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**International Issues**

2 Students: Politics and Revolution  
*Philip G. Altbach*

3 The Academy and the Public Realm  
*Zelda F. Gamson*

**Special Focus: Financing Issues**

5 Student-Based Higher Education Financing Policies  
*Arthur M. Hauptman*

7 Ideas for Financing in Higher Education  
*Damtew Teferra*

**Special Focus: 21st Century Challenges**

9 Prospects for Higher Education in Latin America  
*Simon Schwartzman*

10 African Realities and Global Challenges: The 21st Century  
*Jairam Reddy*

**Special Focus: China and Hong Kong**

12 Academic Culture in Shanghai’s Universities  
*Gerard Postiglione and Jiang Minghe*

14 Higher Education in Hong Kong: Two Years Later  
*Grace C. L. Mak*

**Countries and Regions**

15 Access to Higher Education in Bangladesh  
*Munir Quddus*

16 Challenges for Catholic Higher Education in Japan  
*William Currie, S.J.*

18 Gender and Higher Education in the Arab States  
*André Elias Mazawi*

20 Two Decades of Change in Spanish Higher Education  
*José-Gines Mora*

21 Oxford University: Reflections of a Visiting Scholar  
*Xiangming Chen*

**Departments**

23 Book Review

24 New Publications

27 News of the Center
Students: Politics and Revolution

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In July, university students in Iran came close to overthrowing the regime. They failed when conservatives within the government mobilized counter demonstrators and mounted their own street demonstrations. It is worth recalling that the downfall of the Shah two decades ago was precipitated by students from Tehran University. Less than a year ago, Indonesian students took to the streets and, after protracted demonstrations that resulted in major riots and deaths, forced the resignation of President Suharto and paved the way for recently concluded elections. These are but two examples of the power student movements have to influence politics and cause social unrest.

Students have played a pivotal role in the political and cultural history of many countries. They were central players in the independence movements that brought freedom to many developing countries. Campus social and political movements have been harbingers of change in many societies, from the pro-Nazi student fraternities in pre-Hitler Germany to the U.S. civil rights and antiwar movements in the 1960s. Student political movements might be compared to the proverbial canary in the coal mine—they may be a sign of a social explosion to come or of a building political crisis.

Yet not all student movements signal impending social crisis, and they are by no means always successful. If a regime is stable and has a modicum of legitimacy, it can usually survive. The government can sometimes use overwhelming repression to put down student revolts. This can be dangerous, since it can easily backfire. This occurred on the streets of Jakarta, when troops killed students at one of Indonesia’s most prestigious universities, inflaming campus opinion and causing the mass media to turn against the government. In contrast, the Chinese authorities were able to use massive force to end the demonstrations at Tiananmen Square in 1989 by moving decisively and keeping control of the mass media. Further, the Chinese regime had better control over the security apparatus and greater legitimacy than President Suharto.

Student movements can topple governments only when the political system is already weakened and the regime has lost much of its legitimacy. Students have never caused the government of an industrialized country to fall. This is because the political systems are relatively stable and there are many competing political interests, organizations, and movements—from labor unions to political parties and the media. Only in the volatile 1960s did students cause significant unrest in Western countries. In France, President DeGaulle was forced to flee to a French military base in Germany and the survival of the government seemed precarious. In America, the anti-Vietnam War movement, led by students, forced President Lyndon Johnson not to run for re-election although it did not threaten the political system. In West Germany, radical students were a potent political force. The reasons for the power of students at this time were similar in each country—society was polarized and the established political parties were not functioning effectively. In the United States, Pres. Johnson’s pledge to scale back in Vietnam was not honored and the war escalated; in France, DeGaulle had weakened parliament; and in Germany, the “grand coalition” of the two major parties left the country without an effective opposition and the students stepped in with an “extraparliamentary opposition” that expressed the views of a growing sector of German opinion.

Students have played a pivotal role in the political and cultural history of many countries.

Many developing countries have poorly institutionalized political systems and a weak public sphere. Their “civil society”—the web of voluntary organizations, the press and publishers, unions, political parties, and the like—is inadequate. There are many reasons for this. In some cases, the legacy of colonialism stunted the growth of institutions. The Congo, for example, had only a handful of university graduates at the time of independence. Poverty and illiteracy also hampered the establishment of civic institutions and stable governments. University students are among the few groups in society that possess the knowledge and the freedom to undertake political activism. And in many developing countries, a tradition of student political involvement dates back to the struggles against colonialism. In contrast, student politics is considered an illegitimate activity in the West—students are expected to attend university to study and not to engage in revolutionary activity. Not only do Western students have to contend with a rich mixture of competing organizations and movements, but their activism is not respected by most of the public. In developing countries, students are often seen as the “conscience of the nation.”

The recent cases of Iran and Indonesia are illustrative. Iran’s clerical establishment seems to have survived the current outbreak of student-led demonstrations. In both countries, political opposition has for many years been stifled,
with a strictly controlled media. Academic freedom in the universities was restricted. There were few outlets for people to express their opposition to those in power, and in any case political expression courted arrest. Yet, both Iran and Indonesia have active middle classes and fairly high literacy rates, the basis for a civil society.

Students in these countries, and in many other Third World nations, were the only group in society able to express dissenting views. Students in developing countries, after all, come from relatively affluent and urbanized families. They are relatively easy to organize since they are on campus. The academic atmosphere, even in repressive societies such as Iran and Indonesia, is more liberal than in the surrounding society. Perhaps most important, higher education encourages inquiry and the questioning of established practices and institutions. It is not at all surprising that critical opinion will be expressed first among students.

In both countries, unrest spread quickly from the major universities in the capital and attracted the support of significant parts of the urban population. In Indonesia, the rot in the regime was sufficiently deep and social discontent, stimulated by the expanding economic crisis, strong enough to make repression impossible. Suharto was eventually forced to seek a peaceful solution to the crisis and to resign. The students did not achieve their intended goal—the ouster of the entire regime, since Suharto’s successor, Habibie, was part of the old regime, and elections did not take place for a year.

In Iran, the conservative leadership was able to bring its own supporters out onto the streets and to dominate the mass media. The regime, through moderate levels of repression and the mobilization of its own supporters, proved that it retained a wellspring of support in society. In both countries, events are still evolving, and students may again play a central role.

Students precipitated the crisis, yet were unable to control events. This too is a common characteristic of student activism. Students have neither the power nor the organizational sophistication to maintain their movement and impose their will on society. Once the crisis takes place, other forces emerge. Often, the military seizes power, or political coalitions are able to cobbled together a regime. In Indonesia, the political parties are slowly moving toward creating a government following recent elections. In Iran, the conservative Islamic clerics have, at least for the present, kept power.

University students are a powerful force in many countries. They both shape and express public opinion and cultural attitudes. Often at the forefront of political and social change, they deserve to be understood—and respected.

Note: This article also appears in Change (September-October, 1999).
without regard for the less privileged. This has led to the decline of the middle class—traditionally the carriers of civic life—and a growing gap between the rich and everyone else.

Add to the elites of wealth the elites in the media and government, who have increasingly separated themselves from the general public, and it would appear that civic life is in trouble because the people and organizations with the greatest power and resources have trashed democracy.

Some social scientists see a decline in participation in civic organizations, marked by a decline in membership in voluntary groups.

The Academy and the Public Realm
What are the responsibilities of the academy in all this? First, we must look at the university as a public realm. Asking whether and how the university is a public realm is not an obvious question, because academic institutions have both public and nonpublic aspects. There is no doubt that higher education is a public issue. Accountability discourses about higher education have been common and growing in nations around the world and show no sign of abating.

It is unequivocally clear that colleges and universities provide “public space” for citizens and organizations to meet on neutral ground to learn about and discuss issues of public concern. Almost all American colleges and universities do this, whether by inviting the public to lectures, holding open meetings for electoral candidates, organizing forums on civic issues, or convening groups.

What if we ask whether, in addition to serving as a public space, the academy works in and for the public sphere? Here, I think we are likely to encounter skepticism among faculty members and administrators in the United States. This is because the “academic revolution” described in the late 1960s by Christopher Jencks and David Riesman, in which distinctive local and regional institutions turned into less distinctive and more national ones, has drawn faculty and administrators away from the communities in which they reside. This is especially true for elite private universities.

Despite these countervailing forces, faculty involvement in the public sphere in most U.S. colleges and universities is quite high. A survey of all the colleges and universities in New England turned up the rather surprising information that a lot of faculty are involved in such activities. We found this to be true across the spectrum of higher education in the United States.

What faculty members did varied according to the settings in which they worked. Some were consulting with government agencies, businesses, and other organizations that had a connection to the public realm. Others were using their expertise to provide service to organizations like schools and social service agencies.

But while we found a lot of public work engaged in by academics in the United States, we did not find many universities that supported them in that work. Some institutions, research universities and their many imitators, made it hard for faculty to do public work by devaluing it as not being “real” scholarship. As a result, most faculty members are doing these things in spite of their institutions, working around tenure and promotion standards, fitting the work into already overcrowded schedules, trying to integrate it with their teaching and research. Under these conditions, the miracle is that so many faculty are as involved as they are in public work.

The real problem is with the institutions themselves. In our research, my colleagues and I found that generalized support for public scholarship among administrators is very high. However, when we asked specific questions about structures, resources, and rewards in support of this emphasis, much smaller percentages of institutions showed concrete support. The result is that the efforts of individuals on campuses are privatized, invisible, isolated, uncoordinated, and not strategic.

The denigration of applied research and problem solving has further eroded higher education’s connection to the world.

College presidents in the United States are talking a lot nowadays about the need to increase the university’s contributions to society. In this they are essentially following the lead of the business world, where even companies that are not considered enlightened encourage their employees to be involved in their communities. Corporations do so not out of superior morality but because they think it is good for business. College presidents are beginning to recognize the public relations value of public service.

I think it is necessary to go back to some of the ideas about the university as a public realm. And it is here that we must start if we are serious. If we are really honest, we would have to admit that the public realm in the academy is impoverished. The traditional research culture that so many institutions have imitated in their quest for prestige and resources is a vampire that saps the blood of younger
and older faculty alike. By drawing faculty away from commitment to their institutions and communities, the research culture has broken up whatever community existed within the academy and whatever connections the academy had with the public realm in the past.

The denigration of applied research and problem solving has further eroded higher education’s connection to the world. The fetishism of much academic writing has contributed to the unintelligibility of academic discourse. The domination of research and publication in tenure and promotion decisions in colleges and universities that are not themselves research institutions has had a chilling effect on the faculty who do engage in the public realm. I am not advocating that faculty stop doing research and stop publishing. Far from it. But they need to do this work in settings that enable—even force—them to ask whether what they are doing contributes to the public realm. We need to ask that question again, and we need to re-create our universities to make that question central.

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**Student-Based Higher Education Financing Policies**

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Policymakers and stakeholders around the world are increasingly discussing the desirability of making public policies for higher education based more on the needs of students and less on the needs of institutions. There is considerable variation among countries in how student-based and institution-based policies are defined. This article looks at one definition of the issue as it applies to the three major elements of financing higher education: government allocations to institutions, tuition fees, and student aid.

**Government Allocation Procedures**

The way in which governments allocate taxpayer funds to institutions is the principal public policy vehicle for higher education around the world. In virtually all countries, the distribution of funds to institutions is based on historical patterns, political considerations, or formulas that take into account the number of students enrolled and costs per student at different institutions. Each of these allocation policies is institution based in that the budgetary needs of institutions are uppermost in the determination. Also, very few countries differentiate among the characteristics of enrolled students in determining these allocations.

Government allocation procedures for higher education could be made more student based by factoring student characteristics into the formula for distributing funds. Thus, governments might pay institutions more for the disadvantaged students they enroll than for the more mainstream students. Another example of student-based allocation policies is for governments to pay more for students enrolling in high-priority fields than for those in other fields of study. England is perhaps the best example of a country that has moved to a student-based allocation system in which government allocations are determined more by the price the government is willing to pay for certain groups of students than by the cost of educating those students.

**Tuition Setting Policies**

Many higher education participants and observers would say that the fee policy most attuned to the needs of students was one in which the education was provided for free and the government picked up the whole bill. But what is missing in this formulation is that a policy of no fees benefits only the students who are enrolled. A consequence of having no fees may be that the government can fund fewer spaces (because each subsidized space costs more). Put another way, a no-fee policy is student based only if the government provides enough financial support to institutions to create a sufficient supply of seats to meet the demand of qualified applicants.

Most countries that charge fees now adhere at least in theory to a cost-recovery formula by which fees are set as a percentage of the educational costs per student. But like government allocation cost-recovery formulas, fees set as a percentage of costs per student are by definition institution based because they are designed to recover the cost to the institution. An example of a more student-based policy is one in which fees are set in relation to an economic indicator such as GDP per capita or median family
income. This kind of arrangement would better accommodate the changing ability over time of students and their families to pay for higher education than would formulas based principally on institutional cost structures.

Student Aid Programs
There is a temptation to call any student aid program student based because by definition it provides aid to students. But such programs vary considerably in their structure, and some are more student based than others. In many countries, student aid takes the form of governments providing funds to institutions, which in turn select recipients from a number of qualified recipients based on criteria set by government. While this approach is certainly student based in that students receive the aid in the form of discounted prices, it is not as oriented to students as a vouchers policy in which students vote with their feet and in which the money that an institution receives is determined by how many voucher recipients enroll.

Another issue is what charges are covered in a student aid program and how they are paid. A program that covers only tuition fees and not other costs of attendance is less student based than one in which living costs are covered. Similarly, one could argue that the most student-based aid program would be one in which the opportunity costs of going to school rather than remaining in the workforce were covered in addition to the instructional fees and living costs. But few countries cover opportunity costs through their aid programs.

Still another way to gauge whether government policies are student based is to consider how much government funding for higher education is devoted to student aid. In many countries, this is referred to as “top-slicing”—the portion of higher education funds that is set aside for student aid. Student-based policies might be those in which a relatively high proportion of total government funding for higher education—perhaps 10 percent or more—is top sliced for student aid. An institution-based approach might be one in which 5 percent or less of total higher education funding is provided in the form of student aid.

But Are Student-Based Policies Better?
The preceding discussion of government allocations, tuition fees, and student aid has not addressed the question, should financing policies be made more student based? My answer is yes, principally for the following two reasons: First, student-based policies are likely to be more effective in achieving the goal of access than institution-based policies. For example, a student-based fee policy that is tied to the family’s ability to pay is more likely to keep fees affordable than one oriented toward financing institutional budgets. A student aid voucher program that follows the students will be more likely to produce expanded access than an institution-based aid program. Similarly, policies that allocate funds to institutions on the basis of the characteristics of students are more likely to yield results in terms of higher enrollments of targeted groups of students than allocation policies that ignore student characteristics.

Student-based policies allow governments to express their policies more explicitly than institution-based policies tied to the costs of educating students. The per student costs of education may bear little relationship to national or regional priorities. For example, if there are severe teacher shortages in a country, the fact that it costs relatively little to train teachers should not get in the way of the government paying institutions more for the teachers they produce than for graduates in some other profession. Similarly, even though the costs are typically less at rural institutions than urban ones, governments might well want to pay more for slots at rural institutions to ensure more equitable regional distributions.

Of course, no financing policy is totally institution or student based. There is a continuum along which all countries could be located. Policymakers should consider the possibility that moving toward more student-based policies will enhance the chances of improving access to higher education and meeting important national and regional priorities. This will be especially important as most countries around the world face the challenge of increasing access for traditionally underrepresented groups of students and of having higher education be more relevant to their societies at a time when resources are unlikely to grow sufficiently to keep up with exploding demand.

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We are currently completing work on our inventory of centers and institutes in the field of higher education worldwide. The inventory will feature full information about policy centers, research institutes, academic programs, and other organizations focusing on higher education. We will publish the inventory as a book and also make it available on the WWW. If you are associated with a relevant organization that has not responded to our questionnaire, please contact us immediately, and we will provide information to you. Please contact Dave Engberg at <highered@bc.edu>.
Ideas for Financing African Higher Education

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Higher education is a costly business. It requires mobilizing a wide array of personnel at all levels of training as well as maintaining a vast and complex infrastructure. Even affluent nations, let alone the impoverished countries of Africa and the Third World, find it increasingly difficult to maintain adequate levels of financial support for their higher education institutions. While reports on the dismal state of most African institutions abound, this article outlines a number of potential ways of expanding the financial resource base of these institutions.

Promoting Private Institutions. Private institutions are slowly but steadily emerging in several African countries. Kenya and South Africa currently each have a dozen private institutions; according to a recent report, Benin has 27 private institutions.1 However, most of these institutions have small enrollment capacities.

A good number of African university students come from families in the growing middle and upper classes. This means that many students would be able to pay for their studies should alternative means of acquiring a higher education become available. Private institutions should be promoted so as to relieve governments of some of the burden of providing higher education for their citizens. Incentives by way of tax relief, land grants, and import exemptions should be put in place to attract investors. Favorable loan schemes and loan guarantees from bodies such as the World Bank should be seriously considered to support the establishment, operation, and maintenance of private higher education institutions.

Tuition and fees. Time and again efforts to reform a university’s funding system have resulted in student unrest. Even selective attempts to impose fees on those who can afford them have been fiercely resisted. Notwithstanding the challenges, a strong case can be made in favor of charging tuition and fees by pointing out that poor taxpayers should not have to subsidize the education of the children of the affluent.

Local resources. Governments, private businesses, and organizations often employ overseas experts, ignoring existing local expertise. A World Bank report estimates that around $4 billion is spent in Africa per year on foreign technical assistance.2 These experts, however, commonly rely on local expertise and institutions.

African higher education institutions should seek to increase their share from such sources. The academic community should mobilize to market itself as a provider of better, cheaper, and more appropriate consultancy and technical services. Such productive links would benefit local scholars, strengthen the research and teaching environment of the institutions, and attract additional research funding.

Links with the private sector. The usefulness of collaboration and cooperation with private businesses has generally been accepted in many African universities. However, although various university-industry cooperative schemes exist, they have not been effectively exploited. To be successful, the links require the cooperation of government officials, university administrators, the business community, and scholars. Universities should actively engage the private sector's help in identifying the gaps in areas of expertise, human resources, and research. This approach would not only encourage businesses to employ graduates—and faculty—but would also promote further collaborative ventures.

Alumni-recruiting initiatives. African scholars in the diaspora, particularly in the West, are an untapped resource with great potential not only for financial and material assistance, but also as promoters of African institutions and their alma mater. This great potential should also be extended to nonalumni. African nations that have suffered from massive exodus of their experts should make a conscious effort to exploit the situation. In this, Africa should learn from India, China, and some other Asian and Latin American countries.

Resource sharing. Most African institutions of higher education lack effective resource-sharing mechanisms. This has often led to redundancy, “reinventing the wheel,” and wastage of meager resources. As institutions strive to acquire more resources, they should also make a concerted
effort to better manage the resources at their disposal. Establishing consortia between related institutions would be one effective strategy.

**Income-generating programs.** Institutions can generate revenues by hosting short courses, seminars, summer programs, and conferences. Businesses, governments, and nongovernmental organizations are generally supportive of training schemes in highly regarded institutions. Universities should capitalize on their reputations.

**African scholars in the diaspora, particularly in the West, are an untapped resource with great potential not only for financial and material assistance, but also as promoters of African institutions and their alma maters.**

**Financial management systems.** The financial systems in many African universities are generally quite poor. Numerous reports on African institutions criticize their management systems as overly bureaucratic, inefficient, and insensitive. Financial systems should be compatible with the idiosyncrasies and the needs of the communities they serve.

**Private companies and R&D.** Research and development can be promoted by involving local institutions with private and multinational companies—for example, by instituting tax exemptions. This is a potential way of supporting higher education institutions engaged in the fields of agriculture, pharmaceutics, industry, and commerce. Africa should seriously look to Asia (e.g., South Korea) for models of countries that became industrial giants through government support for science and technology and the enactment of laws to encourage private industries.

**Distance learning.** Many countries in Africa are currently engaged in promoting tertiary distance education. According to the Association for the Development of Education in Africa, tertiary distance learning holds the potential to expand access to quality higher education at affordable cost and should be an integral part of any educational system. The African virtual university, established through the support of the World Bank is one such example. This has a potential to increase access and programs while generating some revenue.

**Grant-writing expertise.** Many African scholars have little experience in preparing major funding proposals for external agencies. Although funding has been slightly curtailed in recent years, many missed opportunities are simply the result of inexperience with the process and requirements of grant and donor funding. Notwithstanding the consequences of following donor agendas, university research offices should play an active role in training their faculty, referring them to prospective donors and the areas they emphasize.

**Government support.** Social and economic development in an increasingly information- and technology-driven world can only be attained with a highly trained workforce. Recent developments in science and technology dictate that the cost of higher education be considered an investment that will determine the destiny of Africa in the high-tech world of the next century. Therefore, African higher education institutions should lobby their governments, other powerful and influential constituencies, and the public by highlighting and reaffirming their raison d’être.

**Conclusion**

Expanding the financial resource base for African higher education institutions has to be actively, selectively, and carefully accomplished. To offer one caveat: any “solutions” may harbor their own intrinsic “defects.” Local, national, regional, and international realities need to be taken into account prior to the undertaking of such initiatives. Academic institutions must be prudent in balancing their academic duties with entrepreneurship. There is little doubt that taking up these initiatives and actively engaging all the stakeholders require a conscious, qualified, and concerned university management.

**Academic institutions must be prudent in balancing their academic duties with entrepreneurship.**

**Notes**

Prospects for Higher Education in Latin America

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Is it possible to speak of the prospects for higher education in Latin America, when the countries in the region are so diverse and their higher education systems so disparate? Enrollment rates (as of 1994) vary from 39 percent of the age cohort in Argentina, to 27 percent in Chile, about 14 percent in Mexico, and 11 percent in Brazil, Honduras, and Nicaragua. Private enrollments comprise 64 percent of the students in Colombia, 70 percent in El Salvador, and 58 percent in Brazil, in contrast to 6 percent in Uruguay, 20 percent in Argentina, and 25 percent in Mexico.1 The appearance of cultural homogeneity is also misleading. Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Mexico have large native populations that speak their own languages, in contrast with Argentina and Uruguay, which do not. Brazil, Cuba, and the Dominican Republic have significant populations of people of African descent, and Haiti is a country of blacks who speak French.

Latin American higher education institutions also differ in various aspects. Some of the old Catholic universities in Spanish America were created in the 16th century, while the first universities in Brazil date from the 1930s. In some countries, private universities cater to the elite, while public universities are poorly supported and populated by students with few resources and with modest educational backgrounds. In others, public education is highly selective and of good quality, and poorer students have to look for places in low-cost, low-quality institutions, such as night schools.

What brings some consistency to all this is globalization. In the early 19th century, as the old Spanish and Portuguese empires crumbled and their colonies had to become modern states, universities were created to train military officers and lawyers who could build the new nations. The global model in those years was France, which exported to the new world the Napoleonic model of the centralized state and bureaucratically controlled institutions, together with the conflicts between church and state. In the 20th century, and more so after the Second World War, people flocked from the country to the cities, mass communications spread the attractions of consumption, and governments were called upon to provide the protection and services required by growing populations. For a while, it seemed that progress was everywhere, more rapidly and easily achieved in some places than in others, but all pointing in the same direction. At the turn of the millennium, however, the picture is more somber. It has been possible only for a minority—more in some places, less in others—to reach the necessary levels of income, education, and work to enjoy the benefits of modernization. For the majority, the aspirations are still there, more intense than ever, given the reach of the expanding mass media. However, the job market is shrinking, the cost of services—including health care and education—are rising continuously, and governments have exhausted their ability to provide services and meet the demands of their populations.

For the next century, one global trend we can expect is the movement toward the universalization of higher education. However, a common feature of higher education in the countries of Latin American—and elsewhere—is the inability of governments to keep responding to the demands. This is true for Argentina and Uruguay, which have reached European-like levels of student enrollment through public education, and for Brazil and Colombia, which kept their public systems small and allowed the private sector to supply most of the demand. In all cases, public higher education institutions will come under strong pressure to produce more, in quantity and quality, for the same amount or fewer resources; the private system, as it moves in to fill the gaps, will press for public subsidies and be questioned about the worthiness of its products and services.

For the next century, one global trend we can expect is the movement toward the universalization of higher education.

The pressure for reform, therefore, will fall upon both the public and the private sectors. First, there will be a growing demand for transparency. Evaluations, ranking systems, and accreditation boards, which are so common in Europe and the United States, have started to appear in Latin America and are likely to grow in importance. The main difficulty with these new yardsticks is that they threaten a long tradition of academic self-rule in Latin American universities. What they convey, in practice, is the notion that higher education is not something to be defined by academe but a matter of legitimate interest to others—those who pay the bill, those who need the services. This may seem obvious, but is not an easy transition to make.

While Latin American universities cherish their traditions of academic autonomy, they have always shunned administrative self-rule—taking responsibility for administering resources, establishing priorities, and making means and ends meet. These are things the private sector
African Realities and Global Challenges: The 21st Century

Jairam Reddy

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Higher education systems have undergone profound changes during the latter part of this century. Elite systems of higher education have been superseded by mass and universal systems with a more diverse set of students. Central features of these changes are the demand for equity of access, declining state support, notions of accountability and quality, and responsiveness to socioeconomic imperatives. While African higher education has not been immune from these developments, political and economic realities have had grave consequences for its capacity to respond to change and to the needs of its populations.

The tradition of higher education in Africa is indeed a proud one—as exemplified by the universities at Al Azhar in Cairo, Kairouine in Fez, Debre Damo Axum in Ethiopia, and Sankore of Timbuktu in Mali. Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone was established in Freetown in 1827. It was followed over a hundred years later by the University College of Gold Coast, Ghana in 1947, the University of Ibadan in 1948, University College of Addis Ababa in 1950, and others like Makerere in Uganda in 1946 and later universities throughout the continent. The number of universities increased from 20 in 1960 to 160 by 1996, while the number of students increased from 120,000 to over 2,000,000 during the same period.

The undermining of democratic structures, their replacement by corrupt dictatorships, mismanagement of the economy, and perennial droughts have left a devastating trail of poverty and underdevelopment in much of the continent. Physical facilities in need of maintenance and refurbishment, the lack of technological infrastructure, and poor library resources are widespread features of current African higher education systems. Most devastating of all is the massive brain drain of skilled academic staff. The World Bank estimates that some 23,000 qualified academic staff are emigrating from Africa each year in search of better working conditions.

In South Africa, where material conditions for higher education have been considerably better, the ideology and practice of apartheid resulted in severe distortions of the higher education system: the participation rates of the 18-to-21-year age cohort was over 70 percent for white students but less than 15 percent for black students.

How are African higher education systems to respond to the demands of their impoverished populations and the advent of globalization as we enter the new millennium?

Note

Can they possibly be the engines of development? Establishing knowledge and information technology as dominant forces in contemporary society will require a better-educated workforce with flexibility and innovation in the workplace. The following issues are central to the future of African higher education.

Democratic institutions, the establishment of a human rights culture, and a viable economy have to underpin any rejuvenation of higher education systems in Africa. The ongoing intercountry conflicts in Africa with resulting refugee populations are not encouraging signs. These issues are a challenge to the peoples and politicians of the continent as well as to the international community—especially the peacekeeping and development agencies of the United Nations.

In the area of governance, councils and boards of trustees should oversee higher education institutions without government interference; institutional autonomy and academic freedom have to be respected. This does not preclude universities from being accountable to the government and to the community for the manner in which they expend resources and for the range and quality of their program offerings, teaching, and research.

No country can afford a mass, high-quality research university system, let alone the developing countries in much of Africa. The colonial model inherited from the French and British systems has to be fundamentally reshaped into a diverse set of institutions. These will range from certificate, diploma, and associate-degree-awarding institutions that cater for a range of middle-level skills in technical and vocational careers, providing for employability as well as job creation with links to business and industry.

A limited number of well-funded public universities with a sound infrastructure, well-qualified academic staff, and focused research activity should form the basis of human resource development. Responsiveness to the socioeconomic needs of the country should influence the curricula and range of disciplines offered. Improved teaching in science and mathematics and a higher output of graduates in science, engineering, and technology should be a high priority.

Quality assurance and accountability should be integral to the development of a revitalized African higher education system. At a minimum this should include an institutional audit, program accreditation, and quality improvement.

There is much to be said for regional cooperation in the sharing of expertise, expensive equipment, exchange of staff and students, collaboration in research, and in other ways. Such consortia could be either intracountry or across more than one country.

The South African Situation
The peaceful democratic transition in South Africa has set the stage for a fundamental transformation of all institutions in the country. The White Paper and Higher Education Act of 1997 will fundamentally transform the higher education system from the fragmented, racially polarized one into a single, coordinated system that will be responsive to the socioeconomic imperatives of the country through cooperative governance and a range of partnerships. A representative Higher Education Council will advise the minister of education on all matters affecting higher education. The further education sector will have to be expanded relative to the higher education sector. Equity of access and quality assurance are important aspects of the transformation strategy. Declining enrollments in the previously historically disadvantaged institutions together with their financial and management problems will necessitate a reassessment of the configuration of institutions established during the apartheid era. The development of regional consortia for a range of cooperative projects, mergers, and the reconfiguration or even closure of institutions are all on the agenda.
Much attention has been focused on how market reforms are affecting the higher education system in China. With the largest number of universities in China, Shanghai serves as a good barometer for the state of China’s academic culture and the impact of socialist market reforms. Not surprisingly, the academic profession in Shanghai’s universities has much in common with its counterparts in other parts of China. But Shanghai academics also closely resemble their global counterparts in many respects.

### Shanghai’s Academics

When compared to the 14 countries in the 1992–1993 Carnegie International Study of the academic profession, Shanghai’s academics fall almost in the middle in terms of age (45 years) and gender profiles (73 percent male and 23 percent female), with six countries above and four below in both profile tables. They also ranked similarly in satisfaction with staff collegial relationships (63 percent satisfied, 30 percent neutral, 2 percent dissatisfied), importance placed on publications in tenure considerations (67 percent agreed, 22 percent neutral, 11 percent disagreed), and views of the value of student evaluations for teaching (68 percent agreed, 24 percent neutral, 8 percent disagreed).

Shanghai’s universities are increasingly affected by global economic forces. While access to the Internet and exchanges with academics around the world are sure to influence their perspective to some extent, academics in China also stand apart from academics in other parts of the world in a number of ways—in the national economy, the financial and administrative organization of universities, and the stage of educational reforms currently under way in the country.

### Academic Attitudes

Compared to their counterparts surveyed in other countries, Shanghai academics had fewer previous academic appointments at other institutions of higher education (95 percent had worked at only one or two institutions). Their experience was mostly limited to the institution where they were originally appointed. This is largely a function of the danwei system, which limits mobility after the initial posting. Market forces will probably affect this system in years to come. Some universities, particularly those in the wealthier southern regions of China, are already attracting popular professors from other parts of the country.

Chinese academics rate their salaries as less adequate than their counterparts in other countries. Consequently, they are more likely to engage in paid consultancy work (90 percent) than academics in other countries (i.e., Hong Kong 13 percent, Japan and the Netherlands 15 percent, Germany 16 percent, Austria and Sweden 24 percent, England and the United States 27 percent, Israel 38 percent, Brazil 53 percent, Korea 54 percent, Chile 59 percent, Mexico 67 percent, and Russia 81 percent). They are less likely to hold nonacademic positions outside their institutions than academics in most other countries. Yet, 24 percent hold other full-time academic positions outside their universities. This compares with 6 percent in the United States, the second-highest in the international rankings for this indicator. Shanghai academics also rated technology for teaching and computer facilities lower than their counterparts around the world.

Low salaries and modest working conditions seem to be the major factors affecting Shanghai academics’ commitment to the academy. Over 50 percent responded negatively to the question: “If you had to do it over again, would you still choose to be an academic?” However, it is worth noting that staff in Shanghai still overwhelmingly view academics as influential opinion leaders (61 percent agreed, 33 percent neutral, 6 percent disagreed), at a level higher than that reported in other countries (England 11 percent, Brazil 53 percent, Korea 54 percent, Chile 59 percent, Mexico 67 percent, and Russia 81 percent).
Israel 12 percent, Korea 63 percent). On top of this, they rate the intellectual atmosphere at their institutions more highly (84 percent good or excellent) than their counterparts elsewhere.

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The perceived quality of students may have something to do with the high ratings given to intellectual atmosphere. The preparation of their incoming freshmen in mathematics, quantitative reasoning, and written and oral communication was given higher marks than was the case for other countries surveyed. Given good students (and modest resources for research), one might expect these academics to prefer teaching over research. In fact, 84 percent of Shanghai academics express the need to improve teaching and find better ways to evaluate it. Nevertheless, they fall right in the middle internationally with respect to preference for teaching or research, and give near equal preference to each.

While 46 percent of the respondents feel pressured to do more research than they would like, relatively few (19 percent) agree with the statement that “the pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching in this institution.” Perhaps they have found a creative way to resolve this common dilemma faced by academics everywhere, or perhaps the publishing game is easier to play in China due to the proliferation of academic journals.

Some extremes in reply patterns may be attributed to the fact that comparatively few Shanghai academics hold advanced degrees, especially doctorates. This most likely accounts for their perspective toward the academic disciplines. More than academics elsewhere in the world, the Shanghai respondents expressed a stronger sense of professional obligation to apply their knowledge to serve society (93 percent agreed). Yet, they expressed a lower level of affiliation with their academic discipline (23 percent rated it very important) than academics elsewhere. Is this due to the belief that academic disciplines are currently unable to provide the right kinds of knowledge needed for a rapidly changing China? Or, is it simply because a relatively small number have higher degrees and, therefore, most lack a fuller appreciation of the potential of their academic discipline to improve society? It is perhaps understandable, then, that when asked if this is a particularly creative time in their fields, only a relatively small number respond affirmatively.

Commitment to the academic profession is also affected by other factors. For example, Shanghai academics report less autonomy in teaching and research than do academics in other countries. This is partly due to the fact that national five-year plans set out the research agendas for staff. In teaching, course content tends to be standardized. Consequently, it is not surprising that 73 percent of Shanghai academics view their administrators as autocratic. Finally, though 95 percent agree that international connections are relevant to a scholar’s evaluations for promotion, only 11 percent had studied or traveled overseas in the last three years.

**The Expansion**

The findings in our survey of Shanghai academics coincide with broader developments in China, which is now experiencing the largest expansion of higher education in this century. In September 1999, China will increase first-year enrollments by 48 percent, from 1.08 to 1.53 million students. A major aim of the expansion is to stimulate the economy, since Chinese parents are more than willing to spend for their child’s higher education. Shanghai already has 20 percent of the relevant age group in higher education, and this may be increased to 30 percent by 2000, 40 percent by 2005, and 50 percent by 2010. As far as being able to pay tuition goes, the average annual income in Shanghai is now U.S. $3,000, and may reach U.S. $5,000 by 2000 and U.S. $10,000 by 2005. Nevertheless, rising unemployment brought on by the Asian economic crisis has also been a factor in the policy decision to keep more young people out of the labor market for a few years by opening up admissions to higher education.

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The expansion has great potential for improving higher education. It can bring the student-teacher ratio more in line with that in developed countries, as well as raise teacher salaries. It also has implications for the major functions of the university. The transition from elite to mass higher education requires strengthened teaching strategies. A larger undergraduate population can help to support more graduate students, and subsequently strengthen the research capacity. The expansion will create greater diversity in the system. There is a potential for the service function of the university to undergo major change as well, especially as market forces continue to take hold. Inevitably, it is the academic profession that will be the driving force behind how universities maintain and improve their central functions of teaching, research, and service.
Higher Education in Hong Kong: Two Years Later

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Higher education in Hong Kong has undergone two major phases of change in recent years. The first started in the mid- to late 1980s, spurred on by the drive for efficiency and the expansion of a previously elitist system; the second was marked by the return of Hong Kong’s sovereignty to China in 1997. This article describes higher education in Hong Kong two years on. The current situation is a convergence of internal systemic development, the China factor, and the recent economic downturn.

Academic Freedom

Prior to the handover there was much anxiety about academic freedom in Hong Kong under China. As it turned out, there has been little significant change in autonomy in university governance and research. The tension between pro-Beijing and pro-West sentiments in society created by the political transition and the incidents that indicate Beijing’s increasing influence over Hong Kong affairs has not been as apparent in academe, although this may change. Self-censorship may be found on an individual basis but is not a general collective phenomenon.

The relative calm over the issue of academic freedom may be due in part to Beijing’s effort to honor Hong Kong’s autonomy and in part to the eclipse by more pressing demands from micro-level developments. The efficiency drive that is an international trend reached Hong Kong in the late 1980s and now has a tight grip on institutional life. Institutional productivity is under close scrutiny. For the faculty this means high expectations for teaching and research, winning grants, and professional and community service. Of these, research output is of primary importance.

Publication in international scholarly journals is generally assigned greater weight than publication in local ones. This has posed a dilemma for academics in culturally oriented fields in the social sciences and humanities. One criterion for awarding research grants is local relevance, yet the distribution of research output in nonlocal channels is more favorably rated. For academics in culturally bound fields these criteria are at times hard to reconcile. The overriding importance of research, despite the rhetoric about equal importance of teaching, has left teaching faculty torn between the two roles. Although equal attention should be devoted to the two roles, many cope by attending to research, often at the expense of teaching. While there is general agreement on the value of course evaluations in monitoring teaching, their side effects are also noted. Anxiety over evaluations has led some faculty members to appease students.

Tensions

This new emphasis on research and publication has created tensions between faculty and administrators. The tensions stem from the differential expectations for the university between two different types of academics—cultural professionals and corporatist administrators. Some academics are still ill adjusted to the research university in this age of pragmatism, especially those who studied or taught in Hong Kong’s universities in the more relaxed, idiosyncratic era prior to 1980, when the institutions were teaching universities. Also, academics who view the university as performing broader cultural and social missions lament its increasingly narrow vocational function.

Higher education institutions must now prove their worth to the public. The new accountability challenge, together with the growth in size of the sector, has changed the relationship between the institutions and the community. Once few in number and esoteric, institutions of higher education are now very much a part of the community. The presence of education pages as a regular feature in each major local newspaper indicates the extent of general public interest in education. The press has also become a forum for news and views on higher education.

The recent economic gloom has intensified the stress within higher education. Funding for higher education has declined by 10 percent for 1998–2001, and a further cutback is under discussion. Public funding for higher education relative to expenditures in education has changed too. The public funding for higher education institutions under the aegis of the University Grants Committee has increased in absolute terms, from H.K.$8,157 million in 1992–1993 to H.K.$14,001 million in 1998–99, but has declined as a percentage of total expenditure in education from 36.9 percent to 27.5 percent during the same years. Academic salaries are linked to those of civil servants. There is much discussion about, and apparently support for, pay cuts for civil servants. Pay cuts for university staff look imminent as well. Another way to cope with a precarious bud-

Linking the mainland and the outside world, a bridging role Hong Kong has tried to fulfill since its early colonial days, is an on-going mission in the new era.

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Access to Higher Education in Bangladesh: The Case of Dhaka University

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In 1997, Bangladesh had a per capita GNP of $270 (ranked 116th in the world by the World Bank). With a life expectancy of 58 years, 81 percent of the population living in the countryside, and 42.7 percent living below the poverty line, this nation of 124 million people faces many challenges in the coming century.

The policy implications of equity in higher education—defined as equality of access—are much debated today. Should the state increase spending on public universities? Should the government allow more private universities? Should there be taxpayer support for private universities? In Bangladesh, a popular view held by some academics and politicians is that the constitution requires the state to ensure equality of access at all levels of education. This group desires removal of all barriers to education. There is some concern that access to higher education has become less equitable in recent years. Figures from the country’s fifth Five-Year-Plan underscore some of the inequities in higher education. For example, the gender ratio is 69:31 in favor of males. The geographic concentration index for higher education in urban areas is 0.97, compared to 0.57 for secondary education, and 0.31 for primary education. An increasingly larger segment of the student population in the best public universities is coming from a small group of urban preparatory schools to which only the richer families can afford to send their children.¹

The debate over access to higher education has sharpened since 1993, when for the first time private universities were allowed to operate in Bangladesh. Many critics believe that private universities are elitist and expensive, making them inappropriate in a poor society. According to this view, the existence of private universities will exacerbate the problem of inequitable access to higher education. On the other side of the debate, supporters of the private universities argue that in the long run private universities will improve access for economically disadvantaged students. They point out that the 1992 Private University Act requires that at least 5 percent of the student body receive full tuition waivers, which are intended to help poor students take advantage of these institutions. Additionally, the choice of a private university by students from rich families may possibly create vacancies in the public universities for poor students. Therefore, proponents reason, an expansion of private universities would improve access to tertiary education for all students. Critics disagree with these arguments, pointing out that the policies of private universities are not closely monitored by an outside independent body. Although private universities have increased diversity and choice for many students, their impact on access and equity is less clear.

Dhaka University
A random survey of 56 students at Dhaka University (DU) that I conducted in April 1999 highlighted certain issues concerning access to a public university education. Most of the 56 students state that they come from urban families. In fact, more than half gave permanent addresses in Dhaka, the capital city where the university is located. These findings would seem to support the claim that students from rural households (81 percent of the population) face difficulties in gaining access to the best public higher education institutions. Admission to DU, widely regarded as the country’s premier university, has become increasingly difficult. In 1995, only 3,730 out of 63,313 applicants to DU...
were reported to have been admitted. Numerous newspaper reports suggest that political parties and their student factions have attempted to exploit this intense competition by influencing the admission process in favor of students sympathetic to their cause. A system based on graft is likely to work against students without political connections. Interestingly, most of our respondents report that their fathers’ formal education exceeded high school level, which would seem to reflect the small representation of first-generation college students at DU.

Without substantial financial assistance, low-income students simply cannot afford quality private higher education in Bangladesh.

Less than one in five respondents state that they receive some form of financial aid from DU. In the absence of a public system of student loans in Bangladesh, poor students would have little alternative but to seek out such kinds of financing from universities. Traditionally, bright students from low-income families depend on scholarships to attain a public university education. Almost half our sample of students state that they supplement their incomes by working part time. The students report an annual private cost (tuition and fees) incurred during university studies of from $265 to as high as $828. In a nation where 60 percent of the households live in poverty, public higher education, even when tuition-free, can nevertheless be very expensive. However, these high private costs pale in comparison to the cost of education at a good private university. At North South University, the most popular (but not the most expensive) private university, the annual cost per student exceeds $3,500. Without substantial financial assistance, low-income students simply cannot afford quality private higher education in Bangladesh.

Conclusion

An important selling point for supporting public universities in a developing society is that higher education can be a powerful instrument for building a more equitable society. By providing equal access for good students from the lower social and economic backgrounds, the public university can become a great social and economic equalizer in society. The information obtained from our sample at DU seems to suggest that a majority of students in public universities in Bangladesh come from the relatively affluent section of the urban population. This leads to the disturbing conclusion that the significant public subsidies received by these institutions, far from removing the existing inequities in the society, may be reinforcing these inequities. If these findings are supported by additional empirical evidence, there would indeed be a sound rationale for higher education reform in Bangladesh. Such reform would likely need to include the establishment of a realistic fee structure at public universities, the development of student loans to assist the poor in gaining access to higher education, the creation of special admissions programs for underprivileged youth, and a healthy partnership between public and private universities.

Notes

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Challenges for Catholic Higher Education in Japan

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Catholic universities in Japan, together with all institutions of higher learning in this country (especially the private ones), are facing a difficult year. First, the economic recession continues, which makes it difficult for families to afford tuition for private schooling. Second, the 18-year-old population is shrinking rapidly. Up until now, university entrance exams have been a highly competitive affair, and still are to a certain extent, but 10 years from now there will be one university seat available for every eligible 18-year-old in the country. Even now, many universities are falling short of their quotas for the entering freshman class.

On top of these problems is a more fundamental one: the whole notion of what a university is supposed to be and do has come up for serious rethinking. A blue-ribbon commission on university reform shook up the educational establishment last year by issuing a call for radical changes in the way universities operate. Since then endless debates have been going on within and without academia, as people seek new directions for university education.

In this last respect, Catholic universities at least have
an advantage in that they have clear educational goals, an identity, and a founding philosophy that insists on academic excellence. Nevertheless, economic and population factors are having an impact on Catholic higher education, and the next few years are going to be difficult ones.

At present there are 16 Catholic universities in Japan (plus several two-year junior colleges), educating approximately 35,600 students. (Almost one-third of that number, 11,600 students, are studying at Sophia University, the Jesuit university in Tokyo.) Japan as a whole has 98 national universities, 53 public universities, and 425 private universities. Among university students in the country, 73 percent attend private universities. The 16 Catholic universities, like all other private institutions of higher education in this country, are founded and operated by educational corporations established under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. Religious orders and dioceses can affect the management of universities only through the educational corporation, and cannot interfere directly in the running of a university. Freedom of religion is guaranteed, however, as is the right of a university to give religious education.

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In this context, the Japanese bishops’ response to Ex Corde Ecclesiae, the 1990 letter of John Paul II, was primarily pastoral, and not particularly threatening to the university community. Since the number of Catholics in Japan is so small (less than half of one percent of the population), the bishops look to the Catholic university community as a principal source of strength in trying to change Japanese society according to the scale of values of the Gospel. The good working relationship between the Japanese hierarchy and the Catholic universities is indicated by the fact that the bishops’ response to Pope John Paul’s Apostolic Constitution was composed after very extensive consultation and cooperation with representatives of the Japan Association of Catholic University Presidents.

The bishops’ statement starts out with an evaluation of Catholic education in Japan, emphasizing the extremely important role it has played in evangelization during the last 130 years, from the time that preaching the Gospel was begun again after being outlawed for 250 years. The bishops go on to speak of the high expectations they have of Catholic higher education in present-day Japanese society. The document explains the autonomous nature of Japanese universities, founded and operated by educational corporations that are independent and free of outside intervention. Catholic universities are encouraged to make good use of their initiative and independence to look for and hire faculty members with a good understanding of the Catholic spirit, and to carry out a curriculum and educational program that will nourish the Catholic scale of values and worldview. The bishops then claim for Catholic universities the same academic freedom guaranteed by law to all private universities in Japan.

Ex Corde Ecclesiae has not stirred up more thoughtful reflection and fruitful dialogue in Japan, as it has in other countries, particularly in the United States.

The bishops’ statement closes with a description of the responsibilities of the various groups cooperating to help the Catholic university grow and develop: the diocese or religious order that established the educational corporation, the university administrators, the local ordinary, the Bishops’ Conference, and the Association of Catholic Universities.

Mention is made that theologians should have a mandate from the competent ecclesiastical authority, but strangely enough, this has not been a source of contention in academic circles in Japan. Already the two largest theology faculties (Sophia’s and that of Nanzan, the S.V.D. university in Nagoya) are ecclesiastical faculties requiring approval of teachers from the Congregation for Catholic Education in Rome.

The response to the Japanese bishops from the Congregation for Catholic Education was brief, and requested only minor changes. There was no mention on either side of an oath of fidelity by the president of the university, or any reference to the majority of the trustees being Catholic.

In a way it is perhaps unfortunate that Ex Corde Ecclesiae has not stirred up more thoughtful reflection and fruitful dialogue in Japan, as it has in other countries, particularly in the United States. But Catholic universities in Japan are currently dealing with more basic issues, one of them the problem of how to survive.

Internet Resource

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Gender and Higher Education in the Arab States

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Women’s participation in higher education as students and faculty members remains a neglected dimension in understanding the substantial expansion of tertiary education in the Arab states. As higher education expanded, women’s participation became differentially structured within a wider array of institutional settings. This has affected not only women's social visibility but also their ability to negotiate political power at various levels of action and in different fields.

On the eve of World War II, 10 universities were operating in all the Arab states. Half a century later, there were some 132 universities (half founded in the period 1980–1993), 136 university-level colleges or institutes, and 437 community colleges or diploma-granting technical institutes. The number of postsecondary students rose from about .3 million (out of a population of about 96 million) in the mid-1960s to about 2.5 million (out of a population of about 220 million) in the mid-1990s. Significant differences do still exist among states. In 1995, Lebanon, Jordan, and Kuwait each had over 2,300 students per 100,000 population, while Sudan, Yemen, and Oman each had less than 450. The remaining Arab states had rates ranging from 1,000 to 1,900 (UNESCO data).

Enrollment Rates
Women’s enrollment accounts for an increasingly important portion of tertiary education expansion in many Arab states, particularly in the Gulf. Yet, their access is far from universal. Women come overwhelmingly from the urban middle and upper classes. Urban-rural disparities are also significant. In 1995, the gross higher education enrollment of the 18-to-23-year age group in the Arab states stood at 24.5 percent for men and 16.3 percent for women, with extreme differences between regions. In the Middle Eastern and North African (MENA) states, postsecondary student gender ratios ranged, in 1995, from .64 women for each man in Egypt, to .80 women for each man in Tunisia. In Jordan, the student gender ratio stood at .94 women for each man in 1995 compared to .45 women in 1970. By contrast, in Yemen, the gender ratio is still as low as .14 women for each man. In comparison, in the Arabian Peninsular states from the 1970s onward, higher education expansion captured primarily a growing percentage of women while men sought higher education mainly abroad. By 1996, the student gender ratio was 1.18 women for each man in Saudi Arabia, 1.35 women in Kuwait, 1.87 women in Bahrain, 5.12 women in Qatar, and 6.08 women in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). In fact, the expansion of local tertiary education institutions in the Arabian Peninsula was accompanied by a set of legal and social controls imposed on women’s mobility and opportunities. Consequently, women have been confined largely to local institutions that do not always offer the range of disciplines available to men (e.g., engineering in Saudi Arabia). Thus, while MENA higher education institutions are usually coeducational, in the Arabian Peninsular states, institutions are, with some exceptions, gender specific. In these states, distance higher education programs emerged as a way of responding to women’s growing demand for higher education while maintaining gender segregation.

Arab State Feminism
State policies seek to promote women’s participation in higher education, as part of what has been termed “Arab state feminism,” which endorses women’s participation as part of state building and human capital formation, particularly in postindependence periods. These gender-specific enrollment policies enabled entrenched elites to redraw the distribution of social and political power and enhance regime legitimacy. It has been observed that within the sociocultural context of Gulf societies gender segregation, beyond its embedded discrimination, sometimes provides women with sheltered educational and occupational opportunities. These arrangements lessen or totally avoid competition with men and enable women to carve out their own professional and occupational spaces in gender-based occupations (e.g., medicine and education). Such a gendered division of opportunities has been called a “patriarchal gender contract.” Thus beyond its modernizing effects, access to higher education in the Arab states also serves as a mechanism for social control and political cooptation. It reproduces existing class and gender stratification under differential opportunity structures available to gender groups or to distinct social classes.

State policies seek to promote women’s participation in higher education.

Women in Academia
Just as in many other parts of the world, women’s access to faculty positions in Arab States has been much more modest, with women often confined to lower-ranking faculty positions having more to do with teaching than with research. In some Arabian Peninsular states, however, gender-specific
institutions have provided women with comparatively greater access to faculty membership. In 1996, women comprised about 30 percent of all faculty members in Bahrain, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. By contrast, women experience fewer career opportunities than men in Jordan (18 percent), Kuwait (19 percent), Palestine (14 percent), Sudan (13 percent), Syria (16 percent), the UAE (9 percent), and Yemen (12 percent). In Egypt, Lebanon, Qatar, and Morocco women’s share of faculty positions has remained quite stable since the 1980s, at between one-quarter and one-third of the total. Tunisia registered a significant increase, from 9 percent in 1980 to 30 percent in 1996 (UNESCO and World Bank data).

The factors suggested to explain the gender stratification of Arab faculty relate to the patriarchal characteristics of Arab societies and their effects on the subordination of women within higher education institutions. In a 1988 study of Arab academics, M’hammed Sabour found that the majority of faculty women in his sample came from middle- and upper-class backgrounds. Still, their integration as equal members of an academic community continued to be subject to an array of male-imposed practices. Sabour has also written that “Arab academia is—through its aims, division of power, and process of decision-making—an almost entirely man-molded, man-minded, and man-oriented institution and place.”

In 1996, women comprised about 30 percent of all faculty members in Bahrain, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia.

Women’s presence within Arab higher education may, therefore, be described as stratified both horizontally and vertically. Horizontally, women tend to be located in distinct types of institutions and in gendered positions or fields of study. Vertically, women’s mobility and social opportunities are significantly affected by their ascriptive status as women. Structurally, women have fewer opportunities to exchange acquired educational and professional capital into political and social power and prestige. This is due partly to the already quite weak and dependent position of the Arab academic vis-à-vis the established regime, a factor that further accentuates the institutional subordination of academic women. Gender stratification is also affected by limited occupational opportunity in economies already characterized by state centralism and deeply entrenched wealth inequalities. Women’s subordinate position within higher education expresses the outcomes of this complex web of multidimensional inequalities, reproducing power structures within and between gender groups.

A Critical Arena

The institutional dimension of women’s experience in Arab higher education also deserves attention. The workplace culture, though encompassing a variety of contexts, nonetheless affects gender identity, consciousness, and mobility. In spite of the lower returns they receive from higher education, women regard academic credentials as important for their emancipation. This belief further increases their enrollment rates, which in turn ultimately widens their unequal opportunities compared to men. In some instances, particularly in the Gulf, women have on average higher educational attainment levels than men. This disparity has not yet produced major changes in gender relations. Nonetheless, the intensity of conflicts reported surrounding women’s social and political participation does show that women’s movements are persistently striving with respect to affecting existing power relations.

In sum, the nexus between gender and higher education participation does not reflect just a culturally based problematic. The extreme gender variations observed suggest that higher education constitutes a critical arena where economy, politics, and the gendered construction of professional identity and power are constantly mediated. The issue of gender equality is basically a political one, strongly associated with the structure of the contemporary Arab state and its bases of power. This conclusion challenges Arab academic institutions to break with their reproductive role and eventually act as an avant-garde in the creation and dissemination of alternative gender and, by implication, civil relations.

Notes
1. The term “Arab states” refers to the following accredited members of the League of Arab States: Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, The United Arab Emirates, and Yemen.
5. Val Moghadam, Modernizing Women: Gender and Social Change in the Middle East (Boulder, Colo.: Lynne Rienner, 1993).
Two Decades of Change in Spanish Higher Education

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In the last two decades, Spain has undergone profound social and economic changes that have greatly affected the higher education system. Continuous growth and structural reforms have defined the development of higher education in Spain.

The 1983 Reforms
The current structure of higher education was established by the 1983 University Reform Act, which greatly revised the legal framework of Spanish universities. Formerly completely controlled by the central government, universities have gained in autonomy and now depend more on regional governments. The legal reforms also democratized the internal structure of universities. Power was transferred from the state bureaucracy to university-level governing bodies, including non-academic staff and students, that have decision-making powers in matters concerning the institution and departments and in electing the rector, deans, and department heads.

Financial Resources
The financial resources for universities have increased enormously in the last two decades, with total higher education expenditures in Spain reaching 1.1 percent of GDP in 1995. While this is still below the average in OECD countries, it is much higher than the figure for Spain just 10 years before (0.54 percent). It should be noted that unlike other European countries, Spanish universities have always charged tuition fees, which account for about 20 percent of the university budget.

Legal reforms also democratized the internal structure of universities.

The increased financial resources and competitive modes of financing research have transformed research activities in Spanish universities. Since 1982, spending on research and development in universities has multiplied fourfold. Since 1986 the number of publications in the databases of the Institute of Scientific Information has more than tripled, and the country’s share of scientific publications has gone from 1.3 to 2.4 percent.

Access
Generally speaking, access to higher education in Spain is quite open. New entrants to higher education comprise around 40 percent of the age cohort. Access is also fairly open to people of diverse socioeconomic backgrounds. Enrollments have multiplied threefold in the last two decades, and faculty and staff have grown at a similar pace. The rate of increase has declined in the last several years, and this year even showed a slight decrease due to the shrinking size of the age cohort.

Accountability and Assessment
Accountability and assessment are quite recent phenomena in Spanish universities but have developed rapidly in the last decade. Following several pilot projects, the National Program for Assessment of Quality in Universities was established in 1995, with the goal of promoting quality and developing accountability, particularly on behalf of the program’s main clients (students) and those responsible for finance (regional governments).

New entrants to higher education comprise around 40 percent of the age cohort.

Some Perverse Effects
In sum, the development of the Spanish higher education system in the last two decades could be judged as very positive. The main impetus for reform was the drive to modernize and democratize the universities, as well as adapt the higher education system to the socioeconomic needs of the country. However, universities are now entering a new period, one in which quality will be the most important challenge. Moreover, the reforms thus far have also generated some perverse effects, especially in the governing of universities. The excessive internal power of academics is impeding the ability of the system to respond quickly to external conditions and demands. It is generally agreed that legal and organizational changes will need to be introduced if universities are to meet the new challenges with success.

As in Burton Clark’s well-known scenario, universities are currently moving from the sphere of influence of the state to that of the academic oligarchy. Introducing market forces will allow the higher education system to achieve an equilibrium in which the state (representing the whole community), academia (representing the experts in the production process), and the market (as the most effective mechanism to satisfy the needs of students and employers) are able to act in harmony.
Key Areas
The introduction of market forces into Spanish higher education will require some structural changes, among which the following might be considered as key areas for attention.

The introduction of market forces into Spanish higher education will require some structural changes.

- **The financial system.** Some areas in need of reform are the system of allocating public funds—introducing performance-based financing; the capacity of institutions to control their own financial resources—allowing them to fix tuition fees and staff salaries; and an increase in the participation of the business community and students in the financing of universities.

- **Diversification and mobility of staff and students.** Although universities have taken timid steps toward diversification, the process needs to be stimulated. Universities should send signals to potential clients (students and enterprises) informing them of the specific character of each institution. Currently, staff have the status of civil servants, and working conditions are similar at the various universities. Universities need mechanisms that would allow them to compete for the best staff. Student mobility and the option of selecting from among programs at different institutions, either Spanish or European, would be key factors in helping the university system to become more responsive to the market. An effective program for student aid would also greatly improve student mobility.

- **University governance.** The governing structure of universities has changed dramatically, which has introduced a high level of internal democracy into the institutions. This change has contributed to the renewal of higher education institutions. Nevertheless, approaches that were adequate for the reform and expansion of the system are less effective in the current situation, in which institutions have to compete for resources and for students and quality is the main goal. Experts on higher education generally agree on the need to alter the governing structures of universities to make them more entrepreneurial and managerial and thus better able to cope with the challenges of the future.

At present, these issues are being thoroughly discussed among politicians, university leaders, and experts. There is a general agreement that new initiatives must be introduced, and it is likely that major reforms will soon be implemented.

Oxford University: Reflections of a Visiting Scholar

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![Oxford University's logo](image-url)

Whenever I think about Oxford University, the image of the seven big trees standing at the northwest gate of University Park comes to mind. With their massive trunks and crumbling bark as well as surprisingly green leaves and upward-branching new growth, these trees appeared to me as a wonderful symbol of Oxford today: traditional and conservative, as well as modern and innovative.

Oxford is the oldest university in the English-speaking world, with a history of 800 years. With 39 colleges, over 150 departments and centers, 13,261 students, and 6,655 faculty and staff, the university serves as one of the world’s leading institutions for teaching and research in higher education. During my six months there as a visiting scholar, I was often amazed by the interesting combination of a historical tradition of preserving the old and a desire to transform the institution to meet the needs of a changing society.

For Oxonians, “tradition” seems to be the immediate response to anything difficult.

One example is Oxford’s renowned college system. The colleges at Oxford are independent units with their own ruling bodies, decision-making power, financial resources, and academic disciplines. One at a time, the 39 colleges were established over the centuries with the support of the clergy, the community, and individual philanthropies. While providing the opportunity for close interpersonal communication, interdisciplinary exchange of ideas, and cheaper housing and food to its members, the college system has also tended to isolate the colleges from one another and create a disparity between the richer and the less wealthy colleges. College facilities—including libraries—are normally closed to nonmembers, preventing resources from being fully shared by the university as a whole. Although a fund has been established to help the poorer colleges, resistance from the more well-endowed ones is still rather strong. Interestingly, whenever I asked why the existing colleges could not be reorganized accord-
I was often amazed by the interesting combination of a historical tradition of preserving the old and a desire to transform the institution to meet the needs of a changing society.

One of the factors that has helped the college system to survive, it seems to me, is tutorial teaching, to which Oxford owes much of its accomplishments. (Over the course of its history Oxford has produced five kings, 36 Nobel Prize winners, and 25 British prime ministers.) The tutorial system is also a very expensive one, which has become an issue at a time when the demand for mass education is rather high. In fact, the Higher Education Funding Council for England has recently withdrawn its undergraduate funding from Oxford and Cambridge. Nevertheless, the university has decided to retain this traditional way of teaching. The individualized instruction is reported to be effective in helping students develop the capacity for critical and independent thinking, which is indispensable for the advancement of modernization.

Due in part to the college and tutorial systems, teaching in Oxford impressed me as rather compartmentalized. Most classes are usually open to full-time resident students, who pursue their studies in their own college or department, not venturing out into other fields as often as they might. A very decentralized institution, Oxford seems a complicated maze to outsiders. For example, I had to go to each college or department to obtain information on classes, and quite a few times permission to attend a certain class was denied because it was not open to “outsiders.” Although Oxford has taken steps to expand opportunities for continuing education, it seems to me that it should open its doors more widely if it wants to meet the growing needs of society.

Another area that brought to mind the theme of tradition and modernization is Oxford’s preservation of certain old rituals that serve to maintain its image as an ancient institution. During my stay, I was invited to a few college dinners and found myself quite amused by the rituals performed and especially the seriousness with which they were performed. The tradition of wearing academic gowns at formal dinners and keeping the “high table” for faculty and “low table” for students has been going on since the founding of the university. I was told that although there had been calls for reforms of the practice at certain times in history, they had met with resistance from faculty and students alike. Both sides wanted to retain the privacy to talk freely with their peers.

I also had the honor of attending the Encaenia (graduation ceremony) this year. Latin was used throughout the event, and when long passages were read in Latin, there was dead silence in the hall. Out of curiosity, I glanced at the English script, and found myself enjoying the humor in it. Not until the end of the ceremony when the orator changed to English did people come alive and burst into laughter at the jokes. I wondered why Latin was used if it did not make sense to the audience.

The seriousness shown on the above occasions made me ponder whether these rituals were really considered important for the university or merely served to maintain a sense of superiority, privilege, and even fun for Oxonians. The rituals certainly help to produce a sense of history and nobility, but they can appear daunting and exclusive to outsiders. Whereas I used to believe in the function of an Oxbridge education in nurturing the well-rounded gentleman or (-woman), I now realize the elitism, classism, and power hidden within these rituals.

I now realize the elitism, classism, and power hidden within these rituals.

To be fair, Oxford is also a very innovative and adventurous institution. The whole university is ruled by a democratic process governed by the congregation, a representative body of college fellows and university staff. Classes on such controversial topics as postcolonialism and postmodernism are offered, and student sit-ins take place without interference from the authorities. I was most intrigued by the current structural reform of the university, aimed at improving the transparency, efficiency, and fairness of the decision making of the administration. A thorough investigation of the existing problems has been undertaken, and a working committee was organized to formulate the agenda for public debate. In the meantime, strategies to recruit minority, working-class and state school students to Oxford have been adopted in order to promote equal access. Examples like this have convinced me that Oxford, old and traditional as it is, is still renewing itself—like those seven big trees.
Book Review


By Philip G. Altbach

Globalization is without doubt one of the slogans of the end of the 20th century. Like all slogans, this one is subject to overgeneralization and misuse. These two books shed light on global and international trends in higher education. At the same time, they confuse some of the issues involved, and are better at description than analysis. However, we are indebted to these books for starting a dialogue on globalization in higher education. Future analyses will tighten definitions and analysis. It is not surprising that the editors of these volumes are not Americans, and that the debates reflect concerns in Australia, Canada, and Europe rather than the United States. Americans are always insular when it comes to higher education (and many other things), and while the issues discussed here are quite relevant to the United States, for the most part the data come from other countries.

Globalization is not adequately defined in either of these volumes—perhaps reflecting the newness of the topic as well as the different perspectives held by those concerned with understanding how global forces affect higher education. The terms globalization and internationalization are used in these two books, and it is unclear where one starts and the other stops. Many of the authors seem to see globalization as the impact of transnational trends in the economy, information technology, science and scholarship, and other factors that affect higher education. Everyone is subject to these global trends, although the ways in which countries, institutions, and even individuals react may vary. Internationalization is more related to specific policies and practices of academic institutions (and to some extent, national higher education agencies) concerning other countries, usually aiming at improving and extending the international links and programs, and raising the consciousness of academic institutions. The two ideas are very much linked. Peter Scott, editor of *The Globalization of Higher Education*, in his concluding chapter on “Massification, Internationalization, and Globalization,” comes closest to providing good working definitions of these two concepts.

The authors in *Universities and Globalization: Critical Perspectives* are, in general, quite critical of the impact of globalization. They see the contemporary university as increasingly driven by the market forces of the global economy and subject to the homogenization of these trends. It is certainly the case that the trends that are discussed are all evident in many countries: including the increased power of managers in academic institutions, the move of universities toward entrepreneurialism and the idea of the “service university” (which often is aimed at serving those who can pay for the services rather than the traditional ideal of public service), and others. Indeed, the chapters in this book point out how these trends affect different countries. In this respect, Sheila Slaughter’s chapter on “National Higher Education Policies in a Global Economy” is a good example, as she links global economic trends to specific higher education developments in Britain, the United States, and Australia.

It is certainly the case that there is a convergence of worldwide trends in higher education. In many ways, the global economy makes itself felt worldwide. The World Trade Organization, the European Union, the World Bank, and many other multilateral agencies affect higher education more and more directly. Several useful chapters in *Universities and Globalization* discuss the impact of NAFTA, the OECD, and the European Union on higher education. The inclusion of higher education in multilateral treaties is a new development on the world stage, and is an indication of the importance of higher education in the postindustrial world. The worldwide trend toward a knowledge-based economy is probably even more important, as is the development of mass higher education systems. And it is not surprising that the country that organized a mass higher education system first, the United States, should be quite influential in providing ideas that have been adapted elsewhere.

Both books focus on the new information technologies as a key factor in globalization.

Both books focus on the new information technologies as a key factor in globalization. The impact of computer-based knowledge systems, including the Internet, has profoundly affected higher education, and we are just at the beginning of the “information revolution.” The use of English as the international medium of communication in science and scholarship has been strengthened by the new technologies. While some have argued that the Internet makes communication more “democratic,” it is also the case that knowledge is increasingly centralized and that the
ownership and control of databases and other tools of the information age make a great difference.

It is perhaps significant that in both of these books developing and middle-income countries are considered in just a few chapters. Indeed, only South Africa and Mexico are considered at length. The fact is that globalization affects the poorer countries most negatively. The World Bank and multinational corporations have a greater impact on the poorest countries in terms of imposing “conditionalities” on loans.

Both of these books provide a potpourri of global and international issues in higher education. Some fit, while others do not. A chapter on changes in Canadian universities in *Universities and Globalization* does not seem to be quite relevant, while John Urry’s “Contemporary Transformations in Time and Space” in *The Globalization of Higher Education* discusses everything from refugees to world communications in a discussion that is not made directly relevant to higher education. Several chapters in *The Globalization of Higher Education* focusing on such “internationalization” issues as the flows of students across borders are useful, as are considerations of programs of the European Union and the Commonwealth.

*Universities and Globalization* performs a valuable service by bringing a critical voice to the idea of globalization, which is too often simply accepted as a positive force, with little attention paid to the negative elements. *The Globalization of Higher Education* is useful because it focuses on the practical aspects of higher education policy in a global context. Many of the authors confused globalization and internationalization, despite efforts by Peter Scott and Jan Sadlak to untangle the concepts. For American readers, these two books introduce ideas that are as yet not part of the mainstream in higher education.

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**New Publications**


This volume examines the relationship between the state and the university in European countries. Among the topics considered are graduates and labor market demand, state funding of higher education, higher education and changing job requirements, state-university relations in France and Germany, the role of executive leadership, the management of change, and evaluation issues. Most of the chapters are comparative in nature.


Focusing on the reforms of the past few years, this book considers the experiences of Australia, Britain, and Hong Kong. The sections dealing with each country feature an overview chapter and two institutional case studies to illustrate how universities respond to change.


This book presents a European discussion of change in higher education. About half the chapters focus on the curriculum, including case studies of the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Greece, Spain, and Italy, as well as others. In addition, there are chapters on organizational and political issues in Belgium, the Netherlands, and Ireland.


This book covers educational developments in Tibet, with several valuable chapters on vocational education and higher education. The volume is sponsored by the Tibet Information Network, an independent research group. Given the lack of information concerning Tibet, this is a particularly valuable source.


Two-year colleges are an important feature of the American academic system. The volume discusses the variety of these institutions in the context of providing access to women and minorities. Among the topics considered are two-year institutions serving Hispanic students, traditionally Black two-year colleges, the role of women in two-year colleges, and church-related two-year schools.


This volume stems from a major national study of state higher education systems in the United States. Among
the topics considered are the evolution of state higher education governance structures, leadership issues, the relationship between state and institutional priorities, and the performance of state systems. Case studies from eight states form the basis of the research project.


This book focuses on innovative colleges and universities in the United States. Case studies of such institutions as the University of Wisconsin at Green Bay, Hampshire College, Evergreen State College, the University of California, Santa Cruz, and New College of the University of South Florida are featured as examples of highly innovative schools. The author provides an overall analysis of innovation in higher education.


Student financial aid is one of the central policy issues facing the U.S. federal government. This volume provides a range of perspectives on how students pay for higher education. Among the topics covered are analyses of college costs, the student aid industry, the nature of borrowers for tuition, merit-based versus need-based aid, student aid issues, and minority students.


The basic organizational structure of the American university is the department. This book provides a guide to department leadership. The aim is to provide department chairs with a perspective on the nature and organization of the academic department. Among the topics explored are the role of the department in the university, the operation of the department, and the various jobs of the chair.


An analysis of the contemporary role of women’s colleges in the United States, this volume argues for the importance of all-female institutions in American higher education in order to provide the best possible educational experience for women.


This volume is a study of the European Union’s SOCRATES program, which supports international initiatives in EU universities. Case studies of specific institutions and countries are provided to show how SOCRATES has worked, and how academic institutions have reacted to it. The researchers show the popularity of the programs, but indicate that many universities have not adopted all of the EU’s strategies for Europeanization.


The author, a professor of English, examines several educational reform traditions in the United States, from the perspective of literature relating to these movements. He looks at the “great books” movement, cultural studies (including a discussion of the Open University in the United Kingdom), and other topics.


This case study of the development of the field of home economics at the University of California, Berkeley, sheds light on the role of women in American higher education during a key period of development. It explores the relationship between home economics (an all-women’s field) and other departments at the university as a way of examining gender relationships in American universities in a historical perspective.


The Southwest Regional University (Lianda) of China was an amalgamation of China’s three most important universities, which moved to the far southwest frontier after the Japanese invasion in 1938. This volume tells the story of a remarkable effort to maintain higher education excellence in very difficult circumstances.

A collection of essays on the future of British higher education in the aftermath of the Dearing Commission report. The volume takes a critical look at British higher education policy and points out many of the problems facing higher education, including the growing “managerialism” of university governance, the role of assessment in higher education, how to deal with growing numbers of students, and others.


A critical perspective on the role of women in American higher education, Glazer argues that the new realities, such as the “corporatization” of the university, will make it more difficult for women to succeed in administration and academic work generally. She deals with the academic labor market, tenure issues, the role of professionalism, and related topics. The analysis in this study is feminist in perspective.


This critical analysis of American higher education focuses on the “corporatization” of higher education, the patterns of increased power of managers, and the downsizing of parts of academe. Among the topics considered are patterns of academic work in the “corporate university,” the role of unions in universities, research and the private sector, and others. All of the authors are critical of current trends in American higher education.


A collection of studies focusing mainly on reforms at UNAM, the National Autonomous University of Mexico, the largest university in Mexico and, with 260,000 students, perhaps the largest in the world. The chapters look at such issues as “merit pay,” evaluation schemes for programs and departments in the university; and similar topics.


This book is in a valuable series on “Educational Problems in Mexico.” Other volumes deal with a variety of issues in Mexican education, especially higher education, and is published by the National Autonomous University’s Center for the Study of the University. While the Center focuses especially on UNAM, its research is widely relevant. This book discusses a range of issues relating to politics and governance of the university in Mexico. The focus is on state-university relations for public universities. Several chapters focusing on other Latin American countries as well as Europe and the United States, are included.


This volume is one of a small group of books published in recent years containing unremitting attacks on the university and especially on the academic profession. Like most of the others, Poisoning the Ivy is based on little data other than some interviews conducted by the author and broad generalizations. Professors are attacked for poor teaching, poor scholarship, and other sins.


A comprehensive guide to studying in Germany aimed at international students, this volume considers such topics as language problems, academic migration patterns, academic cooperation between “North” and “South,” the role of the European Union in international exchange, the relations between German students and international students, and related topics. The book concludes with a discussion of the major German organizations dealing with international study.


This U.K.-based volume focuses on all aspects of part-time study, including life-long learning. The data are based on a study of several Scottish universities. The analysis includes a consideration of student attitudes, the perspectives of academic leaders, conditions of study, organizational issues, and others.
News of the Center and the Program in Higher Education

Work has started on the Reference Handbook on African Higher Education. This major volume, coordinated by Philip G. Altbach and Damtew Teferra and funded by the Ford Foundation, will be the first full-scale analytic guide to higher education in Africa. Chapters dealing with each African country as well as several comparative essays will be included. The Center is also continuing its work on the Inventory of Programs and Centers in Higher Education. This project, which is scheduled to be finished early in 2000, will provide information on centers and programs in higher education worldwide. It will be published in book form and will also be posted on the WWW. Dave Engberg is coordinating work on this project with the help of Kevin Sayers.

The Center has been awarded a grant by the International Education Research Foundation, Inc. of Los Angeles. This award will assist work on the inventory of higher education programs and especially the compilation of journals in the field of higher education that is part of the inventory project.

Z. Zou, professor of education at Beijing Normal University in China, has joined the Center as a visiting scholar for the fall term, 1999. In the spring, two senior Fulbright scholars will be working at the center. Prof. Molly Lee of the Science University of Malaysia and Dr. Julio Durand of the Austral University in Buenos Aires, Argentina will be pursuing their research. In addition, Dr. Jairam Reddy, former chair of the higher education commission in South Africa, currently a Fulbright scholar at Michigan State University, will be at Boston College for the spring term.

The Higher Education Program has welcomed three Fulbright scholars to its academic programs this fall. Two are from Argentina and one from Morocco. In addition, students with awards from the Mexican and Argentine governments have joined the program.


The role of the state in higher education is increasingly complex and multifaceted. This volume focuses on this changing relationship. Chapters consider managing systems of higher education, finance of systems of higher education, job requirements and higher education, the labor market, and related issues. Case studies of France and Germany are included. This book is entirely concerned with Europe.


The idea of this volume is original and interesting. Nine authors consider contemporary higher education (mainly in the United Kingdom, with a chapter dealing with the United States) from the perspective of John Henry Newman’s classic volume, The Idea of a University. Among the specific topics discussed are the history of universities in the medieval period, the university and government, universities and technology, and the internationalization of higher education. Newman’s thinking lends depth to current analyses.


The focus of this volume is on the changing curriculum and related issues in major European countries. Chapters consider, for example, the diversification of the curriculum in Spain, changing study patterns in Greece, case studies of engineering and economics in Italy, the impact of outside influences on the curriculum, and related issues.


A revision of Miller’s 1990 book, this volume deals with such topics as changing demographics, assessment and accountability, leadership and management, general education, the implementation of change, and others.


The specific challenges faced by senior academic leaders who are African American, working in primarily white American universities, are discussed in this volume. The chapters are written by a group of senior administrators who reflect on their careers and experiences.
A New Initiative in International Higher Education

Introduction

The Boston College Center for International Higher Education provides a unique service to colleges and universities worldwide. While it has as its primary aim providing information and publications to colleges and universities related to the Jesuit tradition, it also has a broader mission to be a focal point for discussion and thoughtful analysis of higher education. The Center provides information and analysis for those involved in managing the higher education enterprise internationally through publications, conferences, and the maintenance of a database of individuals and institutions. The Center is especially concerned with creating dialogue and cooperation among academic institutions in the industrialized nations and those in the developing countries of the Third World.

The Boston College Center for International Higher Education works in a series of concentric circles. At the core of the enterprise is the Jesuit community of postsecondary institutions—with special emphasis on the issues that affect institutions in developing countries. The next ring of the circle is made up of academic institutions in the Catholic tradition. Finally, other academic institutions as well as governmental agencies concerned with higher education may participate in the activities of the Center. All of the Center’s publications are available to a wide audience.

Programs and Resources

The Boston College Center for International Higher Education has as its purpose the stimulation of an international consciousness among Jesuit and other institutions concerning issues of higher education and the provision of documentation and analysis relating to higher education development. The following activities form the core of the Center’s activities during its initial period of development:

- newsletter;
- publication series;
- study opportunities;
- conferences;
- bibliographical and document service; and
- networking and information technology.

The Program in Higher Education

The Program in Higher Education offers masters and doctoral degree study in the field of higher education. The Program has been preparing professionals in higher education for three decades, and features a rigorous social science–based approach to the study of higher education. The Administrative Fellows initiative provides financial assistance as well as work experience in a variety of administrative settings. Specializations in higher education administration, student affairs, international higher education, and others are offered. The Higher Education Program works closely with the Center for International Higher Education. Additional information about the program in Higher Education is available from Dr. Karen Arnold, Coordinator, Program in Higher Education, Campion Hall, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, MA 02167. Fax: (617) 552-8422 e-mail: <arnold@bc.edu>. More information about the program—including course descriptions and degree requirements—can be found online at the program’s WWW site:

http://infoeagle.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/hea/HEA.html

Historian Boxer, who established one of the first women’s studies programs in the United States, reflects on the origins and development of the field of women’s studies in U.S. universities. She discusses the political and philosophical goals of the founders of the field and discusses the challenges facing the field after three decades of evolution.