institute for Socio-Informatics Proceedings of the Work-In-Progress Track of the 7th International Conference on Communities and Technologies*, 12(1), 63-72.
- Hager, P., & Halliday, J. (2006). Recovering informal learning: Wisdom, judgment and community (Lifelong Learning Book Series Vol. 7). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Heimann Mühlenbock, K., & Johansson Kokkinakis, S. (2012). SweVoc A Swedish vocabulary resource for CALL. In L. Borin & E. Volodina (Eds.), Proceedings of the SLTC 2012 workshop on NLP for CALL (Linköping Electronic Conference Proceedings 80) (pp. 28-34). Linköping, Sweden: Linköping University Electronic Press.
- Kaufmann, K. (2018). Navigating a new life: Syrian refugees and their smartphones in Vienna. *Information, Communication & Society*, *21*(6), 882-898.

- Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2013). *Re-skilling language learners for a mobile world*. Monterey, CA: The International Research Foundation for English Language Education. Retrieved from <u>http://www.tirfonline.org/english-in-the-workforce/mobile-assisted-language-learning/</u>
- Kukulska-Hulme, A., Gaved, M., Paletta, L., Scanlon, E., Jones, A., & Brasher, A. (2015). Mobile incidental learning to support the inclusion of recent immigrants. *Ubiquitous Learning: An International Journal*, 7(2), 9-21.
- Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Pegrum, M. (2018). Linguistic diversity in online and mobile learning.In A. Creese & A. Blackledge (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language and superdiversity* (pp. 518-532). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Majhanovich, S., & Deyrich, M. C. (2017). Language learning to support active social inclusion: Issues and challenges for lifelong learning. *International Review of Education*, 63(4), 435-452.
- Park, Y. (2011). A pedagogical framework for mobile learning: Categorizing educational applications of mobile technologies into four types. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, *12*(2), 78-102.
- Pearson, L. (2011). Family-centred learning for Eastern European migrants using a mobile English language application. In *Proceedings of the 10th World Conference on Mobile* and Contextual Learning (mLearn) (pp. 7-14). Beijing, China: Beijing Normal University. Retrieved from <u>http://mlearn.bnu.edu.cn</u>
- Rosell-Aguilar, F. (2017). State of the app: A taxonomy and framework for evaluating language learning mobile applications. *CALICO Journal*, *34*(2), 243-258.
- Ruge, B. (2012). Learning Greenlandic by SMS: The potentials of text messages support for second language learners in Greenland. In J. Díaz-Vera (Ed.), *Left to my own devices: Learner autonomy and mobile-assisted language learning innovation and leadership in English language teaching* (pp. 197-212). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Safa'a, A., & Hanna, K. (2017). Understanding the role of ICTs in promoting social inclusion: The case of Syrian refugees in Germany. In Proceedings of the 25th European Conference on Information Systems (ECIS), Guimarães, Portugal, June 5-10, 2017 (pp. 1792-1806). Retrieved from <u>https://aisel.aisnet.org/ecis2017_rp/115</u>
- Sofkova Hashemi, S., Berbyuk Lindström, N., Bartram, L., & Bradley, L. (2017). Investigating mobile technology resources for integration: The technology-pedagogy-languageculture (TPLC) model. In *Proceedings of the 16th World Conference on Mobile and*

Contextual Learning. New York City, NY: ACM. http://doi.org/10.1145/3136907.3136930

- Swedish National Agency for (2018). Sfi_Elever Education. och kursdeltagare_Riksnivå_Tabell3A_webb [SFI_Students and course participants_Nationan level_Table3A_web] [Data file]. Retrieved from https://www.skolverket.se/skolutveckling/statistik/sok-statistik-om-forskola-skola-<u>och</u>vuxenutbildning?sok=SokC&verkform=Kommunal%20vuxenutbildning,%20sfi&omr ade=Studieresultat&lasar=2017
- Thorén, B. (2014). Svensk fonetik för andraspråksundervisningen [Swedish phonetics for second language education]. Stockholm, Sweden: Vulkan.
- Thorne, S. L. (2013). Language learning, ecological validity, and innovation under conditions of superdiversity. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, 6(2), 1-27.



