Articles

ATHENS INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATION AND RESEARCH
A World Association of Academics and Researchers
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(ATINER) *Established in 1995* *(ATINER)*

Mission

ATINER is a *World Non-Profit Association* of Academics and Researchers based in Athens. ATINER is an independent **Association** with a **Mission** to become a forum where Academics and Researchers from all over the world can meet in Athens, exchange ideas on their research and discuss future developments in their disciplines, **as well as engage with professionals from other fields**. Athens was chosen because of its long history of academic gatherings, which go back thousands of years to *Plato's Academy* and *Aristotle's Lyceum.* Both these historic places are within walking distance from ATINER's downtown offices. Since antiquity, Athens was an open city. In the words of Pericles, **Athens"...*is open to the world, we never expel a foreigner from learning or seeing".* (**"Pericles' Funeral Oration", in Thucydides, *The History of the Peloponnesian War). It is ATINER's **mission** to revive the glory of Ancient Athens by inviting the World Academic Community to the city, to learn from each other in an environment of freedom and respect for other people's opinions and beliefs. After all, the free expression of one's opinion formed the basis for the development of democracy, and Athens was its cradle. As it turned out, the Golden Age of Athens was in fact, the Golden Age of the Western Civilization. *Education* and *(Re)searching* for the 'truth' are the pillars of any free (democratic) society. This is the reason why *Education* and *Research* are the two core words in ATINER's name.

Athens Journal of Education
Editorial and Reviewers' Board

President's Message

All ATINER's publications including the e-journals are open access without any costs (submission, processing, publishing, open access paid by authors, open access paid by readers etc) and are independent of the presentations made at any of the many small events (conferences, symposiums, forums, colloquiums, courses, roundtable discussions) organized by ATINER throughout the year. The intellectual property rights of the submitted papers remain with the author.

Before you submit, please make sure your paper meets some basic academic standards, which include proper English. Some articles will be selected from the numerous papers that have been presented at the various annual international academic conferences organized by the different divisions and units of the Athens Institute for Education and Research.

The plethora of papers presented every year will enable the editorial board of each journal to select the best ones, and in so doing, to produce a quality academic journal. In addition to papers presented, ATINER encourages the independent submission of papers to be evaluated for publication.

The current issue of the Athens Journal of Education (AJE) is the fourth issue of the sixth volume (2019). The reader will notice some changes compared with the previous issues, which I hope is an improvement.

Gregory T. Papanikos, President
Athens Institute for Education and Research

Athens Institute for Education and Research
A World Association of Academics and Researchers

22nd Annual International Conference on Education
18-21 May 2020, Athens, Greece

The Education Unit of ATINER organizes its **22nd Annual International Conference on Education, 18-21 May 2020, Athens, Greece** sponsored by the Athens Journal of Education. The aim of the conference is to bring together scholars and students of education and other related disciplines. You may participate as **stream leader**, presenter of one paper, chair a session or observer. Papers (in English) from all areas of education are welcome. Please submit a proposal using the form available (https://www.atiner.gr/2020/FORM-EDU.doc).

Academic Members Responsible for the Conference

- **Dr. Alexander Makedon**, Head, Education Research Unit, ATINER.
- **Dr. Mary Ellis**, Director, Human Development Division, ATINER & Senior Lecturer, National Institute of Education, Singapore.

Important Dates

- Abstract Submission: **14 October 2019**
- Acceptance of Abstract: 4 Weeks after Submission
- Submission of Paper: **20 April 2020**

Social and Educational Program

The Social Program Emphasizes the Educational Aspect of the Academic Meetings of Atiner.

- Greek Night Entertainment (This is the official dinner of the conference)
- Athens Sightseeing: Old and New-An Educational Urban Walk
- Social Dinner
- Mycenae Visit
- Exploration of the Aegean Islands
- Delphi Visit
- Ancient Corinth and Cape Sounion

Conference Fees

Conference fees vary from 400€ to 2000€
Details can be found at: https://www.atiner.gr/2019fees

Athens Institute for Education and Research
A World Association of Academics and Researchers

4th Annual International Symposium on "Higher Education in a Global World", 6-9 July 2020, Athens, Greece

The Education Unit of ATINER is organizing the **4th Annual International Symposium on "Higher Education in a Global World", 6-9 July 2020, Athens, Greece** sponsored by the Athens Journal of Education. The aim of the symposium is to examine educational developments throughout the world in universities, polytechnics, colleges, and vocational and education institutions. Academics and researchers from all areas of education are welcomed. You may participate as stream organizer, presenter of one paper, chair a session or observer. Please submit a proposal using the form available (https://www.atiner.gr/2020/FORM-COLEDU.doc).

Important Dates
- Abstract Submission: **2 December 2019**
- Acceptance of Abstract: 4 Weeks after Submission
- Submission of Paper: **8 June 2020**

Academic Member Responsible for the Conference
- Dr. Sharon Claire Bolton, Professor, Management Unit, ATINER & Dean, The Management School, University of Stirling, Scotland.
- Dr. Mary Ellis, Director, Human Development Division & Senior Lecturer, National Institute of Education, Singapore.
- Dr. George Priovolos, Director, Center for Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (CSME) & Professor, Iona College, USA.

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Women Superintendent Research: 2014-2016 Dissertation Literature Review Content Analysis

By Gloria Gresham[*] & Pauline Sampson[†]

In the United States (U.S.), women are drastically underrepresented in the role of school superintendent. Women who seek the job face overwhelming barriers and exhibit characteristics different from men causing challenges in obtaining the superintendency. In this study, a content analysis was conducted of the 43 U.S. dissertations relating to women superintendents located in the ProQuest database for the years of 2014 – 2016. Nine major themes mentioned in a range of 20 to 36 dissertations or (47% to 84%) were discovered: low numbers of women superintendents, gender inequity, history of women superintendents, support systems, career pathways, characteristics of women superintendents, leadership styles, barriers, and school board discrimination. Common themes voiced in 10 to 19 dissertations (23% to 40%) were clustered into the categories of cultural and societal expectations, the glass ceiling, racial discrimination, age, and search procedures. Thirty-five themes were included one to nine times in dissertations (2% to 21%) and considered by the researchers as minor. Displaying issues related to women superintendents highlights concerns and encourages solutions.

Keywords: dissertations, gender, leadership, superintendents, women.

Introduction

The term superintendent refers to the chief executive officer or leader of a school system. Historically and currently, in the U.S., most school superintendents are male. The numbers of women superintendents in the U.S. are low but showing growth with about 13 percent documented by Glass in 2000, 22% in 2006 illustrated by Glass and Franceschini (2007), and 24.1% as noted in a 2011 study completed by Kowalski, McCord, Petersen, Young, and Ellerson. It stands to reason since numbers of women superintendents are so low, research in this area is vast and a topic of many current dissertations. One assumes candidates seeking doctorates are emerging researchers providing the field with reviews of current literature and are focusing on gaps noted in the literature.

One methodology encouraging in-depth review of dissertations is content analysis. The methodology, content analysis, was chosen since it was a close analysis of the presence of words and/or concepts within a set of texts. Content analysis is a quantitative or qualitative methodology depending on its use. Through a content analysis of contemporary dissertations, it is expected literature available about women superintendents is prevalent since the numbers of women superintendents are lagging. Content analysis of dissertations should reveal much about the current state of research related to women superintendents.

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Beginning in 2016, Gresham and Sampson implemented close study employing content analysis of 2014 – 2016 U.S. dissertations located in ProQuest, and the researchers completed three distinct studies with this data. In the first study, quantitative content analysis was employed. The researchers focused on who were publishing about women superintendents as indicated in dissertation reference lists, what types of publications were the authors using to disseminate research as revealed in reference lists, and what were the major themes (concepts) displayed in the literature review headings of dissertations. The summative content analysis approach was employed and only manifest content analysis (a type of summative content analysis) was used as the researchers identified and quantified certain words or content in the dissertations (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). A second study continued the implementation of manifest content analysis as researchers reviewed all current (last five years) peer-reviewed articles located in Google Scholar, Academic Search Complete, WorldCat, and Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) to determined which of the cited major authors in the first study were continuing to publish articles about women superintendents and what other authors not cited in the 2014 – 2016 dissertations were currently publishing in this area. Again, researchers were only concerned with quantifying certain words or content. Since these two studies did not display a close look at the current themes (fundamental concepts) displayed in the literature reviews of the 2014 – 2016 U.S. dissertations, Gresham and Sampson believed further analysis of the literature reviews of the dissertations was warranted. The first study only quantitatively studied theme through the frequency of word usage noted in the headings of the literature reviews, and the researchers desired to delve more deeply into the content of the literature reviews to ascertain the major themes (underlying meanings of the content). To achieve this mission, the researchers moved from simply exploring the frequency of word usage to a qualitative summative latent content analysis as described by Hsieh and Shannon (2005).

The purpose of this third study was to determine the themes displayed in the literature reviews of 2014-2016 U.S. dissertations pertaining to women superintendents located in ProQuest, an online database that indexes, abstracts, and provides access to dissertations and theses. As dissertations are often the most current literature available that extensively examines the research on one topic, dissertations were chosen for the content analysis. The research question guiding this study was "What were the major themes (concepts) pertaining to women superintendents displayed in the literature review sections of 2014 – 2016 U.S. dissertations located in ProQuest?"

Literature Review

Since the focus of the study was women superintendents, feminist theory and gender inequality provided the conceptual framework for this study. Gender inequality related to unfairness and/or unequal access for women to the superintendency (Curthoys, 2015). Gender inequity in the U.S. is common in

the field of education and in the role of the superintendent (Young, 2005; Kowalski, McCord, Petersen, Young, & Ellerson, 2011). The U.S. society has formulated norms for female behavior, considered female the weaker gender, and these norms impact women in the superintendency (Tavris, 1992; Skrla, 2000). Feminist theory is connected to social problems, trends, and issues neglected by the dominant male viewpoint within social theory. Thomas (1997) believed assuming different gender roles was not biological but more often a result of social conditioning. Feminist study is a research methodology pertaining to issues often overlooked or marginalized (Brooks and Hess-Biber, 2007). Feminist theory principles included in this study were (a) commitment to ending gender inequality; (b) review of gendered practices; (c) support for epistemological diversity (Nelli, 2014).

To prepare for this study, the researchers reviewed literature pertaining to gender inequity, barriers confronting women seeking the job of superintendent, and traits exhibited by women superintendents since these categories permeated the dissertation literature reviews of the previous two studies. Content analysis methodology was included to deepen the researchers understanding of which type of content analysis was needed and to bolster the rationale for why content analysis was chosen as the methodology for dissertation close review. Following is review of these areas.

Gender Inequity

Women experience marginalization due to gender when considering obtaining the superintendency (McLean, La Guardia, Nelson, & Richards, 2016). Generally, leadership jobs, such as the superintendent, do contain women; more often, women hold the position of secretary, clerk, and care providers (Acker, 2006). Gender inequity was revealed in unequal pay, but Acker (2006) discovered these inequitable practices were fluid and changing. Inequity is still prevalent in education and in the role of superintendent as revealed by Acker (2006) and Glass, Björk, and Brunner (2000). In a study of nine women superintendents, Whitaker (2006) discovered all experienced gender bias. Supporting Whitaker's findings, Bañuelos (2008) surveyed 35 women superintendents in California to determine how gender bias affected their jobs and personal lives. Bañuelos found this group of women were aware of gender bias and believed bias affected them. These women felt disrespected and their authority challenged. The women revealed gender was a topic raised when talking with peers, the board, and the community. Many women superintendents stated they experienced emotional and physical abuse (2008).

Often displayed during the superintendent hiring process, is gender inequity. In a study of superintendent search and selection procedures, Tallerico (2000) revealed hiring practices limited access for minority males and women. In contrast, Wiggins and Coggins (2001) reviewed 15 school districts in Oklahoma to discover if school board members preferred men over women for the job of superintendent. School board members reviewed six resumes (three for women and three for men) for factious candidates. After the school board moved through

the screening process, Wiggins and Coggins revealed gender was not a factor in superintendent selection. Although, Wiggins and Coggins' research showed a positive trend around gender inequity, women face barriers men do not.

Barriers Confronting Women Seeking the Job of Superintendent

Often, barriers deter women from entering the job of superintendent. In a study conducted in 2009, Derrington and Sharratt found barriers women faced to obtaining the superintendency were overwhelming and very similar to their 1993 study although the rankings of these barriers changed. Often self-imposed, barriers are related to family responsibilities, lack of mobility, and raising children. Gender and societal expectations often halted women from pursuing the job of superintendent. Women with children from early childhood through high school age were the lowest percentage of women in the superintendency (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009).

Low self-efficacy is another barrier displayed by women as revealed by Muñoz, Pankake, Ramalho, Mills, and Simmonsson (2014). Dobie and Hummel (2006) discovered women often question their capacity to hold the job of superintendent. In addition, these researches relayed that finance management is an area woman do not have confidence in achieving, and this belief deters women from seeking the job. Although this questioning of capacity may not be warranted because women usually have more expertise in curriculum and instruction, and there is more demand for academic accountability in schools today. This skill should be an advantage for women.

A critical barrier for women is school board members and their search procedures. Muñoz et al. (2014) indicated school board members viewed women as poor finance managers and for this reason, not good candidates to lead districts. Search firms are oftentimes employed to locate candidates for the job of superintendent. Muñoz et al. found search firms weed out women from the process (2014). Unwritten criteria are utilized to hinder the selection of women candidates (Skrla, Reyes, & Scheurich, 2000). It is documented barriers do exist for women seeking the job of superintendent, but those achieving and/or seeking the job have characteristics different from men.

Traits and Challenges of Women Superintendents

Women exhibit characteristics different from men, and these differences impact the superintendency. In a 2000 study, Glass listed reasons why women face challenges in seeking the job of superintendent: (1) they are not in jobs normally leading to the office of superintendent; (2) women are not preparing for the role: (3) they do not have interest or experience in finance; (4) personal relationships are barriers; (5) school boards usually do not hire women; (6) reasons why women enter the field are different than in times past; and (7) women are older when they enter administration. Derrington and Sharratt (2008) examined the characteristics of 15 women superintendents in Indiana to discover if they exhibited the normal profile of most superintendents and what characteristics

enhanced their pursuit of the role of superintendent. Derrington and Sharratt discovered these women superintendents had higher qualifications than males, and they delegated more. Additionally, Derrington and Sharratt showed that characteristics of a strong work ethic, the influence of mentors, tenacity, and independence contributed to their success. In 2016, Superville discussed why few women lead school districts and stated many find the job of superintendent unattractive. Superville further revealed that a normal pathway to the superintendency is the role of secondary principal, and women are usually elementary principals.

Networking and mentoring differ for women from men. Women compared to men have fewer mentoring and networking opportunities (Muñoz et al., 2014) and often network for social support. Men network to advance their careers (Singh, Vinnicombe, & Kumra, 2006). Peters (2010) agreed that women superintendents seek support and friendship, but Peters added that women often have men and women mentors. Brunner and Grogan (2007) found women seeking the job of superintendent are more interested in utilizing networking and mentors more than those not seeking the role. Searby and Tripses (2006) and Whitaker (2006) revealed some women are reluctant to seek or mentor other women and resist mentoring opportunities. Limited networking is a characteristic and reason why women do not seek the superintendency (Superville, 2016). To add to the knowledge of women superintendents, the researchers employed summative content analysis methodology to ascertain the themes revealed in recent dissertations.

Content Analysis

Content analysis is a methodology to study trends and patterns used in document review (Knippendorff, 2004). Knippendorff also indicated that content analysis includes: (a) which data are analyzed; (b) how are they defined; (c) what is the population from which they are drawn; (d) what is the context relative to which the data are analyzed; (e) what are the boundaries of the analysis; and (f) what is the target of the inferences. Content analysis is described as a method to review texts and other data forms and a way to achieve relevant data from a thorough review of artifacts (Knippendorf, 2004; Leavy, 2007; Nelli, 2014). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) indicated there were three distinct types of content analysis: conventional content analysis (to describe a phenomenon); directed content analysis (to identify key concepts through using existing theory or prior research); and summative content analysis. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), summative content analysis has two types. The first is manifest content analysis that is used when the researcher desires to quantify certain words or content with the purpose of determining the frequency of words or content. The second is latent content analysis. This methodology refers to the process of interpreting the content to determine the underlying meaning of the content.

Over time, other researchers have employed content analysis as a methodology in reviewing theses and dissertations. Weber (1990) implemented content analysis to examine themes displayed in dissertations pertaining to women superintendents.

Horton and Hawkins (2010) studied 252 dissertations to discover if doctoral programs in social work included intervention research. Mete (2014) employed content analysis to discover theories and models displayed by nursing students and advisors in dissertations. In a study of 1993 to 2014 theses, Dirliki, Aydin, and Akgün (2016) employed content analysis to assess cooperative learning. Atmaca (2016) conducted a content analysis of theses and dissertations to compare contextual features. The methodology of content analysis is an authentic and proven manner to analyze dissertations.

Methodology

Gresham and Sampson (2017) completed two previous studies reviewing 2014 – 2016 U.S. dissertations published in the ProQuest database. In the first study, the researchers determined who were the major researchers cited, what types of documents were cited, and what were the dominate themes displayed in the headings of the literature reviews. The first study found there were eight major authors cited across the 43 dissertations pertaining to women superintendents: Bjork, Brunner, Glass, Grogan, Kowalski, Shakeshaft, Skrla, and Tallerico. Gresham and Sampson further revealed that the most common avenue for publishing research was peer-reviewed articles with books, chapters, and other sources following in this order. Through manifest content analysis, Gresham and Sampson discovered the most common themes exhibited in the literature review headings were women/female, superintendents, leadership, school districts, and men/male.

The second study extended the research and sought to determine if the major authors found in the first study continued to publish about women superintendents and if other authors were researching and publishing about women superintendents over the last five years (2009 – 2016). Bjork, Brunner, Glass, Skrla, and Tallerico exhibited no further publications, Grogan had four, Kowalski had one, and Shakeshaft had five. The analysis of current research yielded nine additional publications of other authors related to women superintendents.

This third study included an extensive content analysis of 2014 – 2016 U.S. dissertation literature reviews published in the ProQuest database. The first study only analyzed the headings of the literature reviews. For this third study, the researchers employed summative content analysis and both types (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). First latent content analysis was implemented through interpreting the words and phrases displayed in the literature reviews to discover the underlying meanings. Then the researchers through analysis, categorized the common meanings into categories and named the themes. This thematic analysis pinpointed and recorded the important concepts displayed in the literature reviews. Then as the researchers counted the frequency the named themes were displayed across the dissertations, manifest content analysis was used.

The study process included analyzing the 43 literature reviews of the first study. Each dissertation literature review text was copied into a Word table. The table categories included the title of the dissertation, full text of the

literature review, theme noted, and text support. Each literature review text was analyzed and as segments of text were located illustrating underlying meanings, that text was copied was placed in the text support column. A theme name was crafted to describe the underlying meaning and placed in the theme column for each text segment. After 43 literature reviews were read and individually analyzed, the tables were combined into one Word table. The table was then sorted by themes. An analysis of the sorted themes was conducted, and themes were analyzed once again, combined, and reworded as needed to discover the displayed themes (underlying meanings). Next, the themes were categorized according to the frequency they were displayed.

Findings/Results

The current study revealed a 159-page table reflecting themes addressed in the dissertation literature reviews. Table 1 indicates the themes discovered, the number of times themes were displayed, and the percentages of times themes were displayed. The researchers considered major themes as displayed 20 to 36 times, common themes as displayed 10 to 19 times, and minor themes as displayed 1 to 9 times.

Table 1. Number and Percentages of Themes of Literature Reviews

Theme	Number of Times the Theme was Displayed	Percentage the Theme was Displayed
Low numbers of women superintendents	36	84
Gender inequity	34	79
History pertaining to women superintendents	30	70
Support systems including role model, mentoring, and networking	30	70
Career pathways to the superintendency	29	67
Characteristics of women superintendents	22	51
Leadership styles of women	21	49
Barrier – family	20	47
School board discrimination	20	47
Culture and society expectations	17	40
Glass ceiling	17	40
Preparing for the role of superintendent	17	40
Relationship building	14	33
Research need around women superintendents	14	33
Search procedures to fill the job of superintendent	14	33

Preparation programs for the superintendency	13	30
Overcoming barriers	12	28
Racial discrimination	12	28
Age entering the superintendency	10	23
Instructional leadership	10	23
Good ol' boy practice	9	21
Barrier – self-imposed	8	19
Choice in the job of superintendency	8	19
Spirituality	8	19
Women superintendents helping other women	8	19
Power	7	16
Balancing family and work	6	14
Change agents as superintendents	6	14
Fiscal management	6	14
Resiliency of women superintendents	6	14
Politics	5	12
Compensation discrimination	4	9
Role conflict for women superintendents	4	9
Rural school districts	4	9
Stereotyping	4	9
Working conditions of the superintendent	4	9
Barrier - mobility	3	7
Emotional control	3	7
Job satisfaction	3	7
Role of the superintendent	3	7
Time expectations of the superintendent	3	7
Urban districts	3	7
Acceptance from others	2	5
Courage	2	5
Diversity	2	5
Gatekeepers blocking women	2	5
Reflective practice	2	5
Stress of the job	2	5
Decision making willingness	1	2
Evaluations by school boards	1	2
Life-long learning	1	2
Negotiation	1	2
Professional organization membership	1	2
Self-awareness	1	2
Student-focused	1	2

Following is analysis of the major themes displayed (20 to 36 times). The most displayed theme was "low numbers of women superintendents" with 84% of the dissertations including this theme. Text in the literature reviews discussed how men out numbered women in the role of superintendent with Hispanic and women from African descent exhibiting even lower numbers than White women. One example of a statement displayed was, "women attaining the superintendency is characterized as sluggish with only 24.1% of women in the U.S. occupying the superintendent position." Other statements revealed the disparity of women of Hispanic or African descent. Examples were "2% of superintendents in 2010 were female" and "African American females do not obtain the position as quickly as White women." This major theme mirrored the findings of Glass (2000), Glass and Franceschini (2007), and Kowalski, McCord, Petersen, Young, and Ellerson (2014). This finding supported the need for feminist study as stated in the conceptual framework for this study.

The second major theme was "gender inequity." The identification of this theme directly connected to this study conceptual framework of feminist theory and gender inequity in that the literature review analysis of this study revealed gender remains a social problem for women in the superintendent role, and women are still treated differently and unfairly when compared to men. The study findings supported the research of McLean, La Gluardia, Nelson, and Richards (2016); women experience marginalization when trying to enter the superintendency. Also, this study supported the research of Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000) and Muñoz et al. (2014); women are discriminated against when they seek the role of superintendent. Gender inequity was included in 79% of the dissertations. Gender inequity was revealed through terms such as discrimination, stereotyping, and different treatment due to gender. Some examples of comments revealing these topics were "leadership positions are hindered by discrimination and stereotyping," "those hiring desire to reproduce a new leader in their own [male] image," and "women are treated differently from male superintendents because of their gender."

History of women superintendents and support systems for women seeking or achieving the superintendency were themes noted in 30 or 70% of the dissertations. The literature reviews presented an overview of women in the superintendency. Many discussed a woman superintendent pioneer, "In 1909, Ella Flagg Young was named superintendent of the Chicago Public School system in Chicago, Illinois." Literature reviews displayed discussions of women superintendents from the 19th century to present day.

Themes related to support systems included topics such as role models, mentoring, and networking. This finding directly related to the research of Bruner and Grogan (2007), Munoz et al. (2014), and Superville (2006). Women have fewer networking opportunities, and women seeking the job of superintendent are interested in using mentors and networking. Some examples of text displaying the need for support systems were "the lack of role models and mentors is significant" and "the need to build strong relationships and to network with other superintendents was deemed crucial." Another statement discussing how some women superintendents seek support systems after achieving the job of

superintendent was "most female superintendents seek support systems after getting appointed," and this statement showed how lack of support systems negatively impacted women, "many women did not acquire the position because of a lack of encouragement to prepare for the position."

Career pathway was a themed contained in 29 or 67% of the literature reviews, and this theme directly aligned with the research of Glass (2000) and Superville (2016). The content in this theme, career pathway, related to how the pathway to the role of superintendent is different for women when compared to men and more complicated. One statement revealing this underlying meaning was, "the career paths of women seeking the superintendency may be more complex and arduous than male counterparts." The usual career path to the top job is high school principal to superintendent, but for women this path is different. Two statements showing this were "fewer women apply and are hired for high school principals" and "the most common experience reported for women superintendents is the principalship at the elementary level." A common career path for women is that of assistant superintendent to superintendent as is revealed by this statement "the female superintendent is 40% more likely to have served in the position of assistant superintendent before assuming the top leadership position than are males."

Characteristics of women seeking or holding the job of superintendent were displayed in 22 or 51% of the literature reviews. "Older than men," "single," "widowed," or "divorced" were terms used to describe women superintendents. Other terms were "care," "courage," "intuition," "vision," "determination," and "commitment." When in the role, women superintendents are viewed as leaders who are "change agents," "spiritual," "lifelong learners," and "servant leaders." These themes aligned with the findings of Glass (2000) and Derrington and Sharratt (2009); women are older and exhibit stronger work ethic.

Related to characteristics is leadership style, and this theme appeared in 21 or 49% of the literature reviews. The leadership style for women superintendents was described with terms such as "transformational," "collaborative," "nurturing," and "situational." It was revealed a more collaborative and inclusive style may be viewed as negative. An example comment was "while the participatory style of female leaders may be a strength, this style allows the leader to be more open to criticism." As dissertations revealed, women leaders are usually skilled in instruction, and when they lead, women are often "learning-centered" and focused on "curriculum and instruction."

Displayed 20 or 47% of the time in literature reviews were the barrier of family and school board discrimination. These comments displayed how family was viewed as a barrier to seeking the role of superintendent, "the number one barrier was conflict between career and family demands," and "in our society, the woman's role is that of mother and household caretaker." As was stated in the literature reviews, "balancing work and family life" is a reality for many women seeking the superintendency. Glass (2000) also discovered that personal relationships were barriers for women. School board discrimination was also displayed in the research of Glass (2000), Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000), and Muñoz et al. (2014). As documents showed, most "school boards are

composed of males." An example statement showing how boards discriminate against women was, "boards fail to consider female applications." Reasons revealed for why school boards discriminate against women were "women are less proficient with the demands of school budgets;" women were viewed as "caring, listening, and nurturing, not strong;" and "women allow emotions to influence decisions."

Other common themes displayed were: (1) cultural and societal expectations (40%); (2) the glass ceiling (17%); (3) preparing for the role of superintendent (17%); (4) relationship building (14%); (5) research need in the area of women superintendents (14%); (6) search procedures (14%); (7) preparation programs for the superintendency (13%); (8) overcoming barriers (12%); (9) racial discrimination (12%); (10) age entering the superintendency (10%); and instructional leadership (10%). As these common themes were clustered, cultural and societal expectations, the glass ceiling, racial discrimination, age, and search procedures were viewed as barriers for women. Some example statements to support these themes were "societal views about proper roles for men and women may still extend into the educational realm creating barriers for women in the superintendency; " the glass ceiling apples to any situation where there is a perception that upper management positions are primarily consumed by men, and that no matter how hard women try, they are constantly met with barriers that thwart their progress;" women of African descent and Latina "wade through the reefs of perception about race;" women "remain in the classroom for seven to 10 years resulting in a late start to leadership;" and "the historical male-dominated conceptualization of the position of superintendent influences the way school boards define selection criteria."

Finally, thirty-five themes were mentioned in literature reviews one to nine times (2 to 21%) and considered by the researchers as minor themes according to the 43 literature reviews. Some of these were: 1) good old' boy practices, 2) self-imposed barriers, 3) spirituality, 4) power, 5) politics, 6) role conflict, 7) job satisfaction, 8) women helping other women, 9) location of districts, and 10) negotiation.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine the major themes pertaining to women superintendents in the literature review sections of 2014 – 2016 U.S. dissertations located in ProQuest. Review of the 43 dissertations' literature reviews revealed a 159-page table indicating themes covered. Major themes displayed 20 to 36 times in literature reviews (47 to 84%) were low numbers of women superintendents, gender inequity, history of women superintendents, support systems, career pathways sought by women, characteristics of women superintendents, family as a barrier, and school board discrimination. Eleven common themes displayed 10 to 19 times (23 to 40%) were clustered in these categories: cultural and societal expectations, the glass ceiling, racial discrimination, age, and search procedures. Thirty-five themes were displayed nine times

or less (2 to 21%) with good ol' boy practices the highest (nine times) and decision making, school board evaluation, life-long learning, negotiation, professional organization membership, self-awareness, and student-focused the lowest (one time).

The major themes related to topics often researched in the field. The theme low numbers of women superintendents was displayed the most (in 84% of the dissertations) and was supported by researchers such as Glass (2000), Glass and Franceschini (2007), and Kowalski et al. (2014). Gender inequity was a theme viewed in 79% of the dissertations and was supported by authors such as Glass, Björk, and Brunner (2000), Acker, (2006), Bañuelos (2008), and McLearn, La Guardia, Nelson, and Richards (2016). Support systems (noted in 70% of the dissertations) included role models, mentoring, and networking, and these concepts were often studied by authors such as Muñoz et al. (2014) and Brunner and Grogan (2007). The finding of how career pathways differ for men and women (noted in 67% of the dissertations) was supported by authors such as Glass (2000). The characteristics of women superintendents, how they differ from men, and leadership styles was noted in 49% to 51% of the dissertations and researched by those such as Derrington and Sharratt (2008) and Superville (2016). Barriers, often cited in current research, was included in the literature reviews, and the main barrier noted in the dissertations was family (47% of the dissertations). Researching family barriers were authors such as Derrington and Sharratt (2009).

Conclusions

More research is warranted in the field of women superintendents going beyond the major and common themes displayed in the 43 dissertation literature reviews. Themes were very similar across most of the dissertations. Literature reviews often did not identify gaps in research supporting additional reasons why women do not enter the field of superintendent or are not successful in their attempts to achieve the role.

The numbers of women superintendents are low, and one way to highlight the disparity is through dissertation study. Emerging researchers must be pushed to go beyond common themes such as gender inequity, support systems or lack of, school board discrimination, career pathway differences, and barriers. Learning to identify gaps instead of relaying often researched themes found in current literature is critical to discover more about why women do not enter the superintendency and why the number of women superintendents remains low.

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Establishment of an American Branch-Campus Model of Higher Education: Qatar's Early Goals, Rationales, and Challenges

By Pamela Walsh[*]

This study presents original research findings of a qualitative study of Qatar's international higher-education branch-campus model, which in 2016 hosted 11 international branch campuses, among the most of any country then. Few studies have examined the rationales, goals, and challenges of the branch-campus model from a host country's perspective. This paper asks two central questions: 1) Why did Qatar partner with six North American universities to establish six international branch campuses between 2001and 2008 and 2) what were the challenges during the early years of operations from the Qatari and branch-campus leadership perspectives? This study's primary data-collection method was face-to-face, open-ended interviews. I interviewed 18 participants in Qatar and recruited based on potential participants' positions relative to the establishment, oversight, and governance of the six branch campuses. I also included executives and directors from the government of Qatar, Qatar Foundation, and leadership of the six branch campuses. I used extant documents, such as annual reports, strategic plans, government reports, speeches, and popular-media articles as additional data sources. Findings included rationales and goals related to pedagogy, sociocultural development, societal engagement, development of research capacity, and Qatar's status as a leader and driver of change in the Arab Gulf region and beyond. Challenges included sociocultural issues, tensions between the international branch-campus leaderships and their home institutions, and conflicting expectations between the branch campuses and Qatar Foundation. These findings include in-depth and new insights into host-country goals and aspirations, and challenges experienced by U.S. and host-country partners, and how these challenges have been addressed.

Keywords: American Branch-Campus model, Education City, International branch campus, Qatar Foundation, Transnational Higher Education.

Introduction

Internationalization of higher education, an increasingly common theme in higher-education literature of the last decades, may be defined as the integration of "an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research . . . and to make a meaningful contribution to society" (de Wit & Hunter, 2015, p. 3).

Transnational initiatives include the movement of individuals, educational programs, and institutions across national borders (Knight & Liu, 2017; Mazzarol, Soutar, & Seng, 2003). Transnational education and the associated literature have grown significantly in the last 15 years and are influenced by

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globalization, university and country quests for institutional prestige, and governments' declining financial support for higher education.

The least common form of transnational education is the international branch campus (IBC), but IBCs have grown rapidly since 2000 (Altbach, 2011; Garrett, Kinser, Lane, & Merola, 2016; Knight & Liu, 2017). An educational institution that establishes an IBC in another country is, interchangeably, the *sending*, *parent*, or *home institution*. The foreign country that hosts an IBC is known as the *host country*.

IBC models and relationships between IBCs and host countries vary from country to country (Crist, 2015; Garrett, 2018; Kinser & Lane, 2016; Borgos, 2016). Host countries generally engage with their IBCs (Garrett, 2018; Kinser & Lane, 2016) and often with their IBCs' parent institutions. Prestigious universities may receive generous IBC funding from host countries or other entities while home universities typically provide little, if any, up-front investment (Altbach, 2011, p. 5). For example, IBCs in the Arab Gulf region and their parent institutions receive significant subsidies and other incentives (Altbach, 2011; Crist, 2015).

The two leading IBC authorities, the Observatory on Higher Education, which has produced comprehensive reports on IBCs since 2011, and the Cross-Border Education Research Team, produced a 2017 report (Garrett, Kinser, Lane, & Merola, 2017) that noted 263 existing IBCs and 20 under development. The United States was identified as the top sending country, and China as the top host country, followed by the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Malaysia, Qatar, and Singapore.

IBC research has grown over the last 20 years. A recent review and analysis of about 300 journal articles and other scholarly literature on cross-border internationalization initiatives revealed that research has focused more on IBCs than on transnational-education modes (Knight & Liu, 2017). This research, however, has been written predominately from sending-institution perspectives, while "research from the host-country perspective is significantly underrepresented" (Knight & Liu, 2017, p. 15), indicating a significant gap in the literature.

This paper presents original qualitative research findings of six IBCs in Qatar: Virginia Commonwealth, Cornell, Carnegie Mellon, Texas A&M, Georgetown, and Northwestern (Walsh, 2011). These six prestigious American research universities were all still operating as of October 2018 and were each formed between 2001 and 2008 as part of Education City, Qatar's higher-education infrastructure, which was established in the late 1990s.

Qatar has invested significant financial and nonfinancial resources into all its IBCs, especially IBCs in Education City, yet little, if any, research addresses Qatar's early rationales and motives for establishing an American branch-campus model. Additionally, only limited research focuses on early host-country challenges, including Qatar's.

The following constitutes this study's two research questions:

1. Why initially did Qatar partner with six North American universities to establish six international branch campuses between 2001 and 2008? and

2. What were the challenges, from Qatar and branch-campus leadership perspectives, during the early years of operations?

Study Context

Qatar is a small wealthy Arab state headed by an emir, located on the Arabian Peninsula, and ruled by the Al Thani family since the mid-1800s. The Qatar people are believed to be descendants of ancient Arabian tribes who migrated to the peninsula between the 17th and early 19th centuries CE. Qatar signed an agreement with the British government in 1868 establishing Qatar as a country under British protection (Toth, 1994; Zahlan, 1979), and it continued as a British protectorate until 1971 (Zahlan, 1979). Oil discovered in Qatar in 1939 has, since the 1950s, brought increasing oil revenues, prosperity, and social progress (Zahlan, 1979).

Over the last 70 years, Qatar transformed itself from a relatively poor British protectorate into an independent state with one of the largest natural-gas reserves in the world. Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani, Emir of Qatar from 1995 to 2013, is widely acknowledged as having led unparalleled economic investment and political and media reforms. Qatar has shared its wealth, generously, with Qatari nationals, who operate in a welfare system ensuring their continued financial comfort. Nationals prefer to work in government enterprises, which have better working conditions, salary, benefits, and job security than the private sector. According to a Rand-Qatar Policy Institute report prepared for the Supreme Education Council of Qatar, 77% of employed Qataris were working for government enterprises in 2004 (Stasz, Eide, & Martorell, 2007, p. xiii).

The discovery of oil in Qatar created employment for many expatriates in the otherwise labour-deficient Gulf state region. This labour influx has spurred rapid development but impacted the economy, politics, and the social structure in unforeseen ways (Jureidini, 2014). Qatar's population was 1.6 million in 2009, the year this article's original research was conducted, and 2.7 million in 2018 (Government of Qatar, Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics, 2018). Qatari nationals make up less than 15% of Qatar's population ("Qatar Population 2018," 2018). Qatar's planning documents, especially its national-vision document, *Qatar National Vision 2030*, reflect concerns about this significant demographic imbalance (Government of Qatar, General Secretariat for Development Planning, 2008, p. 3).

Unlike some of its neighbours, Qatar has been politically stable and had little political unrest. The country has played a regionally diplomatic role as a mediator of regional conflicts. The former emir promoted Qatar's international position and ambitious regional engagement. The country's policies, actions, and interventions, however, have not always been popular with neighbours like Saudi Arabia, the UAE, and Bahrain (Middle East Institute, n.d.).

Kelly criticized the Gulf States for their poor defense of civil rights and women's personal status and autonomy. She reported "positive change has come [in Qatar and the UAE] as the result of an increased political will to engage on the issue of women's rights, as well as advocacy by powerful, well-connected women such as Sheikha Moza," wife of the former emir, as well as Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani and an unacknowledged leader of education and other social reforms in the country (Kelly, 2014, para. 4). Women from Qatar and the UAE have, however, made progress in education, creating study opportunities in STEM fields (Kelly, 2014, p.4). With the establishment of Qatar Foundation for Science, Technology, and Community Development (QF) in 1995, ongoing higher-educational reforms have focused on Qatar's national university, Qatar University, and Education City.

From 2001 to 2008, Education City established six IBCs in partnership with six U.S. parent universities. As of January 2017, the U.S. Education City branch campuses were Virginia Commonwealth University in Qatar (established 1998 and became an IBC in 2001); Weill Cornell Medicine-Qatar (established 2001); Texas A&M University at Qatar (established 2003); Carnegie Mellon University Qatar (established 2004); Georgetown University in Qatar (established 2005); and Northwestern University in Qatar (established 2008). Moza bint Nasser, QF chairperson and cofounder and UNESCO Special Envoy for Basic and Higher Education, affirmed that Qatar and QF chose universities based on the prestigious programs they offered: "We have brought to Qatar leading degree programs in engineering, business administration, computer science, design, foreign service, and medicine—all disciplines that are critical to our ability to sustain the many advances we are making" (Sidra Medical Research Center, 2010, para. 2). QF further founded Hammond in 2010 as the "flagship national university" in Education City (Hamad Bin Khalifa University, n.d., para. 6). Hamad Bin Khalifa University is a "homegrown research and graduate studies University that acts as a catalyst for positive transformation in Qatar and the region" (Hamad Bin Khalifa University, n.d., para. 1); however, no other U.S.-based Education City IBC has been established since 2010.

As of July 2010, 575 students had graduated from five of the six American IBCs in Qatar. Northwestern University in Qatar graduated its first class in May 2012. The number of graduates from these and other IBCs increased steadily from 2010 to 2015 (Government of Qatar, Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics, 2017a, p. 50). QF hailed Education City as "a unique ecosystem of academic excellence" and a pioneer in its approach to global education (QF, n.d.-a, para. 1). At the behest of QF, the six U.S. IBCs have held joint convocation ceremonies and cross-registered students from all six IBCs and participated in other joint initiatives. Crist (2015) stated that Qatar's Education City is an "unprecedented development in the field of IBCs and global education . . . and a new organizational form" (p. 92). Walsh (2011) referred to Qatar's six U.S. IBCs and one Canadian IBC as a "North American branch campus model of higher education" (p. 94).

Qatar financed U.S. universities that set up these branch campuses: Through QF, it paid for facilities, operations, staff, travel, relocation, and other costs. In addition, QF paid each institution a management fee for operating a

branch campus in Qatar. QF negotiated eligible expenses and management fees separately with each institution. Qatar Authority, a government committee, made the same arrangements with two Canadian institutions not in Education City: the College of the North Atlantic and the University of Calgary. The terms of these agreements guard the contractual details between QF and each U.S. university; however, each American Education City institution has generated significant profits from these partnerships (confidential personal communication, April 10, 2009). Qatar further covered the tuition of many Qatari students attending branch campuses, while other students were supported by scholarships or companies they work for. QF offers merit-based scholarships to high-achieving applicants each year and interest-free loans to qualified international students and non-Qatari residents. The number of students enrolled in Qatar universities increased from 6,000 students to 28,000 in the 25 years leading up to 2014–2015, while the percentage of university-enrolled Qataris in terms of total enrollment reached 62% the same year (Government of Qatar, Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics, 2017a, p. 48).

Since 2006, QF has vigorously pursued research missions with its Research, Development, and Innovation division and in alignment with the "nation's goal of building a sustainable and diversified economy" (Qatar Ministry of Transport and Communications, n.d., para. 2). QF established the Qatar National Research Fund in 2006 as part of QF's ongoing commitment to establishing the country as having a knowledge-based economy. An initiative of QF, Qatar Science and Technology Park located in Education City was inaugurated in 2009 as Qatar's hub for applied research, technological innovation, incubation, and entrepreneurship (Qatar Ministry of Transportation and Communications, n.d.).

Literature Review

Host-Country Rationales and Goals

This literature review focuses on peer-reviewed studies analyzing goals and rationales of host countries that supported the establishment and development of higher-education institutions' IBCs in their jurisdictions. As indicated, a gap exists in the literature regarding host-country rationales and goals.

Becker (2009) looked at potential benefits to host countries with established branch campuses. These benefits include host-country rationales and motives and the bolstering of the national higher-education system's prestige through possession of world-class foreign university host campuses (p. 5). Lane (2011b) also suggested that host countries wish to enhance their reputations. Similarly, Buckner (2011) stated that while some of these countries seem interested in higher-education reforms, the "expensive, private American-style universities' primary role in [Arab] Gulf states . . . is to bring prestige . . . to the Gulf states" (p. 25). Buckner notes the difficulty of determining the "real motivations of

Gulf policymakers" and found little research indicating factors shaping nations' higher-education policies in the Middle East and North Africa. Several studies referenced economic rationales that included the following needs and aspirations.

- "income generation to local economies from students throughout the region,"; highly skilled workers and foreign students who will work locally after graduation; and opportunities for Qataris to obtain foreign degrees at home (Becker, 2009, p. 5),
- modernization of the national economy (Lane, 2011b), and support for a workforce required for future economic development (Borgos, 2016; Crist, 2015; Lane 2011b),
- global marketplace participation (Borgos, 2016, p. 285), and
- the creation of a knowledge economy (Crist, 2015) through initiatives like research and development (Crist, 2017a; Garrett, Kinser, Lane & Merola, 2017), a rationale that has not received in-depth analysis in the literature.

The literature referenced some host countries' intent to improve higher-education capacity, including diversification of domestically offered programs, availability of pedagogies different than the host country's (Lane, 2011a), and the transfer of locally adaptable research, teaching, quality assurance, and administration models (Becker, 2009, p. 5). Borgos (2016) examined organizational models of U.S.-established IBCs in China, Qatar, and the UAE and concluded that differences between the three models can be linked to each country's "historical developments respective of national strategies" aimed at increasing educational capacities (p. 285). Similarly, studies have linked IBC development to host countries' overall higher-education strategies (Becker, 2009; Crist, 2015; Lane, 2011a). Lane and Kinser (2011) reported that the Qatar, Sarawak, and Malaysia governments used foreign higher-education providers to support public goals, such as local capacity building.

Crist (2015) stated that combined factors, like wealth, poor national education systems performance, and labor shortages, spurred the implementtation of "bold" strategies, like the establishment of university IBCs in the UAE, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and Bahrain (p. 94).

International Branch Campuses: Risks and Challenges

The literature identified financial, political, regulatory, reputational, academic, managerial, and cultural risks to parent institutions and IBCs. Compared to other kinds of educational partnerships, IBCs are thought to pose the most significant risks to both sending institutions and host countries. Financial losses incurred by parent institutions, reputational issues, and branch closures constitute risks to branch-campus operations (Altbach, 2011; Becker, 2009; Borgos, 2016; Wilkins, 2016). Risks can arise from changes in the political environment or regulatory framework, increasing political or social uncertainty, and host-country safety issues, such as those associated with the

Arab Spring (Altbach, 2011). The economic and diplomatic embargo of Qatar, for example, could have negative impacts for IBC students and staff in Qatar (Redden, 2017). Other risks could arise from host countries' curtailments of academic freedom (Kinser & Lane, 2016, p. 5).

IBC failure can constitute significant financial and reputational risks to home institutions. When a Canadian college opened a Saudi Arabia campus in 2013 in partnership with Colleges of Excellence, a private entity contracted to run the program on behalf of the Saudi government, critics within the parent college publicly expressed concerns about the Gulf country's human rights record. Several years later, after significant financial losses, the college announced both its withdrawal from its five-year contract (Fagan, 2017) and a final settlement agreement with Saudi Arabia (Algonquin College, 2017, p.3). Similarly, in 2009, George Mason University—one of the first American universities to open an IBC in the UAE, itself the second largest host country in the world (Garrett et al., 2016)—closed its IBC after only four years of operation. GMU's IBC's challenges included recurrent leadership turnover, difficulty recruiting academically qualified students (especially in terms of language proficiency), and few faculty members from the parent university in Virginia (Mills, 2008, para. 4).

Some IBC partnerships pose a minimal financial risk to sending institutions— for example, as a host country, Qatar bears all costs associated with its six U.S. IBCs, including parent U.S. universities' costs of supporting overseas branch campuses, such as costs associated with hiring additional at-home staff to support IBCs in Qatar.

Cultural challenges to parent institutions and IBCs include that expatriate employees must adapt to host-country norms, customs, religious practices, and holidays. For example, the non-Muslim staff at Muslim-country IBCs might have to avoid public eating or drinking on IBC grounds during Ramadan when Muslim students and staff are fasting. Cultural taboos include male-female relationships between students and between unmarried people (Lane, 2011a).

Recruiting qualified students, faculty, and leadership to IBCs has been difficult (Altbach, 2011; Healey, 2016). IBC-appointed managers may have difficulty dealing with faculty unfamiliar with host-country culture or who are sent from parent institutions for brief periods to teach or provide oversight of newly established programs (Smith, 2014). Seconded staff face the additional challenge of serving two entities, the parent institution and its IBC (Chapman, Austin, Farah, Wilson, & Ridge, 2014; Smith, 2014). For example, conflicting expectations of faculty members may exist between a home-institution dean and an onsite IBC manager. Also, because faculty members may not want to teach overseas if doing so interrupts their research agendas (something IBCs might not have the capacity to sustain), long-term recruitment of faculty from home institutions to IBCs can be difficult (Altbach, 2010; Healey, 2016).

IBC managers work with distinct employee groups with different home-university affiliations, durations of stay, and compensation packages (Healy, 2016; Hughes; 2011). Locally hired IBC staff received the lowest wages and least generous terms and conditions and had the highest turnover rates. Healy (2016) looked at IBC-management challenges as perceived by IBC managers in

nine U.K. university IBCs, including IBCs in the UAE and China (p. 64). Most of the nine interviewed managers were seconded from home universities, only a few had previous management experience, and the selection for each of them was informal or pro forma. It is noted that inexperienced managers may increase IBC risk (p. 72). All managers in Healey's study identified that their home institution lacked understanding of IBC realities and challenges. Managers also cited difficulties interpreting agendas and objectives of multiple stakeholders, including those of students, host governments, local players, and parent institutions with diverse actors, such as presidents and provosts (Healey, 2016).

The scholarly literature reviewed here does not reveal IBC operational challenges from host-country perspectives.

Methodology

This study utilized a qualitative methodology to explore Qatar's early rationales and goals for establishing six American university IBCs in Education City. It also explored challenges encountered by IBCs and QF during the six campuses' early years of operations. I used open-ended, in-depth interviewing strategies to gather data and existing documents for additional data. Because document analysis is frequently combined with interviews and other qualitative research methods to triangulate and corroborate findings (Bowen, 2009), I examined the Government of Qatar, QF, and IBC reports and speeches. Some of these documents provided additional context, and information participants may have forgotten, did not have access to, or that predated participants' involvement in planning and implementing events related to the six branch campuses.

Participants and Interviews

I submitted the proposed study to the University of Calgary's required research-ethics review process and followed the approved ethics protocol. The participants I selected were leaders in positions relative to the U.S. branch-campus model in Qatar in at least one of the following capacities: planning, implementation, oversight, and management. Informed by recommendations from influential Qatar and QF insiders, I included parent university–appointed executives and directors within the Government of Qatar and QF and those persons with senior IBC positions. Most participants were connected to the IBC model for at least five years.

After an initial telephone or email contact but in advance of the interview, I provided most participants with detailed information and a consent form explaining the study's purpose and the participant's role in the study. To participants whose email addresses I did not have, I provided this form at the interview.

Sixteen of the 18 interviews took place at participants' workplaces in Qatar, most of which were located within QF or government offices. Two

interviews were conducted offsite in Qatar. All 18 interviews were conducted in English. I designed an interview guide to address my research questions. While I used a common set of questions with all participants, the open-ended nature of the interviews allowed me to ask new questions and seek deeper understanding as interviews unfolded. Key interview questions included the following. Explain why Qatar was interested in partnering with universities from the United States? What did you hope to achieve?

Why not focus your resources on reforming the national university? What challenges have you experienced along the way?

Data Analysis: Interviews

I used a qualitative analytic data-examining process to seek answers to the research questions. As part of this process, I scanned the primary data to determine the words and phrases most commonly used by respondents. I manually categorized these words and phrases into codes with meaningful titles such as "critical thinking" and "rote memorization." I organized the codes into like categories, such as "teaching and learning," and then searched for relationships and themes within and among the categories, such as "preference for Western pedagogy." I then further analyzed the themes to draw conclusions and arrive at findings I could present.

Document Analysis

Before and after the interviews took place, I reviewed approximately 40 documents for data regarding Qatar rationales and goals for partnering with six American universities to establish IBCs in Qatar. Approximately 25 of these documents were utilized in this study. These include annual reports, government planning documents, newspaper articles, and speeches, most of which dated from between 1998 and 2010 and which covered IBC planning and early operations. To review these documents, I used an analytic process much like I used in my interview analysis including codification, categorization, organization, and identification of major themes. This process allowed me to uncover information, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the first research question and informed my interview questions. I triangulated emergent themes from my interview-data analysis with themes emergent from my document analysis. These themes were similar and often complementary— interview data, for example, sometimes provided additional context for information uncovered through document analysis. The reverse was also sometimes true.

Findings

Rationales and Motives: Participant Interviews and Document Analysis

Five themes emerged relative to my first research question (Why did Qatar partner with six North American universities to establish six international branch campuses between 2001 and 2008?) emerged from my participant-interview data analysis and extant documents. This section includes participant responses and excerpts from the documents. The rationales emergent from my interview analysis and those emergent from my document analysis broadly agree.

Meet Qatar's Need for a Quality Higher-Education System That Fosters Critical Thinking and System-Wide Reforms. All participants indicated that one of Qatar's goals was the introduction of high-quality North American education and pedagogy, including the fostering of critical thinking and student leadership. Qatari participants stressed that past efforts to reform the national education system from within were unsuccessful. Participant A explained that the branch campus was "mandated to bring a Western-style education to Qatar," including a learning culture consisting of critical thinking, problem-solving, and student leadership. Participant C noted that changing from within is difficult and rarely works, especially when people are "set in their ways and highly resistant to change." Document analysis supported these findings. Nasser said, "Qatar is determined and committed to reconsidering archaic methods of education in order to better meet the needs of our changing society" (Al-Misnad, Bint Nasser, 2004, p. 82).

Provide Quality Education from Prestigious Universities within the Country in a Culturally Appropriate Environment. Most Qatari and non-Qatari participants identified access to quality education within a culturally appropriate Qatar environment as a rationale for the branch-campus model. Qatar government, QF, and branch-campus participants spoke about factors preventing students from accessing an education outside the country. While many Qatari nationals can receive full financial support for education abroad, others face barriers, such as those related to gender: some families do not allow women and girls to travel overseas unless accompanied by a close male relative; others may be restricted by family responsibilities preventing them from studying abroad. Participant B explained that the branch model provides Qataris opportunities "to attend excellent universities without the cultural issues, complexities, and trauma of going abroad." This rationale was not explicitly apparent in the documents I reviewed and analyzed.

Prepare Qatar to Participate in a Global Knowledge Society through Development of Its Human Resources and Its Capacity for Research and Development. Qatari and non-Qatari participants talked about the importance of building local capacity and developing and diversifying a Qatari workforce through quality education and training. Qatari participants emphasized the

importance of preparing individuals for the knowledge economy: "The goals for the branch campus include building human capital amongst our people, not only for today's needs but also for post-oil and gas, and to help build an understanding of the value of work. In time, the graduates themselves will be catalysts for change" (Participant Q).

Most participants referred to Qatar's aim to develop both the country's research capacity and the roles that branch-campus universities, faculty members, and research institutions play in this capacity. Participant G explained that the expectation for faculty to do research is growing and "we are making some important advances here." Participant D stated that to build Qatar research capacity "we must have the top universities in Qatar." Participant P emphasized that ≥the emir has dedicated the revenues from one oil well to support research in Qatar [thereby] turning energy into knowledge!"

This theme also emerged during my review and analysis of annual reports, including of Georgetown University School of Foreign Service (2007–2008), Weill Cornell Medical College (2010), and Qatar Foundation (2011).

Promote Societal Engagement and Sociocultural Development. Qatar participants, directly and indirectly, spoke about Qatar's need for social and cultural change but emphasized that this change must maintain core cultural values. Such changes include "emancipation of women, changing the culture of entitlement, and transforming the society" through societal engagement (Participant P). Participants spoke about the role of the American IBCs in facilitating change. Participant C stated that while change does not happen overnight, over time "a critical mass of [IBC] graduates can push for [societal] change."

To Enhance the Country's Status as a Leader and Driver of Change in the Arab Gulf Region and Beyond. Enhancing Qatar's status as a leader and driver of Gulf-region change arose from several participant interviews and analysis of documents, including of U.S. and Qatar government and nongovernment reports. Interviewees, especially QF and Qatar representatives, referred to past Arab cultural and scientific contributions and framed branch-campus development as a renaissance. Participant L stated, "Education City is a center of renaissance"; Participant D stated that Qatar wants to revive "the Arab culture and civilization of the past. We want to enhance the image of Qatar as a regional center of excellence for learning"; and Blanchard (2010) quoted the U.S. Ambassador to Qatar: "I think of it as Qatar occupying a space in the middle of the ideological spectrum in the Islamic world, with the goal of having doors open to it across that ideological spectrum. They have the resources to accomplish that vision, and that's rare."

Challenges

My review of extant documents included annual reports and strategic and nonstrategic plans, did not provide meaningful or consistent insights into challenges encountered during early branch-campus operations; however, the

following challenges emerged from my analysis of interviews with Qatar and branch-campus leadership.

Sociocultural Challenges. Many Qatari and branch-campus participants referred to sociocultural challenges, especially the need to bring parents and community on board with changes represented by both the American IBC model and Education City's coeducational environment. One Qatari participant said, "acceptance of change is perhaps the primary challenge. Change takes time and not all agree, particularly the conservatives" (Participant D). Qatari participants spoke about Qatari concern for the potential loss of Qatari culture and religion. They stressed IBC engagement with Qatari families and community as important to building trust and acceptance of change but stressed the need to maintain cultural and religious aspects within Education City. Participant P stressed that Education City should not become an "Island of Excellence" separated from society and that it should instead reach out to the community. Participant R affirmed that Education City must be "more integrated with the community." Participant Q explained that "our people have to feel that [Education City] is for them and for the good of the society."

Conflicting Expectations between the Branch Campuses and Qatar Foundation. Participants identified two main operation tensions between QF and branch campuses in the early years of operations: English proficiency and inter-IBC collaboration. First, student–English language proficiency was a significant issue at all six IBCs. Branch-campus leadership anticipated students' language proficiencies would be greater than they were: "The greatest challenge has been the English-language proficiency of the students. We were not aware that this problem was as pronounced as it actually is, in fact, it was a significant problem" (Participant F). Participant N, representing Qatari participants' view in general, stated, "Students had to spend too much time taking English, and some have been very angry. The issues and challenges needed to be rectified. There is a need for flexibility regarding culture and language." Both Qatar and IBC leadership stressed that this problem was primarily resolved after the first two years of operations.

Secondly, QF leadership wanted the six IBCs to collaborate, which the IBCs and IBC participants had not anticipated or understood. QF leadership envisioned campuses working together as a community towards academic enhancement, student flexibility, and common and engaging student experience. Participant A explained that "having separate and distinct institutions at Education City has been problematic [for us] each campus has been given the latitude to operate independently, so it is difficult to get them to work together" on issues like student engagement. According to Participant P, "a multiversity concept" was always a part of QF's plan; this requires the cooperation of all six branch campuses, and that is why we recruited peer universities—universities from the same country and with the same level of prestige." QF and IBC participants acknowledged that a compromise was eventually reached: "Her Highness really pushed the idea [of collaboration amongst IBCs]," and deans

made concessions like cross-registration of courses and a joint convocation ceremony (Participant G).

Faculty-Recruitment Challenges. Branch-campus leadership spoke about the difficulting in recruiting faculty in the early days of operations. Several branch-campus participants explained that initial contractual agreements required recruitment of as many home-institution faculty as possible. Participant G explained that "the only interested faculty were part-time faculty and the young and therefore inexperienced—some directly out of graduate school." Participant L noted that "faculty for some specialized areas are [especially] difficult to recruit because of the research activities available at home." Because home institutions could not fulfill the agreement, compromises were reached. Participant K revealed that their branch campus had tried to secure two- and three-year faculty contracts but ultimately put in place eight-week contracts." Twenty-five percent of the current faculty members are from the home institution, coming on a rotational basis. Others are from various places around the world (Participant K).

Tensions between U.S. Parent Institutions and Qatar Branch Campuses. All branch-campus participants spoke of tensions between U.S. home institutions and Qatar IBCs during early operations, including lack of understanding of sociocultural realities faced by Qatar leadership; lack of trust and autonomy afforded by universities to IBCs; and difficulties of having two leadership bodies (i.e., one at home and one in Qatar). Participant V expressed "a lack of understanding by the home campus of the challenges, including institutional and cultural realities." Participant K stated, "we do not get enough support from the main campus." Participant F affirmed that past tensions existed "because the university did not understand the realities of the branch-campus environment." Participant T, from a more recently established IBC, stated, "we do not get enough support from the main campus, and they do not understand what happens here." Participant G emphasized that in the beginning years "the home university was less trusting of the branch campus than it is today" and that less autonomy was provided to the IBC. IBC participants who had been at their respective branch campuses for three or more years agreed that earlier problems with home institutions had largely been resolved.

Discussion

This study looks at Qatar's early rationales and goals for establishing an international branch-campus model of American universities in Qatar and the challenges encountered during the six IBCs' early years of operation from Qatar and branch-campus-leadership perspectives.

The five rationale and goal categories emergent from this study were 1) meeting Qatar's need for a quality higher education system that can foster critical thinking and system-wide reforms; 2) providing a quality educational experience from prestigious universities in Qatar and in a culturally appropriate

environment; 3) preparing Qatar to participate in a global knowledge society by developing Qatar's human resources and research and development capacity; 4) facilitating engagement and sociocultural development of Qatari citizens; and 5) enhancing Qatar's status as a leader and driver of change in the Arab gulf region and beyond.

The four categories of challenges identified in this study were 1) socio-cultural issues; 2) conflicting expectations between branch campuses and QF; 3) faculty recruitment; and 4) tensions between the American-based universities and their branch campuses in Qatar.

Goals and Rationales

Some of Qatar's rationales and goals for the American IBC higher-education model are consistent with the literature. Becker (2009), Lane (2011a), and Borgos (2016), similar to this study, found that host-country rationales and goals including building its higher education capacity and providing a quality education system within host countries. Consistent with this study, Borgos (2016) reported economy-tied rationales, including building local human-resource capacity, ability to participate in global markets, and the creation of a knowledge economy and a capacity for research (Crist 2015, 2017; Garrett, Kinser, Lane, & Merola, 2017). This study found that Qatar's goal to build a knowledge society included building its research and development capacity with the help of six prestigious American research universities and their IBCs. In 2018, almost 10 years after this study, Qatar was forecasted to rank 29th in the world in terms of gross research and development expenditure (R&D Magazine, 2018, p. 5).

With the exception of Kelly (2014), this study did not find connections between host-country rationales and sociocultural development and societal engagement in the literature, it found Qatar's rationales and aspirations for its American IBC model included desire for significant social changes, such as changing the culture of entitlement of some Qatari citizens, and facilitating a more open society with greater freedoms for women. While the IBC and Education City environments support a diverse student body and freedom of expression for all, additional research is needed to determine whether the endeavor has positively impacted areas outside Education City.

The literature references rationales and goals tied to enhancement of host-country prestige or reputation (Becker, 2009; Buckner 2011; Lane, 2011b); however, whether host countries provided this information is unclear, as is why host countries sought this prestige. In comparison, most participants in this study representing Qatar's perspective were clear that Qatar's early goals and rationales for the establishment of Education City and its American IBC model included an aspiration to be recognized as a leader in an Arab renaissance initiative. This renaissance initiative included making quality education more widely available in the Qatar region, broadening the country's research and development capacity, and developing an enlightened Arab knowledge model that encourages freedom of expression, creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, and openness to other Arab cultures. Since this study, evidence has

suggested that Qatar strove to connect meaningfully to the Arab world through QF and other domestic and international agencies, such as Qatar Foundation International. Such connection included supporting Arab languages and enhancing understanding of Arab societies and cultures through partnerships, research and development, and a greater focus on culture, arts, and heritage.

Risks and Challenges

While this study did not identify connections between host country Qatar and literature-identified IBC challenges and sociocultural development, it found some Qatar communities including families, were opposed to the American IBC model including the coeducational environments of the IBCs and extracurricular student opportunities, especially for women. Societal concerns also included the fear that aspects of Qatari culture and religion could be lost in the Education City environment, where more than 50% of students and faculty come from other cultures. QF and IBC strategies to engage and build trust and acceptance of Education City with Qatar families and communities mitigated the risk of lower enrolments as a result of IBC opposition. A review of American IBC-engagement activities in Qatar from 2016 to 2018 showed that initiatives, such as partnerships with public schools and community agencies, have been ongoing and have grown extensively since the early IBC operations (Appendix A).

While this study did not find reference to conflicting expectations between branch campuses and their host countries in the literature, it is likely that it exists. QF expected the six IBCs to collaborate on initiatives such as cross-registration of students among the campuses. IBCs were initially opposed to such collaboration. However, the leadership of each IBC worked cooperatively with the others, and QF, to arrive at mutually agreeable solutions to these and other issues. Given QF's drive to build a multiversity environment within Education City, Qatar had the first such collaborative arrangement among distinct IBCs representing different universities.

Faculty-recruitment challenges found in this study were consistent with the literature. Altbach (2011), Healy (2016), and Smith (2014) reported difficulties with recruiting faculty from home institutions for extended periods, while Smith reported challenges with short-term faculty seconded from the parent institution. Most IBC participants in this study reported that short-term teaching assignments were a partial solution to recruitment challenges. Provision of research funding for IBC-based faculty and their domestic and international research partners was another solution to recruitment challenges. Qatar has made available significant research funding to U.S. branch campuses, other IBCs, Qatar University, and other Qatar education and research entities, allocating 2.8% of its revenues to support research and development. A national survey compared Qatar 2012 and 2015 research expenditures in three sectors, including higher education. Within the higher-education sector, social-sciences expenditure saw the highest increase (57.9%), followed by engineering and technology (17.8%), and humanities (11%; Government of Qatar, Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics, 2017, p. 21).

While the risk and reality of financial losses to home institutions that set up IBCs were prominent in the literature (Altbach, 2011; Becker, 2009; Borgos, 2016; Garrett et al., 2016; Wilkins, 2016), this study did not find such risk. QF financed the development and operation of the six American IBCs and did not require financial contributions from the parent universities. This arrangement positioned the American branch-campus model in Qatar uniquely, as compared with IBC arrangements elsewhere.

This study identified tensions between parent institutions and their branch campuses during the initial years of operation, a theme found in the literature (Healy, 2016; Hughes, 2011). Most IBC participants agreed that tensions lessened as home-university leadership familiarized itself with IBC issues and placed more trust in IBC leadership.

Conclusion

This study examined Qatar's early goals and rationales for the establishment of an American branch campus model in partnership with six prestigious universities in the United States, and the early challenges encountered from the perspective of Qatar and the leadership of the branch campuses. Qatari participants were involved in the planning and development, oversight, and governance of the international branch campus model. Many of these participants worked closely with Qatar Foundation, a state-funded entity and home to Education City and the six IBCs.

Early challenges identified by participants included conflicting expectations between the IBCs and Qatar Foundation; faculty recruitment to the IBCs; and resistance to the American branch campus by individuals and groups in Qatari communities. Qatar Foundation and the branch campuses were willing to address challenges and find mutually acceptable solutions. Qatar's early goals and rationales include the desire to increase opportunities for quality university education for males and females; create an environment that fosters critical thinking, problem-solving, creativity, and freedom of expression; and develop the capacity for research. An overarching goal or aspiration of Qatar was to be recognized as a leader, in the region and beyond, in an Arab renaissance movement.

The six U.S. IBCs in Qatar were established between 2001 and 2008, and all were still in operation in January 2019. Given the longevity of the American international branch campuses in Qatar, there may be lessons for universities and host countries seeking to establish IBCs. Qatar's original goals for the American IBC model are ambitious; some would argue overly so. Further research is needed to determine the extent to which IBCs play a role in the realization of Qatar's goals.

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Appendix A

IBC News and Events, 2016-2018

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The Role of a School Leader in Academic Outcomes: Between Self-efficacy and Outcome Expectations

By Paul Schrik & Teresa Akinyi Wasonga†*

This quantitative study investigated the relationships among elementary school principals' efficacy beliefs (Instructional, Moral, and Management Leadership), principals' goal expectations for student achievement (expected outcome), and their impacts on actual student achievement. Two hundred and fifty elementary school principals completed an electronic survey seeking information on their self-efficacy, school outcome expectation, actual school outcome, and personal and school demographics. Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory guided the study. Findings show higher significant correlations between principal outcome expectation and actual school academic outcome compared to self-efficacy expectation and actual school academic outcome. Regression analysis revealed that unlike self-efficacy expectation, outcome expectation predicted actual school academic outcome.

Keywords: efficacy expectation, outcome expectation, elementary school principals, school academic outcome, school demographics

Introduction

Unprecedented legislative mandates requiring the evaluation of principals' work to include the academic outcome of their students is growing even though research has found that the relationship between the principals' work and student achievement is at best indirect (Ingersoll, Sirinides, & Dougherty, 2018; Gilmore, 2009; Grissom & Loeb, 2009). According to Krzemienski (2012), principals are working more, but more of their time is directed towards competing demands that are not directly concerned with student achievement. In addition, they feel less appreciated even though they are considered exclusively accountable for the success/failure of their schools. To quote Troutman (2012), "School principals are under extreme pressure to ensure that their schools are experiencing academic success" (pp. 5-6) without regard for their circumstances or contexts. Goldring, et. al. (2009) summarized the complexity of the role of the school principal in these words:

"high academic standards and systemic performance accountability are critical components of school leadership. Increasingly, principals are being asked to ensure that individual, team, and school goals exist for rigorous student academic and social learning by aligning school activities with local, state,

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and federal standards. Furthermore, leaders must hold themselves and others responsible for realizing high standards of student performance" (p. 35)

These conditions of work would challenge the strength of any one's beliefs in their ability to run a school successfully, especially when student academic outcomes majorly define success and principals do not work directly with children. And even though recent school reforms have focused on expanding teachers' roles in decision-making and research has found benefits in collective and shared decision-making process; leaders are especially key to the success of this process, specifically in providing leadership that actively involves all stake holders (Ingersoll, Sirinides, & Dougherty, 2018).

Other research finds that despite limited control over many aspects of schooling including student demographics; studies on school effectiveness, school climate, and student achievement, "reveal one commonality, the fact that good happenings in schools depend to a great extent on the quality of school leadership" (Norton, 2002, p. 50) including self-efficacy and outcome expectation (Bandura, 2006). These reasonings have contributed to increased school reform legislation that have focused on effectiveness of school principal leadership, specifically in relation to student achievement and school environment (Sanders, 2014; Bryk et. al., 2010).

In such an environment, demands on principals are not likely to decrease, precipitating increased focus on self-efficacy. In their research, Tschannen-Moran & Gareis (2004) found that principals with greater self-efficacy beliefs were more steadfast in pursuing their goals, more adaptable to their environments, and did not waste time pursuing unsuccessful courses of action.

This relationship between efficacy beliefs and effort in pursuing goals aligns with Bandura's (1977) definition of self-efficacy. Bandura describes self-efficacy as one's estimate or expectation of their ability to execute behavior needed to produce the desired outcomes, influence decisions, or persist with a behavior. In other words, the level of perceived self-efficacy an individual has proportionately influences the choice of activities they participate in, given environmental factors including obstacles and aversive experiences (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy also influences thought patterns and emotional reactions. According to Pajares (1996), people with low self-efficacy are likely to believe things are tougher than they are and may develop a narrow vision of how to approach a problem. Further, in his research, Pajares (1996) reported that self-efficacy is contextual, meaning it is "task and situation-specific" (p. 546). Depending on the task, efficacious individuals are "motivated, persistent, goal-oriented, resilient, clear thinkers under pressure…highly committed, determined, resilient, goal-focused, resourceful and effective problem solvers" (Locke as cited in McCormick, 2002, p. 36). In other words, expected or attained levels of efficacy or efficacy expectation depend on: perceived levels of difficulty or chances for success (magnitude), generality across situations (transferability), and/or the strength of one's belief in ability of self (Bandura, 1977). If the perceptions for success, generalizability and belief in one-self are positive and high; there is also the likelihood of higher efficacy levels.

While Badura provided a general definition of self-efficacy, Tschannen-

Moran and Gareis (2004) used principals as a point of reference explaining self-efficacy as "judgement of his or her capabilities to structure a particular course of action in order to produce desired outcomes in the school he or she leads" (p. 573). Previously, Gist and Mitchel (1992) found that increased self-efficacy resulted in improved work performance in general. Likewise, when considering challenging environments, McCormick claimed (as cited in Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008) that "leadership self-efficacy or confidence is likely the key cognitive variable regulating leader functioning in a dynamic environment" (p. 497). However, when it comes to the relationship between self-efficacy and student achievement, findings are contradictory. Some research efforts that have examined the relationship between a principal's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) and student achievement point towards statistically significant relationships (Lehman, 2007; Virga, 2012; McCullers, 2009; Roley, 2009; Lovell, 2009; Santamaria, 2008; Paglis & Green, 2002; Domsch, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). Other research efforts find non-significant relationships between principal efficacy expectation and student achievement (Aderhold, 2005; Santamaria, 2008; McCullers, 2009; Moak, 2010; Gilmore, 2009). Despite these mixed findings, self-efficacy expectation has received more attention in research than outcome expectation even though Bandura (1977) has described both as integral in the social cognitive theory. In this study, the focus of investigation was to isolate and look at self-efficacy expectation separate from outcome expectation with the intention to determine the independent impacts of both. Although self-efficacy has received greater levels of attention in research, outcome expectation is emerging as a phenomenon in school leadership accountability, specifically in the state of Illinois - US where school leaders are required by law to set goal expectations of their students in academic achievement prior to teaching and assessment. Although there is limited research to support the impact of outcome expectation, this law has fomented opportunity to investigate the impacts of outcome expectation on academic achievement in K-12.

Literature Review

The Principalship, Efficacy Expectation, Outcome Expectation, and Academic Outcomes

The nexus between the complexity of the changing roles of school principals and the accountability movement has created the need to pre-determine principals' capacity to influence the improvement of student learning. Research continues to suggest that leaders, specifically how they act are central to school improvement and student achievement (Ingersoll, Sirinides, & Dougherty, 2018; Day & Gurr, 2014). And because of the magnitude of demands on principals, Santamaria's research (2008) speaks to the seemingly insurmountable task of the principal as a school leader needing self-efficacy and accountability to attain and sustain success. She claims that,

"Given federal accountability regulations and potential sanctions for schools not achieving at specified levels, there is an increase in the urgency for educational agencies to identify school leaders who not only possess competency in leadership ability, but who also hold the drive and motivation to overcome overwhelming obstacles" (p. 3).

Despite this assertion, educational agencies are hard pressed to find means of determining whether school leaders possess the competencies that lead to success in all schools or the resilience to overcome challenges that come with leading schools successfully. Like researchers, education agencies have questions that remain unanswered: what specific measureable characteristics would such a principal exhibit? Or what should school boards/employers be looking for as evidence of drive or motivation to be successful? Or how should principal preparation programs equip candidates with skills to anticipate and act in ways that create success?

Given that principals guide the moral purpose for success of every student, there is a need to be able to predict not only principals' abilities and capacities to have positive influence on student achievement, but also foresight that will inspire their actions for success over time. Tschannen-Moran & Gareis (2004) suggest that because the role of the school principal is increasingly defined by levels of "academic achievement and success as measured by high-stakes assessment results, a principal's sense of efficacy plays a critical role in meeting the expectations and demands of the position" (p. 582). Santamaria (2008) adds that a principal's "level of self-efficacy or belief in his or her own ability to achieve success" is what "determines whether or not those behaviors will lead to successful outcomes" (p. 3).

Substantial evidence supports the effects that self-efficacy beliefs have upon many individuals in their varied roles including the role of school leaders in student achievement (Liethwood & Jantzi, 2008). For example, Wahlstrom, Seashore-Louis, Leithwood, and Anderson (as cited in Versland, 2013) wrote:

"Self-efficacy was a necessary component of successful school leadership because it affects choices principals make about what activities in which to engage as well as the coping strategies they employ as challenges emerge. They concluded that principals' sense of efficacy and their ability to influence others was vital to accomplishing instructional leadership practices associated with setting direction, developing people, redesigning the organization and managing the instructional program" (p. 14).

Based on this assertion, it can be assumed that research has established the connection between self-efficacy and school leadership (Mesterova, Prochazka, &Vaculik, 2015; McCormick, Tanguma, & Lopez-Forment, 2002). McCormick et al. (2002) found causal influence of self-efficacy on work performance in general and suggested extending self-efficacy to leadership studies. Mesterova et al. (2015) research suggests that effective leaders are set apart by what is likely their high levels of self-efficacy or belief in their capacity to perform the job, or task;

the assumption being that effective leaders are "better equipped to handle various situations and may transfer their efficacy to their followers, resulting in superior group performance" (p. 112). In a quantitative study, Hughes (2010) found significantly higher levels of self-efficacy among principals who had attended leadership preparation programs, specifically in school management/leadership. However, this was not the case in instructional leadership. These findings suggest that principals exit preparation programs feeling better prepared to be managers in schools than to be instructional leaders who impact teachers and students' levels of achievement. In another study involving 241 elementary school principals in South Dakota, Aderhold's (2005) findings indicated no significant relationship between principal self-efficacy and student achievement in reading. Similarly, in a study with 218 principals, Domsch (2009) found no significant statistical relationship between the principals' self-efficacy and student achievement regardless of student grade level. Even in Moak's quantitative study of 123 respondents (2010) where Tschannen-Moran & Gareis' (2004) Principal Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES) was broken down into its three domains, instructional leadership, management, and moral leadership; no statistically significant relationship was found between principal self-efficacy and student achievement. Even after factoring in principals' years of experience in the relationship between principal self-efficacy and student achievement, Gilmore (2009) found no significant statistical relationship. Other studies show different results. Lehman (2007) used quantitative analysis to examine the relationship between principals' self-efficacy and student achievement levels in reading (n=361) and found a statistically significant relationship, especially among schools with high populations on free and reduced lunch, a measure of poverty. Another study by Lovell (2009) examined the relationship between principals' levels of self-efficacy and student achievement of middle school students' in math and found statistically significant relationship. Another study found principals' self-efficacy to predict student achievement (Szymendera, 2013). The researcher stated,

> "Self-efficacy contributed significantly to the criterion set. Principals with stronger beliefs in their capabilities as instructional and moral leaders, as well as in their management, were more likely to behave in ways that could indirectly or directly affect student achievemen"t (p. 75)

But despite the inclusion of outcome expectation in Bandura's theory (1977; 1989; 2006) and Williams' (2010) research, little research has focused on outcome expectation compared to self-efficacy, even as legislation has shifted to require principals to state outcome expectations of their students. In the state of Illinois, US, principals are required to provide information on expected outcome in terms of the percentage of students expected to meet and exceed expectations in reading and math. In support of using outcome expectation, Pajares (1996) claimed that "individuals infer their efficacy beliefs from imagined outcomes" (p. 559). Pajeres continues to explain that "individual's perception of the outcome and his value of the task necessary to achieve that outcome will regulate his behavior as powerfully as his self-efficacy beliefs and independently of them" (p. 559). In this sense,

Pajares (1996) makes the claim that outcome expectation comes prior to efficacy expectation or operates independently of efficacy expectation. Williams (2010) brought this argument back into the research arena claiming that inattention to the contradiction between Pajera and Bandura, "has led to a disproportionate focus on self-efficacy as a causal determinant of behavior at the expense of expected outcomes" (p. 418).

Kirsch & Baker as cited in Williams (2010) conducted research that demonstrated that outcome expectancies do, in fact, influence self-efficacy. Furthermore, Williams (2010) explained that expected outcomes influence self-efficacy ratings even when the context for behavior has not been considered. Williams calls into question whether or not these two variables may operate independently of one another. According to Williams, Bandura conceded that self-efficacy judgements can be casually influenced by outcome expectation (Williams, 2010, p. 420). Williams (2010) argued that current self-efficacy theory that is consistent with Bandura's (1977) original claims abates the evidence that outcome expectation does influence self-efficacy. He further claims that this condition exacerbates self-efficacy research "at the expense of attention to outcome expectancies in the context of theoretical models and as targets of behavior change intervention" (p. 421). Ultimately, Williams (2010) contends that to reconcile this issue, researchers should modify the operational definition of self-efficacy to be independent of expected outcome or to be influenced by the expected outcome. Either way, the current practice of researching self-efficacy theory implying self-efficacy expectation predicts and heavily influences outcome expectation (Bandura, 2000), should be questioned and researchers need to "be clear about their theoretical position regarding self-efficacy and outcome expectations" (Williams, 2010, p. 422).

As schools move forward with consideration for how to address principal self-efficacy and its relationship with student achievement (Lehman, 2007), consideration should be given to areas that research has not focused on to discover untapped potential for change. Several instruments have been developed to measure self-efficacy. In their quest for an instrument to measure principal self-efficacy, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) developed the Principal Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES), "a reasonably valid and reliable measure to capture this promising construct" (p. 575). Three themes as they relate to principal self-efficacy emerged from the PSES: efficacy for management, efficacy for instructional leadership, and efficacy for moral leadership. In their research, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) concluded that "Principals with a strong sense of self-efficacy have been found to be persistent in pursuing their goals but are also more flexible and more willing to adapt to strategies to meeting contextual conditions" (p. 574). In addition to efficacy expectation and the availability of data on outcome expectation in Illinois schools, this study focused on both self-efficacy and outcome expectation.

Conceptual Framework

Bandura (1977) developed the social cognitive theory, originally termed social

learning theory. Later, Bandura (1989) explained that the interaction between behavior, personal factors, and the environment operate as interacting determinants that influence each other bi-directionally. Bi-directional relationship between each of the three factors indicates that people are as much producers of behavior as they are products of the behavior. The central tenet of social cognitive theory is that learning occurs in a social context with reciprocal interactions among the individual, their environment, and their behavior. Succinctly, "what people think, believe, and feel, affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1989, p.3).

From his social cognitive theory, Bandura (1977) developed the theory of self-efficacy, an individual's belief in their capacity to execute behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments. In his explanation of self-efficacy, Bandura (1977) contends that beliefs have greater influence on behavior than reinforcement. Therefore, an integral component of Bandura's self-efficacy theory centers on expectation beliefs because they shape behavior. He defines two kinds of expectations, outcome and efficacy expectations. Outcome expectation is the estimate that certain behaviors will lead to certain outcomes while efficacy expectation is a person's conviction of being able, or not able, to execute behavior that is necessary to produce a particular outcome (Bandura, 1977). Basically:

> "outcome and efficacy expectations are differentiated, because individuals can believe that a particular course of actions will produce certain outcomes, but if they entertain serious doubts about whether they can perform the necessary activities such information does not influence their behavior" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193).

Outcome expectancy is predicated on the estimate that a person believes that by engaging in a behavior, a specific outcome will occur (Bandura, 1977). Given Bandura's theory, it may be assumed that outcome expectation precedes efficacy expectation (Bandura, 2006). For example, positive expectancies serve as incentives when previous behavior patterns produced positive outcomes, while negative expectancies serve as disincentives when previous behavior patterns produced negative outcomes. Generally, when individuals observe consequences of success, they are likely to have an outcome expectation of succeeding in a similar or related situation. Conversely, people tend to have negative outcome expectations and avoid situations where they have experienced or observed failure. And therefore, "Outcomes affect motivation and action largely by creating beliefs about the effects actions are likely to have under different circumstances" (Bandura, 1989, p. 40). In addition, outcomes exert influence through forethought without which, actors/leaders' motivation and ingenuity may not be used fully. Although, "outcomes people anticipate depend largely on their judgments of how well they will be able to perform in given situations" (Bandura, 2006, p. 309), it can be argued that people will put greater effort to achieve expected outcomes.

There are contradictory views on which of efficacy expectation or outcome expectation influence the other. In discussing efficacy and outcome expectations, Bandura (2000) claims that efficacy expectations influence outcome expectations because efficacy beliefs persuade people to determine and work towards goals. In

other words, outcome expectancy depends on the levels of confidence a person has that by engaging in a behavior, a specific outcome will occur (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977). Therefore, efficacy expectancy determines "how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences" (Bandura, 1977, p. 126) to meet their objective. It is "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). By this definition, a stronger sense of efficacy to execute will produce greater efforts, persistence, and outcomes. If one perseveres in a subjectively difficult activity, it will improve self-efficacy, and in turn, the individual learns how to manage those situations, diminishing protective behaviors. Those who do not persevere will keep their self-hampering expectations (Bandura et al., 1977).

Unlike Bandura, other research (Williams, 2010) contend that outcome expectancy causally influences efficacy expectancy and not vice-versa. According to Williams (2010),

"Either the operational definition of self-efficacy must be modified such that expected outcomes cannot influence self-efficacy (consistent with current conceptualizations of self-efficacy theory) or self-efficacy theory must be modified such that outcome expectancies can influence self-efficacy (consistent with empirical findings using current operationalizations of self-efficacy)" (p. 421)

Although Bandura has challenged this argument, self-efficacy judgments remain causally influenced by expected outcomes (Williams, 2010). It is important to make clear that outcome expectation is not the same as actual outcome, just as "self-efficacy is involved with perceived capability rather than actual capability" (Williams, 2010, p. 418). Given the contradictions in research findings, this study examined, as suggested by Williams (2010) the independent influences of outcome expectation and efficacy expectation among elementary school principals on student behavior (academic achievement).

Methodology

A quantitative approach was utilized to achieve the goals of this study. Principal Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004) was the survey instrument used to gather data from elementary school principals. Included in the survey was a question about expected outcome (anticipated student academic achievement). Surveys "help identify important beliefs and attitudes of individuals" (Creswell, 2012, p. 377). The target population for this study was elementary school principals throughout Illinois. The Illinois Public School Directory of 2016 reported 2,605 elementary schools in the state of Illinois. Single random sampling procedure was used to identify a sample. Principals' emails were obtained by permission through the Illinois Principals Association and participants were contacted through email.

An online survey design was used to collect data on perceptions of elementary school principals (self-efficacy), principal's expectation in terms of percent of students meeting and exceeding state set expectations, and actual percentage of students meeting and exceeding the state set expectations on the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PAARCC). Participants had access to a hyper link of the web-based survey. Included in the hyper link were, an introductory letter with instructions, consent form, and the PSES. Other items requested of the respondents were, respondent demographic data, school demographic data, and percentage of students from low socio-economic-status. PSES is an 18 item Likert-scale measure that assesses levels of efficacy of a school leader (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004).

Construct validity of the Principal Self-Efficacy Survey (PSES) was determined by correlating the instrument against other known constructs (work alienation, $r = -0.45$; $p < 0:01$; trust in teachers, $r = 0.42$, $p < 0:01$; and trust in students and parents, $r = 0.47$; $p < 0:01$) (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). Reliability based on Cronbach's alpha were: .789 (management efficacy); .832 (instructional leadership efficacy); and .785 (moral leadership efficacy) (Lehman, 2007, p. 50). PSES Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for this study was reported as follows: Management Efficacy (.99); Instructional Leadership Efficacy (98); and Moral Leadership Efficacy (.98). Data collected was analyzed using both descriptive statistical and inferential statistical statistics.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the independent influence of self-efficacy expectation and outcome expectation on student achievement using data from elementary school principals. Descriptive data (Table 1) indicated that the expected outcome mean score on student academic achievement was higher than actual outcome mean score for the sample and for all demographic types. Female principals mean scores were higher than male mean scores on all variables including expected and actual academic outcome mean scores. Principals with advanced degrees scored higher than principals with Master's degrees on all variables. Principals in Sub-urban and Unit School Districts (K-12) scored consistently higher than principals in Rural School Districts and Elementary School Districts (K-6) on all variables respectively.

Table 1. Descriptive Data by Demographics

	Component of self-efficacy					
	Expected Outcomes	*Actual outcomes*	*Self-efficacy composite*	*Instructional leadership*	*Management*	*Moral leadership*
Sample (205)	49.03 (18.91)	44.59 (19.06)	7.09 (1.35)	6.33 (1.02)	6.43 (1.64)	7.54 (1.25)
Gender						
Males (97)	48.11 (19.69)	42.86 (18.79)	5.96 (0.97)	5.45 (0.68)	5.04 (1.16)	6.50 (0.99)
Females (126)	50.22 (18.07)	46.44 (19.23)	8.13 (0.59)	7.12 (0.49)	7.69 (0.76)	8.47 (0.48)
Years of Experience						
0-5 (73)	47.37 (18.88)	42.02 (19.29)	6.95 (1.52)	6.22 (1.14)	6.25 (1.82)	7.40 (1.45)
6-10 (72)	47.47 (18.64)	46.78 (20.05)	6.94 (1.35)	6.22 (1.03)	6.24 (1.65)	7.41 (1.26)
11-15 (49)	53.19 (17.83)	46.05(16.67)	7.26 (1.11)	6.44 (0.87)	6.44 (1.39)	7.67 (0.96)
16-20 (17)	47.58 (17.01)	41.18 (18.84)	7.36 (1.23)	6.51 (0.93)	6.75 (1.52)	7.79 (1.11)
21+ (11)	54.22 (28.11)	46.28 (22.65)	7.69 (1.51)	6.78 (0.87)	7.12 (1.47)	8.08 (0.98)
Education						
Masters (132)	47.83 (19.20)	42.77 (18.56)	6.53 (1.07)	5.73 (0.77)	5.53 (1.29)	6.88 (1.05)
Advanced degree (91)	51.90 (18.03)	48.92 (19.72)	8.30 (0.37)	7.30 (0.23)	7.82 (0.41)	8.64 (0.38)
Context						
Rural (83)	47.91 (19.60)	43.20 (19.21)	5.77 (0.93)	5.32 (0.66)	6.33 (0.96)	4.81 (1.10)
Sub-Urban (117)	49.92 (18.37)	45.68 (18.97)	7.98 (0.93)	6.99 (0.55)	8.34 (0.35)	7.51 (0.79)
Type of school						
Elementary District (127)	47.76 (19.32)	42.65 (18.71)	6.38 (1.05)	5.69 (0.74)	5.48 (91.28)	6.83 (1.05)
Unit District (98)	51.73 (17.85)	48.68 (19.31)	8.41 (0.45)	7.38 (0.28)	8.02 (0.64)	8.86 (0.40)
% Poverty						
0-25% (75)	54.16 (16.85)	48.28 (19.34)	7.23 (1.23)	6.44 (0.95)	6.61 (1.68)	7.68 (1.11)
26-50% (61)	60.00 (28.28)	51.50 (37.47)	6.96 (1.41)	6.24 (1.07)	6.25 (1.68)	7.41 (1.37)
51% &> (95)	55.55 (7.77)	51.00 (16.97)	7.11 (1.28)	6.33 (0.97)	6.46 (1.56)	7.56 (1.18)

Correlational analyses found high correlations among self-efficacy compo-

nents, however very low but significant correlations were found between self-efficacy components including composite score with expected and actual academic outcomes. It was noted that expected outcome had the highest significant correlation with actual academic outcome (r=.33; p<.01).

Table 2. Correlations among Principal Self-Efficacy Composite Score, Self-Efficacy Sub Scales, expected and Actual PARCC 2016 Composite Scores

	Self-Efficacy Composite	Moral Leadership	Instructional Leadership	Management	Expected Outcomes
	(*n* = 203)	(*n* = 205)	(*n* = 204)	(*n* = 203)	(*n* = 186)
Moral Leadership					
Instructional Leadership	.99**	.98**			
Management	.99**	.98**	.99**		
Expected Outcomes	.14**	.13*	.15*	.14*	
Actual Outcomes	.14**	.14**	.15*	.14*	.33**

*p < .05, two-tailed. **p< .01, two-tailed.

Regression analysis (Table 3) indicated that expected outcome was the only predictor of actual academic outcome (actual PARCC).

Table 3. Regression Analysis of Actual PARCC 2016 Composite Scores (n = 186) base on Self-Efficacy Composite Scores, Sub Scales and Expected PARCC 2016 Composite Scores

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	B	Sig.
Step 1				
Constant	.67	1.11		
Composite Self-Efficacy	7.54	5.17	10.20	.15
Instructional Leadership Self-Efficacy	-2.58	2.07	-2.66	.22
Moral Leadership Self-Efficacy	-2.52	1.73	-3.25	.15
Management Self-Efficacy	-2.65	1.74	-4.26	.13
Expected PARCC 2016 Composite	.28	.07	.28	.00

Note: $R^2 = .11$ for Step 1, $p< .05$

Discussions and Conclusion

A framework presented for this study asserts that principals' self-efficacy and principals' outcome expectation act independently of one another insofar as their impact on student achievement is concerned. Findings from this study indicate both principals' self-efficacy and principals' outcome expectation correlate positively to student achievement and act independently of one another. Specifically, principals' outcome expectation was found to significantly impact student achievement, whereas principals' self-efficacy did not, as evident in the regression

analysis. The dichotomy in results from this study substantiates Pajares' (1996) claim that both self-efficacy expectation and outcome expectation may in fact act independently of one another. Ultimately, results from this study raise further questions about why available research on principal self-efficacy and its impact on student achievement excludes outcome expectation, specifically as it relates to school principals. It may be argued that the absence of outcome expectation data in schools contributes to the scarcity of studies focusing on outcome expectation. This study was possible because of the existence of a policy requiring all principals in the state of Illinois to state their expected school outcome. The availability of such data is important for this type of research.

Research in the area of principal self-efficacy and its impact on student achievement has been influenced to a large extent by Tschannen-Moran and Gareis' study (2004) where a reliable instrument, the Principal Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES) was developed to measure principal efficacy, specifically in the areas of instructional leadership, moral leadership and management. Studies utilizing the PSES, specifically studies by Aderhold (2005), Lovell (2009), and Szymendera (2013) demonstrated mixed results with respect to principal efficacy as a predictor of student achievement.

Utilization of the PSES in this study found that among elementary school principals, perceived self-efficacy for moral leadership was higher than perceived self-efficacy for instructional leadership along with perceived self-efficacy for management leadership. Firestone and Riehl (2005), Wagner and Simpson (2009), and Pede (2015) suggested that morality among principals is a guiding force in all of their decision-making. Because of this, moral leadership also known as ethical leadership is emphasized in principal preparation programs and is a focus in the standards for school leadership practice and leadership preparation. Ultimately, even though this study found that elementary school principals possess a heightened sense of moral leadership, it had minimal impact on student achievement. This does not necessarily mean that moral leadership is not signify-cant in student achievement, it is possible that its impact on student achievement is indirect. According to Ingersoll, Sirinides, and Doughery (2018), leadership, including moral leadership only matters in student achievement when it "actively involves teachers in decision making, and that these are tied to higher student achievement" (p. 17). In other words, morality that does not engage teachers in aspects of school leadership and decision making, may have minimal effects on student outcome.

As we concluded this study, it was evident that whereas a plethora of research exists in education showing the impacts of self-efficacy, principal characteristics, and school demographics on student achievement; research searches for this study found limited research on outcome expectation alongside efficacy expectation, specifically research seeking to determine the independent impacts of efficacy and outcome expectations on student achievement. Bandura (1977) explains that outcome expectation is indispensable to his theory because a person's efficacy expectation leads him/her to execute behavior that in turn influences his/her outcome expectation leading to the actual outcome. Relevant to the discussion on outcome expectation and this study's findings, Bandura (as cited in Fouad &

Guillen, 2006) noted, "The more value or importance an individual placed on the outcome expectations, the greater the likelihood the individual would engage in the behavior" (p. 133). Given this claim, the correlation between elementary school principals' expected outcome on PARCC 2016 composite score and actual PARCC 2016 composite score (r= .33, p< .01), and the fact that outcome expectation was a predictor of academic outcomes, suggest that principals in this study placed value and importance on their outcome expectation for student achievement and, consequently, engaged in behaviors necessary to attain their expected levels of student achievement.

The question the remains is why research has not focused on outcome expectation? Evidence that may explain why outcome expectation has not been examined in educational leadership research can be extrapolated from the research of Lent et al. (1994), as cited in Fouad and Guillen, (2006). Here, "Self-efficacy is hypothesized to determine outcome expectations" (p. 134). In other words, if an individual's self-efficacy is high, so will be their outcome expectation, thereby negating the need to study both variables' and their impacts on behavior. Given that Bandura acknowledges the need to study both outcome expectation and self-efficacy together to better predict human behavior, there is need for more studies that include outcome expectation. This study focused on both variables in seeking to establish the independence of each and the independence of their impacts on student achievement.

The findings of this study support claims by Parajes (1996), "that an individual's perception of the outcome and his value of the task necessary to achieve that outcome will regulate his behavior as powerfully as his self-efficacy beliefs, and independently of them" (p. 559). This claim is the reason this research study was designed. It is important to note that despite the controversy over which variable influences which in Bandura's theory, limited research studies exist in education that have investigated efficacy and outcome expectation together. Furthermore, research continues to neglect outcome expectation, not simply as part of Bandura's original theory, but also as a possible separate variable (Agunbiade, 2015).

Notably, this research study's framework demonstrates that both principals' self-efficacy and principals' outcome expectation influence actual outcome and thereby supports Bandura's social cognitive theory (1977). However, the findings of this study are aligned to the claim by Parajes (1996) that outcome expectation and self-efficacy also act independently of one another with only outcome expectation predicting actual academic outcome.

It is critical that more research is under-taken in this area of study to enhance our understanding of the impacts of outcome expectation on student achievement and the work of principals. Future directions for research could include the variable of principal outcome expectation in studies focusing on teacher and principal self-efficacy and their impacts on student achievement. Additionally, moving forward, new research could include the impact of principal outcome expectation, along with principal self-efficacy expectations on teacher job satisfaction and retention.

Findings of this study indicate that we should not accept the notion that self-

efficacy is a better predictor of actual outcome than outcome expectation and continue to study principal self-efficacy and its impact on student achievement without regard for the role outcome expectation. Doing so may cause missed opportunities to discover new ways to influence student achievement and leverage principals' influences. The findings of this study demonstrate that there is a high chance that principal outcome expectation has significant impact on student achievement independent of principal self-efficacy.

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Entrepreneurship Education: Comparative Study of Initiatives of two Partner Universities

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The education of entrepreneurship is considered the most effective method to stimulate entrepreneurship within a society (Aaltio & Eskelinen, 2016); hence, creating jobs and encouraging economic growth (Lackéus, 2015). There are nevertheless structural difficulties in teaching entrepreneurship (Yang, 2016), and institutions are often left with the question: 'learning-by-doing-what?' This is particularly worrisome for partner universities who are supposed to collaborate to benefit the student. This study examines which initiatives two partner universities have integrated regarding the concept of entrepreneurship education, and to what extent these initiatives are in accordance with the already established literature. The analysis of the results from the qualitative data gathered through interviews shows that both universities lack certain important aspects of entrepreneurship education in their current offerings. It was found that University A seems to lack cohesion between the different faculties, has not integrated a global approach, has weak links with SMEs and social impact companies, and offers experiential-based learning mainly with in-class activities. University B, on the other hand, shows an improper use of terminology regarding the concept of entrepreneurship, lacks the collaboration with large corporations and social impact companies, and has a short-term approach for its programs as opposed to the more effective long-term approach. In addition, both universities fail to widely integrate entrepreneurship across the university. The research shows that there is no generally accepted understanding of how universities should structure their entrepreneurial environment. This study aims at discovering and contrasting the current initiatives to stimulate entrepreneurship at university level by comparing two partner universities in the United Kingdom and The Netherlands.

Keywords: entrepreneurial education, institutions, qualitative technique.

Introduction

Entrepreneurship education is recognised as the single most important method of fostering entrepreneurship, and thus job creation and economic growth (Aaltio & Eskelinen, 2016). The integration of entrepreneurship into education has gained significance over the last few decades. Governments and educational institutions have acknowledged that adopting the concept is likely to result in economic growth and job creation for the former, and growing school involvement and reduced inequality for the latter (Lackéus, 2015; Urban & Kujinga, 2017). Innovation and entrepreneurship are described as the key drivers in the global economy, opening new markets with the

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introduction of new products and technological advancements (Karlsson, Grasjo, & Wixe, 2015).

With its first introduction in the United States in the 1940s, entrepreneurship education has been widely accepted as a new drive for economic growth and innovation (Zhou & Xu, 2012). The concept has gained popularity ever since, and was in 1998 adapted by UNESCO (1998, p. 2) at the World Conference on Higher Education, arguing, "*developing entrepreneurial skills and initiatives should become major concerns of higher education*". Ever since, the number of entrepreneurship courses, students and academics have skyrocketed and the trend shows no sign of abating. Miri (2014, p.1) calls it "*the revolution of the twenty-first century*", where governments encourage the next generation to adapt an entrepreneurial mind-set to prosper in the rapidly changing world.

After research and teaching, entrepreneurship forms the core of the upcoming 'third mission' at universities, described by Mitra and Edmondson (2015, p. 285) as, "*the delivery of community and economic development activities that generate social and economic benefits*". Recognised as an essential part of higher education, entrepreneurship programs are evolving quickly and an increasing number of universities are incorporating courses on business planning, innovation and creativity, and new venture development. Besides the development of key entrepreneurial skills, universities have set up a range of initiatives for start-up support, generally ranging from basic physical facilities, such as mentors and grants, to a more advanced support infrastructure with business incubators and technology transfer offices (Mitra & Edmondson, 2015; OECD, 2009).

At the same time, there are structural difficulties in teaching entrepreneurship (Yang, 2016). The message that can be drawn is that there is no generally accepted understanding of how universities should structure their entrepreneurial environment. With no clear guidelines on how to effectively stimulate entrepreneurship, universities are often granted the freedom to structure their own entrepreneurial environment, directly influencing start-up success (Information Resources Management Association, 2017). When relating this to two partner universities in the United Kingdom and The Netherlands, it could be mutual beneficial to streamline which entrepreneurial support initiatives have been implemented, and what can be improved upon. In fact, both countries are listed in the top-15 of the 2016 Global Entrepreneurship Index, indicating a similar favourable entrepreneurial climate (Acs, Szerb, & Autio, 2017). This paper aims at discovering and contrasting the current initiatives to stimulate entrepreneurship at university level by comparing two partner universities in the United Kingdom and The Netherlands.

The scope of this paper is narrowed down to solely entrepreneurship initiatives at UK-based University A and Netherlands-based University B. Despite the numerous other variables that affect the entrepreneurial environment, such as subsidies and other resources from the public education sector, this research is limited to the universities' initiatives on promoting entrepreneurship.

The authors have identified the following research objectives:

1. To identify the purpose of entrepreneurship education and to what extent it is considered important by academics.
2. To investigate the approach to entrepreneurship education in order to benefit students.
3. To analyse and contrast the entrepreneurial initiatives implemented at case study universities and to what extent it can be enhanced.

Literature Review

The Rise of Entrepreneurship Education

French economist Jean-Baptiste Say first defined entrepreneurship in the 1800s as, *"the entrepreneur shifts economic resources out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield"*. Over the years, the entrepreneur has become immensely important and is perceived as the engine of global economic development by driving industrialisation, generating employment and decreasing income inequality (Lackéus, 2015).

Despite the acknowledged impact of entrepreneurship on social and economic well-being, for a long time the general feeling was that entrepreneurs were born, not made (Moroz and Hindle, 2012). Jones, Macpherson, and Jayawarna (2013) support this view, suggesting that entrepreneurs are born with certain characteristics, but that the intensification of certain skills through learning will help them become successful.

Raposo and Paço (2011) argue that entrepreneurship education is focused on stimulating entrepreneurship in terms of start-ups, whereas enterprise education is about developing enterprising people with an attitude of self-reliance. Kompf (2012) and Shockley (2009) further suggest that entrepreneurship and enterprise education should be separated, with the former being taught to individuals seeking to create a business, and the latter being delivered across the university.

From an economic and society perspective, the growing popularity in entrepreneurship education is mainly due to the potential for stimulating innovation and economic growth, and reducing unemployment (Kuratko and Hoskinson, 2017). Hence, the interest for embedding entrepreneurship education in engineering and social studies is growing significantly to develop an entrepreneurial mind-set among all levels of education (Aaltio and Eskelinen, 2016). Yet, Europe is found to lag behind the United States and Canada in entrepreneurial activity, and is therefore pressured to integrate entrepreneurship across all institutions to support the expansion of entrepreneurship education at university level (Riviezzo, Nisco, & Napolitano, 2012).

Also, the demand for entrepreneurship courses is growing explosively. Academia is aspired to have a positive impact on economic development while Valerio, Parton, and Robb (2014), suggest that the interest in entrepreneurship is due to scholars' personality traits as high risk-takers and control-seekers. In response, universities are motivated to support entrepreneurial courses to not only improve their competitive advantage, but also to strengthen their alumni

networks and enjoy widely acknowledged status and reputation (Fetters, Greene, & Rice, 2010; Sá & Kretz, 2015). This indicates that institutions act generally with their own interests' at heart.

The authors believe that the scope of entrepreneurship should not be limited, in order to prevent narrow-minded entrepreneurial approaches. This is considered true, as an international approach on entrepreneurship education is believed to further enhance students' skills to the extent that they understand different ways of doing business (Rae & Woodier-Harris, 2013). Not only is this necessary globally, but also within organizations. Since not all students will set up their own company, they can still utilize their entrepreneurial skills in different types of organizations.

Entrepreneurship Education at University level

Entrepreneurship programs have been implemented at different levels of the educational system, from primary school to university (Rahman, 2016). The exposure to entrepreneurship at an early age is more likely to result in entrepreneurial activity in a later stage in life (Rae & Wang, 2015). As written by Hosu and Iancu (2016), the role of higher education institutions is the most critical, as universities are influencing scholars to form start-ups and thus directly contributing to the economic development of a country. Especially, the influence of the institution's decision-makers is significant, as they contribute to student learning by means of strategy, mentoring and networking activities (Welsh, 2014). This focus is especially evident in the growing number of entrepreneurship centres at universities, providing a range of services and programs that stimulate entrepreneurial activity and economic development (Kuratko & Hoskinson, 2017).

The impact of entrepreneurship education is nevertheless dependent on a country's cultural context, with an explicit role for religion and values, people's attitude, family and community influence, and government policies and politics (Ehiobuche & Madueke, 2017; Telman, 2012). The focus of this paper is on two partner universities in the United Kingdom and The Netherlands, thus we consider any literature related to entrepreneurship education at universities in those countries.

Entrepreneurship Education at UK Universities

Ever since the year 2000, when business and entrepreneurial development was listed as a strategic focus for UK Universities, the concept of entrepreneur-ship education has been recognised as a priority in universities. The government has however not implemented a national strategy to support entrepreneurship education, but has instead adopted multiple initiatives related to entrepreneurship education (Lackéus, 2015). In fact, entrepreneurship programmes are mostly regulated on a regional or institutional level (EACEA, 2012). As a result, there is a wide diversity of initiatives to support entrepreneurship education at UK universities, ranging from guidance materials for teachers and entrepreneurship competitions for scholars, to online resources

and web portals for case studies (Pantea, Diroescu, & Podlasek-Ziegler, 2014). The one characteristic that unites UK universities is the fact that they have the institution's best interests at heart, as opposed to the interests of teachers or students (Wright, 2007).

The UK is building on its reputation as one of the 'most entrepreneurial' countries in Europe (Myers, 2014). According to the Global Entrepreneurship Development Institute, only Switzerland, Sweden, Denmark and Iceland ranked higher in 2017. In comparison, in 2012 and 2013 the United Kingdom ranked 14th and ninth, respectively. This favourable environment for start-ups is generally created within universities and its nationwide expansion in the United Kingdom is due to benefits ranging from improved student employability skills, to their input to prevent economic stagnation or decline both in the United Kingdom and worldwide (Papadopoulos, Burger, & Faria, 2016). The acknowledged impact that entrepreneurial students have on the economy has triggered universities to further expand their entrepreneurial program as well as extracurricular entrepreneur support activities (Nicolescu & Lloyd-Reason, 2016). Nevertheless, the entrepreneurial initiatives tend to be too theoretical, as opposed to practical implementation of ideas and solutions.

Entrepreneurship Education at Dutch Universities

In the last couple of years, the number of education institutions in The Netherlands that offer entrepreneurship programs in their educational environment has increased significantly (Bijaoui, 2015). Since 2000, the Dutch government has been stimulating educational programs on entrepreneurship (EACEA, 2012). Subsidy-related initiatives included the 2007 Education and Entrepreneurship Action Program and the 2009 Education Networks Enterprise, which aimed at increasing the number of institutions offerings entrepreneurial programs and encouraging scholars with an entrepreneurial mind-set to participate in these courses. Moreover, several programs were set out by the Dutch government in an effort to increase the number of scholars launching their own firm within five years from graduation (EACEA, 2012).

According to the Netherlands Enterprise Agency, the government is promoting this initiative for educational institutions to integrate an entrepreneurial culture by offering subsidies, without exerting control over the program design. However, the result of the high degree of autonomy is that entrepreneurship education is not structurally and consistently integrated in institution programs, but is rather demand-driven (EACEA, 2012). Despite the autonomous decision-making, the growing interest in entrepreneurship education has not stagnated, as universities are subsidised to setup programs together with local firms to put theoretical knowledge into practice.

Where the United Kingdom has adopted a strategy of integrating multiple initiatives related to entrepreneurship education, the Dutch government has chosen for an action plan focused specifically on the integration on entrepreneurship programs (EACEA, 2012). However, both countries do not have a national strategy linked to entrepreneurship education, as opposed to Scandinavia and countries in the western Balkans (EACEA, 2016). The OECD

(2009), nevertheless, created objectives for its member countries, including the United Kingdom and The Netherlands, to integrate entrepreneurship across institutions and partner with external business support centres and networks. This indicates that universities in both countries are encouraged to stimulate entrepreneurial initiatives, but still lack transparency and guidance in how to enhance current entrepreneurial offerings.

The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education

While the overall goal of entrepreneurship education programs is to teach the desirability as well as the practicality of entrepreneurship (Passiante & Romano, 2016), the extent to which it impacts one may be influenced by several variables such as culture, role models, individual characteristics and the educational environment (Hytti et al., 2016).

As stated before, entrepreneurship is widely recognised as a driver for economic growth and employment. Moreover, it is argued that the rise of entrepreneurship education is due to the globalised, uncertain and complex environment we live in, demanding entrepreneurial engagement from people and companies in order to survive (Fayolle & Redford, 2014). In addition to the influence entrepreneurship has on the economy, the effects are also evident on students' and workers' relevancy, involvement and encouragement in both education and at work (Baptista & Leitão, 2015). Besides the economic benefits, the authors recognize a trend in entrepreneurship to encounter societal challenges. Ahmetoglu (2017) identified that entrepreneurship education is shifting to encounter societal challenges by focusing on value creation for the public good.

The promotion of the entrepreneurial mind-set contributes nevertheless to a broader scope in society. The positive impact of entrepreneurial programs on students' interest, joy, engagement and creativity is significant (Morris & Liguori, 2016). This, in turn, has increased students' motivation and decreased student boredom and dropout rates (Reffstrup & Christiansen, 2017). Morris and Liguori (2016) believe that invention and students exceeding their own expectations generally trigger the above-stated personality traits. In particular, the bootstrapping approach of student companies is effective to balance creative thinking and practicability (Crittenden et al., 2015). In addition, Pittaway et al. (2015) argue that involvement in student societies on entrepreneurship have proven to enhance students' confidence and intentions to become entrepreneurs.

Table 1. Effects of Entrepreneurship Education on Different Levels of Society (compiled by the authors)

	Students	**Companies**	**Society**	**Sources**
Economic growth	Entrepreneurship is vital for economic growth	Entrepreneurial workers are key in long-term growth	Innovation is important for economic progress	(Jockenhöfer, 2013; Pablos, Lee, & Zhao, 2010; Zhang & Stough, 2013)
Employment	Entrepreneurs are needed in today's globalised world	Companies need workers to support business growth	Economic growth creates more employment opportunities	(Bentz, 2016; Lussier, Corman, & Kimball, 2014; Seifert, Leleux, & Tucci, 2008)
Globalisation	Entrepreneurial mind-set is required to cope with fast-paced environment	Companies' global strategy creates new market structures	Open markets need entrepreneurial people to function at every level	(John & Ferris, 2017; Khanser, 2007)
Skills / Motivation	Autonomy and creativity results in motivation and joy	Workers' motivation is key for success of company	Economic growth is a result of business growth	(Ahlstrom & Bruton, 2009; Brunsell & Fleming, 2014; Oncioiu, 2013)
Social challenges	Students can contribute to society and make profits	Companies shift focus from profit-oriented to purpose-oriented	Social challenges are emphasised instead of economic challenges	(Ahmed, 2017; Fukukawa, 2014; Ziegler, 2011)

Table 1 summarises the impact of entrepreneurship education on different levels of society. This table also shows how the concept of entrepreneurship has evolved over the years in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, but also shows the effects entrepreneurial education has on different levels of society. This review highlights the many challenges in entrepreneurship education, including the definitional confusion, the range of different entrepreneurial programs and the lack of guidance for universities to implement effective initiatives. Yet, with the given autonomy by governments, universities should fill the gap by streamlining entrepreneurship education with partner universities to the extent that it can enhance universities' entrepreneurial environments. The late developments in social entrepreneurship has resulted in booming scholars' interest in solving societal challenges and contribute to a good cause (Dyck & Neubert, 2008; Lyons, 2013). Aaltio and Eskelinen (2016) suggest that the effects of social entrepreneurship are especially visible in areas that were

previously not interesting for for-profit entrepreneurs. However, there is still not a clear view on how to teach entrepreneurship while there is no consensus on how universities should be structuring their entrepreneurial environment for best results (Yang, 2016). Therefore this research will further examine these aspects by exploring the related processes in two universities and thus gain an in-depth understanding on how universities can further improve their entrepreneurial practices to the benefit of students.

Methodology

In this study, the inductive approach is evident through the collection of qualitative data, a flexible approach and direct involvement from the researcher in the research process (Rose, Spinks, & Canhoto, 2014). The authors have used Given's (2008) and Swanson and Holton's (2005) suggestion that the approach is best used for small samples of qualitative data as it takes into consideration the context where research effort is focused. We have gathered qualitative data by means of in-person semi-structured interviews, and therefore considered the inductive approach the most appropriate.

The authors considered the use of a case study the most appropriate strategy, as it allowed for identifying similarities and differences among the entrepreneurial offerings and academic perspectives at both universities. With the use of a case study an in-depth understanding of the role of the universities in entrepreneurship was achieved, as the study focused on 'how' and 'why' questions (Yin, 2013). The interview agenda and the questions that we asked can be found n Appendix A. In addition, several other scholars have used case study research in the past to perform an investigation on entrepreneurship education at universities (Ghina, 2014; Kilasi, 2014; Zande, 2012).

The research method selected for this paper is the qualitative approach, because it focuses on conceptualisation, as opposed to the quantitative approach that emphasises diagrams and statistics (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009). As this research into entrepreneurship education at partner universities is exploratory, the authors have selected a qualitative technique in order to gather 'rich' data with small samples (Gratton & Jones, 2010). The qualitative approach was evident in this research as it concerned participants' personal views on and experiences with entrepreneurship education.

The interviewees were selected because of their entrepreneurial background and relevant roles in the two universities. We interviewed academics that are Entrepreneurship lecturers, relevant programme leaders as well as entrepreneurship managers helping and supporting students in their entrepreneurial career development.

The interviews ranged from 45 to 60 minutes in duration. Four interviews were conducted with University B, and three interviews were conducted with University A (please see table 2). All interviews were audio recorded through the use of a recording application on a smartphone. This, in turn, allowed the authors to give participants full attention during the interviews and obtain a record of the entire interview that was used for transcribing. The participants of

the semi-structured interviews were chosen using a non-probability sampling technique, aimed at selecting the interviewees that are most able to deliver relevant and reliable information (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Participants A, B, D, E and F were asked to participate based on their lecturer's perspective, whereas participants C and G were selected based on their coordinator's perspective. This allowed for rich data collection as perspectives were from different faculties and functions in the universities.

Table 2. Identification of Research Participants

University A		University B	
Participant A	Programme Director	Participant D	Lecturer Entrepreneurship
Participant B	Lecturer Entrepreneurial Business Management	Participant E	Lecturer Entrepreneurship
Participant C	Student Enterprise Manager	Participant F	Lecturer International Entrepreneurship
		Participant G	Entrepreneurship Education Manager

As suggested by Aurini, Heath, and Howells (2016), coding is the main way to bring order to qualitative data as it helps retrieving and organising the data, and it speeds up the analysis. More specifically, template analysis has been used to code the transcribed interviews with particular themes. This involved identifying the key themes from each interview and comparing the answers of the participants. In addition, by using template analysis the authors were able to define relationships between themes in entrepreneurship education, which allowed a deeper, more comprehensive analysis (King & Brooks, 2016). The authors are not claiming that the findings of this research are generalizable. This is in line with Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009), who wrote that a study should focus on the situation, as long as there is no claim that the results, conclusions or theory can be generalised.

Findings and Discussion

The data gathered was thoroughly reviewed and coded using the template analysis approach to identify key themes. According to King (2002: 256), "the method refers to a varied but related group of techniques for thematically organising and analysing textual data". The method allowed the researchers to use a flexible approach that could be altered to the study and to analyse the perspectives of different people within the university context. Three main themes were identified through the analysis: the purpose and importance of entrepreneurship education, approaches to entrepreneurship education, cross case comparison of the entrepreneurial initiatives between institution A and B. We discuss these themes in detail below.

The Purpose and Importance of Entrepreneurship Education

The authors found that the participants of both universities consider the purpose of entrepreneurship education to open up students for other possibilities beyond 'being employed' and growing students' employability skills. This was also found by Sethna, Jones, and Harrigan (2013). Participant G was of the opinion that students should be ready to generate work for themselves, while participant C believed that the next generation is going to have a portfolio career, as opposed to one or two jobs, arguing, "*one has to be prepared for the changing work environment by taking on enterprising skills*" (Participant C). This clearly illustrates an understanding with both universities towards the importance and purpose of entrepreneurship education.

Also, each participant was asked about the best approach of teaching entrepreneurship. In the before-mentioned nature-nurture debate on an entrepreneurial mind-set, participants of both universities clearly position themselves on the nurture side. Participant B emphasised that students learn about entrepreneurship by doing it, whereas participant D argued that students that come in with a non-entrepreneurial attitude discover more about themselves and eventually 80% of this group concludes that they can come up with something new.

The importance of entrepreneurship education was not limited to the participants' perspectives. Instead, a widely accepted view on both universities' decision-making level was that the development of an entrepreneurial mind-set is crucial. This is important, as emphasised by Welsh (2014), who argued that board members often contribute to student learning with their mentoring and networking activities with students. However, participants at University A pointed out that the institution does not recognise entrepreneurship education as a top priority. Participant B underlined that entrepreneurial programs generally lack the financial and human resources to promote enterprise and start-up across University A. In addition, participant C noted, "*I think we are a little bit slow to adopt that approach of entrepreneurship education over the whole institution*".

In contrast, at University B, "*the focus is on getting students ready for business life*", but, "*there is too less emphasis on the career perspective of self-employed*" (Participant G). The arguments of participants of both universities indicate that the institutional bodies do not fully recognise the importance of entrepreneurship education. This is worrisome, as suggested by Hosu and Iancu (2016), who argued that the role of higher education institutions is the most critical as universities are influencing scholars to form start-ups and thus directly contributing to the economic development of a country.

> "*Enterprise education is not just thinking about those individuals who are planning on setting up a business, it is about creating an enterprising mind-set, which may lead to go down the road to set up a new business, but it will lead many to an organisation and being an intrapreneur*" (Participant C).

Participants D, F and G embraced the terminology of 'entrepreneurship education' and considered it as a combination of theory and practice. Participant D defined the term in two layers. First, it has to facilitate students with an entrepreneurial attitude that they want to start up their own company. Second, it is about cooperation skills.

The literature suggests that a distinction between enterprise and entrepreneurship education is desired. This is evident at University A, as opposed to University B, and is supported by Kompf (2012), who argued that enterprise and entrepreneurship education should be separated, with the former being delivered across the university and the latter being taught to individuals seeking to create a business.

Participants A and B explained that the core focus of the initiatives at University A is on someone setting up a business and the integration of the entrepreneurial mind-set. Participant C criticised, "*universities tend to focus to create links with large employers, rather than necessarily the small and medium-sized sector*". The literature already suggested that collaboration with SMEs is favourable for universities in terms of flexibility, the possibility for government funding and the opportunity to get into niche sectors such as technology and innovation (Fayolle and Redford, 2014). Participant A furthermore noted that a "*social enterprise approach*" has been acknowledged, but, "*it is still an area that is not given due attention*".

Table 3. Summary of the Purpose and Importance of Entrepreneurship Education

	University A	**University B**
Importance of entrepreneurship education	Enterprising skills required to be prepared for changing work environment	Students should be ready to generate work for themselves
Best approach of entrepreneurship education	Learn by doing	Show students that the unimaginable can be done
Attitude of decision-makers	Entrepreneurship not recognised as top priority, thus slow to adapt initiatives and lack financial and human resources	Too less emphasis on career perspective of self-employed, as the focus is on getting students ready for business life
Terminology	Enterprise and Entrepreneurship Education	Entrepreneurship Education
Types of Entrepreneurship	Focus on start-ups and large companies	Focus on start-ups and SMEs

Participants D, E and G stressed that programs at University B are focused on business start-ups and the adaptation of the entrepreneurial mind-set and attitude. As opposed to University A, close collaboration with SMEs was evident in University B. 'Large Companies', however, are not involved in the program. Participant D elaborated, "*we have not taken that step yet, where companies have an active voice in our curriculum*". The importance of large

companies is however significant in order to ensure a sustainable entrepreneur-ship ecosystem (Isenberg, 2013). Despite the increasing importance of social entrepreneurship, the participants at University B did not mention this concept, which suggests that there is no initiative in place that covers this area. The main findings in this theme are summarised in table 3.

Approaches to Entrepreneurship Education

Although the participants at both universities acknowledged that entrepreneurial engagement from people and companies are needed in order to survive in the demanding environment we nowadays live in, they have highlighted different approaches the universities take to expose students to this environment.

In terms of scope, University A has not embedded an international approach to entrepreneurship offerings. In fact, participants B and C suggested that it is not part of any program to gain experience in the business environment during studies. Participant A acknowledged that students should be given the opportunity to acquire the skills by going out and work in enterprises, but noted, "*probably the mass way of doing it would be to embed it in experiential learning, so that you give people the opportunity whilst they are on a program to practice those skills*". In addition, participant C pointed out, "*I want students to be able to be resilient, to think creatively, to work in difficult, challenging environments",* but also criticised, "*we only run extra-curricular activities, such as start-up weekends"*. This approach contradicts the secondary research, suggesting that a global consideration and experiential learning through internships and field experience is believed to be the best approach in equipping students with an entrepreneurial mind-set (Chan, Sipes, & Lee, 2017; Greene et al., 2015).

When the same question was asked to participants at University B, the authors identified that a global approach was evident in the "International Entrepreneurship" modules and minors, as stressed by participants D, E and F. Participant D explained, "*students are at the heart of a selfish process, which is called entrepreneurship education. But in doing so, they have to be aware of the business environment, where you focus on different people and markets"*. Participant F pointed out, "*compared to other universities in The Netherlands, we are the only ones with an international approach"*. In this context, the university has a global approach through integrating mandatory work placements, exchange programmes and graduation assignments to be completed abroad. This illustrates that the suggested approach for entrepreneurship education is evident in University B.

Besides the general approach of entrepreneurship programs, the participants were also asked on the specific approach to trigger students' interest, joy and creativity. University A is stimulating students' traits through student societies on entrepreneurship and enterprises (Participant B). Involvement in student societies on entrepreneurship have proven to result in increased confidence and student intentions to become entrepreneurs (Pittaway et al., 2015). As opposed to taking opportunities outside the curriculum, participants B and C argued that

students are best triggered with the bootstrapping of a business idea, that is, starting up your own business for the bare minimum in terms of resources that you need to get started. The bootstrapping approach to balance creative thinking and practicability was also suggested as an effective practice-based approach by Crittenden et al. (2015). This is also in line with Morris and Liguori (2016), who argued that these personality traits are best triggered by invention and exceeding their own expectations,

According to participants D, E and F, personal development is the key learning goal for students at University B, stimulating one to take initiative, think creatively and enjoy the process of setting up a business. Participants D, E and F emphasised the importance of freedom given to students to stimulate their entrepreneurial mind-set and generate new ideas. The authors noted that Gelderen and Masurel (2012) suggested that entrepreneurship education without a strong emphasis on autonomy is a waste for both students and society. The appreciation of freedom is often reflected in student feedback, frequently ranking entrepreneurship first in "most likeable course", and *"some even emphasised that this course made them stay at the university"* (Participant E). This is in line with the study carried out by Reffstrup and Christiansen (2017), who found that entrepreneurship education has increased students' motivation and decreased student boredom and dropout rates.

> *"We let students take a test on how entrepreneurial they are, because the question is often answered 'not really, not for me'. As they progress, you can see that they are actively involved."* (Participant D)

Table 4 summarises the main findings of this theme.

Table 4. Summary of Main Approaches to Entrepreneurship Education between the Two Institutions

	University A	**University B**
Global approach	No	Yes
Expose students to business environment	Through extra-curricular activities	Mandatory part of curriculum
Approach to stimulating students	Bootstrapping of business idea and involvement of student societies	Let students take a test on how entrepreneurial they are
Long-term / short-term	Long-term approach	Short-term approach

Cross Case Comparison of the Entrepreneurial Initiatives between Institution A and B

At University B start-up entrepreneurship is embedded in different levels of the institution. Participants D, E and F are involved in short-term orientated modules and minors where students generate, test, and pitch an idea for a new product or service. However, as argued by participant D, *"students are very careful with ideas implementation, because of the curriculum that requires work placements and minors abroad"*. Participant G noted, *"it discourages students having to liquidate their company after such short period of time"*.

This is also criticised by Manimala and Thomas (2017), who suggested that entrepreneurial education should always have a long-term focus instead of short term to allow student engagement and success of the program. Participant E further described the business unit at University B as an incubator where students with a market-tested and feasible idea will get a coach and accessibility to financial and location resources. Nevertheless, participant G argued, *"a lot do not do it, because they want to focus on study instead of setting up a company",* and participant E confirmed, *"very few students have attempted to set up a business".* Despite the available programs for students that have a business or business idea, participant G pointed out that there is no space for entrepreneurship in every domain within the university. The lack of integration across the university indicates that the gap between European and North American countries in terms of entrepreneurship education is not yet to be filled.

The authors remarked however that participants B and C mentioned "employability" as the main program goal of entrepreneurship education. On the other hand, the aim of Dutch institutions is to increase the number of scholars adapting an entrepreneurial mind-set and launching their own venture within five years after completing their studies. Although, as suggested before by participant D, basically 80% of students are believed to have achieved the entrepreneurial mind-set, it is hard to measure and specific data is not available (Participant G).

As mentioned before, both universities are to a certain extent dependable on national frameworks imposed by the government and institution decision-making on entrepreneurial education, with the latter offering more flexibility. Fetters, Greene, and Rice (2010) argued that universities are triggered to support entrepreneurial courses to improve their competitive advantage, strengthen their alumni networks and improve their status and reputation. However, this research has shown that participants at both universities are not completely satisfied with the university initiatives and have suggested improvements to develop the entrepreneurial programs. This is important, as academics play a key role in carrying out the university's entrepreneurial spirit (Fetters, Greene, & Rice, 2010).

Participant A emphasised the importance of social entrepreneurship, particularly because the university is trying to be relevant to the communities in which it serves locally, nationally and globally. This is relevant, considering the increasing importance of social entrepreneurs. Additionally, participants A, B and C believed that all students should be exposed to experiential-based learning, especially because in business the resources are relatively cheap, as opposed to engineering for example. Participant B suggested, *"the university should aim for a much more integrated approach of entrepreneurship that would achieve the same thing without having it separated out, and that it is perceived as an employment option rather than only starting up an own business".* Also, participants B and C criticised the lack of cohesion of enterprise and entrepreneurship activities within the university, which is believed to be a result of the promotion of the research-focused agenda.

> *"We are slow to adapt that approach of entrepreneurship education over the whole institutions, which is such a broad area that is fits everywhere."* (Participant C)

Participants B and C would rather create a dedicated space, which should be home for student start-ups and enterprise societies, and which hosts specialist programs, alumni networking events, guest speaker programs and competitions. Furthermore, participant C would like to see more collaboration with SMEs, especially in the field of digital tech, as the process of integrating in these companies is faster than in larger companies. Entrepreneurship centres provide support for the local ecosystem as well as benefitting from the programming and resources offered by off-campus entities (Kuratko & Hoskinson, 2017). It is considered the most common means by which universities provide a range of programs and services that improve entrepreneurship and economic development. Entrepreneurship courses are most effective if they were linked to a 'centre' that offers access to academics, support services and collaboration with local entrepreneurs (Morris, Kuratko, & Cornwall, 2013).

Similar to University A, participants D and E would like to see entrepreneurship embedded in a learning line across University B to expose all students to the mind-set connected with the concept. Participant D furthermore argued that a closer cooperation is required with business units within the university, and companies and universities on a local and global scale to widen students' entrepreneurial awareness. Besides the wider reach of entrepreneurship education, University B should also strive for the integration of technical studies with entrepreneurship, according to participant G. *"I would like to see an environment where students can present their ideas and have the tools available to discover market demand and make prototypes"* (Participant G). This environment would serve as a workspace for students of different faculties to work on an idea, and to meet with companies to further develop their idea. The need for entrepreneurship education embedded in engineering studies has been addressed widely to develop an entrepreneurial mind-set among students and combining that with engineering thinking and skills (Aaltio & Eskelinen, 2016).

Where University A aims to be the heart of the Northeast, nationally and internationally, in the field of entrepreneurship education, University B does not have the ambition to become an incubator (Participant D, Participant G). The findings and discussion section has provided a comprehensive exploration of the data using template analysis, it integrated the findings with the literature hence offering a structured overview of the different initiatives and views of the universities on entrepreneurship education.

Conclusions

This study has investigated the differences in entrepreneurship education between two partner universities: University A and University B.

It can be identified in the literature and the findings that entrepreneurship education is a multifaceted concept and that it is generally perceived as a method for teaching accumulated entrepreneurial activity. The case study universities have acknowledged that the purpose of entrepreneurship education is in accordance with established literature; to improve students' employability skills. The results of the research have proven that the concept of entrepreneurship education is considered highly important and should be exposed to all students in university.

The literature review and findings add substantial knowledge of how entrepreneurship education is differently perceived and implemented at two partner universities. Sá and Kretz's (2015) statement that universities are motivated to support entrepreneurial courses to improve their competitive advantage, strengthen their alumni networks and improve reputation is evident in both universities. Moreover, the research performed by Lackéus (2015) suggested that educational institutions are often left with the question "learning-by-doing-what?" It can be concluded that this is evident within both universities, as there is no aligned view on what entrepreneurship education entails, how it should be educated, what students should take away from the program, and which new initiatives are desired by academics.

Analysis of the current entrepreneurial offerings at both universities identified that there is a different approach on triggering students' entrepreneurial mind-set and encourage start-ups and this was shown in the research findings. This was partly due to the institution's strategy, ambitions and scope. It can be concluded from the findings that University A has a more international and practical approach and is in line with Fayolle and Redford's (2014) and West, Gatewood and Shaver's (2009) findings that we are living in a globalized, uncertain and complex environment. Furthermore, the findings show that University B emphasizes the importance of enterprise education, as opposed to entrepreneurship education alone, which better fits the terminology of entrepreneurial education as stated by Ahmad and Seymour (2016). The differences between the universities are provided in table 5.

Significant differences have been found between the universities in terms of terminology and types of entrepreneurship. As opposed to University B, University A used a distinction between entrepreneurship and enterprise education, indicating the importance of both developing an entrepreneurial mind-set and stimulating start-ups. Furthermore, the study has shown that both universities lack the integration of certain types of organisations, suggesting that the priority is not on entrepreneurship education.

From the findings it is also evident that the scope and approach on entrepreneurship education is not in line with the literature. Nevertheless, the extent to which it impacts students may be influenced by variables including culture, role models and individual characteristics. It can be concluded that University B wants students to gain entrepreneurial experience through experience-based learning in an international environment in the context of mandatory internships and exchange programs. This is not apparent at University A, where experiential-based learning in the business environment is not a mandatory part in the entrepreneurial curriculums.

Table 5. Differences between the two Universities

	University A	**University B**
Start-up environment	Full-time curriculum on student companies. Also incubation facilities for offering mentoring and specialist advise	Modules and minors on entrepreneurship with idea generation and student companies. Also incubation facilities
Integration	Separate curriculum. Incubator for all current students and recent graduates up to five years.	Modules and minors not integrated across all curriculums. Incubation facilities for all current students.
Program goal	Employability of students	Increasing number of students with entrepreneurial mind-set and launching company within five years of graduation
Desired initiatives	Focus on social entrepreneurship and collaboration with SMEs. Expose all students to entrepreneurship, without separating it in a module. Create entrepreneurship centre.	Introduce entrepreneurship learning-line across university. Closer cooperation with business units within university, and companies and universities globally. Integration with engineering studies.
Ambitions	Leader in entrepreneurship education of Northeast	Not the ambition to become an incubator

Our research has shown that participants at both universities believed entrepreneurship education is about enhancing student's personality traits, such as creativity, resilience and dedication. This is believed to match entrepreneurial students' personality traits as high risk-takers and control-seekers, as suggested by the literature.

From the literature it was found that there is a wide diversity of initiatives to support entrepreneurship education in universities. This is evident at University A, where outperforming other universities by means of offering the most appealing environment is an important goal. University B, on the other hand, has a more reserved role in entrepreneurship education despite the autonomy given by the Dutch government. It can be concluded from the research that the entrepreneurship initiatives implemented at University A focuses more on employability skills of students, whereas University B aims primarily at increasing the number of scholars adapting the entrepreneurial mind-set.

Furthermore, University A recognised to a greater extent that scholars are inspired to have a positive impact on economic development. Hence, the start-up environment and ambitions of University A are more explicit than the initiatives and desires at University B. The research furthermore concluded that University A wanted to follow the trend of entrepreneurship education shifting to encounter societal challenges, as opposed to University B.

Future research can add more participants in the primary research which would have strengthened the data, allowing more views and experiences on entrepreneurship education at both universities. An extended research period in combination with the availability and efforts of participants, academics could have been requested from a wider range of faculties within both universities,

allowing improved data collection. Furthermore, an increased number of participants could have resulted in the collection of quantitative data, too. Lastly, a thorough analysis of the external environment, including the influence of the government other stakeholders, would provide more insights in the 'why' behind certain initiatives.

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Appendix A

Interview Agenda

Introductory questions	How long have you been teaching entrepreneurship for? What is the name of the entrepreneurship program? Which entrepreneurial initiatives are you involved in? What do you want your students to take away from the program?
Entrepreneurship Education	How would you best describe entrepreneurship education? How do you believe entrepreneur ship should be taught? What are the institutional factory driving the university's participation in entrepreneurship education? What external influences are driving the university's participation in entrepreneurship education? How does the university benefit from participating in entrepreneurial education?
University Offerings	What are the different university offerings? How do scholars know about the existence? Would you make any changes to current initiatives? How and to what extent does the university fund students pursuing entrepreneurship? How does the university's participation in entrepreneurship education change the experience of students? How are students triggered to be engaged?

A Proposed Ranked-Based Ranking Model on the Impact of International Ranking of Higher Education Institutions on Higher Education Reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

*By Ahmed Alduais**

To measure the impact of international ranking of higher education institutions on higher education reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and to propose a ranked-based ranking for the Saudi higher education institutions in addition to a ranking development model. A non-experimental study based on the quantitative data retrieved from five types of rankings (Webometrics, Shanghai, QS, Times Higher Education and Leiden) and qualitative data from the Ministry of Education, in addition to the measure proposed by the researcher (Ranked-based ranking)—are all analysed using descriptive statistics and content analysis. The big gap between the establishment of the Kingdom (1932), the the discovery of the oil (1939) the first established higher education institution (1957), realising the importance of higher education internalization after (2000) and first inclusion of Saudi higher education institution(s) in international rankings (2006)—all indicate a slow progress on educational sector in the Kingdom, especially when compared to the the many pluses the country have. However, the achievements of the Kingdom since the launch of King Abdullah's Education Reform and Development programme have made a minor difference and resulted into having the Kingdom being ranked among the top Arab countries and mong the international higher education rankings. Yet, when comparing this to the new vision 2030—new challenges are rising and this progress seems to be turtling again. What has been achieved so far is a big plus in the history of the Kingdom; what is being intended to be achieved seems to be a shy step and a minor objective; the proposed ranked-based ranking model could be developed towards a comprehensive ranking system; and the proposed model for improving ranking is country specific and might not work for other countries

Keywords: Higher education in Saudi Arabia; university rankings; higher education institutions; Ranking model.

Introduction

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), referred to in many websites as (Saudi Arabia: SA) is one of the Arabian States, mainly the oil-states. Basically, the Arab World (AW) consists of 22 countries spreading over the Arabian Peninsula, the Eastern Mediterranean (West Asia) and North Africa. Arab League (AL) that was established in 1945 includes also the 22 Arabian countries. These 22 countries in addition to some other countries (i.e. Cyprus, Iran, Israel and Turkey)

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are referred to as the Middle East countries. Arabic is the official language in the AW with some other dialects and/or languages that are used in some countries (e.g. Amazigh in Morocco, Swahili in Yemen, etc.). Islam is also the major religion in generally all the countries with other religions in some countries like Christianity in Egypt and Lebanon, and Jewish in Yemen, etc. (Christina, Mehran, & Mir, 2007).
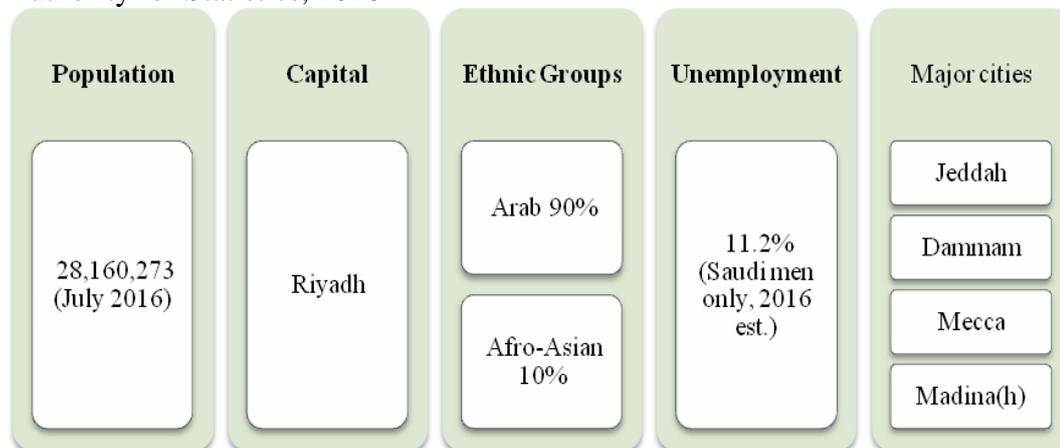
The AW includes one of the largest economies in the world GDP, namely, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It also includes some of the richest countries in the world (e.g. Qatar, Kuwait, Oman, UAE, Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Libya, etc.). Given this, the AW is divided economically into three categories: oil-states (high income countries), non-oil states (middle income countries) and minor-oil states (low income countries). While the high income countries depend on oil production, both minor and non-oil states depend on human capital—migrating to the oil states (Christina, Mehran, & Mir, 2007).

Christina, Mehran & Mir (2007) accounted for education in the Middle East and the major impacting factors for education were social, political and economic changes. The social changes are almost a result of religion conflict. In other words, while Islam is the major one in the over majority of this region, various versions and religious schools have negatively helped in making a huge social gap. When it comes to the political changes, the endless Arab-Israel conflict and recently the [Arab S-P-R-I-G] have made the situation worse and raised rather fast political changes in the region. As for the economic changes, the gap among oil-states, non-oil states and minor-oil states is another conflict in the region. The misuse of the resources in the oil-states in particular is what makes the situation worse. If we consider the shared factors that could make a more effective Arab World (the major part of the Middle East), it would be easy to see to what extent such region (i.e. Arab World) is really a big failure! Language and Religion are the major factors that could help make a powerful union similar to that in the European Union. The Arab League is a big failure that has never made any practical progress for the region. Would it be possible to have a better education in such states where some of them are listed on the top list of the richest countries, but on the other hand in the top list of weakest educational system(s)? This question would be left to the policy-makers of the Arab World—to keep enlarging the gaps among their own people and states, or bridging the gaps and starting a new era of science and comprehensive prosperity.

That being said, in this paper we present a case of higher education in one of the oil-states, namely, KSA. We intend to examine the impact of international ranking of higher education institutions on the higher education reform in the KSA. With this also, we assume that the international ranking has been impacting the higher education reform in the KSA. We also intend to present to the readers who can judge whether [this story of higher education reform in a country with such resources] is a success or not! While this last objective goes beyond our direct objectives as we only intend to analyse the impact of international ranking on the Saudi higher education system, yet propose our own ranking (i.e. Ranked-based Ranking)—we also assume that such an issue is predictable, too, through our presented data and analysis.

Background

Diagram 1. Key Fact about the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Based on the General Authority for Statistics, 2016

Population	Capital	Ethnic Groups	Unemployment	Major cities
28,160,273 (July 2016)	Riyadh	Arab 90% / Afro-Asian 10%	11.2% (Saudi men only, 2016 est.)	Jeddah / Dammam / Mecca / Madina(h)

The above diagram presents some key facts about the KSA. As can been seen the population of the country is the highest when compared to the the gulf countries (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, UAE). However, if we compare the population to some other key facts about the country as one holding the largest share in the OPEC, then it might leave greater expectations about the achievements of the country and the provided services to the population. The unemployment rate is below 12% (for male only) according to the CIA Website but it is only 5.7% according to the General Authority of Statistics (GAS) in the KSA for the year 2016. For both females and males it is reported as 5.1 for the year 2016—calculated as per percentage of the population. The next figures will show some plus key facts about the KSA which raises greater expectations in regard to the quality of education in such a country with these pluses.

Among the pluses that the KSA has is the high percentage of adult population as compared to the low percentage of aged population. The above figure according to the World Factbook in (Central Intelligence Agency, 2017) illustrates that the lowest percentages of both females and males are above 50 years old as compared to the highest between 20-40 for both females and males. Above all, if we also consider the high percentage of the young population which would make a within plus in the structure of the society. Have there been well-structured plans to make the best of these two classes of the population in addition to the high income of the country, it would undoubtedly turn into a revolutionary development in the country. This plus point should be compared to other countries which are currently issuing new policies to decrease the effect of the high percentage of aged population within the structure of their society (e.g. China and Canada).
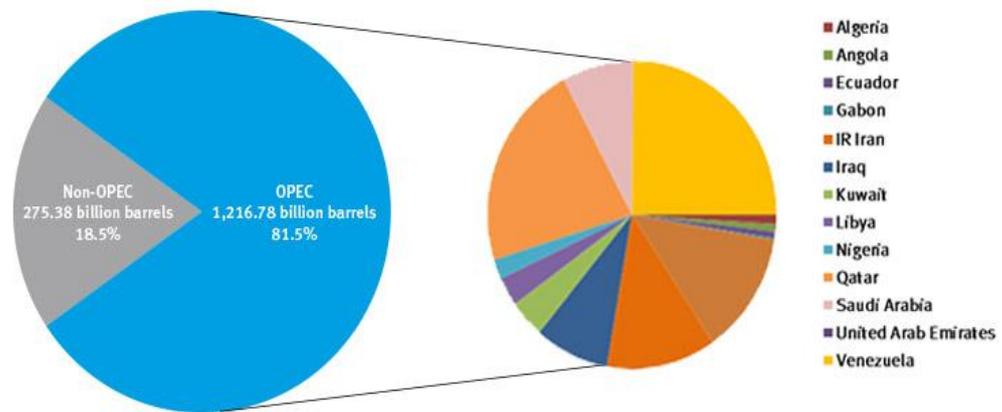
Figure 1. Distribution of Population in the KSA according to Age
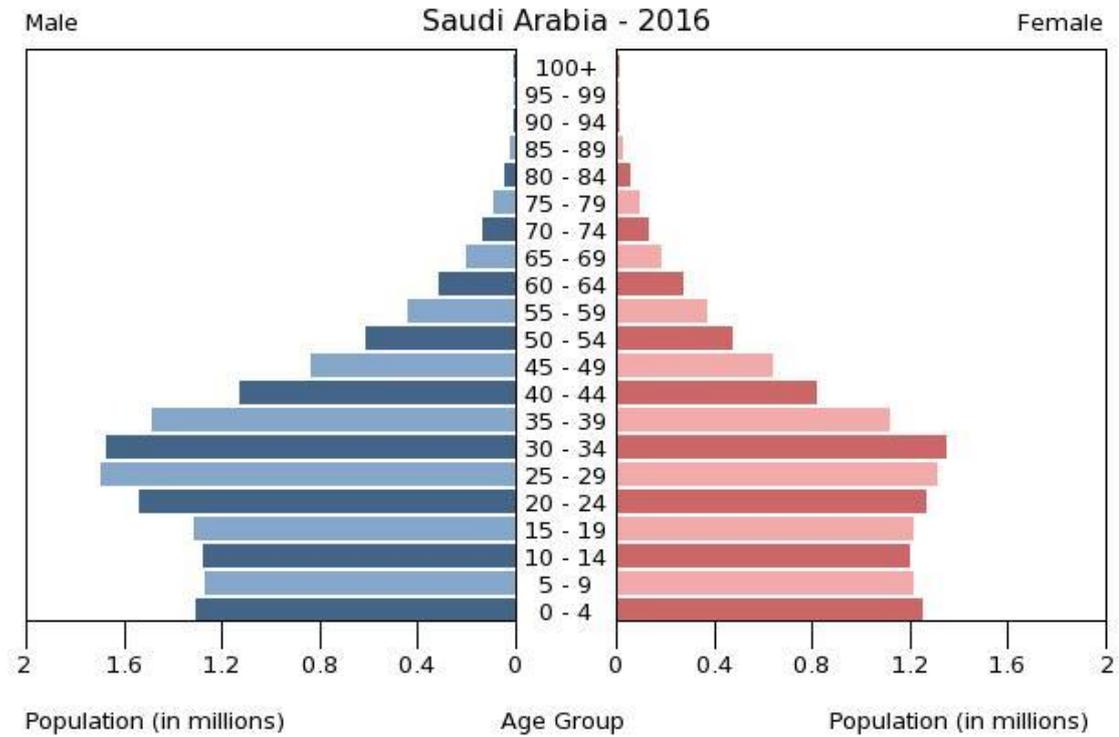
Source: Central Intelligence Agency, 2017.

Figure 2. OPEC Crude Oil Reserves for the Year 2016

OPEC proven crude oil reserves , at end 2016 *(billion barrels, OPEC share)*

Venezuela	302.25	24.8%	Kuwait	101.50	8.3%	Qatar	25.24	2.1%	Gabon	2.00	0.2%
Saudi Arabia	266.21	21.9%	United Arab Emirates	97.80	8.0%	Algeria	12.20	1.0%
IR Iran	157.20	12.9%	Libya	48.36	4.0%	Angola	9.52	0.8%
Iraq	148.77	12.2%	Nigeria	37.45	3.1%	Ecuador	8.27	0.7%

Source: OPEC Annual Statistical Bulletin 2017.

Theoretically, all members of the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries should have a good welfare and prospered life as compared to other

countries which have to depend on industrial income. However, some of these countries due to political reasons are left behind and the treasure they have seems to be a damn on its people. Regardless of this issue, the KSA is an example of where the life of comfort is to be claimed and looked upon enviously—though this look decreases when being compared to other neighbouring countries (e.g. Qatar, UAE). According the above figure, the KSA is ranked as the second in regard to crude oil reserves in 2016 (OPEC, 2017). Is the kind of life and higher education quality match this plus point? Is it the best level they have reached? Is the budget allocated for education in general and higher education in particular fair enough as compared to allocated budgets for other areas? This is what goes beyond the objectives of this paper, but we expect that it is not among the highest budgets as compared to other sectors, especially, army (See Krieger, 2007) for either the overuse or underuse of budget for education in the KSA. Considering its importance among the OPEC, this has qualified the KSA to be among the 20 GDP countries (Statistics Times, 2017)—making another plus that could be used to implement a comprehensive yet significant development on the country. Not just this, the country is expected to jump from nearly 19 to 16 by 2030. Would higher education jump too!

Table 1. Indicators and Ranking for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia among the Arab and World Countries

Indicator	Among Arab Countries	Among World Countries
Ease of doing businesses	1	22
Global competitiveness	3	20
Institutions	4	20
Infrastructure	4	31
Macroeconomic environment	2	4
Property rights	5	27
Health and primary education	5	53
Higher education and training	3	48
Goods market efficiency	4	27
Financial market development	3	27
Technological readiness	3	41
Market Size	1	23
Business sophistication	3	28
Innovation	3	30

Source: Council of Saudi Chambers, 2017.

Another interesting thing is the reported statistics within the Website of the Council of Saudi Chambers (CSC). As the above table shows, the KSA is given high ranks be it among the 22 Arab countries or among the world countries. For instance, it is reported to have the third rank in higher education and training among the Arab counties and 46 among the world countries. These ranks seem to be attractive in both levels but they do not seem to be so when being weighed to the high income of the country.

Having presented a number of the pluses of the country, now let's get closer to higher education system in the KSA. In a country like the KSA, education policies are classified into general and specific ones. While the former refers to [strict] ones that are usually untouchable, unarguable, and nearly an amendable, the latter refers to the real education policy that will specify educational matters (See Elyas & Al-Sadi, 2013) for the effect of politics, economy and social structure on education in the KSA).

Diagram 2. General Education Polices in the KSA
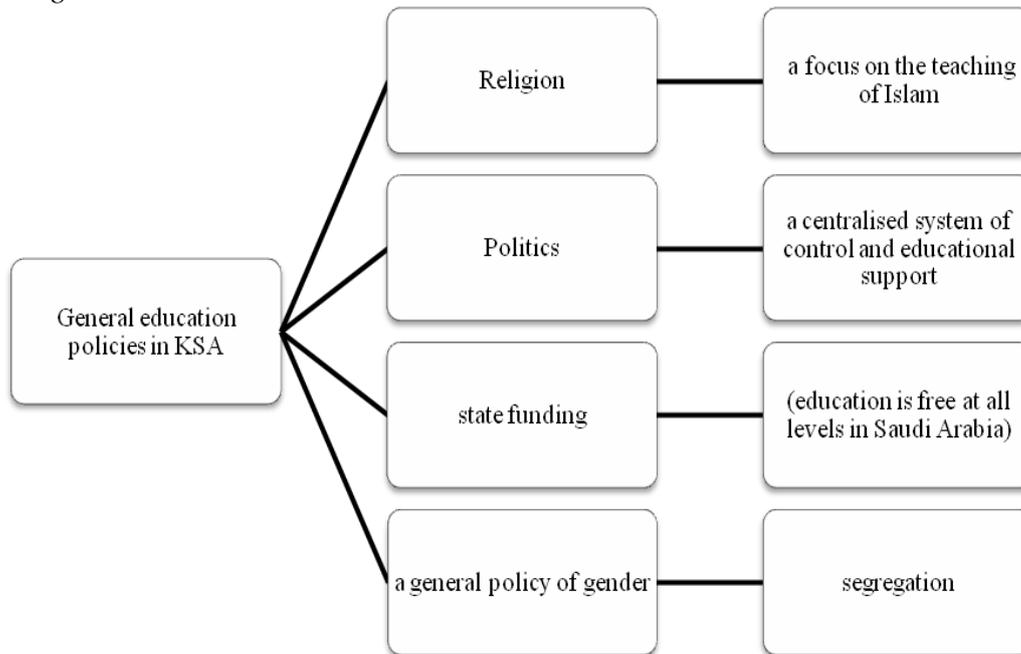
The above diagram (Ministry of Education & and Ministry of Higher Education, 2008; Smith & Muḥammad, 2013) illustrates the general education polices in the KSA which is classified into two major types: political ones and religious ones. Each of these is further divided into two types. Since the government provides free education for all and one that is even funded for those who do not have jobs (providing them with living costs and accommodation), so in return it is a centralised educational system. As for the other side, Islam must be taught intensively be it in school or in the university and students must be always coerced with Islamic courses in addition to the segregation of female and male students in nearly all places of education with the exception of health and medical faculties and colleges (for further discussion of the politics of education in the KSA, see Prokop, 2003). We should also note here that, first, the KSA established the Ministry of Education in 1954 including higher education, then the Ministry of Higher Education was established in 1975 to be merged again with the Ministry of Education in 2016 with the announcement of Vision 2030 (Sack, Jalloun, Zaman, & Alenazi, 2016), (see also Alkhazim, 2003), for more details about the the administration of higher education in the Kingdom until 2003.

Figure 3. Saudi Arabia Population for 10 years and over by Educational Status
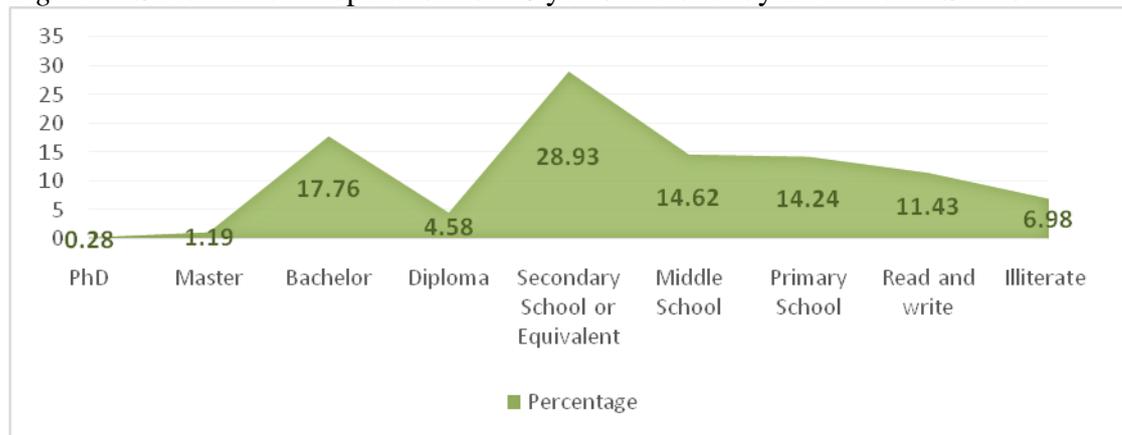
Source: General Authority for Statistics, 2016.

With all the above listed pluses, the KSA still have some problems when looking at the above figure—showing the distribution of the population according to educational indicators. There is still over 6% who are reported as illiterate and around 12% who don't have any qualification. Moreover, the PhD holders are under 0.30% and the same thing for master holders the percentage of which does not even reach 1.5%. This seems to be so contradictive with a country being ranked among the top ones internationally in sending their students to study abroad (See Hamdan, 2015) for more reading about teaching and learning in the KSA).

Figure 4. A Sample for the Types of Higher Education Institutes in the KSA, 2000-2001
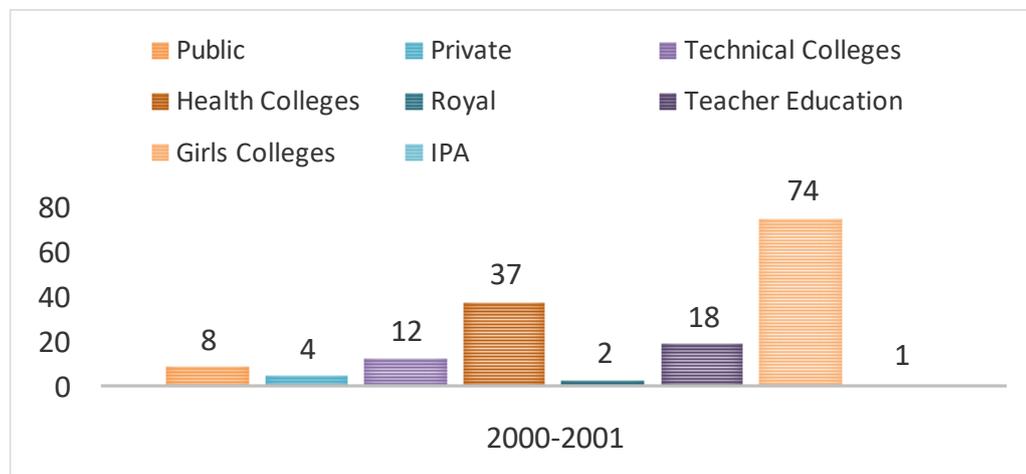
Higher education system in the KSA has various types of institutions (Ministry of Education, 2017b). As it can be seen not only public and private institutions, but also other verities that consider the general and the specific education policies mentioned earlier. For instance, to fulfil the segregation policy, girls' colleges are given a different type. To fulfil the professional needs, colleges like technical, IPA (The Institute of Public Administration), health, royal and

teacher education are given different institutions different from the academic and research institutions (For more details about the educational system in the KSA, see Clark, 2014; Saha, 2015).

Figure 5. Number of Universities in Saudi Arabia 1980-Present
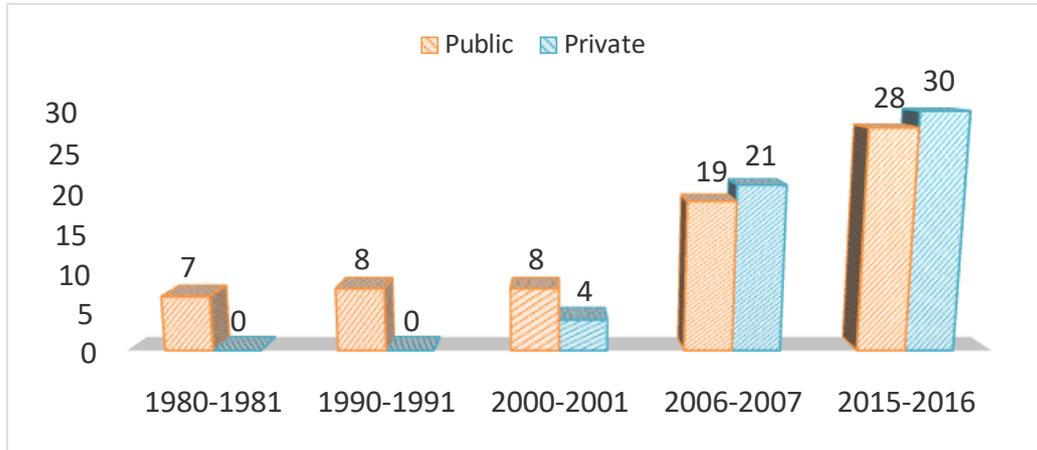

Figure 7 (Ministry of Education, 2017b) shows comparatively the number of both public and private higher education institutions in the KSA between 1980 and 2016. The number of universities is shown in every 10 years to measure the possible differences within decades. As is shown, the number of the public universities remained nearly the same between 1980-2000 (i.e. 7-8 universities). More interestingly, the number of the private universities remained zero until 2000 where only four private institutions are reported. However, the number of both public and private universities has significantly increased between 2006-2016 to double four times for the public universities and about eight times for the private ones.

Method

Sample

Our purpose in this paper is to examine the impact of international ranking of higher education institutions on higher education in the KSA. On the basis of this, our study population is the higher education institutes in the KSA. The sampling frame of this study would be the official websites of the international ranking. These included five international rankings (see the given diagram below). The sample of this study is the listed Saudi higher education institutions listed in any of the five type of rankings mentioned in the sampling frame.

Diagram 3. Sampling Framework

| Webometrics Ranking of World Universities |
| *Academic Ranking of World Universities* |
| *QS World University Rankings* |
| *Times Higher Education World University Rankings* |
| CWTS Leiden Ranking |

Measures

Since this study did not have any direct contact with the targeted sampling, *unobtrusive measures* were used in the study. In other words, *secondary analysis* of data retrieved from the official websites of the international rankings of higher education institutions was the main measure of this study. The retrieved data is evaluated in relation to *census bureau data* and official higher education policies issued by the education authorities in the KSA.

Having done that, then the researcher proposed a new measure for ranking the higher education institutions. This measure called [*Ranked-based Ranking Model*]. A detailed description of this proposed measure is given in the discussion section.

Design

A non-experimental design was used in this study. In notational form, it can be depicted as:

C X O_1 O_2

where:

C= assignment by cutoff of the last year(s) rankings (2016, 2017 and 2018) according to the availability of the data during the study carrying out
X= higher education reform in the KSA
O_1= the unobtrusive measure (i.e., five types of rankings)
O_2= the researcher's proposed Ranked-based Ranking

The main assumption of this design is that the higher education reform in the KSA was motivated by the internal rankings and the international ranking was part of the higher education reform in the KSA. It is a paradoxical structure where we assume that the international ranking has led to higher education reform in the KSA and higher education reform has resulted into international ranking inclusion of the Saudi higher education institutions.

Procedure

The data is collected from the official websites of the five rankings and the University Rankings Website. However, there are some issues that are worth considering. These will be clarified in the following table. While we can realise

that the study's internal validity is clearly affected by the time, we assume that our concern was to produce a final ranking list based on the assignment by cutoff data. In each of the below given rankings, two steps were followed: searching for Saudi Arabia and then checking the given list of the universities. It should be also noted, that our search was not restricted to the given below periods, we even checked the starting times for the inclusion of any Saudi higher education institution as this was included in our analysis and discussion sections. However, the main data for the analysis and the produced yet proposed ranked-based ranking is mainly based on the data for the last editions of the rankings (2016 and after).

Table 2. Time Periods for the Included Data

Ranking Name	General Study Data			Ranked-based Ranking Data
Webometrics	2017 edition	January edition		July Edition, 2017
		July Edition		
Shanghai	2016			2017
QS	2016	2017	2018	2018
THE	2016			2016
Leiden	2016		2017	2017

Having retrieved that data from the above websites, then it was analysed using descriptive statistical tools to produce figures for included Saudi higher education institutions (i.e. Excel version 2016). The rankings are compared within time whenever possible. For instance, in the case of the Webometrics, the two editions for the year 2017 are presented comparatively. For the Shanghai ranking, the rankings for each university are presented comparatively since the first listing time until the last edition. As for the QS ranking, the results are introduced in contrast for three years (2016, 2017 and 2018). Similarly, for the Leiden ranking, the results for the years (2016 and 2017) are compared too. The THE is the only ranking where only the data for one year is presented and compared among the universities other than within each university according to the year. The data analysis was concluded with the next step leading to the proposed model: ranked-based ranking. The description of this analysis is detailed in the discussion's section.

Results

Five international higher education institutions rankings are presented below—showing the recent ranks of higher education institutions in the KSA. First, a brief introduction about each ranking will be accounted for, then the recent ranking for the higher education institutions in the KSA is presented. It should be noted that some of the ranking types show the ranks at the local level, regional level, continental level or field level—which will not be shown here. In other words, only the international rankings will be shown.

Table 3. Types of International Rankings

Name	Full Name	Publisher		Location	Country	Date	Frequency
Shanghai Ranking	Academic Ranking of World Universities	Shanghai Jiao Tong University	2003-8	Shanghai	China	2003	Annual
		Shanghai Ranking Consultancy	2009-Present				
QS Rankings	QS World University Rankings	Quacquarelli Symonds Limited & Times Higher Education	2004-2009		UK	2004	Annual
		Quacquarelli Symonds Limited	2010-Present				
Webometrics Ranking	Webometrics Ranking of World Universities	Spanish National Research Council		Madrid	Spain	2004	Biannual
Leiden Ranking	CWTS Leiden Ranking	Centre for Science and Technology Studies, Leiden University			Netherlands	2007	Annual
Times Higher Education	Times Higher Education World University Rankings	Times Higher Education			UK	2010	Annual

Source: The-State-Secretariat-for-Education-Research-and-Innovation-(SERI)-and-Swiss Universities, 2017.

Table 4. Ranking Criteria for the Five Rankings

Ranking name	Criterion	Indicator		Weight	
Academic Ranking of World Universities	Quality of Education	Alumni Noble Prize and Medals		10	
	Quality of Staff	Noble Prize and Medals		20	
		Intensive citation		20	
	Research Output	Nature and Science publications		20	
		ISI publications		20	
	Size of the Institution	Staff number		10	
Webometrics Ranking of World Universities	Size/number of pages	Presence	Google	5	
	Number of external networks	Visibility	Ahrefs Majestics	50	
	Number of citations	Transparency or openness	Google Scholar Citations	10	
	Number of citation among the top 10%	Excellence or scholar	Scimago	35	
QS World University Rankings	Academic peer review	Survey		2004	2005-
				50	40

	Employer review	Survey		10
	Citations per faculty	Citation rate	ISI	20
			Scopus	
	Faculty student ratio	Number of students per teacher		20
	International students	Number of foreign students		5
	International faculty	Number of foreign researchers and professors		5
Times Higher Education World University Rankings	Citations	ISI		30
	Teaching	Income per academic		30
		Reputational survey – teaching		
		PhD awards per academic		
		PhD awards / bachelor's awards		
		Undergraduates admitted per academic		
	Research	Papers academic and research staff		30
		Research income (scaled)		
		Reputation survey – research		
	International students and staff	Domestic and international students ratio		7.5
		Domestic and international staff ratio		
		Internationally co-authored papers		
	Industry income innovation	Research income per an academic staff		2.5
CWTS Leiden Ranking	Largest number of publications (P)	Co-authored by two or more organisations		
		Co-authored by two or more countries		
		Co-authored by two or more industrial partners		
		Co-authored with two or more [organisations] within a distance of less than 100 km		
		Co-authored with two or more [organisations] within a distance of more than 1000 km		
	Mean citation score (MCS)	Research output		
	Mesn normalised citation score (MNCS)	Research output		
	Proportion of top 10% publications. (PP Top 10%)	Top research output		

Source: The-State-Secretariat-for-Education-Research-and-Innovation-(SERI)-and-Swiss Universities, 2017.

Figure 6. Webometrics Ranking of Saudi Higher Education Institutions in different Years
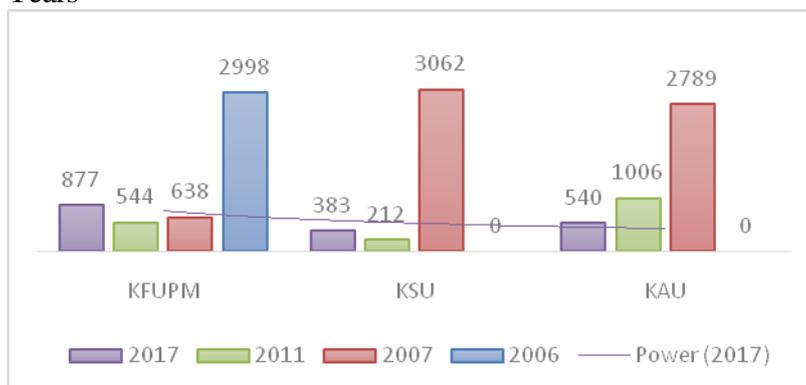

Source: Spanish-National-Research-Council, 2017.

One of the first steps and the shortest ways [maybe] to initiate and motivate the inclusion of Saudi higher education institutions among the international ones was through the Webometrics. As a matter of fact and as shown in the discussion section, this type of ranking was a major factor—raising doubts about higher education quality in the KSA. Since and as shown in the above table, this ranking type is completely based on the evaluation of the higher education institute's website, universities especially the major ones (e.g. King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University, King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals, etc.)—pushed their staff and administrative teams forward to make all their academic efforts and provided services pubic toward building comprehensive university websites. This has resulted into a significant jump yet inclusion of several Saudi higher education institutions among the top higher education institutions.

However, this highly motivating jump seems to decrease when looking at the ranking of the Saudi higher education institutions in 2017 (January and July versions). The below figure illustrates the number of the included institutions and how some of them have been ranked lower than they were in the previous rankings.

According to this diagram (Spanish-National-Research-Council, 2017), the highest rank is (383) for KSU which was ranked (212) in 2011. By this means, only one Saudi higher education institution is listed among the best 500 institutions and only 4 among the top 1000—with lower ranks except for KAU which jumped significantly higher as taking the rank (540) in 2017 as compared to (1006) in 2011. The main reason behind this regression is seemingly unpredictable. However, two or more assumptions are possible. First, the Saudi higher education institutions are going back because they are manifesting internal affairs hurdling the progress and continuity to either keep their current positions or levelling them up. Second, other international higher education institutions are working significantly harder to excel yet be positioned above those in the KSA.

Diagram 4. Webometrics Ranking for Higher Education Institutions in the KSA in 2017 January and July Editions
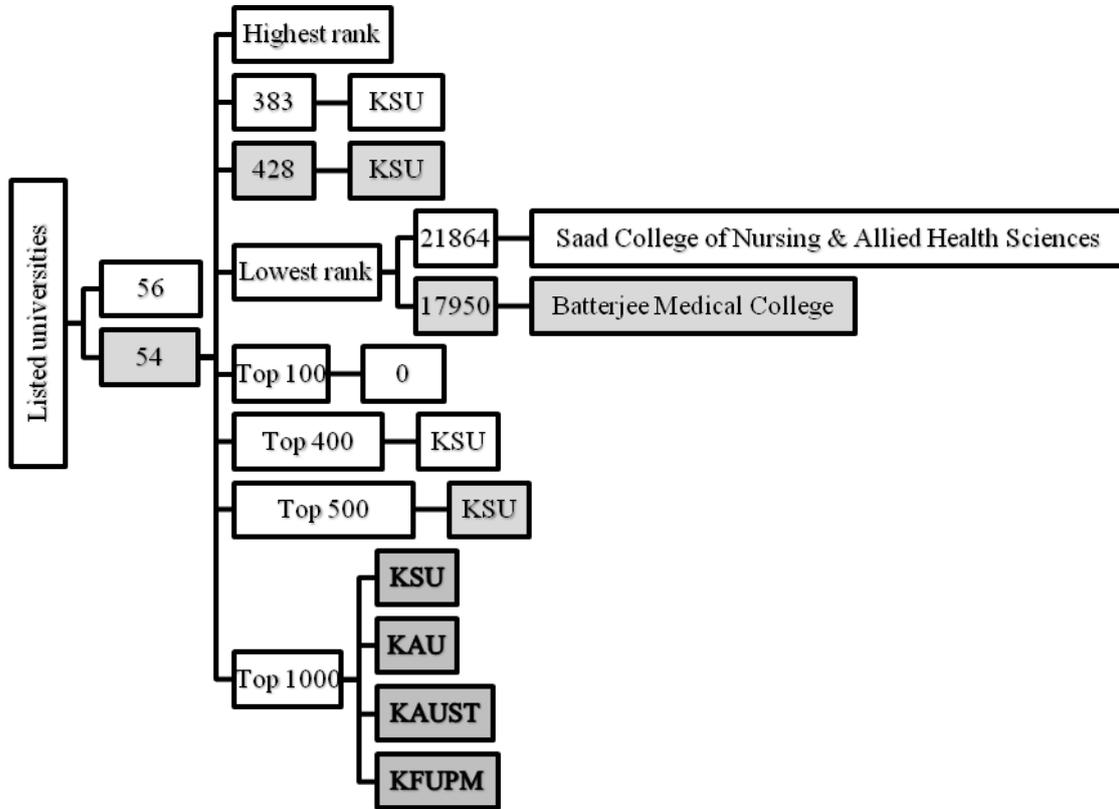
To be included in the other international rankings (e.g. Shanghai Ranking) is clearly harder than that of the Webometrics. It should be noted that both use different criteria for ranking but we can also claim the Webometrics is different from all other rankings as it is totally internet-based (assessing the content and the impact of the institution's website) as compared to other rankings (see tables above). While the first appearance of the the Saudi higher education institution in the Webometrics was in 2006, the first appearance for them in the Shanghai ranking was in 2009. The following diagrams show the listed Saudi higher education institutions until the last list (2017).

KSU which is the first established higher education institution in the KSA (Alamri, 2011) was also the first included university in the Shanghai ranking. As the figure shows, KSU has been significantly improving since 2009 taking higher positions to reach (101-150) in 2016 and 2017. Would there be chances to have the [Harvard of the Arab World and the Middle East] as some call it (Krieger, 2007)—among the the top 100 and [maybe] 50? This is what will be predictable when further editions are published.

Figure 7. King Saud University
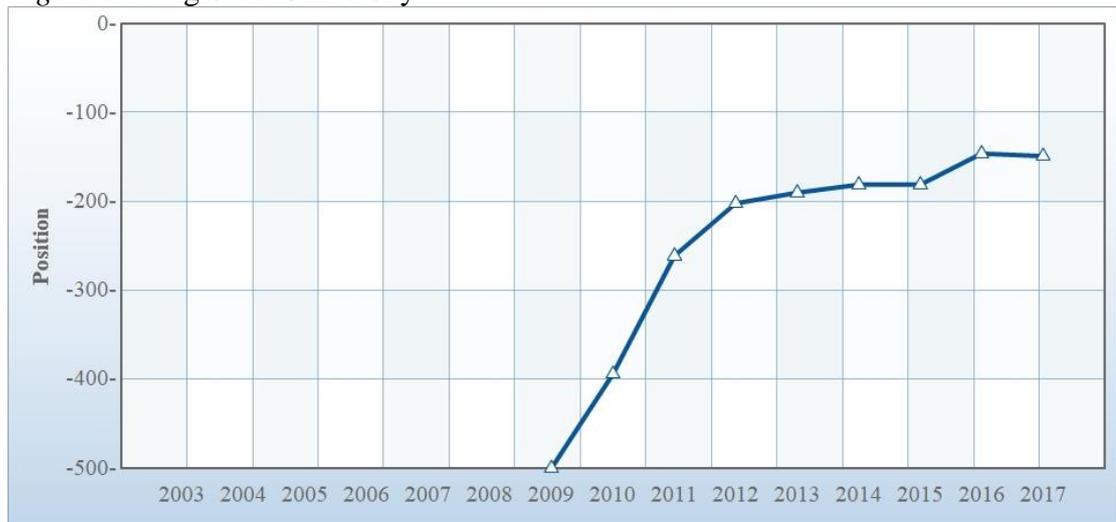
Figure 8. King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals
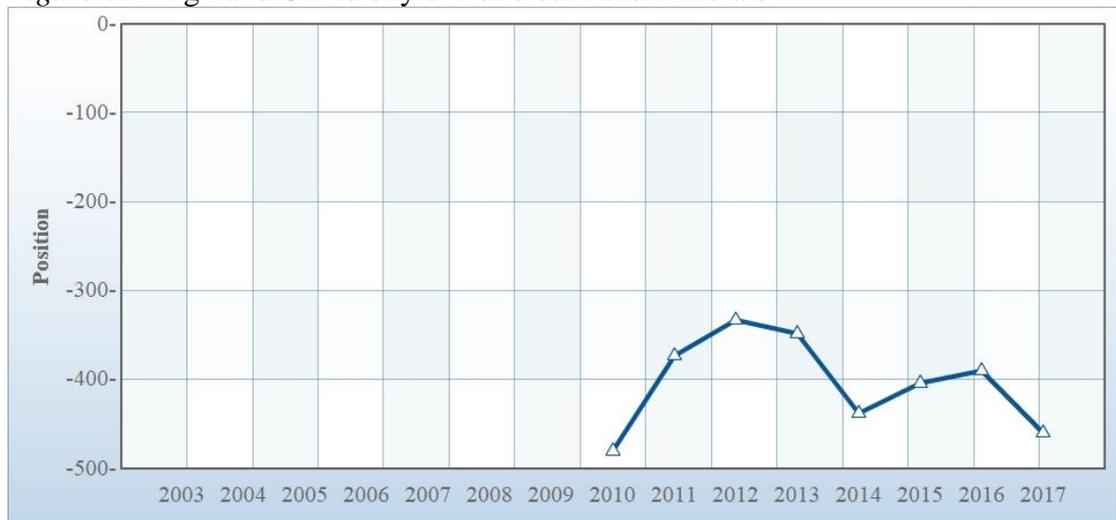
KFUPM which was the only listed university in the Webometrics in 2006 and which was one of the major reasons behind the higher education reform in the KSA, took the second lead to be the second listed university in the Shanghai ranking in 2010 after the appearance of KSU in 2009. Unlike KSU which has shown a significant progress since 2009, KFUPM has shown different fluctuations in rankings. It kept going up among (401-500) and (301-400) until 2014 where it went back to where it has started (401-500)—to back up again to (301-400) in 2016 and 2017. Thus, KFUPM reached its peak in 2012.

Figure 9. King Abdulaziz University

KAU which has the second top rank 2017 is also among the leading higher education institutes in the KSA. It is clear that it took this institution longer time since the education reform in 2006 to be included in the Shanghai ranking. As the figure shows, the first inclusion for this university was in 2012. Therefore, like KSU and even exceeding the KSU, KAU has been achieving higher rankings since 2010 to reach (101-150) with a closer indication to 101. Besides, while KSU and KFUPM have started from (401-500), KAU has started with the rank (301-400)—jumping to (201-300) in the next year and (151-200) in the year after. Not only this, in the next years (2016 and 2017), it went up to exceed even KSU (101-150).

*Figure 10.* King Abdullah University of Science and Technology

The unique Saudi higher education institution which was established in the [Golden Age] of the Kingdom in 2009 is also a remarkable output of the higher education reform in the KSA. Although the university is only 8 years old compared to older Saudi higher education institutions—have not been included (e.g. King Khalid University in 1998, King Faisal University in 1975), it was ranked immediately after 4 years of its establishment. And it has been going up to reach its peak in 2017 (201-300).

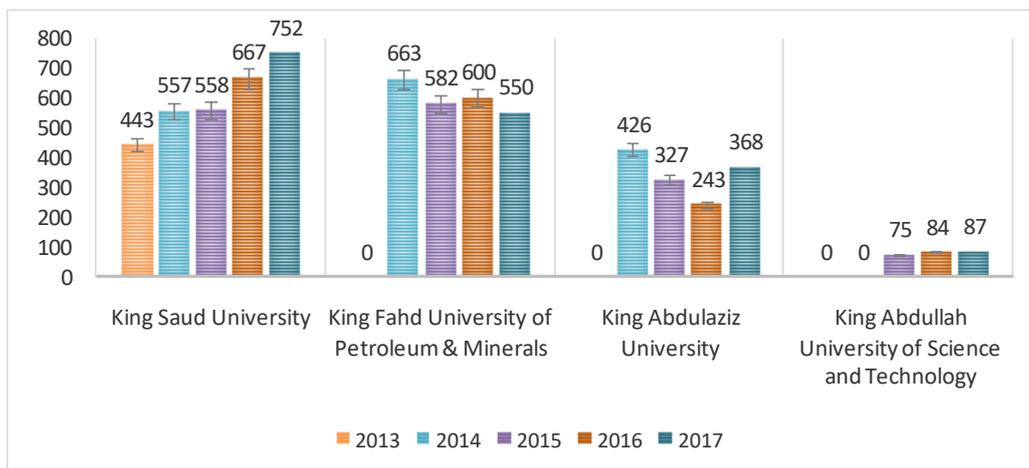*Figure 11.* QS Ranking for Higher Education Institutions in the KSA
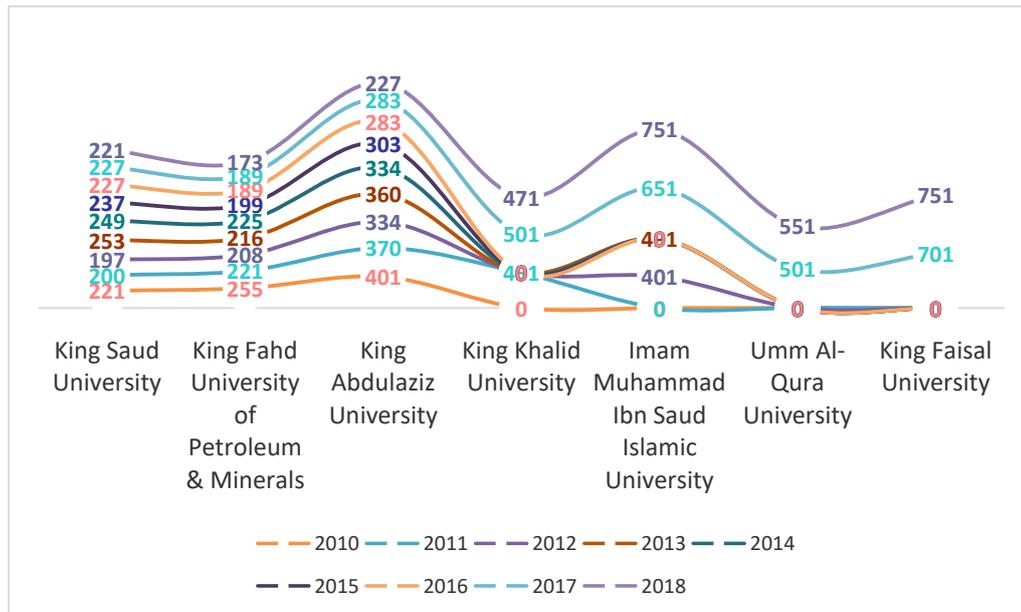
The inclusion of a number of the Saudi higher education institutions—first in the Webometrics and then the Shanghai ranking—have encouraged yet put the Saudi higher education institutions in the positions of qualifying for other rankings like the QS Ranking. The above figure, according to (Quacquarelli-Symonds-Limited, 2017) illustrates the listed institutions between 2010 and 2018. Unlike the other rankings, in this type of ranking, four different Saudi institutions are listed in addition to the three major ones: KSU, KFUPM and KAU. Besides, KAUST have never appeared in the QS Ranking. As it can been seen only the three major universities have been being listed frequently since 2010. In other words, Imam Islamic University appeared only in 2012 and 2013—dropped out to come back again in 2017 and 2018 with significantly lower rankings between (701-800) as compared to earlier ones between (401-500). Similarly, King Khalid University was first listed in 2011 to disappear until 2017 and 2018—appearing again with lower rankings again—behind 471 and behind 501 later as compared behind 451 in 2011. By all means, we can see that the highest ranking achieved by the Saudi higher education institutions were among the top 200 universities with first highest for KFUPM as (173) in 2018 and the second highest for KSU as (197) in 2012. On the contrary, the lowest rank among the seven included institutions has been behind (751) in 2018 for Imam Islamic University and KFU.

*Figure 12.*Times Higher Education Ranking for Higher Education Institution in KSA
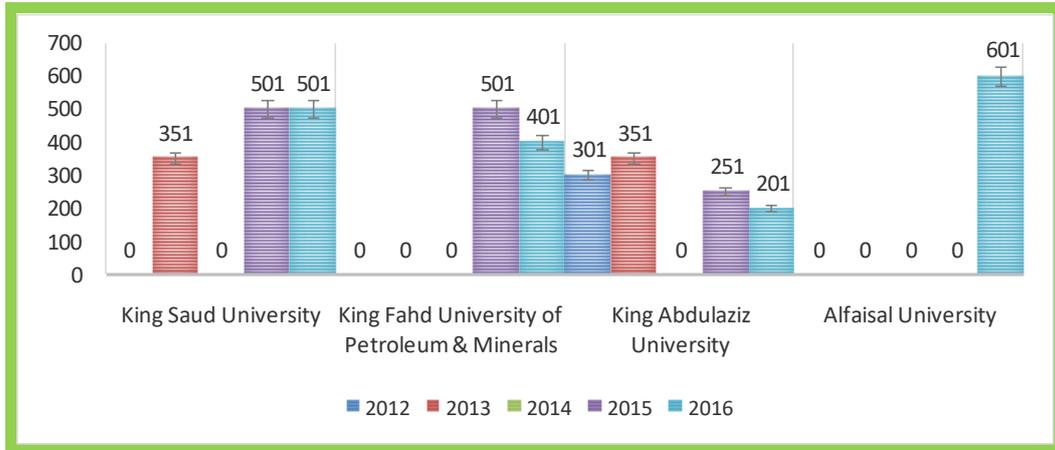
The Time Higher Education has started in 2010; however, the first inclusion for Saudi higher education institutions was two years later (Time Higher Education, 2017). As is shown, fewer institutions are included in this ranking. For instance, there was only one institution in 2012, namely, KAU (301). More interestingly, like in the QS ranking, KAUST is not listed here too. Once, a new university which has never been listed in any of the above rankings is included, namely, Alfaisal University. We can also notice that the highest rank is (201) achieved by KAU in 2016 as compared to the lowest rank (601) for Alfaisal University in the same year. Above all, in 2014, none of the Saudi higher education institutions was included.

Figure 13. Leiden Ranking (PP Top 10%) for Higher Education Institutions in KSA


Leiden ranking is also another international categorisation and ranking for higher education institutions. The first time for the inclusion of Saudi higher education institutes took place in 2013 (Centrum-voor-Wetenschap-en-Technologische-Studies, 2013), though only one university was included among

the top 500 (443). In the next year, the number of the included universities increased to three and to four in the year after. However, in 2015 the increase was significant where KAUST appeared for the first time yet among the top 100 (75). As is shown, the highest ranks in general have been achieved by KAUST with the highest as (75) in 2015. On the other hand, the lowest was achieved by KSU as (752) in 2017. Surprisingly, KSU's rank, which was the first and only included university in 2013, has been strongly decreasing to reach its weakest in 2017 as (752) as compared to (443) in 2013. The same situation applies to KAUST though the decrease is weak (starting with 75 in 2015, going down to 84 in 2016 and then decreasing again into 87 in 2017). The strongest part in this ranking seems to be occupied by KAU which kept strongly increasing between 2014 and 2016 to go down in 2017—yet the achieved rank still positive as it is significantly higher than that achieved in the first time (368) as compared to (426) in 2014.

Discussion

Higher education reform in the KSA was largely motivated by the results of the international ranking of higher education institutions, mainly the Webometrics. The reputation of the KSA with all the pluses we mentioned above have raised many questions about the low quality of the educational system. This had led to launching one the very productive reform programmes [in the golden age of the Kingdom] named after the King at that time (King Abdullah Project for General Education Development).

Diagram 5. Primary Reasons for Higher Education Reform in the KSA (based on readings in)
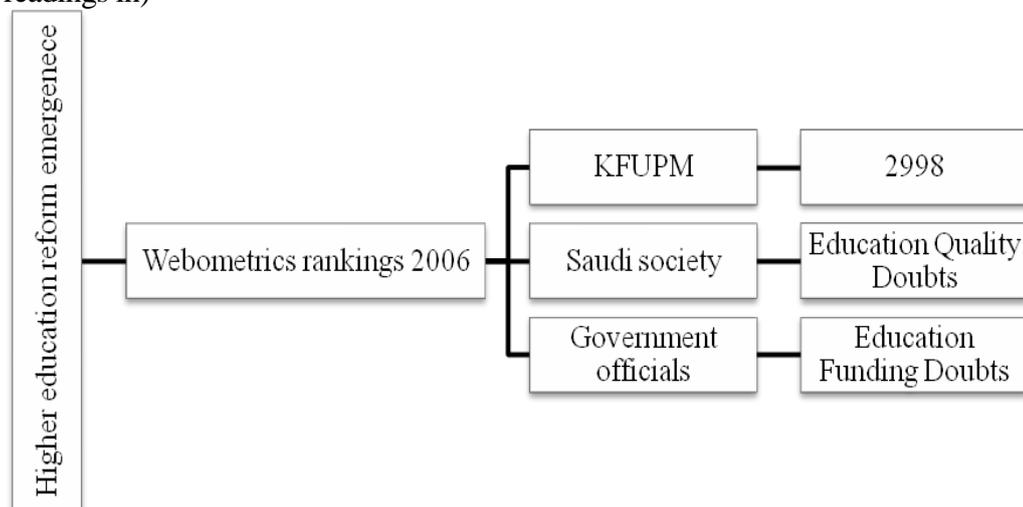
Source: Smith & Muhammad, 2013.

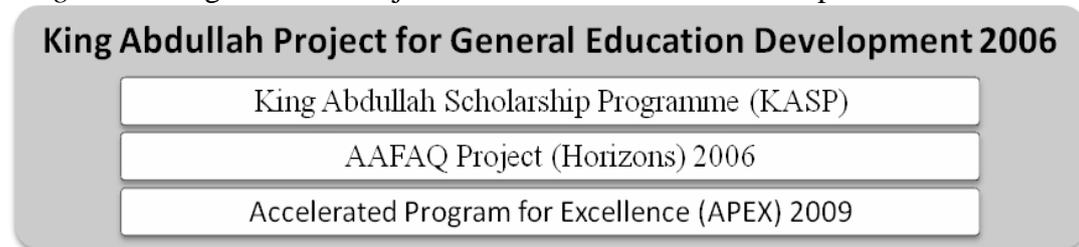*Diagram 6.* Budget Distribution for King Abdullah Project for General Education Development 2006

| Budget |
| •SR11.8 billion (US$3.1 billion) |

| public education |
| •SR4.2 billion (US$1.12 billion) |

| extra-curricular activities |
| •SR3.58 billion (US$954.6 million) |

| to train male and female teachers |
| •SR2.943 billion (US$784.8 million) |

| The curriculum development program |
| •SR980 million (US$261.3 million) |
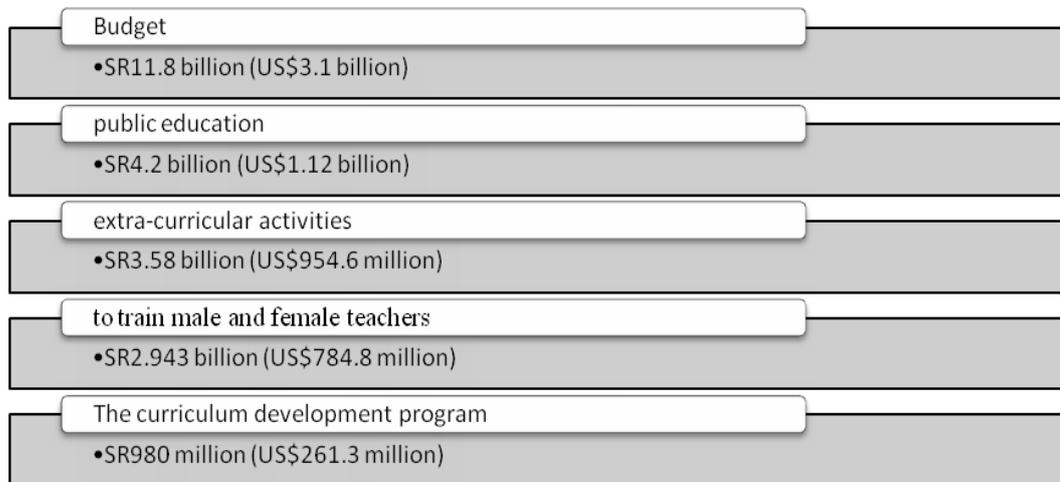
Source: Smith & Muhammad, 2013.

The above diagram shows the distribution of the budget among the different educational sectors and required reforms. As is seen, not only education was targeted but applied education (i.e. extra curricula activities, training or re-qualification of teachers and curriculum development).

Diagram 7. King Abdullah Project for General Education Development 2006

King Abdullah Project for General Education Development 2006

| King Abdullah Scholarship Programme (KASP) |
| AAFAQ Project (Horizons) 2006 |
| Accelerated Program for Excellence (APEX) 2009 |

Source: Smith & Muhammad, 2013.

This reform programme was for all education sectors; however, there was an emphasis on higher education as well. The above diagram lists the three main programmes that targeted higher education. The second and the third ones in particular are directly related to the impact of the international ranking and among their objectives the inclusion of the Saudi higher education institutions among the internationally ranked institutions.

Diagram 8. Classification of Higher Education Institutions in the KSA

Comprehensive universities with a research focus	King Saud University
	King Abdulaziz University
Specialised universities with research focus	King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals
	King Khalid University
Specialised universities	Imam Muhammad bin Saud University
	King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University for Medical Sciences
Teaching universities	Princess Noura Bint Abdul Rahman University
	Dammam University

Source: Smith & Muhammad, 2013.

Among the immediate reforms that took place for higher education institutions was to classify them into different types. As it can be seen in the above diagram, the universities have been classified into four types. This classification has made it easy to step forward and urge the steps to have a number of these institutions listed among the internationally ranked higher education institutes.

We have presented earlier the five types of international rankings and showed the differences in the criteria used by each one of them. Based on this, we think that a verified ranking of the available ranking of the universities based on these five types is possible. Generally speaking, in order, for a university to be included in this re-ranking, it has to be listed in at least one of these five international rankings regardless of its rank. Having this basic inclusion requirement, then there are four criteria that will be used to decide on the ranks of the ranked universities. These criteria include: to be listed regardless of the rank, to be among the best 500, to be among the best 200 and to be among the best 150. In each criterion, a particular institutions is given either plus (+) or (-). These symbols are then converted into points where the former equals (5) points and the latter-equals (0). The last step will be to calculate the total points for each institution, in each type of ranking the highest is 20 and the lowest is zero. These totals are then calculated out of 100 (5 types of rankings 5x20=100, 4 criteria used for all 4x5=20x5=100).

*Table 5.*Detailed Proposed Ranking-Based Ranking of the Higher Education Institutions in the KSA

| Criteria for each ranking		Any rank				≤500				≤200								≤150				Total
University	Ranking	Webometrics				Shanghai				QS				THE				Leiden				**Total**
King Saud University		+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	**50**
King Abdulaziz University		+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	**55**
King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals		+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	**45**
King Abdullah University of Science and Technology		+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	**35**
King Khalid University		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**15**
King Fiasal University		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**10**
Imam Muammad Ibn Saud Islamic University		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**10**
Umm Al-Qura University		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**10**
Alfaisal University		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	**10**
Other listed institutions in only the Webometrics*		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**5**

*There are 56 universities in January edition and 54 in July edition 2017 in the Webometrics

Having obtained the final points as shown in the last column, then each institution is given a new rank (numerical) and a grade (descriptive). The basic step for this step of ranking is that the universities will be given stars—a star for each 10 points. For instance, the total score for KAU is 55—qualifying to have 5 stars which is the maximum. On the other hand, KKU, for example has got the total score of 15—qualifying to take only one star. Again, the other universities which are listed only in the Webometrics, yet did fulfil the other criteria even within the same ranking, have got only 5 points—disqualifying them even to get a single star!

Having assigned stars for each listed institution, then the grades are given either (Golden, Silver, Bronze or only star(s)). The requirements for each grade is based on the achieved number of stars: 5 stars for the golden rank, 4 stars for the silver rank, 3 stars for the bronze rank, and the institutions which achieve less than 3 stars are ranked only with stars. This is clarified further in in the given figure below.

Figure 14. Ranking-based Ranking of the Higher Education Institutes in the KSA
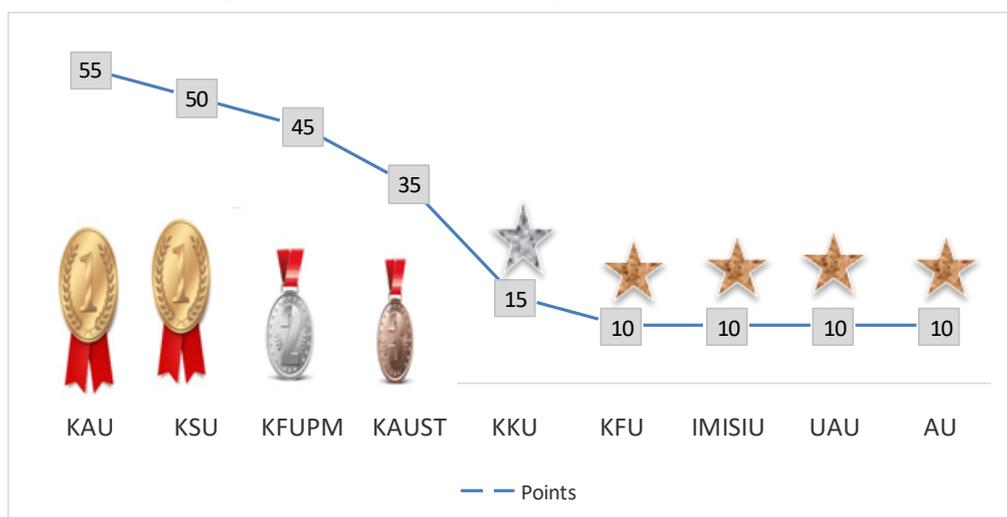
The above figure shows the final re-ranking for ranked Saudi higher education institutions. As it can be seen, there are three categories for these universities: universities ranked with medals, universities with sliver stars and universities with bronze stars. There were two universities which achieved 5 stars—qualifying them to have the golden medal. Yet, since KAU has got higher points—5 points above KSU, so it stands as the first followed by KSU as the second best higher education institution in the KSA according to our ranking. KFUPM has achieved the third rank assigned to the silver medal. KAUST has achieved the fourth rank and assigned with the bronze medal. All the other institutions have not archived three stars—disqualifying them from being assigned to any of the three medals. Instead, one of them is assigned to a silver star (i.e. KKU) and all the other are assigned to a bronze star. To be assigned to the golden star, a university should have ≥20 points. As for the other institutions which are not shown in this figure, none of them has met the requirements, that is,

at least having 10 points to be assigned to a star. Each one of them has achieved only 5 points for being included in the Webometrics Ranking and by itself does not give them any credibility to be listed among the re-ranked universities in the KSA.

Diagram 9. Vision 2030 and Higher Education in the KSA
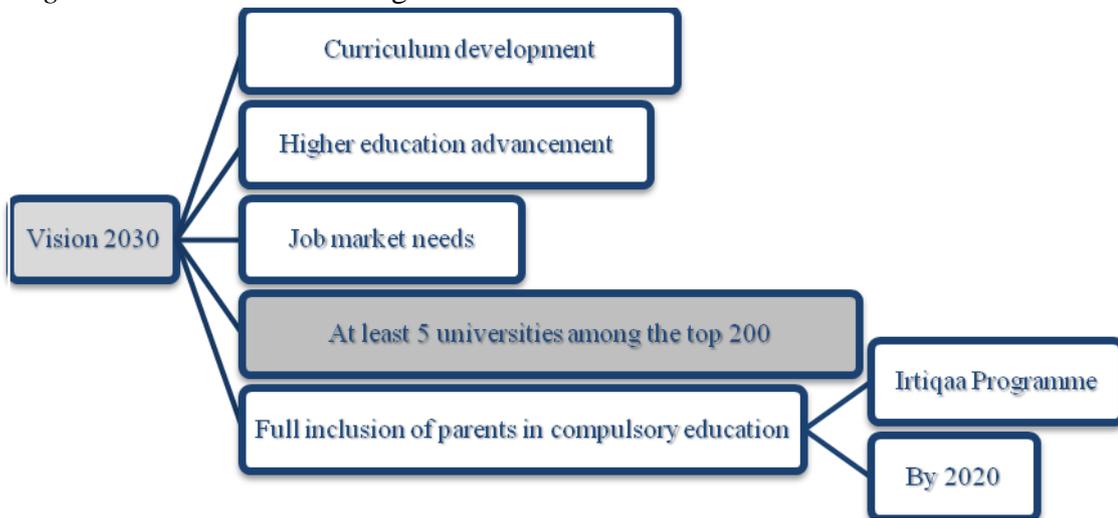
With the above objectives within the recently issued general development plan for the KSA (Saudi-Vision-2030, 2016), the above diagram illustrates that at least five universities should be among the top 200. When referring to the original website, it states many times the development of higher education and increasing the rank of higher education institutions in the country. However, there is no specification what are the advancements that will be added. Similarly yet considering the five types of ranking, it is not mentioned clearly where it is intended to have five universities among the top 200. We have illustrated in the results and discussion sections how the differences could be significant in terms of listing top universities among these five types of ranking.

When looking at the rankings, it seems to be a reasonable objective to have five universities among the top 200—taking into considering that there are only two according to Shanghai ranking (KAU and KSU), one according to Leiden ranking (KAUST), one according to QS ranking (KFUPM) and none according to the other rankings. Therefore, this reasonability seems to vanish when looking at the period (2030). It seems to be a very long time and minor objective to be realised within this long time span and by a country with all the pluses we have mentioned above in addition to the significant achievements that have taken place until 2016. A more reasonable plan would have been like—proposing major and minor objectives to improve higher education—the proposed model below is an illustration for this:

Diagram 10. Ranking Development Model
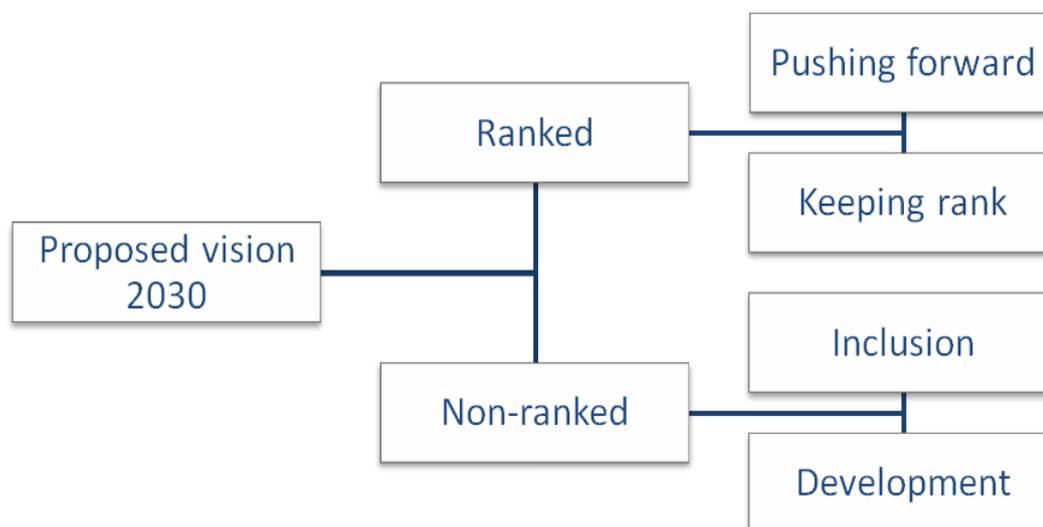
The first step to apply this model is to have a list (e.g. 10 universities should be generally included). The second step should be a detailed description of this inclusion—excluding the general listing of Webometrics where almost many universities would be included (i.e. it should have stronger objectives distinguished from those for the other four types of ranking). The third step would be to have a list of universities that are already included among the the top 500 universities. These should have specific criteria (top up) especially those which are close to the desired rank(s) or are already within the desired rank. For instance, KAU and KSU among the top 150 in Shanghai ranking, KAUST among the top 100 in Leiden ranking, and KFUPM among the top 200 in QS ranking. At the second level, there must be another plan to at least keep the same rank. The second part of the plan is to have new universities included regardless of the rank which will be archived. Having that being done, a comprehensive higher education development will be taking place in the Kingdom. To keep going on with the same plan that took place in King Abdullah's project—seems to be a backward step.

We conclude this section with the point that ranking by itself could be deceptive. In other words, basically a university is included among the best 500/ 400/300/200/100 universities because it has fulfilled the criteria. What happens then! This rank is not still! The university needs to keep improving and competing as other universities can reach the same position and even exceed and that is where the game of ranking or say battle for excellence starts (See Hazelkorn, 2015; Smith & Muhammad, 2013 for more reading about ranking critical issues)!

Conclusions

We conducted a non-experimental study based on both quantitative and qualitative data (unobtrusive measures) with secondary analysis—to measure the impact of international ranking of higher education institutions on higher education reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The data was retrieved from the official websites for five types of ranking (Webometrics, Shanghai ranking, QS, THE and Leiden) and from the Ministry of Education Website, General Authority for Statistics, Council of Saudi Chambers, Vision 2030. King Abdullah Project for General Education Development and Vision 2030 were major variables to measure the impact of international ranking on higher education in the KSA. While the former has been considered as a major achievement in the history of the Kingdom, the latter seems to have very modest objectives and attitudes towards higher education. We also proposed a new ranking system, called—ranked-based ranking where we ranked the ranked Saudi higher education institutions using our proposed ranking system detailed in the discussion section. With this in mind, should the Kingdom want to proceed as being a leading higher education system in the Arab World, yet a competing part of the world in higher education—then challenging yet stronger steps should be taken to step ahead with higher education! Should they really want to be, then this being should be a major objective, other than a shy, general, minor objective!

Limitations

This study has one limitation. In other words, the study has been planned following the *objectivism* approach where we based our results on the public data published by official websites. While we consider our choice as a plus that kept us distanced from any biased analysis or ideas, we also assume that considering the *subjectivism* approach or the *constructionism* one—might had answered some of our concerns about our inferences in regard to the slow progress of higher education in the Kingdom.

Future Research

We did not link our results, conclusions or any included data in this study to any other factors (e.g. political situation of the country, economic situation, social structure, etc.). Given this, future research while considering these factors—different interpretations and inferences might be strongly possible.

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