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The Boston College Center for International Higher Education

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Knowledge Is Not a Product to be Bought or Sold: A South African Perspective

Kader Asmal

Kader Asmal is an ANC National Executive Committee member and Minister of Education.

There can be little argument that knowledge is the wellspring of economic and social development. It is thus imperative for a country like South Africa that its higher education institutions become innovative, high-quality powerhouses of knowledge production and dissemination. To succeed in this endeavor, the reform agenda has to take full cognizance of the need for efficiency, effectiveness, and responsiveness. However, it is possible and indeed necessary to do so without sacrificing social accountability and without subservience to the “market.” A tall order, some might say in light of increasing pressure to commercialize or commodify education.

In a country like South Africa, and especially at this important point in its history, the transformation of higher education has to be seen in the context of the broader reconstruction and development of the country. In particular, it has to respond to the dual challenges of equity and development—that is, to overcome the fragmentation and inequality of the past and to meet current and future development challenges, especially in the context of an increasingly globalizing environment.

An important element of our agenda in higher education is to focus on quality. Only through due attention to quality, including the building of inclusive institutional cultures, can there be meaningful access to higher education especially for those who were denied opportunities in the past. Only through combining access, quality, and success will the system be able to erode the domination of high-level occupations and knowledge production by privileged social groups. Quality improvement must, of course, include attention to the curriculum and to teaching and learning support.

Clearly, no education system exists in isolation. However, an appropriate balance should be struck between global, local, or regional imperatives. In particular, the engagement of South Africa’s higher education system with the global order has to be guided by national objectives. To ignore this is to run the risk of further entrenching the unequal power relations between the developed and developing worlds. This can be illustrated by reference to the proliferation of foreign higher education institutions establishing operational bases in South Africa—either independently or in some cases in partnership with local public and private institutions.

Prior to the promulgation of the 1997 Higher Education Act, there was a policy vacuum with respect to the regulation of private higher education, both local and foreign. This gap was exploited by overseas institutions, especially from countries threatened by declining student numbers and revenue, that set up shop in South Africa. Regrettably, many of these institutions appear to be driven by concerns largely unrelated to human resources development priorities or equity imperatives that are driving change in South Africa.

Fortunately, through the implementation of our policy and legal frameworks, South Africa has been able to ensure the planned development of the private sector in ways that do not threaten the sustainability and integrity of the higher education system as a whole. This is not an attempt to exclude foreign institutions but rather to ensure that those who operate in South Africa do so with due regard to our policy goals and priorities and in ways that meet our national transformation agenda and quality assurance requirements.

We have not allowed increased trade in education to undermine our national efforts to transform higher education and, in particular, to strengthen the public sector so that it can effectively participate in an increasingly globalizing environment. We cannot also countenance the excessive marketization and commodification of higher education, which among other factors can lead to the unfortunate homogenization of academic approaches and to the undermining of institutional cultures and academic values.

No education system exists in isolation. However, an appropriate balance should be struck between global, local, or regional imperatives.

In large measure, this experience has shaped South Africa’s unfolding response to the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)—an accord of the World Trade Organization covering international trade in services that came into force in January 1995. The very designation of education as a service is a fundamental problem if one accepts that education is not a commodity to be bought and sold. As trade and industry minister Alec Erwin has so eloquently stated, “Knowledge is not a commodity and can never be one. Knowledge is the distillation of human endeavor and it is the most profound collective good that there is.” Erwin goes on to argue that the more knowledge is turned

into a commodity and privatized “the more it will either corrode the collective knowledge base or itself corrode as it distances itself from that collective wellspring.”

Education is not merely a value-free instrument for the transfer of skills across national and regional boundaries, as some might like us to believe. On the contrary, education must embrace the intellectual, cultural, political, and social development of individuals, institutions, and nations. This “public good” agenda should not be held hostage to the vagaries of the market.

International “trade” in education services, particularly at the higher education level, has grown significantly in the past period, with increasing numbers of students studying outside their home countries, increased international marketing of academic programs, and the establishment of overseas “branch campuses,” etc.

It should come as no surprise that the movement of students and staff is mainly from South to North, while export of educational services in the form, among others, of educational information, provision, and facilities (e.g., branch campuses) is in the reverse direction.

Education is not merely a value-free instrument for the transfer of skills across national and regional boundaries.

We believe that the internationalization of higher education is better addressed using conventions and agreements outside of a trade policy regime. We will continue to lobby key bodies such as UNESCO to champion this approach. We will also continue to build and strengthen our bilateral and multilateral partnerships.

I hope that the effects of trade liberalization on efforts to internationalize higher education can be minimized. However, of some concern is whether already limited financial resources might increasingly be used for trade-driven activities rather than those that emphasize intellectual and social gains. I am convinced that a fundamental rethinking of the inclusion of education in GATS is needed. We must avoid, at all cost, an approach to GATS that puts our education in peril. Only time will tell whether it is indeed possible to engage with GATS in ways that hold promise for our own agendas and needs.

This is an edited version of a speech presented at a conference on higher education in Bergen, Norway. ■

New Rationales Driving Internationalization

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Given the changes and challenges facing the international dimension of higher education in a more globalized world, the importance of having clearly articulated rationales for internationalization cannot be overstated. Rationales are reflected in the objectives, policies, and programs that are developed and eventually implemented. Rationales dictate the kind of benefits or expected outcomes one would expect from internationalization efforts. Without a clear set of rationales, the process of internationalization is often an ad hoc and fragmented reaction to the overwhelming number of new international opportunities available. The last decade has seen some important and discernible shifts in the rationales driving internationalization.

National Level Rationales

Traditionally, the rationales driving internationalization have been divided into four groups: social/cultural, political, academic, and economic. These generic categories remain a useful way to analyze rationales. However, there are new and emerging rationales that cannot be neatly placed in one of these four groups.

Human Resources Development. The knowledge economy, demographic shifts, mobility of the labor force, and increased trade in services are factors driving nations to place more importance on developing and recruiting human capital or brain power through international education initiatives. There are signs of heightened pressure and interest to recruit the brightest students and scholars from other countries to increase scientific, technological, and economic competitiveness.

Strategic Alliances. The international mobility of students and academics as well as collaborative research and education initiatives are being seen as productive ways to develop closer geopolitical ties and economic relationships. There has been a definite shift from alliances for cultural purposes to those based on economic interests.

Commercial Trade. In the last decade, more emphasis has been placed on economic and income-generating

opportunities. New franchise arrangements, foreign or satellite campuses, on-line delivery, and increased recruitment of fee-paying students are examples of a more commercial approach to internationalization. The fact that education is now one of the 12 service sectors in the General Agreement on Trade in Services is positive proof that importing and exporting education programs and services is a potentially lucrative trade area.

Nation Building. While some countries are interested in the export of education, others are interested in importing education programs and institutions for nation-building purposes. An educated, trained, and knowledgeable citizenry and workforce able to do research and generate new knowledge are key components of a country's nation-building agenda.

While some countries are interested in the export of education, others are interested in importing education programs and institutions for nation-building purposes.

Social and Cultural Development. The social/cultural rationales, especially those that relate to intercultural understanding and national cultural identity are still significant; but perhaps their importance does not carry the same weight in comparison to the economic and political rationales listed above. It is yet to be seen whether, in light of the pressing issues stemming from culturally based clashes within and between countries, there will be more interest and importance attached to the social and cultural rationales.

Institutional-Level Rationales

Of course, a relationship exists between national and institution-based rationales, but not always as close as one would expect. This depends on many factors, one of which is how much the internationalization process is a bottom-up or top-down process within any given country. Again, the four categories of rationales apply to institutions, but it appears that other emerging rationales are of greater consequence.

International Profile and Reputation. Traditionally, prominence has been given to the goal of achieving international academic standards (no matter how they may be defined). This motivation appears, however, to have been subsumed by the overall drive to achieve a strong worldwide reputation or "brand" name as an international

high-quality institution. This drive relates to the quest for name recognition internationally in an attempt to attract the brightest of scholars and students, a substantial number of international students, and high-profile research and training projects.

Student and Staff Development. There seems to be renewed emphasis on internationalization as a means of enhancing the international and intercultural understanding and skills of students and staff. The escalating number of national, regional, international, and cultural conflicts are pushing academics to help students understand global issues and international and intercultural relationships. The mobility of the labor market and cultural diversity in communities and work places require that both students and academics have an increased understanding and skills to work and live in a culturally diverse or different environment.

Income Generation. On the other side of the ledger from human development is the motivation of economic development. There is no question that more institutions are increasingly looking for internationalization activities as a way of generating alternative sources of income. For-profit internationalization is a growing phenomenon. Another key factor is the growth in the number of new private commercial providers who are primarily in business to generate income on a for-profit basis.

Traditionally, prominence has been given to the goal of achieving international academic standards.

Strategic Alliances. The number of bilateral or multilateral educational agreements has increased exponentially in the past decade. Linkages can be for different purposes: academic mobility, bench marking, joint curriculum or program development, seminars and conferences, and joint research initiatives. It is often the case that institutions cannot support a large number of agreements, many of which are thus inactive and mainly paper-based arrangements. All in all, the rationale for developing key strategic international education alliances at both the national and institutional level is not so much an end unto itself but a means of achieving academic, scientific, economic, technological, or cultural objectives.

Research and Knowledge Production. Given the increasing interdependence among nations, it is clear there are global issues and challenges that cannot be addressed at

the national level alone. International and interdisciplinary collaboration is key to solving many global problems such as those related to environmental, health, or crime issues. Institutions and national governments are, therefore, continuing to make the international dimension of research and knowledge production a primary rationale for internationalization of higher education.

All in all, the rationales driving internationalization vary from institution to institution, from stakeholder to stakeholder, and from country to country. Differing and competing rationales contribute to both the complexity of the international dimension of education and the substantial contributions that internationalization makes to higher education and the role it plays in society.

A clearer articulation of the values guiding internationalization is becoming increasingly important. Why? Values give shape and meaning to the rationales and expected outcomes that underpin institutions' and nations' drive to internationalize. There is room for greater reflection and clarity in the articulation of the values, especially cooperation and competition and the positioning of education as a "public" or "private good," in the provision of higher education. ■

National Leadership and International Quality Review in Higher Education

Judith S. Eaton

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As national leaders in countries around the world continue to respond to questions about higher education operation and quality internationally, considerable debate has arisen over what role this national leadership itself plays in establishing expectations of quality in an international environment. How can national leaders build an international community and on what basis? What are the core commitments on which to base policies, practices, and values associated with quality in an international setting? *International quality review* or *quality review in an international setting* refers to the policies, practices, and procedures used by higher education and the quality assurance and accreditation community to scrutinize the quality of higher education institutions and programs choosing to operate internationally.

National Leadership

The primary task of creating an international culture for quality review falls to national leaders of both higher education and quality assurance. The leaders need to forge basic ties and connections among countries to create an international culture grounded in rigorous and responsive approaches to quality. Participants in this culture may include colleges, universities, accreditation and quality assurance bodies, national organizations working together, regional organizations, and international organizations. Its tools may be national and international clearinghouses, bilateral and multilateral quality assurance agreements, codes of practice, electronic databases, and other communication networks.

What are the core commitments on which to base policies, practices, and values associated with quality in an international setting?

National leaders have considered several options about how to organize this important effort. These range from (1) national leaders creating appropriate networks to undertake international quality review, to (2) national leaders ceding responsibility for quality to an international quality assurance or accreditation entity of some sort, to (3) relying on other international organizations (rather than national leaders) to frame international quality review issues and approaches (e.g., the World Trade Organization).

National leaders also must address significant differences of opinion about standards for international quality review. Some quality assurance leaders favor a single template of standards to which all national quality assurance organizations (and thus higher education institutions) would be subject. Others are more comfortable with an organic model in which higher education institutions and quality assurance organizations in different countries would make individual judgments about quality and affiliate with each other on this basis—a multiple standards approach to quality in an international setting.

Core Commitments and National Leadership

Whatever the decisions about how to organize an international quality culture and how to approach standards for quality, three core commitments stand out as essential to sound and effective conduct of quality review in an international setting.

Core commitment 1: Bringing the vital academic roles of higher education to an international setting. Higher education and quality assurance leaders in many countries embrace a shared vision and common understanding of the vital roles that higher education has played for generations to serve the individual and society. While carried out in many different ways, these roles include (1) contributing to the intellectual development of the individual; (2) sustaining, interpreting, enriching, and transmitting culture; (3) developing an informed citizenry; (4) contributing to a skilled workforce; (5) generating knowledge to build a vital economy, and improve the health and well-being of citizens and communities; and (6) helping government, business, and community groups to use research to address local problems.

National higher education leaders are natural advocates for the extension of these academic roles into an international setting. Quality assurance leaders support these roles by affirming they are carried out at an appropriate level of quality.

In general, the “public good” responsibility of higher education refers to taking actions that are in the interests of society.

Core commitment 2: Higher education as a public good in an international setting. Each of the vital roles of higher education described above has a significant history of contribution to the public good. In general, the “public good” responsibility of higher education refers to taking actions that are in the interests of society that (1) enhance public well-being rather than focus exclusively on private interests and (2) are not carried out by other sectors of society (e.g., business, the judiciary). For higher education, “serving the public good” means addressing issues such as access and equity in educational opportunity. It means an emphasis on education for citizenship and societal well-being as perhaps more important than education for individual gain that may be unrelated to social improvement. This is in contrast to, for example, higher education primarily in the service of the market or commercial interests.

In a similar vein, an “international public good” can also be sustained and encouraged. National higher education and quality assurance leaders further an “international public good” when they assure that higher education and quality review in an international setting also support the vital roles of higher education as described above. This means that, for example, international instruments such as bilateral or regional arrangements

among countries would further the development of a citizenry knowledgeable and responsive to international needs and discourage dubious providers of higher education or “diploma mills.”

Leadership also honors this commitment to the public good in an international setting when engaging in ongoing consultation and deliberation about key values in higher education and quality review that relate to the public good. This commitment means that effective international quality review will routinely include conversations among these leaders about, for example, the important role of general education and the liberal arts in various societies. It means attention to the relationship between intellectual development, the dignity of human life, and the development of society.

Core commitment 3: The value of diversity of higher education in an international setting. Diversity of higher education within various countries usually refers to the range of institutional types available within the society: public and private institutions and teaching and research institutions. Diversity in an international setting refers not only to preserving and enhancing variation in institutional type but also to preserving the various cultural and intellectual traditions associated with colleges and universities in different countries. Colleges and universities are influenced by the history and culture in which they are located and bring these diverse practices and perspectives to the international community. Effective international quality review is built on, first and foremost, honoring and supporting these practices and perspectives.

Grounding international quality review in the existing network of national higher education and quality assurance leaders supports this diversity. It honors national differences. It requires that considerations of quality are addressed carefully, calling for analysis of those dimensions of quality that are more culturally dependent and those that are less culturally dependent in any society.

The role of national leaders offered here positions quality review of higher education in an international setting as an enterprise that derives its legitimacy and authority from the national higher education community working with national quality assurance and accreditation organizations. The core commitments provide a vision of a diverse international culture of higher education institutions continuing to carry out their vital academic roles in relation to the individual and society in the context of serving the public good.

This article is based on the September 2003 CHEA Letter from the President, “Do We Need an International Confederation for Quality Review of Higher Education?” available at www.chea.org/research.

The Question of Corruption in Academe

Philip G. Altbach

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Corruption in higher education is not a topic much discussed in academic circles. Academic institutions see themselves as somehow above the baser motivations and lower instincts of other elements of society. And society generally believes that universities are somehow special institutions imbued with the virtues of integrity. Yet, corruption in various manifestations is an element of higher education in many parts of the world. It is time to open a discussion of the meaning and scope of corruption since it seems to be an expanding phenomenon, especially in parts of the world facing severe economic hardships. Academic institutions in these countries come under extreme pressure to provide access and degrees to ensure success in difficult economic circumstances.

The dictionary definition of corruption will suffice well for academe—"impairment of integrity, virtue, or moral principle." It goes on to say—"inducement to wrong by improper or unlawful means." Although there are global guides for societal transparency and democratic government, no one has developed a worldwide academic corruption index. Yet, we know from limited research and news reports that countries and some academic institutions are prone to corrupt practices of various kinds. Hardly any academic system is completely immune from at least some elements of corruption. Scandals in intercollegiate athletics, including such problems as admitting unqualified students who can play football and allowing cheating on exams to ensure athletes' eligibility to play, are common in the United States, and occasional lapses in academic honor codes have occurred. There have been cases of corporate interference with research projects or financial shenanigans by members of boards of trustees, senior administrators, or professors. Oral examination arrangements at some European universities have occasionally been unfairly manipulated. But when such malfeasance is detected, it is usually publicly exposed and the perpetrators disciplined. The academic system itself is not corrupt, and efforts are made to cleanse the institutions. The key point is that the traditional values of the university are honored and deviations from them are seen as aberrations and as unacceptable behavior.

This is in sharp contrast to academic systems that allow significant and persistent institutional as well as individual corruption at many levels and, more importantly, where academic norms of honesty and

meritocratic values are pushed to the side. The litany of problems is unfortunately long and disturbing. A few examples will suffice. Admission to universities is for sale in some parts of the world. Well-connected applicants or those who bribe or otherwise influence the academic authorities responsible for admissions, or those who can manipulate the admissions process gain entry regardless of their academic qualifications. In such situations, graduation is a virtual certainty, whether or not a student completes the required academic work. Admission is tantamount to graduation—and the process is sometimes smoothed by further bribery or influence peddling. Professors may offer "tutorial" sessions to applicants to the university or those already enrolled that often require considerable payments that serve as bribes for entry or success.

Professorial Corruption

Academic posts are often "sold" in the sense that those seeking appointments to lectureships or professorships must curry favor with selection committees through gifts or other emoluments. In some cases, academic posts are awarded on the basis of ethnic or religious backgrounds. Research and publications may be corrupted. Plagiarism in publications can be found in every academic system, but in some it is widespread and tacitly accepted—at least no one asks many questions, and the penalties for detection are few, if any. Research results or even entire research projects can be falsified. Corruption may also involve the promotion process. Candidates can bribe or otherwise sway promotion committees, or outside pressure may be brought to bear in the process. In universities with a rigid academic hierarchy, senior academics often promote their friends or perhaps colleagues without regard to the qualifications of the candidates.

The litany of problems is unfortunately long and disturbing.

Examinations

The examination system, which is central to the meritocratic core of the university, is a common site for corruption. In India, for example, cheating is so well established in some parts of the country that when universities try to crack down, students protest and demand their traditional "right" to cheat. The litany of means used to cheat on examinations is long and, in a perverse way, an indication of the inventiveness of a corrupt system. Examination proctors (invigilators) are sometimes beaten or even killed by students for conscientiously

doing their jobs. In some places, professors or administrators collude with students by selling them examination papers in advance or by “fixing” the results. In others, students manage to steal examinations and sell them in advance to others. In the United States, Internet-based firms are now selling research papers to undergraduate students, who then sometimes submit the papers as their own. Recent American surveys indicate that a significant proportion of students admit to cheating on examinations from time to time. In countries where oral examinations are common, there are further possibilities for corruption.

The examination system, which is central to the meritocratic core of the university, is a common site for corruption.

Causes and Effects

The many reasons behind academic corruption can be complicated. There is a clear correlation between economic factors and corruption. Where academic institutions are congenitally short of money and thus under great pressure to admit students, there is an increased likelihood for corruption. Faculty and administrators may be looking for ways to supplement woefully inadequate salaries in societies lacking other opportunities for employment. External pressures to admit and promote students are immense as well. While not all underfunded academic systems are corrupt—indeed most universities now face difficult financial circumstances—institutions that experience “permanent poverty” in societies that offer few options for the highly educated are more exposed to the lures of academic corruption. There are strong links, of course, between societal corruption and corruption in academe. Indeed, since universities in reality are not Ivory Towers, they are greatly affected by societal norms—and corruption is an element of social and economic life in many countries. Societies that do not have well-developed meritocratic norms are often prone to academic corruption—the idea that someone can be promoted or can receive an academic degree because he or she is from a particular group or has certain familial links is seen as acceptable.

The traditions of higher education also play a role. Universities everywhere have European roots and organizational patterns—they may not be well suited to some non-Western societies. This historical disjunction may make it easier for corruption to take hold. Further, in many developing countries, universities were part of a colonial system, and the values of subservience were

to some extent put into place by the colonial powers. Countries without deep academic traditions may also have looser ties to the traditional values of academe.

Academic systems that are politicized and in which nonacademic norms of many kinds impinge on universities may also be more prone to corruption. Political parties may be active on campus, seeking to dominate academic governance bodies and to put their followers into positions of influence. Students may be involved in activist movements that have little regard to the universities or the norms of academic life. Government or other external agencies may be working to shape academic decisions. Weak academic leadership may also be responsible for permitting corruption to entrench itself in the university. Sometimes, the organization of the university prevents strong leadership from emerging.

The effects of corruption on campus are extensive. Corruption destroys the very core of the university—the concept of meritocracy and the dominance of honest academic inquiry and excellence in teaching and research. The effects can be seen in things large and small. Corrupt admissions arrangements mean that the best students may not be admitted. Corrupt promotion policies mean that the best minds are not rewarded, and that many will not even wish to be part of the academic community. Funds are misused, and the result is that libraries and laboratories do not have the support they need.

The academic community itself must understand that without integrity and meritocracy there can be no true university.

Conclusion

Universities require an effective civil society as much as nations do. The academic system needs basic financial support so that it is possible to provide effective teaching and engage in creative research. Universities need to be permitted the autonomy required to build and support academic culture and values. Perhaps most importantly, the academic community itself must understand that without integrity and meritocracy there can be no true university. The reality of corruption in higher education must be recognized as a central problem to be analyzed, understood, and rooted out. A first step is to recognize its nature and scope.

A Question of Ethics: Tertiary-Level Teaching in Botswana

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Botswana, like many smaller developing nations, has one university (the University of Botswana), through which all degrees are awarded, including those earned at its sister institute, the Botswana College of Agriculture. However, unlike most developing nations, since independence in 1966 Botswana has grown from one of the poorest countries in the world to one with a stable and vibrant economy. This has enabled it to aspire to a tertiary education system equal to any in the developed world.

An integral part of this aspiration involved employment of expatriate academic staff while local staff acquired training. This system has proved a mixed blessing. Most expatriates are employed on two-year contracts, with little critical examination of their credentials (e.g., no interviews below the professorial level and no analysis of teaching or research performance beyond years of experience and crude paper counts). Furthermore, localization has been approached through the fast-tracking of citizens, with little opportunity to accumulate appropriate experience. This strategy, together with a lack of effective quality assurance and accountability, has led to the use of unethical behavior, notably in teaching and research, to achieve contract renewal or promotion. Research problems have been discussed elsewhere (e.g., an article by I. Riddoch, in *Nature*, vol. 408, 2000). The focus here is on unethical teaching practices in tertiary institutions in Botswana, and their wider implications.

In practice, teaching appraisal is based on a few rather unreliable criteria that are used inconsistently, making abuses easy to mask and perpetuate. Essentially all a lecturer has to do is have a high apparent teaching load and ensure a high pass rate. Consequently, most abuses are aimed at reducing teaching effort, through plagiarism and abandonment of teaching responsibilities and avoiding accountability, by exam-directed teaching and manipulation of marks.

Inflation, Plagiarism, and Abandonment

The illusion of intense teaching activity and creativity is maintained by setting up specialized advanced level graduate courses with small classes (student numbers being irrelevant to appraisal), which creates the

impression of a high teaching load with conceptually more demanding courses. Once courses have been assigned colleagues and superiors display little or no curiosity about how or what students are taught. A significant proportion of classroom periods are, quite literally, abandoned. Actual teaching frequently commences a week or two into a semester and finishes a week or two before its end. The current deputy vice chancellor (for academic affairs) of the university recently reprimanded the entire academic staff, for this avoidance of teaching responsibilities, but it still persists. Individual classes may run for only a fraction of the allotted time, and any excuse is used to cancel classes completely. More onerous and time-consuming chores such as running labs and marking assignments are delegated to demonstrators or teaching assistants, often with little or no supervision.

Little effort is put into course content; syllabuses are rarely revised, and course outlines and even entire courses may be plagiarized from the Internet.

Little effort is put into course content; syllabuses are rarely revised, and course outlines and even entire courses may be plagiarized from the Internet. Considerable, sometimes total, duplication of course material may occur across supposedly different programs, often taught to the same students at different levels. In some cases, higher-level courses are even simplifications of material covered by more conscientious colleagues teaching the large lower-level courses. Course outlines and manuals submitted for appraisal are often gross exaggerations of what is actually taught.

Avoiding Accountability

Many staff have little or no conscience about the quality of the students they produce and will do whatever it takes to ensure that poor teaching is not revealed by poor student performance. The abandonment of teaching responsibilities actually benefits students, who are generally fixated on grades, as it lightens their course load. Furthermore, lecturers deliberately prime students by addressing only those questions they have set for exams. Former students freely admit that many staff leak review topics, usually using broad hints or direct instructions about what material to review. We have even come across an example where the questions asked on continuous assessment tests, review sheets, and the fi-

nal exam were identical and appeared to represent all that was taught in the course despite an impressive syllabus. Needless to say, not a single student reported this information: the practice was only discovered by accident.

Exam questions tend toward the prescriptive, partly because rote learning is easier for students, but also because simple lists of points are easy to mark. When monitoring exams and marking student work, many lecturers turn a blind eye to cheating and overlook errors, merely checking off the good points.

Unethical teaching practices not only detract from the reputations of academic institutions but have serious consequences for Botswana's long-term social and economic future.

Implications

Unfortunately, unethical teaching practices not only detract from the reputations of academic institutions but have serious consequences for Botswana's long-term social and economic future. Already the country is overly dependent on a single resource, diamonds (85 percent of foreign earnings for 2002) and is ravaged by HIV/AIDS. A failure to produce well-educated citizens will merely exacerbate these problems, and it is imperative that training be more than just a paper exercise.

Recent speeches by the state president suggest that the government recognizes that there are problems with tertiary education, in terms of product quality and value for money, but it has yet to publicly acknowledge that issues of staff integrity have, at least in part, contributed to these problems. Sadly, we do not believe these problems are restricted to Botswana. Many of the worst culprits are expatriate staff on contracts who are attracted to Botswana by the regionally high salaries and bring various unethical practises with them. However, permanent local staff are beginning to follow the expatriates' successes and will themselves become evaluators of teaching quality here. The cancer is in danger of becoming truly malignant unless something is done about it soon. ■

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Corruption and Higher Education in Georgia

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The Republic of Georgia, with a population of 5 million, has roughly 240 higher education institutions. On the surface, these numbers would suggest a prospering, highly educated society. However, behind this facade lies the reality of degraded standards, crumbling infrastructure, rampant academic fraud, and overall deteriorating educational quality.

At the center of this predicament is pervasive systemic corruption. Economic, institutional, and organizational inadequacies have brought about a widespread extralegal system of governance, characterized by few ethical norms or standards. The passivity of the Georgian people and their willingness to accept this as the status quo have further exacerbated these deficiencies.

Description of Corruption

Corruption may be defined as an improper use of official authority for personal or material benefit. Corruption in higher education manifests itself at all levels and affects a wide array of institutional activities. Major avenues for corruption include the system of admissions, the professional conduct of teachers and administrators, procurement, and the licensing and accreditation of institutions.

The most corrupt area in the Georgian higher education system is perhaps admissions. The system is unfair and inefficient, often characterized by bribery and high levels of subjective criteria. As a result of biased oral examinations, even the least-qualified candidates can easily gain admission to the university system. Some estimates suggest that the majority of available slots are actually sold to prospective students. By some anecdotal reports, the price for university admission may range anywhere from \$200 to \$10,000, depending on the prestige of a university department and a student's qualifications (average monthly salary in Georgia is \$50).

Corruption is manifested indirectly through a system of private tutors who prepare students for entrance examinations. But unlike private tutoring in Europe and North America, in Georgia the fees students pay are, in fact, bribes passed on through the system to ensure admission to the department of their choice.

Equally important is having connections and simply “knowing the system.” Even though it is still possible to gain acceptance into university without paying bribes, chances of success are inversely related to the prestige of a particular department.

Once admitted, a student can practically buy his or her way through the institution, paying for every exam and, ultimately, a diploma. Examinations (either for a semester or for graduation) can cost as much as hundreds of dollars. Moreover, students can bypass the higher education system altogether by simply buying a diploma from an established university. Another venue is corruption involving educational materials: professors often require students to buy their books, and lack of compliance may result in failing an exam.

Universities should have public approval and recognition through accreditation. In Georgia, however, proliferation of private universities and introduction of new programs at public institutions have not been accompanied by the creation of a fair system of accreditation. Licensing new universities and approving new programs often require bribes, which means that the Ministry of Education may recognize institutions and programs that do not satisfy minimum quality standards. Consequently, those institutions license individuals who may not possess adequate professional qualifications.

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Causes and Implications

There are numerous causes of corruption. One reason may be the dire economic situation in the country. For faculty and administration officials, whose salaries have declined significantly over the last decade, taking bribes has become an alternative source to supplement meager incomes.

In addition, the higher education system suffers from the lack of transparent regulation. The decline in public expenditures and funding for education has encouraged universities to seek ways to generate additional resources. However, the absence of an effective new law on higher education and the lack of an efficient regulatory structure have led to increased levels of corruption. The lack of an adequate accreditation mechanism, regulated tax system, and publicly available comprehensive data on the quality of higher education institutions further compounds the problem.

Another source of corruption is an inadequate organizational structure, which does not provide incentives for improved performance and does not have control mechanisms and sanctions in place. Even though efforts have been made to restructure and modernize universities, the system still remains very authoritarian and centralized. Such an atmosphere fails to create opportunities for professional growth and prevents faculty and the administration from developing identification and loyalty with the organization.

Although a number of anticorruption measures have been approved, no substantial changes seem to have taken place.

Yet some instances of corruption are very hard to explain just by economic or regulatory difficulties. Corruption in education is a reflection of a general problem in post-Soviet Georgian society, where cheating and bribery are widely accepted practices. During the Soviet era Georgians mastered the art of beating the system, and sadly the bad habits do not go away easily.

Although a number of anticorruption measures have been approved, no substantial changes seem to have taken place. Corruption is widely acknowledged by university staff and government officials, but offending professors or administrators are rarely punished. The reason is that those at the top have a stake in sustaining the status quo because they are part of the corrupt system themselves and greatly benefit from it.

The implications of pervasive corruption are very serious, and the price of not combating it in a timely manner may turn out to be very high in Georgia. Higher education is a linchpin of a country’s economic and democratic development. It is through higher education that a country educates and chooses its leaders. When the selection is based on a person’s ascriptive characteristics and bribery rather than on academic abilities, a country greatly endangers its economic and social future. Corruption in higher education may have even greater repercussions across Georgian society because it encourages and legitimizes corruption in other spheres. When universities fail to convey to students the importance of such values as “integrity,” “civil society,” and “civic obligations,” they compromise their graduates’ ability to work professionally in their fields and contribute to the democratic and social progress of their country.

What Can Be Done?

There are no simple solutions to combating the problem of educational corruption in Georgia. To start with, it is important to engage in an ongoing systematic study of the phenomenon and its causes through research; student, faculty, and administration surveys; and to encourage public interest and involvement in higher education. Higher education reform should include not only changing systems and regulations but also empowering students and faculty to take initiatives to combat corruption.

Systemic changes may include reforms in state financing of education that encourage private-sector development and competition among universities; creation of a transparent accreditation system; design of standardized national examinations; reform of regulatory and tax systems and procurement procedures; decentralization of management to individual institutions; establishment of professional ethics codes for university faculty and administrators by encouraging professional associations; supporting student anticorruption movements; and strengthening and empowering student governments.

There are no simple solutions to combating the problem of educational corruption in Georgia. To start with, it is important to engage in an ongoing systematic study of the phenomenon and its causes through research.

At the institutional level, possible reforms may include redefining institutional missions and drafting honor codes that place emphasis on quality, academic integrity, and honesty; improved remuneration that provides incentives for better productivity; developing structures that reward achievement; establishing sanctions against corrupt practices and prosecuting offenders; developing internal rules and regulations for administrative practices; redesigning and rationalizing academic programs and establishing performance targets. Equally important is the need to develop systems that monitor and evaluate progress toward reduced corruption.

Georgia, in transition to democratization and economic development, can no longer afford to waste its limited resources. Every effort should be made to eliminate corruption in higher education, and it is crucial to ensure that every policy or structural change is an informed decision based on empirical research and systematic study. ■

Graduate Employment: Issues for Debate and Inquiry

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Recent European studies have shown most graduates to be in quite reasonable employment situations a few years after graduating. While concerns continue to be expressed by some employers that many graduates do not possess the right skills and competencies, there is also considerable industry in many universities to improve the employability of their graduates. Does the evidence justify optimism?

Unquestioned Assumptions

Graduates are rewarded (or not) by the actions of employers. We must assume that these are the actions of rational and fully informed men and women. Thus, we must also assume that salaries reflect nothing but the balance between demand and supply. We must further assume that employers have perfect information on which to set wage levels, to make recruitment decisions, to train or to promote, and that they behave entirely rationally. Much of the analysis of graduate employment data explicitly or implicitly rests on assumptions of this sort. Occasionally, sceptical voices are heard.

Averages Are Averages

The positive image currently associated with graduate employment prospects should not hide the possibility that the rosy futures of the majority may not be shared by all. A recent U.K. study (*Access to What? Analysis of Factors Determining Graduate Employability*, by the Centre for Higher Education Research and Information) attempted to identify some of the social and educational factors associated with employment success. Overall, the differences in terms of social background were not as great as might have been expected from previous work. It remains the case, however, that the generally positive picture on graduate employment may be hiding some quite negative experiences for some graduates.

Perceptions Are Perceptions

Most of our knowledge about skills and competencies comes from the perceptions of employers and the graduates themselves. While these are certainly interesting data, they should not go unchallenged. How many employers keep records about the relative success of

graduates with different qualifications or backgrounds? And by definition, employers can have no knowledge at all about the employment success of the graduates they turned down (or who turned the employer down by not applying to them in the first place). Thus, employers' perceptions are based on very imperfect information. Graduates, even more so, lack comparative experiences on which to base their perceptions.

Recruitment or Performance

Some of the efforts of higher education institutions to enhance employability seem to be principally about the first—advice on CV writing, practice interviews, etc. As employers develop ever more sophisticated recruitment techniques, higher education institutions give ever more support and advice to students on how to present themselves. At their most effective, these kinds of support are only about helping some students to succeed over others, helping to ensure that they get the “best jobs,” and that the institution's employment record looks good. Neither the graduate nor his or her employer is necessarily made more productive by any of this. A recent study by Geoff Mason and Gareth Williams (*How Much Does Higher Education Enhance the Employability of Graduates?* 2003, Higher Education Funding Council for England) suggested that the impact of employability skills development may be strongest in the first few months of graduates' careers. This is not to say that there are not some graduate characteristics—specific or generic—that have long-term value to employers.

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Competence or Confidence

One of the things that struck us in the *Access to What?* project was the belief expressed by many teaching staff that confidence (and self-esteem, personal identity) might be more important than skills and competencies in determining both academic and employment success. Especially for the “non-traditional” student, doubts and lack of self-belief could be hampering achievement far more than any knowledge and skills deficit. And as far as employment was concerned, a lack of confidence could depress aspirations in the graduate and produce negative reactions in the recruiter.

A Division of Labor

Very few graduates (none?) will be fully “formed” professionally when they leave higher education. The recent European study of graduate employment suggested that countries differed in the roles played by higher education and employers in preparing graduates for work. U.K. employers seem to take a much greater share of the responsibility for education and training than is common elsewhere. This may well be a function of the brevity of first degrees in the United Kingdom and the role played by professional bodies in training and certification. This may also relate to differences in the role played by formal qualifications in regulating entry to and passage through the labor market.

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The Transition

Building on the above, we still know comparatively little of how graduates achieve their generally positive employment situations after three or four years. We know that there are a lot of job changes, further study for many, and periods of unemployment for a significant minority. It might well be that the decisions taken and the experiences gained in the three years after graduation are as important for future employment success as the three years spent within higher education. Yet we know little about them.

The Streetwise Graduate

Many supposedly full-time students often combine their studies with substantial amounts of term-time work. This has implications for the student experience. Although the growth of term-time work has generally had a negative press, many students and staff see potentially positive aspects to the combination of experiences it can afford—such as time-management, teamwork, personal organization, financial management, and communication skills. Experiences that when taken singly may not add up to much, may when taken in combination, represent a period of life marked by huge demands and complexities and by personal achievements in coping with it all. But is anyone—in higher education or employment—fully recognizing these achievements? Roles and identities of student, worker, wife, and mother are held simultaneously rather than experienced serially. Is there a lot of learning going on here that we are failing to see and to celebrate?

Knowledge Economies

Notions of “knowledge economies” and “knowledge societies” give added rationale and justification for higher education expansion and reinforce the focus on employability questions. But what kinds of knowledge are really needed in the knowledge economy? We can distinguish between at least five sources of knowledge of which knowledge represented by educational qualifications is but one. Others are the nonassessed learning outcomes from formal education, training in the workplace, work experience, and everyday (life) experience. What “knowledge balance” is required by the demands of increasing flexibility, change over time, dissonance between personal and professional “identities,” both in the workplace and in “life”? And how does this balance change over the course of life?

One could go on. There is a large issue of how employment-related characteristics of the curriculum combine with or are opposed to other elements and purposes—something about which Harold Silver and I reached optimistic conclusions about 15 years ago (*A Liberal Vocationalism*, 1988, Methuen). Would we today?

Affordability, Access, Costing, and the Price of U.S. and U.K. Higher Education

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U.S. and U.K. higher education systems have over the past 20 years faced the steady retreat of the taxpayer in funding students and institutions. However, while the U.K. system has muddled through by reducing funding per student, U.S. public higher education has to a great extent compensated for the lost revenue by increasing tuition fees payable directly by students and their families. U.S. private higher education institutions have also levied ever-higher tuition fees as “the sticker-price,” and have used the enhanced funding to fuel an arms-race for “prestige” among universities competing over salaries for the best faculty (so-called “trophy professors”), on merit-based aid for the cleverest students, and on lavish campus infrastructure. This process has opened up an increasingly wide gap between U.S. private institutions and even the “flagship” U.S. public institutions, while leaving the best of U.K. higher education aiming at a moving target in trying to compete as a global player.

Yet, despite these high tuition fees, U.S. higher education remains affordable for “Middle America,” partly because the U.S. middle class pays rather less in taxes than its equivalent in the United Kingdom—especially given deep discounting of tuition fees and the offer of student loans to finance the final amount due (in effect, a “price-war” among U.S. institutions over clever entrants). In addition, “Rich America” is not being given as much of a wasteful public subsidy as is currently bestowed on “Rich England.” These high tuition fees, regardless of the high levels of financial aid, may deter access for “Poor America” to the very best private U.S. institutions (and to a lesser extent the best of the public institutions), compared with the accessibility of the elite U.K. higher education institutions.

Hence, if U.K. institutions were completely deregulated with respect to the capping of tuition fees or chose to exercise their theoretical autonomy and take full control of their destiny, it would be politically wise to have robust policies in place in advance that would ensure at least the same level of accessibility as at present. Oxford, for example, must also be able to demonstrate the financial viability of such access and student financial aid policies, funded (presumably) partly by charging *much* higher annual tuition fees (£15K) to “Rich England” and *rather* higher fees (£10K) to “Middle England” (taking into account affordability issues), while, of course, charging *very* little (if anything at all, in order to maintain access) to “Poor England.”

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That said, it will be interesting to see if Oxford (and others) can make the “high fee/high aid” numbers work, given that, as already noted, it *may* have a larger “poor” group to finance than do its overall wealthier U.S. counterparts. In its favor, it is *probably* “leaner & meaner” in productivity terms than the average U.S. Ivy League school, although the contribution toward such economy that comes from keeping faculty salaries internationally low is a false economy in the medium term as Oxford increasingly fails to attract for its academic jobs the full range of good applicants and even then does not always manage to recruit its first-choice candidates.

The salutary question posed by a hostile political environment for the Oxford dons currently “on watch” is whether the potential for accelerated decline relative to the U.S. global players (with their fiercely defended

autonomy and robust lobbying of government) is now so great and the “control freak” meddling of government is so likely to be at best useless and at worst damaging that the dons must take radical action for fear of otherwise themselves going down in history as the ones who steered the noble “*SS Oxford*” onto the rocks, rather than as just another generation of the university’s leadership that “merely” allowed the unfortunate vessel to drift deeper into the doldrums.

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The 2003 White Paper

There is certainly a need in the United Kingdom to better understand U.S. higher education in the context of the highly politicized debate here about the size, shape, and funding of the system as recently fuelled by the government’s “white paper” on *The future of Higher Education* (www.dfes.gov.uk/highereducation). The white paper addresses enhancing the funding of higher education and institutions to allow them “to compete with the world’s best” and to avoid the “serious risk of decline” after “decades of under-investment.” Notably, as U.K. higher education by OECD norms rather belatedly massified, “funding per student fell by 36 per cent between 1989 and 1997.”

The white paper also raises the subject of ensuring the affordability for “Middle England” of the proposed increase of the current flat-rate £1100 (U.S.\$1,750) annual tuition fee to one capped at £3000 (U.S.\$4,500) from 2006 by “abolishing up-front tuition fees for all students” and with their repayment after graduation through the tax system then being “linked to ability to pay.” Also proposed is extending the availability of higher education to the “talented and best from all backgrounds” and improving its accessibility for “less advantaged families.”

The July 2003 report of the all-party Education and Skills Committee on “The Future of Higher Education” reviews the white paper and calls for a maximum annual tuition fee of £5000 (as also advocated by the “top” institutions) rather than £3000 so as to ensure a true market in the provision of higher education (www.parliament.uk/parliamentary-committees/education-and-skills-committee.cfm). The report expresses fears that “too great a reliance on funding through taxation will inevitably lead to greater Government control of the sector and less independence for universities,” assesses the proposed “Access

Regulator” as “unnecessary,” brands the present student financial aid system as “complex and confusing,” and comments that academic salaries are “woefully low,” and refers to the sorry state of U.K. higher education as “the last of the nationalized industries.”

The government has quickly brushed off the carefully researched report and is sticking with its rather less evidence-based white paper, which seems sadly to achieve the worst of all worlds by maximizing opposition and yet at the same time watering down the degree of proposed deregulation to such an extent that, if approved by Parliament, the new £3000 fee (allowed to increase by only inflation until 2011 or so) will be of no real value in enabling U.K. higher education “to compete with the world’s best.”

Just as the United Kingdom’s “New Labour” government in its 2003 consultation document sets out “the need for reform” in terms of shifting the cost of higher education more toward students and their families, so there has been debate in the United States over the cost/accountability and affordability/accessibility of higher education since Congress in 1997 expressed the frustration of “Middle America” with the ever-increasing “cost of college” by establishing the National Commission on the Cost of Higher Education. Yet, despite the middle-class angst, an observer of the higher education scene across the OECD countries *might* indeed be tempted to predict a slow but steady convergence toward the U.S. norm of requiring an increasingly significant student/family contribution for the cost of delivering higher education.

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A Moving Target?

The £3K per annum fee from 2006 proposed in the white paper would take the current £3300 figure over the standard three-year undergraduate degree course (which is paid in full by only some 40 percent of U.K. students) to £9K (ca.\$14K) compared with, by then, for the four-year baccalaureate ca.\$20/25K at U.S. public institutions, and perhaps \$30K-plus at the research-oriented flagship campus within each state higher education system. Thus, the

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white paper is indeed aiming at a moving target in trying to keep the upper end of U.K. higher education institutions competitive in income terms with even the best of the U.S. publics, let alone the top private institutions, where annual fees are already nearing \$30K. And, indeed, there is also a trend toward the semiprivatization of state flagship campus institutions (now being called “the public Ivies”), which may push fees yet higher than the ca.\$7K per annum referred to above.

If U.K. and U.S. higher education systems continue to diverge on funding, they will then share certain features. The politics of affordability of higher education for “Middle America” during the 1990s trumped the politics of access to higher education for “Poor America,” which is not surprising given the relative voting power of the two constituencies. This scenario potentially will be echoed in the United Kingdom, where in response to New Labour’s white paper and its proposed £3K per annum tuition fee for “Middle England” the Conservative Party has focused on affordability, asserting that it would avoid the need to increase fees (or even levying them at all) by reducing the size of the higher education system and hence its accessibility to “Poor England” as a means of saving money.

The full version of this paper can be down-loaded from the OxCHEPS web-site at oxcheps.new.ox.ac.uk, “Occasional Papers.”

Lessons of Experience: Reform Initiatives in African Universities

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The growing interest in revitalizing African universities has prompted the hosting of numerous regional and international conferences. The joint conference in Accra, Ghana, in September 2003—hosted by the Association of African Universities (AAU), the Association for the Development of Education in Africa—Working Group on Higher Education (ADEA-WGHE), the National Council for Tertiary Education, Ghana (NCTE), and the World Bank—was a major event that attracted numerous higher education leaders, managers, researchers, think tanks, NGOs, and funders.

Things That Work

Organized under the theme of—*Improving Tertiary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa—Things that Work*, the conference focused on things that work instead of dwelling on crisis talk that usually dominates such meetings. For a change, the stories we read and heard departed from the conventional tone. At times this departure felt somewhat radical. The education minister of Ghana, Elizabeth Ohene, challenged participants to consider the running of universities by business leaders. The subdued jeers that followed her remark underscore the serious challenges that underlie instituting changes in higher education institutions.

Without a doubt, such forums catalyze higher education dialogues that subsequently strengthen research in the field.

What was in many ways comforting at the convention is the reaffirmation of commitment by the World Bank to revitalize the continent’s higher education systems. Noting that the “Bank does not have a very strong credibility around higher education,” Birger Fredriksen, the Bank’s representative, reassured participants that the Bank “would like to strongly support higher education in Africa.”

The AAU’s executive secretary, Akilagpa Sawyerr, in recognition of the Bank’s renewed interest, stated that the “external community rediscovered higher education in the development of the continent” and added that the Bank “has come around to recognize higher education.” He reckoned that “the new direction by the Bank will change the attitude of governments in Africa.”

Even though the World Bank has often been an object of much criticism surrounding higher education development in Africa, this was not the case at this event. This may be attributed to the awareness of the Bank’s renewed commitment or, as someone put it, “self-restraint on the part of participants not to bite the feeding hand” that organized the conference.

A great many ideas were traded on innovations and reforms that have taken place in institutions and countries. Without a doubt, such forums catalyze higher education dialogues that subsequently strengthen research in the field, and they thus need to be organized regularly both for practitioners as well as researchers.

Many speakers presented their reform initiatives in a positive light with a cursory mention of the challenges they faced in instituting them. A complete analysis would entail digging deeper to capture the

whole story of the reform efforts, their significance, and their impact. While one would not expect the presenters to scrutinize and criticize their own initiatives and institutions in public, one cannot help but remain curious to read the whole story of the reform campaigns.

Things That May Not Work

The conference covered a wide array of higher education issues that included funding, HIV/AIDS, management, gender, regional cooperation, and brain drain. In some cases, however, opinions were expressed that are either simply unworkable or off-the-mark, and if left unchecked, may have significant ramifications.

One stunning case was a suggestion to restrict movements of highly trained personnel to curtail brain drain (ironically made by someone who would not return to his home country). While a country may have a vested interest and may place moral and legal imperatives on its citizens, such measures are tantamount to violating their human rights. Such an approach is simply not in sync with events of the 21st century dictated by the regimes of internationalization and globalization. Furthermore, as cost sharing for higher education is gathering momentum, these legal and moral imperatives are being eroded, further complicating the issue of brain drain.

The point here is that the issues that confront us are neither simple nor straightforward and therefore call for in-depth understanding and critical analysis. While we contemplate things that work, we have to remain constantly vigilant concerning things that may not work. The renewed major initiatives need to be carefully harnessed and wisely directed—buttressed by serious and sustained research—to avoid past shortcomings.

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Nurturing Indigenous Knowledge

Often, change is not greeted warmly as the unknown challenges our imagination and besieges our comfort zone. As we grapple with instituting changes, there is a tremendous need to identify the maze of idiosyncrasies that are unique to individual countries, universities, institutions, and even departments. As the presentations indicated, some participants advocated a quick reform process while others advanced a gradual approach. In other cases, some advocated having a few champions of change and a top-down approach, while others supported a grassroots approach.

Exploring and developing these detailed prescriptions will entail that the community of higher education leaders engage not only champions of reform, as is often advocated, but also critics and skeptics. The notion that “who cares about skeptics when we are short of allies” would undermine elements of a “reality check.”

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It is commendable to raise the awareness of higher education leaders as part of the effort to revitalize African institutions as this closely fits with the ongoing endeavors in higher education research and publishing. It should be cautioned, however, that simply raising the caliber of the existing leadership is far from sufficient. The training and nurturing of a new breed of higher education managers and administrators should be vigorously pursued. As the issues that confront higher education grow in complexity and magnitude, institutions need to be equipped with qualified personnel who are up to the challenge. This requires the establishment and revitalization of new programs on the continent that provide high-level training in higher education administration and management.

Advocating Consortia

Creating and maintaining good partnerships, even though not that easy, are commendable steps. The partnership between the regional and external organizations to organize the conference is praiseworthy. It is important for such interactions to continue in a more *sustainable* and *equitable* manner to play a positive role not only in revitalizing higher education systems but also building viable regional think tanks and institutions.

Sustained support of major external agencies fosters the development and influence of regional institutions. Regional institutions, such as the AAU, therefore, need to engage external agencies constructively in their effort to build a better higher education system.

The recommendations to create a consortium of universities and act through the AAU to negotiate a better Internet deal indicate aspirations for strong regional organization that could play a prominent role. There are pressing reasons to do that. Internet access, which costs under U.S.\$20 in the United States, costs as

much as U.S.\$20,000 in Africa. Regional institutions such as the AAU need to lobby vigorously on behalf of higher education institutions by exerting pressure on governments—for instance, by demanding preferential treatment for educational and research institutions. In Senegal, for instance, telecommunications services for educational institutions cost half the regular price due largely to lobbying. The consortium initiative could be effectively extended to other activities such as acquisitions of subscriptions, books, on-line databases, and lab equipment.

Institutional Memory: Pushing the Knowledge Frontiers

It is very encouraging that conferences on higher education in Africa are now commonplace. What should be religiously fostered, however, is the tracking and publication of conference papers promptly and ensuring their wide distribution. We need to capture and disseminate “institutional memory,” not simply to address the challenge of “reinventing the wheel,” but to push the frontiers of our knowledge of the continent’s higher education system.

Selected materials from this conference will be published in the newly established journal, *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*. Hopefully, the participants and conference organizers will disseminate the lessons that were learned at the conference and allow the ideas to percolate up and down the line of administrative and management command in the respective countries and institutions.

Caveat Emptor

Change is a tricky matter, and its success or lack thereof is a complex handiwork of historical, social, economical, cultural, psychological, institutional, personal, and technical variables. Simply put, there is no one universal formula to effect change and innovation. While we strive to learn from things that worked, we also have to draw experience from things that simply failed although, we recognize that success and failure are not fully contagious.

As the Bank and other funding institutions reaffirm their commitment to higher education development after many years of neglect, expectations appear to be running high in Africa. It is, however, prudent to exercise caution in the face of this gathering euphoria in case the outcome does not live up to expectations. None of the stakeholders can afford a backlash for the second time round that may have severe consequences on the development of higher education on the continent.

The African Virtual University— Developments and Critique

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Initiatives supported by information and communications technologies (ICTs) form an increasingly important component of donor-funded development projects. One such project is the African Virtual University (AVU), established by the World Bank in 1997. AVU’s mission is to bridge the digital divide and knowledge gap between Africa and the rest of the world by dramatically increasing access to “global” educational resources throughout Africa. AVU reports indicate that over 27,000 African students and professionals have participated in its semester-long courses and executive business seminars since its inception in 1997. A total of 31 learning centers have been established in 17 African nations and over 3,000 hours of courses and seminars delivered, obtained from leading universities such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in the United States and Curtin University in Australia. In fact, there is no doubt that ICT-based distance education seems a reasonable approach to complementing domestic capacity in African institutions in programs such as engineering, science, and management.

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Unclear Long-Term Benefits

In spite of the impressive numbers and the prestige attached to overseas universities, in retrospect, the World Bank and others involved in the planning of the AVU seem not to have recognized the contextual complexity of establishing a virtual university in Africa. Even more important is whether Africa is ready and in need of such a university. Consequently, AVU’s long-term educational and socioeconomic potential has become unclear. Equally unclear is the intergovernmental policy framework under which the AVU should operate and even more so whether it can be regulated at all. It is not evident that those involved in the planning of AVU knew how best to use tech-

nology to expand access to tertiary education in 1997, nor indeed today, because the project seems to be an overly ambitious one that is approaching its demise.

At its inception, AVU appeared to be a timely project for a region of the world that is known more for its bountiful natural resources and large labor pools and is often described by development partners as a land rich in potential but whose population lacks adequate education and training. Considering that only 3.8 percent of Africa's college-age group gets absorbed into tertiary education, AVU seemed to be a panacea to meeting the demand for higher education. However, going into its sixth year, AVU has scaled back on its original plan of becoming a fully fledged international virtual university. Instead, it is now an institution that operates conspicuously as a nongovernmental organization. There is even concern that AVU is slowly sliding onto the shelves of IT transfer projects in developing countries that have resulted in scanty success, or a frustrating case of a transfer that has failed to fulfill its initial promise. Critics have argued that AVU is no different from other World Bank education projects that may only realize minimal success when they are considered successful, but often yielding no benefits to the people the projects were intended to help. Others dismiss AVU as being useless in solving Africa's education problems and ill-conceived to expand access. Still, there are those who contend that AVU is unique, ambitious, and that it has shown a great deal of success, and only requires some adjustment. Among them are AVU center coordinators who have praised it as a means of "feeding hungry minds in Africa" and offering the best way forward to integrating technology in Africa's higher education. To be sure, both polarized groups have a point. For the critics, the issues are potent: did African countries buy into AVU blindly without considering the likely long-term benefits? Could it be possible that the funds used in establishing AVU would be better utilized to revitalize the familiar but deteriorating conditions at the state universities? Or, is AVU the roadmap that will launch Africa's higher education into the information and technology world? The vast literature suggests that AVU is already a frustrated project being pushed to the periphery. One piece of evidence in support this view is the absence of its mention in many of the development plans and economic survey reports of the countries involved, such as Kenya.

Accreditation and Other Issues

The issue of accreditation is important. It has been important in the dissemination of distance education in the U.S. higher education system. Since a lot of people in Africa have degrees from European, American, or even Australian universities, giving a degree from a university in an OECD country may be acceptable. It is of course

essential that education given to Africans be relevant to the needs of their countries and circumstances, and local accreditation can be a means of ensuring this is the case. It is possible that bad national universities may try to stay in business by enforcing their monopoly on education and by denying accreditation to international Open University alternative institutions that are very good. Such multinational virtual universities may fill an important niche. But there is also reason to doubt that the niche is in teaching freshman science courses (as intended by the AVU curriculum). True, there are a lot of specialties in science, engineering, and management that are needed in Africa but for which most African countries lack sufficient student demand to provide good, affordable training. There seem to be several alternatives: not to provide the training; spend too much and provide training nationally to classes that are too small; send students abroad, who may never return; or use multinational, distance education. The last seems potentially a better solution, but not in the current AVU design. Even culturally, AVU has failed to "fit in." While having students sit in a room with an African teaching assistant to listen to a canned or broadcast lecture overcomes some cultural problems such as accent, it seems inconvenient and expensive arrangement for students.

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While AVU was established to improve access in the fields of science, engineering, and business, the more critical question is whether a significant number of young Africans yearning for tertiary education could be educated, or better educated, or more affordably educated by the AVU than without it. Can the AVU walk a path of balancing high-quality programs and affordability? In the long run, it is education that counts, not the use of ICT. It is worrisome that Africans may be captured by the glamor of the technology, without knowing whether any technology offers a cost-effective alternative to avoid current educational problems. Africans should have access to the most cost-effective technology for specific educational purposes. In its present form, AVU is not well suited to meet its outlined objectives.

Whither Private Higher Education in Africa?

Mahlubi Mabizela

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IHE devotes a column in each issue to a contribution from PROPHE, the Program for Research on Private Higher Education, headquartered at the University at Albany. See <http://www.albany.edu/~prophe>.

The United States International University in Kenya convened the first private higher education conference in Africa in early September 2003. The majority of approximately 90 delegates were senior personnel of private higher education institutions from about 10 African states, but participants also included representatives of supranational organizations, governments, diplomatic missions, academics, and researchers. They deliberated on the theme: "Meeting the Challenges of Higher Education in Africa: The Role of Private Universities," and they shared experiences and ways of setting up networks. This article highlights the conference's key topical issues.

The Context of Private Higher Education Growth

Most private institutions in Africa were established during the 1990s, in a relatively new higher education environment that is undergoing major developments. As in many developing countries, the demand for higher education beyond what public institutions provide is largely responsible for the growth. Additionally, some church-related private institutions provide alternatives to the general public institutions. And in some African countries private institutions have emerged due to deterioration (sometimes near collapse) of their public sectors, which are suffering from a severe lack of resources, funding shortfalls due to inflation and population increases (not commensurate to the successful primary and secondary education), as well as social disturbances such as wars, gangsterism, and cultism. Such a collapse, in turn, strains private institutions because they are regarded as safer zones of learning. South Africa is an exception to these trends as its leading public universities retain high quality and as profit making and "credentialism" largely drive its private higher education growth, a common feature in developed countries worldwide.

Proponents of private provision of higher education claim institutional and program diversity. Considering education as a "public good," however, many

governments formulate policies that tightly regulate private institutions. In Ghana, for example, private university colleges must affiliate with public universities academically, but remain autonomous administratively. While this arrangement is said to aim at quality assurance of the affiliate institutions, the potential for isomorphism—the convergence of identities of different institutions—is high and might stifle the development of private institutions. An approach finding general approval in Kenya gives a commission for higher education overall responsibility for licensing private higher education institutions. In other African states, such as Zimbabwe, private institutions operate on par with their public counterparts. State policies, therefore, are central to the growth of private higher education institutions and affect them in different ways.

Proponents of private provision of higher education claim institutional and programme diversity.

Key Challenges

Even when Africa's private institutions absorb excess demand (however incompletely in some countries), expand access, and provide institutional diversity, they still have to convince stakeholders that they can be relied upon to offer quality education. Inadequate facilities (including libraries and modern technology) and under-qualified personnel hamper their efforts. Moreover, most African higher education systems are losing quality academics through retirement, emigration to developed countries, and migration to private enterprise. Even more troubling is their inability to replenish such losses. Moreover, experienced academics are underutilized, especially with regard to nurturing young academics. The lack of staff development strategies ensures continued reliance on public institutions for trained staff. This is self-crippling to the sustainability of quality, a problem private institutions are acutely aware of because some of their personnel are retired professors from public institutions. Some critics, however, regard the employment of retired professors as an indictment of quality. There is no evidence, though, that this lowers standards, and actually the opposite is true. Such criticisms often stem from fear of change and competition on the part of mainstream institutions. Indeed, improvement of quality education and services can make private higher education institutions better alternatives to public institutions.

Whether or not many private institutions will attract top students, a pressing challenge is to

exchange traditional curriculum development for new and innovative models. If they are to provide real program differentiation, private institutions need to determine social needs and develop curricula accordingly. Such curricula should then withstand the proof of quality maintenance and assurance while continuing to adapt to local needs and labor market demands. Broadly, private institutions in Africa seek to strive for international competitiveness with curricula that take cognizance of universal graduate standards. In the midst of these challenges, some institutions grapple with requirements of their owners, who often interfere with governance, recruitment of personnel, and academic progress.

A political problem for many private institutions, as previously experienced in Latin America and Eastern Europe, is their tendency to specialize in inexpensive fields of study that are in high demand. Natural and physical sciences, engineering, and technology remain largely peripheral, however much they are core to national development. Private higher education faces the challenge of offering diverse disciplines if it wants the status of universities of repute.

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Conclusion

Many challenges facing Africa's private higher education institutions also confront its public institutions, though often in different ways and magnitudes. African private higher education primarily plays a supportive role to public-sector institutions. If this role is vital, then public policy issues arise over governments lending a supportive hand, trying to shape growth toward meaningful social development. Issues also arise over how both public and private institutions might together address challenges in their systems. Similarly, issues emerge over how best to pursue human resources development, with what mix of competition and cooperation between the two higher education sectors. To approach such matters intelligently, public higher education institutions, the citizenry, and governments need to take note of the patterns of development, achievements, and limitations of the region's private higher education institutions. Perhaps these and other issues will be fruitfully addressed in the next regionwide conference on private higher education that South Africa is preparing to host. ■

Foreign Higher Education Activity in China

Richard Garrett

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China is perhaps the world's most complex, overhyped, and underanalyzed market for transnational higher education. The country's size, combined with China's transition from a command to a pseudomarket economy and potential as a superpower, has prompted many higher education institutions in the developed world to explore the possibilities for market entry. The recent accession of China to the World Trade Organization and the increasingly favorable official view taken of in-country activity by foreign education institutions (new regulations came into force in September 2003), suggest a genuine opening up of the market. This article is based on two reports recently published by the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (www.obhe.ac.uk).

From the Chinese perspective, the major benefits of foreign involvement are capacity, status, and innovation. China is rapidly becoming the most significant source of students studying abroad (sending over 63,000 students to the United States alone in 2002). However, like some other major source countries such as Malaysia and Singapore, China may come to view foreign-sourced, in-country provision as more cost-effective, in terms of reducing travel costs and stemming brain drain.

Regulation of Foreign Activity

The third and most recent piece of legislation on transnational provision was released in March 2003 and offers clarification on the prior 1995 regulations. (Both the 1995 and 2003 regulations are available in English on the Ministry of Education website.) Major features include the stipulation that foreign institutions must partner with Chinese institutions; partnerships must not seek profit as their objective; no less than half the members of the governing body of the institution must be Chinese citizens and the post of president or the equivalent must be a Chinese citizen residing in China; the basic language of instruction should be Chinese; and tuition fees may not be raised without approval.

The sustained proscription of foreign education institutions making a profit in China is in contrast to the 2002 law on domestic private higher education, which permits a "reasonable return." It would appear that no Chinese private higher education institution has yet won approval to offer programs leading to foreign degrees,

so the combination of a for-profit domestic provider and a foreign provider has yet to materialize, at least at degree level. Indeed, I am not aware of any foreign for-profit higher education institution currently operating independently in China at the bachelor's degree level or above. Known examples of other foreign for-profit education activity include IT education firms such as India's NITT and brokers such as CIBT. Canadian CIBT acts as a local partner for some U.S. for-profit institutions, such as Western International University (owned by the Apollo Group) and ITT Educational Services.

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None of the regulations on foreign education activity mention on-line learning or distance learning of any kind. According to the first report, there are no officially approved examples of Sino-foreign on-line provision, suggesting that approval would be required (the full reports contain some recent examples). While on-line provision is not directly mentioned in the regulation of Sino-foreign partnerships, any such activity would constitute offering foreign provision in China and would thus appear to fall under the scope of the decree.

Scale of foreign activity

Adequate data are not available on the scale of foreign higher education activity in China, but the evidence suggests rapid development. According to the 2003 decree concerning foreign education activity in China, there are currently 712 "approved" jointly run educational institutions in China. Jointly-run education institutions encompass activities ranging from codeveloped new institutions, to a foreign degree franchised to an existing Chinese university, and much subdegree and nondegree provision. The decree states that the United States is the source of the highest number of partnerships, followed by Australia, Canada, Japan, Singapore, the United Kingdom, France, and Germany.

China's size, devolved authority, and ambivalent practice of the rule of law have led to a situation of both officially approved and nonapproved foreign provision, and various types of approval. The national Ministry of Education regularly publishes a list of "approved higher education joint programs in China leading to the award of overseas degrees or degrees of the Hong Kong Special

Administrative Region (SAR)." In 2002, this list contained 67 partnerships covering 72 joint programs, roughly a tenth of the 712 total mentioned above.

The report states that in 2002, aside from these 72 approved joint programs, the "remainder . . . are only authorized to offer certificates and diplomas." Other data suggest that there are in fact many nonapproved joint programs in China leading to the award of a foreign degree. Very few countries collect or publish detailed data on the offshore activities of their universities. The main exception is Australia. Data published by the Australian Vice-Chancellor's Committee (AVCC) in May 2003 list 200 current offshore programs in China undertaken by Australian universities, 157 (79 percent) of which involve either Australian bachelor's or master's programs. If one assumes that the United States, the United Kingdom, and other major source countries are also offering nonapproved degree provision on a similar scale, it is clear that the *real* extent of foreign degree activity is far in excess of that reported on the official ministry list. Given the apparent scale of nonapproved activity, the variety of sources of nonministry approval (e.g., municipal, provincial, and local governments) and the possibility that some programs lack any form of government approval at all, the figure may be only an approximation of a phenomenon beyond the scope of official statistics.

It is clear that the real extent of foreign degree activity is far in excess of that reported on the official ministry list.

The data show that 27 Australian universities have current offshore programs in China (excluding Hong Kong SAR). This represents 71 percent of the AVCC's 38 university members, suggesting China as a major site of offshore activity for a large majority of Australia's universities. Offshore programs in China represent 13 percent of all reported current offshore activity by AVCC members. Fifty-three percent of Australian joint programs in China are offered by just 3 universities—Charles Stuart, Southern Queensland, and Victoria. By level, 50 percent of programs are at the master's level, 29 percent at the bachelor's level, with the remainder a mixture of postgraduate and undergraduate certificates, diplomas, foundation courses, and English-language provision. By subject, approximately 60 percent of provision is in the broad area of business and management, with IT, law, and education the other prominent disciplines.

The AVCC data also include valuable information on mode of delivery. For example, the data show that less than 17 percent of Australian offshore programs in China included a period of study in Australia. Just over 25 percent include at least some study by distance learning, while only 15 percent are offered wholly at a distance. The AVCC data give no details on enrollments.

In the second Observatory report, 20 Sino-foreign education partnerships were selected for analysis, covering nine countries and six categories of activity. As would be expected, almost all activity began following the 1995 regulations, and there is evidence over time of more ambition and greater commitment on the part of joint ventures—moving from joint centers and programs to branch campuses. Both the University of Nottingham in the United Kingdom and Oklahoma City University from the United States were expressly invited by the national authorities to set up operations in China, marking the first official push in this direction.

Conclusion

To conclude, while few importer countries publish detailed information on the activities of their higher education institutions, evidence from Australia indicates that the total number of ventures involving degree programs from foreign institutions greatly exceeds the number reported on the official ministry list. There are clear ambiguities over approved and nonapproved status, with approval operating at various “official” levels. The range of known partnerships suggests a flexible relationship between government regulation and local practice. What is indisputable is that transnational activity in China has expanded rapidly in scale in recent years, the extent of foreign commitment is growing, and the types of providers involved are becoming increasingly diverse.

It is clear based on the AVCC data that while traditional offshore markets such as Hong Kong, Malaysia, and Singapore continue to host the majority of franchise activity, China is increasingly significant and, given its size, has the potential to dwarf all others. Key questions for the future include: how the roles of Chinese regulation, enforcement, and local practice will develop; the extent to which official statistics and practice will be aligned; and whether exporter nations will follow Australia’s lead and collect better data on the activities of their institutions (not least in the interests of quality assurance). Finally, and related to the last point, as China becomes an increasingly significant site for higher education delivery from all over the world (perhaps the most significant site within a decade) and as delivery involves a ever more complex mix of public and private partners, what might be a legitimate (and feasible) role for national quality agencies in overseeing activity? ■

Higher Education Reform in the Balkans: Using the Bologna Process

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Like many other regions in transition, countries in the Balkans are struggling with higher education reform due at least in part to academic cultural traditions and organizational structures. Change comes hard here despite very difficult financial circumstances that sometimes provide opportunities for reform. But governmental and institutional aspirations for change seem to find common ground in the Bologna process. This article focuses on the development of this common ground in one Balkan nation—Macedonia (a September 2003 signatory to Bologna)—and places it in the broader context of the Balkans. The basis of these observations is the author’s work on both OECD and World Bank projects in Macedonia in spring and early summer 2003. The views expressed here are solely those of the author.

Macedonia, one of six former republics of Yugoslavia, has only two public universities—with Sts. Cyril and Methodius University in the capitol of Skopje (SU); the larger and more prestigious of the two. SU has 24 of the country’s 30 faculties, the remaining 6 are found at St. Kliment Ohridski University, with its principal campus in Bitola. Their combined enrollment in 2002 was 44,710—which represents a 64 percent increase since 1994. Private universities were only authorized in 2000 but are now growing rapidly. Like most Balkan countries, Macedonia has a unitary system where non-university-level faculties are part of the universities.

Macedonia, like many transition economy countries, is under pressure from the IMF and World Bank to reduce the relatively high proportion of GDP in its government sector. Public-sector budgets are thus under enormous pressure, and the universities find themselves squeezed between these constraints and burgeoning enrollment pressure. One result is that the dual tuition system under which some students are admitted on the basis of state quotas and others pay relatively high tuition rates is breaking down as all students are beginning to pay tuition.

Highly Autonomous Faculties

One of the organizational characteristics in Macedonia that is typical of most Balkan countries is highly autonomous faculties. Individual faculties have separate legal status,

present their own budgets to the government, and receive appropriations directly to the faculty level. The position of rector, traditionally weak in comparison to Western models, is especially weak in Macedonia. Other Balkan countries have struggled with this same structural characteristic, but significant changes to strengthen the role of rectors have been implemented in Slovenia and Croatia. Slovenia's adopted reform centralizes substantial powers under the rector, while Croatia's model is characterized by more limited functional integration of responsibility at the rector's level. Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo have had organizational reforms imposed, while Serbia is struggling with its own solution.

The highly decentralized nature of Macedonian universities, combined with the instability of coalition governments and high turnover of ministers of education, have posed serious obstacles to reform. Granted some faculties have moved ahead in very progressive and aggressive ways in the absence of any central policy directions, but such reform is very uneven and has not addressed cross-faculty issues. There is currently a legal reform process in place that would start with the more limited functional integration of the Croatian model and slowly move toward the stronger Slovenian model.

The current government in Macedonia has strongly endorsed the Bologna process and its minister of education and science, Azis Pollozhani, is proving to be an effective leader of reform.

The Bologna Process

The current government in Macedonia has strongly endorsed the Bologna process and its minister of education and science, Azis Pollozhani, is proving to be an effective leader of reform. The faculties and universities have also strongly endorsed movement toward the Bologna reforms and have begun to adopt some of the easier and more visible elements (e.g., the European Credit and Transfer System, ECTS) that is scheduled for full implementation by 2004.

While interviewing scores of faculty and administrators, the author encountered a strong resistance to reform unless the dire financial problems of the faculties are addressed. Yet academics were willing to talk about the Bologna process, although here, too, financial concerns were dominant. Macedonian academics are eager to join their colleagues in the European mainstream and thus willing to engage in the necessary reforms. Even government officials outside the Ministry of Education and

Science also endorse the importance of moving into this European mainstream. For them it is an important step in the larger goal of joining the European Union. Moreover, many leaders in ministries come from academia.

The Bologna process as a vehicle for reform finds favor with most parties concerned and has become the centerpiece of the Ministry of Education and Science policy reform efforts. Difficulties arise, however, over the meaning of particular reforms and the priority given under the broad umbrella of Bologna. ECTS is easy but relatively superficial. Introducing a true credit and transfer system between faculties and universities strikes closer to the core of resistance. For example, the current incentive structure is for each faculty to teach its own language, mathematics, and other courses. Developing a meaningful structure of elective courses, especially outside of specific faculties and changing the style of teaching and learning cut even closer to the core.

Conclusion

Reformers, both inside the government and academy and outside officialdom, are using Bologna to push reform closer to the core. Some see organizational reform, particularly reduction of faculty autonomy, as a keystone and are citing Bologna to support the structural changes needed to formulate and implement the required academic changes. These reformers cite not only Bologna but also changes already made in Slovenia and Croatia. Reformers interested in greater equity of access for underrepresented ethnic communities, particularly the Albanians, also cite Bologna process concerns expressed at Prague and elsewhere for diversity and democracy. But universities leaders are far less interested in the equity issue, which they do not see as central to Bologna or of high priority.

One other reform lever of considerable importance now under consideration is changing the way in which government funds flow to universities—that is, moving from the traditional method based on number of existing staff to a more normative funding model based on enrollment and weighted enrollment for top government areas.

Whether Macedonia's participation and use of the Bologna process will result in substantive reforms is an open question. Some powerful, entrenched interests will acquiesce or advocate superficial changes leading to EU recognition, but they will strongly resist changes that might destabilize their power base or their ability to earn added income. Structural changes, both organizational and financial, may be within political reach and could have the most far-reaching consequences of reform measures. If the rubric of the Bologna process can further these changes, then perhaps it will play a very important role beyond rhetoric. ■

News of the Center and the Program in Higher Education

Work is concluding on the bibliography on private higher education cosponsored by the Center and the University at Albany's Program on Research on Private Higher Education (PROPHE). This project, which has been coordinated by Alma Maldonado and Hong Zhu at the Center and colleagues at the University at Albany, will result in a bibliographical volume. The work will be part of PROPHE's website on private higher education as well. Laura Rumbley and Philippa Thiuri have also been helping with the bibliography. The *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, edited by Dr. Damtew Teferra and colleagues at CODESRIA in Senegal, will publish its inaugural issue in late 2003. This issue will be followed by a theme issue focusing on the economics of higher education in Africa. Copies of the journal will be available free of charge to readers in Africa. Please contact the journal (jhea@bc.edu) with any requests. In November, the Center cosponsored a one-day seminar on accreditation and quality assurance, with a special focus on Taiwan, in cooperation with the Taiwan Economic and Cultural Office in Boston and the New England Association of Schools and Colleges. The Center, in collaboration with the Ford Foundation, will be organizing a working conference on comparative higher education in spring 2004. Center director Philip G. Altbach recently spoke at a conference on doctoral education at the UNESCO European Center for Higher Education in Bucharest, Romania. He will be a visiting scholar at the University of Hong Kong in December and will also be a keynote speaker at a conference on higher education at Xiamen University in China.

Dr. Altbach, along with Professor Robert O. Berdahl of the University of Maryland and Professor Patricia Gumpert of Stanford University, has completed work on a revised edition of their coedited book, *American Higher Education in the 21st Century*. This book will be published by the Johns Hopkins University Press in 2004. Arrangements are currently under way for the translation and publication of several Center-sponsored books by the China Ocean University Press in Qingdao, China. Center graduate assistant Alma Maldonado, currently completing her doctoral dissertation, will join the faculty in higher education at the University of Arizona. Dr. Damtew Teferra recently attended a World Bank-Association of African Universities conference on higher education in Accra, Ghana. ■

Xabier Gorostiaga, SJ

Fr. Xabier Gorostiaga, SJ, died in September in his native Basque Country of Spain after a long struggle with cancer. He was 66, and most recently was a senior leader of the Association of Jesuit Universities in Latin America. Xabier was a visiting scholar at the CIHE in 1998, and I got to know him well during his year of study here. I traveled to China with him and was amazed by both his energy and his intellectual curiosity as he revealed to me places central to the important Jesuit history in China. Xabier studied economics at Cambridge University in England. He later served as director of planning in the revolutionary government in Nicaragua and was a senior adviser to the government of Panama during the negotiations with the United States concerning the return of the Panama Canal. He then served as rector of the University of Central America in Nicaragua. For these services, both Panama and Nicaragua gave him citizenship. Fr. Gorostiaga represents the best values of the Jesuits—his intellectual breadth and his ability to translate his ideas into action characterized his life. He will be missed by his colleagues and friends.

—Philip G. Altbach

New Publications

Albornoz, Orlando. *Higher Education Strategies in Venezuela*. Caracas, Venezuela: Bibliotechnology Ediciones, 2003. 208 pp. (pb). ISBN 980-6605-00-4. Address: Bibliotechnology Ediciones, Apdo 50-061, Caracas 1050-A, Venezuela.

An analysis of the history and especially the current situation of Venezuelan higher education under the Chavez government, this book discusses the relationship of the university to society in

turbulent times. From a sociological perspective, the author discusses the increasing governmental control over higher education, while laying out the consequences for the future of science and scholarship.

Bowen, William G, and Sarah A. Levin. *Reclaiming the Game: College Sports and Educational Values*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2003. 490 pp. \$27.95 (hb). ISBN 0-691-11620-2. Address: Princeton University Press, 41 William St., Princeton NJ 08540, USA.

Collegiate athletics is, of course, big business in the United States. Many people criticize some universities for an over-emphasis on such sports as football and basketball, arguing that academic values are deemphasized and too much money is spent. This book, based on careful research, discusses sports in the Ivy League schools, arguing that there are serious problems. Reforms are proposed.

Bu, Linping. *Making the World Like Us: Education, Cultural Expansion and the*

American Century. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers, 2003. 279 pp. \$69.95. (hb). ISBN 0-27597694-7. Address: Praeger Publishers, 88 Old Post Rd. West, Westport CT 06881, USA.

A historical analysis of America's international educational and cultural policies, this book discusses educational exchange policies and practices during the 20th century, foreign educational assistance (using Teachers College of Columbia University as a case study), and Cold War diplomacy and educational assistance. The changing role of the U.S. federal government as well as of philanthropic foundations and the academic community is discussed.

García Guadilla, Carmen, ed. (2003). *El difícil equilibrio: La educación superior como bien público y comercio de servicios*. Paris: Programa Columbus, 2003. 143 pp. (pb). ISBN 9972-45-153-4. Address: Programa Columbus, 1 rue Miollis, 75732 Paris, France.

A discussion of the implications of GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services) on higher education and its implications for the public good, this volume features analyses by authors from around the world. Among the topics considered are the commercialization of educational services, internationalization in Europe and Latin America, the role of higher education as a commercial service, and the implications for Latin America of GATS and related developments.

Green, Madeleine F. and Christa Olson. *Internationalizing the Campus: A User's Guide*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 2003. 114 pp. \$34.95 (pb). Address: ACE Fulfillment Service, Dept. 191, Washington DC 20055, USA.

This volume is a practical guide to internationalizing academic institutions. It begins with definitions and purposes of internationalization. The main discussion concerns strategies for internationalization on individual campuses. While the content relates to the United States, the insights may be relevant elsewhere.

Grünzweig, Walter and Nana Rinehart, eds. *Rockin' in Red Square:*

Critical Approaches to International Education in the Age of Cyberculture. Münster, Germany: Lit Verlag, 2002. 220 pp. (pb). ISBN 3-8258-6205-4. Address: Lit Verlag, Grevener Str. 179, 48159 Münster, Germany.

This rather oddly titled book consists of a series of essays discussing the role and definitions of internationalization in higher education. The contributors are specialists on foreign study and international education from Europe and North America. Among the topics considered are cross-cultural "deepening," study abroad and globalization, issues relating to U.S. students abroad, engineering and international education, and the role of information technology in international education.

Kwesiga, Joyce C. *Women's Access to Higher Education in Africa: Uganda's Experience*. Kampala, Uganda: Fountain Publishers, 2002. 309 pp. ISBN 9970-02-295-4. Address: Foundation Publishers, POB 488, Kampala, Uganda.

Focusing on the problems of women's access to higher education in Uganda, this book provides an overview of the literature on women and higher education in developing countries and in Africa and then focuses on the specific issues related to Uganda. There is also an analysis of the Uganda education system. The research on which this study is based is a survey of 643 students and interviews with heads of educational institutions. Issues such as family and societal influences, student attitudes, and related themes are discussed.

Kwiek, Marek, ed., *The University, Globalization, Central Europe*. Frankfurt am Main, Germany: Peter Lang, 2003. 260 pp. (pb). ISBN: 3-361-50813-1.

A collection of essays focusing on issues relevant to higher education development in Central and Eastern Europe, this volume considers such topics as academic freedom, accreditation, the role of the nation state in higher education policy, cultural politics and higher education, the role of the disciplines, and the role of liberal education. The authors reflect a variety of national perspectives.

Kwiatkowski, Stefan and Jan Sadlak, eds., *Knowledge Café for Intellectual Entrepreneurship through Higher Education*. Warsaw, Poland: Academy of Entrepreneurship and Management, 2003. 304 pp. (pb). ISBN: 83-86846-95-X, Address: Academy of Entrepreneurship and Management, Jagiellonska St. 59, 00-987 Warsaw, Poland.

A wide-ranging discussion of topics relating to the role of entrepreneurship, leadership, and technology in a changing academic environment, this book focuses on several case studies in Central and Eastern Europe and on broad issues.

Leisyte, Liudvika. *Higher Education Governance in Post-Soviet Lithuania*. Oslo, Norway: Institute for Educational Research, University of Oslo, 2002. 128 pp. (pb). ISBN 82-569-6106-6. Address, Institute for Educational Research, POB 1092, Blindern, N-0317 Oslo, Norway.

During the Soviet era, Lithuanian universities were highly centralized. Since 1990, they have moved to a model of looser state supervision, although there are tensions between the institutions and the state. This study examines the continuing struggle between state control and university independence. Historical analysis of the development of Lithuanian higher education is included as well.

Lewis, Darrell R. and James Hearn, eds. *The Public Research University: Serving the Public Good in New Times*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America, 2003. 260 pp. \$40 (pb). ISBN: 0-7618-2517-7. Address: University Press of America, 4501 Forbes Blvd., Lanham, MD 20706, USA.

An edited volume based on a case study of the University of Minnesota, one of the major public research universities in the United States, this volume features discussions of such topics as the public good and public research universities, nonmonetary rewards of undergraduate education, the role of libraries, technology transfer, the historical background of the University of Minnesota, and others.

Maiworm, Friedhelm and Bernd Wächter, eds. *English-Language-Taught Degree Programmes in European Higher Education: Trends and Success Factors*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmons Verlag, 2002. 136 pp. (pb). ISBN: 3-932306-47-3. Address: Lemmens Verlag, Matthias-Grünewald-Str. 1-3, D-53175 Bonn, Germany.

A publication in the valuable series on international cooperation in education of the Academic Cooperation Association, this volume analyzes the growing number of programs taught in English in European universities. The authors see the proliferation of English-taught programs as part of the internationalization of higher education in Europe. A Europe-wide questionnaire plus case studies were used for this research—it was found that 30 percent of the responding universities had programs in English. Universities in Denmark, the Czech Republic, Germany, Belgium, Finland, Norway, and the Netherlands were studied. Curriculum, staffing, and other aspects of the organization of the programs were surveyed.

Mário, Moutzinho, Peter Fry, Lisbeth Levey, and Arlindo Chilundo. *Higher Education in Mozambique*, Oxford, UK: James Currey, Ltd., 2003. 133 pp. (pb). ISBN: 0-85255-430-3. Address: James Currey Publishers, 73 Botley Rd., Oxford OX2 OBS, UK.

Mozambique emerged from years of colonialism and civil war recently. This fact makes the remarkable growth of its higher education system especially impressive. This volume analyzes the historical development of higher education and then focuses on key aspects of contemporary development—including equity and access for students, the role of the teaching staff, information technology, finance and governance, and similar topics. This volume is part of a new series published by the Partnership for Higher Education in Africa.

Mkude, Daniel, Brian Cooksey, and Lisbeth Levy. *Higher Education in Tanzania*. Oxford, UK: James Currey, Ltd., 2003. 114 pp. (pb). ISBN: 0-85255-425-7. Address: James Currey Publishers, 73 Botley Rd., Oxford OX2 OBS, UK.

Emerging from a decade of decline in the 1980s, the University of Dar es Salaam, the main subject of this volume, has achieved impressive results recently. This volume analyzes the role of the university in Tanzanian society and discusses institutional transformation in the university. This volume is part of a new series published by the Partnership for Higher Education in Africa.

Musisi, Nakanyike B. and Nansozi K. Muwanga, *Makerere University in Transition, 1993-2000*. Oxford, UK: James Currey, Ltd., 2003. 103 pp. (pb). ISBN: 0-85255-426-5. Address: James Currey Publishers, 73 Botley Rd., Oxford OX2 OBS, UK.

One of the most important universities on the African continent, Makerere has been buffeted by political and economic crises during its history. This volume traces the history and development of the university through its various phases. There is a special emphasis on reforms and on the adaptation of the university to change. This volume is part of a new series published by the Partnership for Higher Education in Africa.

Smart, John C., ed., *Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research, Vol. 17*. Dordrecht, the Netherlands, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2002. 503 pp. (hb). ISBN: 0-87586-136-9. Address: Kluwer Academic Publishers, POB 17, 3300 AZ Dordrecht, Netherlands.

Now in its 17th year of publication, this valuable series provides detailed research-based essays on aspects of higher education in an effort to offer readers a “state of the art” on the topic. In this volume, the subjects considered include student motivation and self-regulated learning, degree aspirations for Latino and African-American students, state financial aid programs, the changing role of the community college, doctoral student socialization, and several others. While the essays focus mainly on the United States and cite mainly U.S. data, most of the topics have international relevance.

Wellman, Jane V. and Thomas Ehrlich, eds. *How the Student Credit Hour Shapes Higher Education: The Tie That Binds, New Directions for Higher Education*, No. 122 (Summer, 2003), pp. 1-127. Address: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 989 Market St., San Francisco, CA 94103, USA.

The focus of this collection of essays concerning the use of the credit-hour system in the United States is understanding how it affects innovation, the work of the faculty, accreditation, budgeting and related areas. The essays argue that the credit-hour system is deeply embedded in U.S. higher education and that it tends to stifle innovation. The chapters point out that there are few clear rules concerning how credit hours are allocated and little supervision. One chapter discusses the international use of credit hours and points out that there is a trend toward allocating them. The European Union, especially, is concerned with mobility within the EU nations and the credit-hour system is a way to manage this mobility.

Williams, Gareth, ed., *The Enterprising University: Reform, Excellence and Equity*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press, 2003. 193 pp. (hb). \$102. ISBN: 033521072-4. Address: Open University Press, 22 Ballmoor, Burkingham MK18 1XW, UK.

The overall focus of this edited volume is on the permutations of the “enterprise university”—the impact of markets and market-oriented thinking on higher education. Chapters explore the impact of this concept on academic institutions, the professoriate, the relationship between the university and the workplace, and approaches to the generation of income. While most of the chapters focus on the United Kingdom, there are considerations of American, South African, and Commonwealth experiences.

World Bank, *Lifelong Learning in the Global Knowledge Economy*. Washington, DC: World Bank, 2003. 141 pp. \$25 (pb). ISBN: 0-8213-5475-2. Address: World Bank, 11818 H St. NW, Washington DC. 20433, USA.

While not necessarily postsecondary education, lifelong learning is very

much part of the broader education agenda of most societies. This World Bank report discusses the role of lifelong learning in the knowledge economy. An increasingly complex labor market and demands on the workforce make lifelong learning a growing focus. The report discusses financing lifelong learning as well as the development of systems to ensure that lifelong learning is appropriately governed.

New Publication Series

The Council on Higher Education of South Africa has inaugurated a new series of publications on higher education issues as they affect South Africa. The series, called "Kagisano—CHE Higher Education Discussion Series" appears occasionally. Among the first publications are "Good Governance in Higher Education: Reflections on Co-operative Governance in South African Higher Education," (46 pp) and "The General

Agreement on Trade in Services and South African Higher Education: What Should South Africa Do?" (73 pp). The publications include thoughtful analysis by South African and international experts on topics of importance not only for South Africa but for other countries as well. Additional information can be obtained from the Council on Higher Education, POB 13354, The Tramshed 0126, South Africa. <http://www.che.ac.za>.

An Initiative in International Higher Education

The Boston College Center for International Higher Education provides a unique service to colleges and universities worldwide by focusing on the global realities of higher education. Our goal is to bring an international consciousness to the analysis of higher education. We are convinced that an international perspective will contribute to enlightened policy and practice. To serve this goal, the Center publishes *International Higher Education*, a book series on higher education, and other publications. We sponsor occasional conferences on key issues in higher education and maintain a resource base for researchers and policymakers. The Center welcomes visiting scholars for periods of study and reflection. We have a special concern for academic institutions in the Jesuit tradition worldwide, and more broadly with Catholic universities. The Center is also concerned with creating dialogue and cooperation among academic institutions in industrialized nations and in developing countries. We are convinced that our future depends on effective collaboration and the creation of an international community focused on the improvement of higher education in the public interest.

Our work is supported by the Ford Foundation and by the Lynch School of Education at Boston College. We are indebted to these funders for core sponsorship.

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The Center's award-winning website is a useful source of information and analysis on higher education worldwide. All back issues of *International Higher Education* are available, and an index provides easy access to articles by topic and country. Center publications are also available, and links to relevant higher education websites and information are provided. We are a featured e-link of the World Bank and other agencies.

The Program in Higher Education in the Lynch School of Education, Boston College

The Center is closely related to the program in higher education at Boston College. The program offers master's and doctoral degree study in the field of higher education. The program has been preparing professionals in higher education for three decades. It features a rigorous social science-based approach to the study of higher education, combining a concern with the broader theoretical issues relating to higher education and an understanding of the practice of academic administration. The Administrative Fellows initiative provides financial assistance as well as work experience in a variety of administrative settings. Specialization is offered in higher education administration, student affairs and development, international higher education, and other areas. Additional information about the program is available from Dr. Karen Arnold, coordinator of the program in higher education, Lynch School of Education, Campion Hall, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, MA 02467, USA. Fax: (617) 552-8422. E-mail: <arnoldkc@bc.edu>. More information about the program—including course descriptions and degree requirements—can be found on-line at the program's website: <http://infoeagle.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/hea/JEA/html>. *International Higher Education* is available full-text on our website. Web-based subscriptions are also available.

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