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The Character of the Entrepreneurial University

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How are entrepreneurial universities initially formed and how do they sustain themselves? In *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities* (Pergamon-Elsevier, 1998), I traced developments in a few European universities from 1980 to 1995 to determine how they had gone about significantly changing the way they operated—how they moved to a much more proactive style. I argued that five pathways of transformation could be induced from these cases: diversified funding base; strengthened steering core; expanded developmental periphery; stimulated academic heartland; and integrated entrepreneurial culture. More recently, my latest book, *Sustaining Change in Universities: Continuities in Case Studies and Concepts* (Open University Press, 2004), substantially expands on that earlier analysis and provides a further look at the evolving character of the entrepreneurial university.

In the new book I searched for exemplars of entrepreneurial action—and stronger conceptualization. I turned to 14 internationally distributed case studies to clarify anew the earlier stated pathways of transformation and, further, to suggest dynamics that produce a new steady state committed to ongoing change. Five narratives pursue sustaining developments during the late 1990s in the European universities previously studied: the University of Warwick in England, the University of Strathclyde in Scotland, the University of Twente in the Netherlands, the University of Joensuu in Finland, and Chalmers University of Technology in Sweden. Three new accounts, drawn from the work of other scholars, portray transformed universities in Africa (University of Makerere in Uganda), Latin America (Catholic University of Chile), and Australia (Monash University). Additional brief narratives report on six diverse research universities in the United States (two private, four public), which exemplify aggressive institution building under the spur of intense competition—Stanford and MIT, Michigan and UCLA, North Carolina State University and Georgia Institute of Technology.

The newly highlighted dynamics of change stress, first, mutually supportive interaction among transforming elements; second, a newly established forward-looking “perpetual momentum”; and, third, behind the scenes, an institutionalized volition, a collective will, stimulates and guides a self-sustaining and self-selecting forcefulness in responding to societal demands. In one case after another, we find an assertive “bureaucracy of change”: such professional staff as development officers, grants and contracts officers, and continuing

education officers—nonacademic personnel who are much more forward-oriented than the traditional “administrative” staff who served on behalf of the funding public authority and higher regulatory boards and councils. We see the overall sustaining capacity become a virtual steady state of change, a character not dependent on a commanding CEO or a brilliant management team. Change becomes a habit, an institutionalized state of being.

Since each university is unique in combining common elements with particular features, the case studies produce “amplifying variations” of the overall themes. Chalmers, in Sweden, illuminates particularly well how to generate centers of initiative in a small to medium-size university; the Catholic University of Chile dramatizes how to modernize an old-fashioned faculty in a decade and a half; the University of Michigan reveals how a massive public university, busily multiplying resources, can match up against the sharp competition of the richest private universities in the world. The exhibited variations are as much a source of transferable insight as the old and new concepts that bring formal order to wide-ranging empirical examination of very complex entities. Case study narratives additionally weave uniquenesses around common elements and their amplifying variations. There is, finally, only one MIT, one Twente, one Monash.

Everywhere, increased accountability has subjected academics to bureaucratic controls and has weakened academic autonomy.

Without doubt, active complex universities, operating in different complex environments, develop complex differentiated answers. In contradistinction to system-level analysis, institution-level inquiry stays close to those realities. System analysis misses key aspects of university development, particularly the organic nature of university change. It readily loses its way in the swirling fog of national policy statements and the iron cages of categorical state steering. Institutional studies are better grounded.

In short, institutional case studies allow us to identify instructive exemplars of successful university adaptability under a wide range of and cultural conditions in various societies. The needed exemplars provide on-the-ground demonstration of how, in the study of universities, we can combine research for use with research for understanding.

From such cumulative analysis, we gradually grasp the entrepreneurial university as a place possessing a capacity for change. We learn also that within universities there is a collective phenomenon, an accumulation of entrepreneurial groups stretching from disciplinary departments and interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary research centers at the base, to faculties and schools at intermediary levels, to the entire university. We find faculty and managers intertwined at all levels, encased in

a common understanding that academic values are the bedrock upon which managerial values are brought into play.

Perhaps most enabling of all, we find the entrepreneurial university to be a place that diversifies income to the point where its financial portfolio is not heavily dependent upon the whims of politicians and bureaucrats who occupy the seats of state policy, nor upon business firms and their “commercial” influence, nor even upon student tuition as main support. Funds flow not only from such well-identified sources but also, crucially, from a host of public agencies (other than the core-support ministry or department) and alumni and other private donors who provide moral and political support as well as direct year-to-year funding and accumulation of endowment. Effective stewardship comes to depend not on the state or on “the market,” but on university self-guidance and self-determination. The entrepreneurial university does indeed provide a new basis for achievement.

My qualitative case studies of exemplars of change offer a strong lesson for future research. Concepts induced from exemplary practices are strengthened by the reassurance of solid facts—documented actions taken in defined contexts. More good case studies that lay bare those facts will be needed to further illuminate the character of entrepreneurial universities emerging and evolving at a rapid rate, internationally, in the early years of the 21st century. ■

New Typologies for Crossborder Higher Education

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Given the increase in demand for higher education, there are new providers, new delivery methods, and types of programs. These new providers include media companies such as Pearson (U.K.), Thomson (Canada); multinational companies such as Apollo (USA), Raffles (Singapore), and Aptech (India); corporate universities such as those run by Motorola and Toyota, and networks of universities, professional associations, and organizations. Generally, these new commercial providers are mainly occupied with teaching/training or offering services and do not focus on research per se. They can complement, cooperate, compete, or simply coexist with the traditional public and private higher education institutions with the traditional mandate of teaching, research, and outreach.

It is not just for-profit companies that are becoming increasingly interested in commercial crossborder initiatives.

Conventional higher education institutions, both private and public, are also seeking opportunities for commercial delivery of education programs in other countries. The majority of these are bona fide institutions that comply with domestic and foreign regulations (where they exist), but also on the increase are rogue or low-quality providers who are not recognized by bona fide accreditation/licensing bodies. Another worrisome development is the mushrooming of “degree mills” operating around the world. Many of these ventures are nothing more than web-based companies that are selling certificates based on “life experiences” and are not delivering education programs at all.

The expansion in number and type of entities that are providing education courses and programs across borders is causing some confusion. This also applies to the increasing diversity in delivery modes. The general state of flux may indicate progress and innovation, but it also begs for some kind of classification system or typology to make sense of the new context of crossborder education.

The word “provider” is used as a generic term to include all types of higher education institutions as well as companies and networks involved in crossborder education.

Classifying Crossborder Providers

A typology for six different types of crossborder providers is presented. A key factor is that the type of provider is purposefully separated from the mode of mobility. To date, much of the discussion about program and provider mobility has linked the type of provider with a certain mode of delivery. This approach is one reason for the state of confusion. A generic classification system for crossborder providers has thus been proposed and separate classification systems are used for the different modes of program and provider mobility.

This typology is a work in progress. The word “provider” is used as a generic term to include all types of higher education institutions as well as companies and networks involved in crossborder education. Four key factors are used to describe each category of provider and to distinguish one group from another: whether the provider is public, private, or religious; whether it is nonprofit or for-profit; whether it is recognized by a bona fide national licensing or accrediting body; and whether it is part of the national “home” higher education system.

The first category includes “recognized higher education institutions” and can be public, private, or religious institutions—either nonprofit or profit-oriented. The institutions are usually part of the home national education system and are recognized by a domestic bona fide licensing or accrediting body, and are often referred to as the traditional type of higher education institution.

“Nonrecognized higher education institutions” comprise the second group and are usually private in nature and for-profit in

purpose. This category includes institutions that provide a course of study but are not recognized by a national bona fide evaluation body in the home or foreign country. The level of quality can differ greatly, but if these institutions are of low quality they are often referred to as rogue providers and usually seek accreditation from bodies that sell an accreditation label. Degree mills are different from rogue providers in that they usually do not provide a course of study; they focus on selling an award.

“Commercial company higher education institutions” make up the third category and are primarily profit-oriented companies that can be privately owned or publicly traded. The institutions or programs established by these companies are not usually part of a ‘home’ national education system and, may or may not, be recognized by bona fide licensing or accreditation bodies. A variety of national companies and international conglomerates can be included in this group. These companies are often referred to as a type of “new provider” and over 50 of them are included in the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education Global Education Index of companies that are publicly traded and deliver education programs and services across borders.

“Corporate higher education institutions” are the fourth group that is characterized by being part of a major international conglomerate and that exists outside of a national education system. These institutions provide education and training for their employees. They are not usually recognized by a licensing or accrediting body but will often collaborate with traditional higher education institutions in order to access degree-awarding powers through a partnership.

Virtual higher education institutions may or may not be part of a nationally based higher education and therefore may or may not be recognized by a bona fide licensing or accreditation body.

The fifth category is more general and includes different types of “networks and affiliations.” These types of partnerships can be any combination of public or private institutions and companies and can involve complex arrangements in terms of academic, financial, legal, and accreditation issues. The profit motive is often the catalyst that brings the different players together to work crossborder, even though some of the partners may be nonprofit in the home context. These innovative networks and affiliations are also referred to as new providers.

“Virtual higher education institutions” constitute the sixth group. They rely primarily on delivering education by distance (usually on-line) and in some cases, they may provide face-to-face support for students through their own study centers or in cooperation with local partners. Virtual higher education institutions may or may not be part of a nationally based higher education and therefore may or may not be recognized by a

bona fide licensing or accreditation body. It is very difficult for receiving countries to monitor or regulate international virtual higher education institutions due to distance-delivery modalities.

Key Issues

One of the central issues is who recognizes and gives the provider the power to award the qualifications in the “home or sending country” or in the “host or receiving country.” However, many new providers are not part of, or are not recognized by, a home (or foreign) national education system, and this raises key issues. Another challenge focuses on the terms “public, private and religious,” as they are interpreted and used in different ways among countries. The emergence of new trade regulations applying to education services means that commercial crossborder providers are usually considered to be private by the host or receiving country regardless of their status at home. This adds yet another complicating dimension to the task. Furthermore, the definition of profit and nonprofit varies among receiving nations. Consequently, many countries are overhauling their national regulatory systems for crossborder education, for purposes of both liberalization and protection, and this merits close scrutiny.

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Programs on the Move

Crossborder mobility of programs can be described as the “movement of individual education/training courses and programs across national borders through face-to-face, distance, or a combination of these modes.” Credits toward a qualification can be awarded by the sending foreign country provider, or by an affiliated domestic partner, or jointly. Franchising, twinning, double/joint degrees, articulation, and validation models, plus virtual delivery are the more popular methods of crossborder program mobility. The use of virtual delivery is one example of why it is important to separate the type of provider from the mode of mobility as it is clearly not just virtual higher education institutions who are using distance delivery for crossborder program delivery.

Providers on the Move

Not only courses and programs are moving across borders, so are the providers. Crossborder mobility of a provider can be described as “the physical or virtual movement of an education provider across a national border to establish a presence to provide education or training programs and/or services to students and other clients.” The difference between program and provider mobility is one of scope and volume in terms of pro-

grams or services offered and the local presence (and investment) by the foreign provider. Credits and qualifications are awarded by the foreign provider (through foreign, local, or self-accreditation methods) or by an affiliated domestic partner or jointly. The key question remains who monitors and recognizes the “legitimacy” and “recognition” of the qualification for future study and employment purposes. The forms of cross-border provider mobility include branch campuses, merger with or acquisition of domestic providers, independent institutions, study and support centers, virtual delivery, plus other types of innovative affiliations. A distinguishing feature between program and provider mobility is that with provider mobility the learner is not necessarily located in a different country than the awarding institution as is the case with program mobility; and this raises other issues and challenges. ■

Academic Corruption: The Continuing Challenge

PHILIP G. ALTBACH

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If the spate of news reports about corruption in higher education indicates the scope of the problem, the world is seeing a dramatic increase in the phenomenon. Not only is corruption undermining the core values of higher education in some parts of the world, it is creating problems of credibility as societies link universities with unsavory practices. After all, higher education’s bedrock mission consists of the pursuit of knowledge and truth. Universities worldwide have long claimed special privileges of autonomy, academic freedom, and support by society precisely because of their devotion to the public good and their reputations for probity. They have long enjoyed high social prestige precisely for these commitments. If universities lose their standing in society as special institutions, they will suffer unparalleled damage.

Stories of Corruption

Here is a sampling of current press reports on academic corruption. These stories provide a sense of the scope and variety of the problem worldwide.

Russia is introducing a national entrance test for university admissions, in considerable part because of perceived corruption in the traditional entrance system. Russian families pay about \$300 million annually in bribes to ensure acceptance to universities, and another \$700 million once students are enrolled. A former deputy prime minister put the amount spent on academic bribes at between \$2 and \$5 billion a year. Family and political connections account for further corruption in the entry process. The test, it is hoped, will eliminate

subjectivity in admissions, allowing meritocratic decisions and also better access for applicants from outside the major cities. The point here is that corruption is seen as so endemic to the system that a major reform had to be implemented in an effort to curb it.

The admissions process involves a lot of corruption because of the coveted nature of access to higher education, especially to the most prestigious universities. With its long history of competitive and highly regarded national examinations for admission to many of its universities, China recently suffered an admissions scandal covered in the national media. University officials demanded a payment of \$12,000 from a student whose test score qualified him for admission to a prestigious university. One critic noted, “Over the past few years, we have been trying to marketize higher education and turn it into an industry...but whenever money is involved in anything, there will be problems.” The press reported that this case is “just the tip of the iceberg.”

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The University of Port Harcourt, in southern Nigeria, recently revoked the degrees of 7,254 of its graduates in a crackdown on academic fraud. The head of the university charged students stripped of their degrees with either cheating on examinations or falsifying their academic records, in cases going back to 1966. He characterized Nigerian universities as rife with corruption, with many students being admitted with false secondary school certificates. A report by the Exams Ethics Project, a nongovernmental organization, noted that, “Academic fraud and corruption is a big business in Nigeria.”

In South Korea, the government demanded that three private universities fire 68 faculty members and administrators, on charges of embezzlement, mismanagement of funds, and bribery. Investigators found that one school diverted \$4.9 million to personal use and illegally redirected another \$4.6 million.

Why Now?

The current focus on corruption in higher education indicates the prevalence of the problem—although the phenomenon is by no means unprecedented in history. While we have no way of knowing if academic corruption is in fact more widespread than in earlier times, it is certainly attracting more attention. One can pose several hypotheses as to why there seems to be more corruption.

The greater scrutiny of academic institutions relates to higher education’s high profile for providing social mobility. A successful career requires an academic degree, even if obtained fraudulently or from a “degree mill.” As a result, academe attracts more attention, and more criticism, from the mass

media. And it is under greater pressure to provide both the access and the certification that are essential for success.

Furthermore, as higher education has “marketized,” it adopted more and more commercial values, including a greater predilection for corruption, and a greater distance from traditional academic values.

A related phenomenon is the massification of higher education. Many newer mass higher education providers, not only universities but also commercial enterprises offering postsecondary qualifications, also have only marginal connections to core academic values.

The deterioration of the idea of higher education as a “common good” has created unprecedented pressures on academe. Around the world, the state has withdrawn support from higher education. Even the most prestigious universities have had to be more concerned with the “bottom line.” Commercial considerations loom ever larger in academic affairs. Few institutions know how to ensure adequate income in this new environment, and some have been lured into engaging in corrupt practices.

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Professors and administrators, faced with deteriorating salaries and working conditions, in some cases are taking part in corruption. A growing number of part-time and poorly trained regular faculty are especially prone to corruption. They lack an understanding of the meaning of the traditional university as well as the means to support themselves with their academic salaries.

New providers of higher education, including business enterprises and some for-profit academic institutions, have little understanding of academic values. They are in the higher education business exclusively to earn money. As traditional universities with inadequate management skills partner with these new providers, there is a clash of cultures and possible corruption.

The Internet, another area of potential problems, constitutes an untamed frontier filled with all kinds of academic offerings, from worthless degrees that can be purchased and unregulated academic programs from a diverse range of providers to a few thoughtfully designed programs offered by respected universities. There is great latitude for shady practices.

Corruption and related ethical problems present an unprecedented threat to higher education. The loss of higher education’s objectivity, honesty, and high ethical standards would remove the central rationale for public support. The growing number of bad apples in the barrel is threatening the entire academic enterprise.

World Class Universities: American Lessons

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In its new ranking of the world’s 200 best universities, *The Times Higher* found the top three to be U.S. institutions—Harvard University, the University of California, Berkeley, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

There are good reasons why U.S. universities fare well in competitive rankings, and other nations could profitably consider the structural and policy factors that help them achieve such heights.

But collaboration may be even more profoundly important than competition in determining the future of higher education. Indeed informal global cooperation is already beginning to create the meta-university that will see the best scholarship and teaching shared worldwide.

The factors I believe contribute the most to the excellence and competitive success of US higher education include:

- The diversity of institutions—from small liberal arts colleges to large public and private universities—allows students to select the school that best matches their needs
- New assistant professors have freedom to choose what they teach as well as research
- Our research universities weave together teaching and research in ways that bring freshness, intensity, and renewal to both activities
- We welcome students, scholars, and faculty from abroad. Their intellectual and cultural richness help define our institutions
- Support of frontier research in our universities has long been an important responsibility of the federal government, which awards grants to researchers on the basis of their merit in a competitive marketplace of ideas
- A tradition of philanthropy, fostered by U.S. tax law, encourages alumni and others to support our colleges and universities. Scholarship funds they provide allow talented students from families of modest means to attend even the most costly schools
- Open competition for faculty and students drive excellence.

Such factors could be integrated into the cultural and political contexts of other nations and perhaps be improved on.

The enormous success and impact of the Indian Institutes of Technology, established in the 1960s, demonstrate that great universities based on this research-intensive model can rise rapidly anywhere in the world.

Indeed, the situation is far from static. Germany is working to better integrate the powerful free-standing Max Planck Research Institutes with German universities to capture the dynamism that comes from interweaving teaching and research.

In the United Kingdom, issues of access, affordability, and top-up fees are subjects of intense debate, and visionary activities such as the Cambridge-MIT Institute seek to better couple the stellar intellectual power of British universities to national competitiveness, productivity, and entrepreneurship.

China has committed to transforming several of its universities into world-class research-intensive institutions, as have Singapore, Mexico, and many other nations. The next 50 years should produce healthy competition and progress in advanced learning and research. But cooperation is very important too.

The Internet and worldwide web will make possible global research collaboration, sharing of knowledge and collective creation of educational materials.

Local universities will not be displaced or replaced. Rather, teaching and the creation of knowledge at each university will be elevated by the Linux-like efforts of a multitude of individuals and groups all over the world. The tectonic shift can be thought of as the emergence of the meta-university.

Of course, scholars and teachers have always advanced their work collectively through conferences, seminars, and correspondence. But the scale of participation, speed of propagation, and sophistication of access and presentation that we will see in the coming years are unprecedented.

One catalyst for this new dimension of global cooperation is MIT's OpenCourseWare initiative, which is making the basic teaching materials for virtually all our subjects available on the Internet at no charge to all teachers and learners.

The residential university will continue to be the best venue for bright young men and women to live and learn among dedicated scholars and teachers.

The residential university will continue to be the best venue for bright young men and women to live and learn among dedicated scholars and teachers. Institutional quality will be raised through competition and adaptation of elements of the U.S. model.

But the meta-university—the electronically enabled global collaboration of teachers and researchers—will rapidly advance and improve higher education everywhere.

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Private Higher Education from Central and Eastern Europe to Central Asia

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Legitimacy in Central and Eastern European Private Higher Education

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The countries in Central and Eastern Europe have struggled with private higher education legitimacy over the last 15 years. Most of these issues exist globally as well but have proven to be starkly problematic in the region.

Belated Rapid Growth

Except for a few religious institutions with limited private character, the region was almost unique for its lack of private higher education before 1989. Much of Asia and virtually all of Latin America had certainly already moved quite far in the private direction. Furthermore, in no other region was the private sector inaugurated by such a singular event as the fall of communism. Within a couple of years most Central and Eastern European countries had a significant private higher education sector. The expansion was particularly rapid in Romania, Poland, Georgia, and Ukraine and more moderate in Hungary, Russia, and the Czech Republic—increasing quickly from zero to 10, 20, or 30 percent. Some of the countries with the most explosive growth of the private sector faced the greatest problems of legitimacy (e.g., Romania). Expansion resulted from many factors, including the low cohort enrollments that had characterized public higher education in the region. Although certain countries had some history of private higher education in the precommunist period, others (such as Russia) basically did not.

In short, factors that have undermined legitimacy globally have been intense in this region. Something new can be perceived as unfamiliar or as strange. Sudden change can provide shock and incomprehension and multiple stereotypes. Another factor involves the lack of central planning, which is especially serious where the population has been nurtured on a culture of planning. Spontaneity and distinctiveness are then met with displeasure.

Norms

The above point about culture illustrates that low rates of legitimacy involve more than just the belated and rapid growth of higher education. In Central and Eastern Europe this new phenomenon largely clashes with traditional norms. To be sure, this trend has occurred in all regions moving away from public-sector monopoly, but usually the pace was slower and involved precedents in the form of private schools or private entities in other socioeconomic spheres.

Western Europe remains the major region in the world dominated by the public sector, with very little private higher education.

Another relevant factor is the broader European context, considering that Central and Eastern Europe, once liberated, naturally looked to its Western counterparts for legitimate norms. First, it should be noted that Western Europe, around 1989, was a region where the dominant, high-status classic university model was strongly public. Second, Western Europe remains the major region in the world dominated by the public sector, with very little private higher education. As in much of the world outside the United States, “nonprofit private” has not been a widespread or well-understood concept in Europe, and private is often associated with business, suggesting an “intrusion” into higher education. As private was a suspect concept, higher education institutions in countries like Poland preferred to be known as “nonpublic.”

The dominance of a public norm was linked to secularism and national centralism. Legitimacy is seen as based on service to broad national public interests, rather than those of religious, ethnic, cultural, and other minority factions. The norm of a single standard of (high) quality—with one set of rules, curriculum, governance, and public finance—remained strong. True, this norm had already eroded in practice in some respects even for public higher education, but private higher education brought about more dramatic and radical changes.

The “highest” legitimate norms in Eastern and Central Europe were thus at odds with many things private higher education institutions would represent and undertake. Indeed, rarely anywhere in the world and almost never in this region did privates even claim to pursue the highest academic levels or comprehensiveness. Instead, they sought to fill specialized niches, very tied to the job market or to the interests of reli-

gious, ethnic, or cultural groups. The “nonuniversity” and commercial orientation is common in private higher education globally but has been accompanied by fewer alternatives in Eastern and Central Europe.

Toward Mixed and Multiple Legitimacies

Private higher education has now existed for some 15 years in Central and Eastern Europe, and the private sector’s unusually weak legitimacy is shifting to a more mixed picture. Unfamiliarity and shock have abated; rapid growth has declined. In the region, no higher education system is more than 30 percent private, whereas outside Europe the private sector often comprises a higher percentage and sometimes a large majority.

Addressing legitimacy concerns and creating stronger institutions has made the private sector look less and less unusual, strange, or illegitimate. The growing acceptance of the privates is related to changes in public higher education itself throughout Europe. Two major financial changes in the public sector are the incorporation of paying students and other nonstate income sources. A shift has also occurred in the direction of somewhat more private managerial norms. At the same time (e.g., in Romania), the state has often installed regulations or accreditation procedures to clean up some of the most illegitimate privates and give a stamp of official approval to other institutions. Some countries in the region now even allow certain forms of state funding of private institutions. And even public higher education sometimes partners with private counterparts (though of course it also often opposes them).

Finally, society and higher education come to accept more notions of multiple or plural legitimacy and ways of doing things—befitting certain groups and values. This means more room for private institutions that serve a particular constituency, even if they do not attempt to serve all sectors of society. Private institutions tied to particular groups, intranational regions, or certain international norms are more likely now to be accepted as legitimate. None of this, however, obliterates the legitimacy issues that were uppermost a decade ago. ■

Legitimizing the Goal of Educating Global Citizens

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The emergence of private sectors in higher education is recognized by UNESCO as “one of the principal developments characterizing a systemic transformation of higher education in Central and Eastern Europe.” After the fall of the Berlin wall,

private institutions sprang up across the region to fill gaps in the higher education landscape formed by the increased demand for higher education, the nascent market economies, and the priorities of a spawning civil society. Within several short years, the private higher education sectors in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe grew quickly, although unevenly, with student enrollments ranging from more than 25 percent of total student numbers in Poland and Romania and 22 percent in Estonia, to 14 percent in Hungary and 13 percent in Bulgaria, to 2 percent in the Czech Republic and less than 1 percent in the Slovak Republic. In Poland alone, 6 private institutions were registered by the end of 1990; by 2002 their number had reached 250. Private-sector enrollments of 50,000 students in 1994 climbed to more than a half million in 2001, amounting to almost one-third of the Polish student body. And between 1990 and 1993, around 250 institutions appeared in Romania.

The rapid establishment of new private institutions within an initial legal vacuum soon invited questions concerning legitimacy.

Struggling with Social Acceptance

The rapid establishment of new private institutions within an initial legal vacuum soon invited questions concerning legitimacy. And despite the fact that, unlike the existing public institutions, these new private colleges and universities are untainted by the communist past, respond to various pressing demands of a transitional society, and embrace the major postulates of higher education reform—often with little or no direct use of taxpayers' money—they still continue to grapple with social acceptability. A major factor influencing social recognition is expressed in the main goal that these institutions pursue.

Shared Characteristics

The overriding priority of private institutions of higher education, both within the region and beyond, seems to be the development of human resources for states with multicultural civil societies and increasingly characterized by global economic interdependence. In the process of accomplishing this goal, private institutions across Central and Eastern Europe, as a group, exhibit specific common characteristics. They place the student at the center—thus focusing above all on teaching and learning, or the transmission of knowledge, as their core function. Different forms of pedagogical and technical innovation are complemented by practical training in programs that promise to produce a skilled, flexible, and critically thinking labor force. Research is conducted mainly to support classroom teaching. Very few of the private institutions train doctoral students. For example, out of 221 institutions in Poland, only 51 are entitled to offer master's degree programs and only 2 to confer doctoral degrees, whereas the 7 Bulgarian private uni-

versities graduated 3 doctoral students in the 2002–2003 academic year. Involvement in the local and regional problem-solving agendas has also been a common feature.

With respect to their institutional profiles, most private institutions in Central and Eastern Europe offer a limited number of programs in fields demanded by the market—such as business, finances, banking, law, and economics—designed predominantly as short-term degree programs, mostly professional and at the bachelor's level. Although private institutions in some countries in the region outnumber public institutions—82 percent of all institutions in Slovenia are private, 82 percent in Poland, 63 percent in Estonia, 60 percent in Romania, and 52 percent in Hungary—most of these institutions are small, with weak infrastructures. Their corporate academic culture is somewhat diluted. A large number of their faculty are part time, usually coming from the larger, older public institutions. Many of their students (also representing a rather mixed group with respect to age and social status) are also part-time, distance learners, taking specific courses or virtual classes. All this appears fairly common in global perspective.

Most private institutions in Central and Eastern Europe offer a limited number of programs in fields demanded by the market—such as business, finances, banking, law, and economics—

A Shift in Goals

The teaching, learning, and professional orientation pursued by this group of institutions speaks to a very important shift in priorities within the bundle of the traditional functions of higher education, which include the pursuit of “pure” research and academic training (as a core function), general education, professional preparation, production of technically usable knowledge, and the promotion of cultural self-understanding. The shift of emphasis within the bundle of higher education functions exemplified by private institutions in the region takes place against the background of deep-seated educational values, formed above all by the philosophy of the modern German university and the integration of studies and research. Following the political changes in Central and Eastern Europe, this ideal has been upheld more than before. In most of the region, despite the separate research academies, research is declared a key mission of the university and also a high-priority requirement of the accrediting regulations.

As a result of the value placed on research, the private institutions' clear focus on developing human resources for the new regionally and globally integrated economies and knowledge societies has not been easily accepted across the region. The social acceptance of private higher education institutions will depend on their ability to address the challenges regarding their goals. Combining the search for truth and knowledge creation with the training of global citizens is a significant prob-

lem that these institutions will need to resolve. Committed as they are to human resource development, private colleges and universities must remain sites for the pursuit of truth, something that cannot be reduced to job placement but instead must promote the discovery of new scientific answers to the pressing problems of contemporary society. ■

Private Higher Education in Central Asia

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The Central Asian republics have had much in common in terms of their culture and history, from the age of nomadic tribes to independence in 1991. Under the Soviet Union, all Central Asian republics and Mongolia functioned as centrally planned economies. Higher education, especially in the sciences, was considered to be a system of high standard. The Soviet Union's collapse was followed by discombobulating economic and social repercussions in the newly independent countries, including the education system. As in many other postcommunist countries, a large number of private universities were established. However, while some argue that these new universities challenged the existing state universities and the educational system in general, in Central Asia, most of the newly opened schools had but one purpose: to generate money for the owners or founders. This main orientation of the new private institutions has had a negative effect on the social stature of the private sectors in the region.

State Control

Higher education policies and regulations are similar in much of this region. The exception is Turkmenistan, where no private institutions of higher education exist. The so-called state patrons—consisting of the president of Turkmenistan, deputy chairman of the government, and all the ministers—supervise and monitor higher education institutions in Turkmenistan. The patrons are also responsible for student admissions and the employment of graduates.

Officially, no private higher education institutions existed in Uzbekistan until recently either, because there was no legislation permitting private education in that country. In a situation that is not uncommon internationally, some unlicensed nonstate institutions existed de facto; their diplomas were not officially recognized. The most famous of these institutions is the International Business School Kelajak Ilmi (literally translated from Uzbek as “future knowledge”) in Tashkent. On March 3, 2004 the new governmental regulation on the licensing of

nongovernmental educational institutions came into force. The International Business School managed to receive a license and now functions legally.

Thus, Uzbekistan joined Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Mongolia, and Tajikistan as countries where legislation permits the creation of both state and nonstate higher education institutions. Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, and Mongolia have the largest number of private universities. For example, Kazakhstan has 114 private universities and 50 state universities, and Mongolia has 29 private universities, while Tajikistan has only 2 (official) nonstate universities.

As mentioned above, there are many similarities in the laws regulating private higher education in the region. The key document in each country is the education law. The other common feature is that the ministry of education regulates the educational system of each country. Also, several governmental agencies (various commissions, inspection agencies, etc.) enforce the law. The law stipulates provisions on licensing and accreditation of higher education institutions. Both licensing and accreditation are carried out by state inspection at least once every five years.

The state remains the only significant source of funding for the state universities and largely controls them.

The state remains the only significant source of funding for the state universities and largely controls them. The state also controls private institutions—to some extent because the ministry issues licenses to such universities. Nonstate universities can start functioning only if they receive such licenses from the state. In order to receive the license, an institution needs to comply with the set of norms—including a certain number of qualified full- and part-time staff and space provision for staff, students, libraries, among other things. The ministry and other government agencies define this set of norms. The ministry also approves the curricula, syllabi, and textbooks. Institutions can recruit and enroll students only if they have a license. Higher education institutions are obliged to show a student candidate this license and all other relevant documentation. Besides awarding the license, the ministry also recognizes all qualifications earned by the students. Requirements for the (bachelor's and master's) thesis and final (state) exams should comply with the ministerial educational standards.

What To Do

In summary, the state has significant power, with leverage, in relation to private universities. Yet universities suffer from a lack of funding and of resources to employ enough full-time staff to enforce the ministry's specifications. Although it is legitimate for a private higher education institution to exist, according to local legislation, it is difficult to determine what really defines private institutions. Certain actions might be implemented to clarify the situation. Independent accredita-

tion centers could be established. At present, ministries of education lack the capacity to license and assess higher education institutions. The sources of financing could be diversified and schools encouraged to raise and manage extra funds. Curriculum specialists and other experts in education could be trained, with student-centered approaches to teaching and curriculum reforms that have been implemented in other countries. The skills of experts in higher education administration could also be strengthened. International organizations might lobby governments to support the growth of private higher education in the region. Without these improvements, it will be hard if not impossible for competitive private higher education of high quality to exist. The contemporary reality is that impressive growth has resulted in private higher education sectors that remain in precarious condition. ■

Polish Private Higher Education: Expanding Access

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Until 1989, Polish higher education constituted an elite system with very low enrollment rates. The strong involvement of central political institutions in issues of higher education eliminated academic freedom and weakened the standing of Polish higher education institutions. A stagnant economy, the inflexibility of the higher education system, the weak correlation between higher education and employment, and low levels of faculty remuneration in the 1980s discouraged many eligible students from participating in higher education and forced many bright academics to leave the country in search of better job prospects abroad.

Reforms and Changes

The transition period began in 1989. The economic crisis at the start of the 1990s exacerbated the falling industrial production, inflation (approaching 150 percent), and high unemployment rates. In response to the economic downturn, a set of economic reforms were introduced.

Higher education policy was also changed to allow institutions to restructure and adjust to the new economic, social, and political situation. A higher education law passed by Parliament in 1990 provided the basis for far-reaching changes. Major innovative provisions included the devolution of authority from the government to institutions, the introduction of tuition fees, and—crucial to this article—elimination of

barriers of entry to private higher education institutions. These changes led to a substantial expansion of the higher education system in the 1990s, in particular of the private sector.

Indeed, the most radical change was the permission to establish private higher education institutions. Before 1989 there was only one private higher education institution—the Catholic University of Lublin, established in 1918, funded by the Church and the people of Poland. Under the new law, founders could establish nonpublic higher education institutions, once they meet the requirements set by the Ministry of Education, which included issues such as the number of professors, the curriculum, and infrastructure. Since 2001 the minister has requested the approval of a State Accreditation Commission. Private institutions founded under the 1990 higher education act were allowed to offer bachelor's and master's degree programs. In 1997, a vocational higher education schools act was passed by Parliament. New private institutions, established after 1997, are registered as vocational higher education schools and can offer only bachelor's degree programs. In order to apply for master's degrees they have to change their status first and operate under the 1990 higher education act. For this reason, the 145 most recently established private higher education institutions have the status of vocational institutions.

Private institutions do not receive any direct state support for teaching and research.

Private-Sector Development

Private institutions charge tuition fees for all their students; the fees are on average between 400 and 600 euros per semester. Private institutions do not receive any direct state support for teaching and research, although the government exempts private higher education institutions from property, sales, and income taxes. Until 2003, the state provided working students or their parents with deductions against state income tax liabilities for fees paid to higher education, but in 2004 this tax deduction was abolished.

Since 2001 full-time students in the private sector have been eligible for state means-tested scholarships. In 2001 about 17,000 students received state scholarships, which amount to about 50 euros a month. However, private-sector students are excluded from merit-based state scholarships. Since 1998 all students enrolled in full-time or part-time studies have been eligible for state-subsidized loans.

Private higher education has rapidly expanded and gained increased acceptance. Private institutions play an important role in meeting the demand for higher education, which increased dramatically in the 1990s, due to demographic factors and the rising importance of higher education for the labor market. The number of private providers rose from 3 in 1990 to 280 in 2004, while student numbers rose from about 6,500 in 1990–1991 to about 510,000 in 2003–2004, while

total higher education enrollments jumped from about 400,000 in 1990–1991 to more than 1,800,000 in 2003–2004.

Private higher education institutions exist throughout Poland, although (in keeping with typical patterns cross-nationally) the most prestigious are concentrated in and around large cities. Of the 280 privates, 137 are located in large cities, 57 of them in Warsaw. However, many private providers situated in small cities significantly increase higher education possibilities for students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds or from rural areas. Private providers deprived of almost any state support develop mainly “low-cost” study programs (as in most of the region and the world) and attract mostly part-time students. They usually offer programs in business, management, education, and political and computer science. Because of the limited number of professors available, private institutions in the beginning of the 1990s offered mainly bachelor’s programs. However, in recent years they have recruited more and more professors, to offer master’s degrees and meet the requirements to confer Ph.D.s. In 2002 more than 90 institutions were authorized to offer master’s degrees and 4 have Ph.D. tracks. The rest, about 150, offer programs at the bachelor’s level.

Approximately 75 percent of private institution enrollments are part-time students who usually combine study and work in order to pay for higher education.

Approximately 75 percent of private institution enrollments are part-time students who usually combine study and work in order to pay for higher education. In addition, research conducted in 2001 indicated that most students in the private sector are from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and from rural areas.

Conclusion

In sum—and this can be a key to private higher education legitimacy—in times of state financial stringency and growing demand for higher education, increasing the accessibility to higher education for low-income students would be hard to achieve without the private higher education sector. Therefore, private institutions are especially valued among older students, who are given the opportunity to raise their educational levels, and among students from lower-income groups and rural areas. On the other hand, the private sector in Poland is still a far cry from having state legitimacy and recognition. Government has chosen to leave the private sector largely to its own devices. There are no direct state appropriations or tax exemptions, and the private sector is not truly incorporated into statewide higher education planning. In sum, while Polish private higher education is substantial in size, the legitimacy of the sector remains a mixed affair.

Romanian Private Higher Education Institutions: Mission Statements

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This article examines a body of data accessible on-line of some relevance to the discussion about the legitimacy of private higher education institutions. By searching their web pages, one can discover how private higher education institutions perceive themselves, their environment, and their mission.

The research included 23 accredited and 28 licensed institutions, listed with the National Council of Academic Evaluation and Accreditation, that represented the state of the Romanian private sector in January 2004. The focus here is on the mission statements presented in the web pages. Not all institutions have explicit mission statements. Thus in some cases other institutional self-descriptions and declarations of goals have been used.

The content of the mission statements, like the design of the web pages, are used by institutions to offer an image of assurance and reliability. The rhetoric of most of the statements is formal, correct, and somewhat bureaucratic. A few statements are poetic or religious in tone. The mission statements are filled with words that are part of the new official rhetoric, and are filled with academic jargon.

Vocationalism

Most of the institutions claim vocational and professional missions: “the creation of specialists competitive on a national and international level”; “preparing specialists able . . . to meet the demands of a market economy, integrated into the European political, social, judicial, and cultural context”; “preparing professionals for the Hungarian community that are competitive on an international level, in a Christian spirit”; “preparation of specialists for Western Romania”; etc. Many institutions emphasize the ability of their graduates to fit into national, international, and European markets or even any other employment context and to have the skills demanded by the labor market. Thus, these website mission statements confirm a frequent observation about contemporary private higher education—namely, its job-oriented focus.

While throughout the world vocationalism might be a common feature of higher education, in Central and Eastern Europe this orientation also continues the value system of higher education that prevailed during the communist regimes. During the reforms started in the 1950s, the mission of higher education was vocational and established on a sys-

temic rather than institutional level. After the so-called polytechnization reforms, higher education was intended to produce an intellectual proletariat for the national economy. All degrees offered by communist higher education were linked to the professions. Over half the graduates were in engineering, and all faculties in the humanities, arts, and sciences became in fact teacher training institutions.

The academic drift in the public sector after 1990 came as a surprise to a large part of the population. Opinion polls taken in academia detected the changes in the value system. The expansion of higher education and the shift away from the vocational mission characterized the 1990s. It was apparent that disorder accompanied the autonomization of public higher education institutions. Fears concerning higher education expansion were voiced by the mass media, politicians, and civil society. Private universities in need of recognition preferred to present a value system closer to general public opinion of what higher education was meant to be.

The expansion of higher education and the shift away from the vocational mission characterized the 1990s.

Yet, during the expansion of the early 1990s many young people entered the public system, and changes in the leadership of higher education institutions took place. The former leaders—senior eminent professors—were in the best position to transfer their prestige into profits on the private higher education market. Thus, the vocational mission of these higher education institutions also reflects the internalized values of their creators.

The vocational character of Romanian higher education can also be traced back to a Napoleonic model of higher education, initiated as early as 1818 with the creation of the High Technical School in Bucharest, which later became the Polytechnic University. This tradition has evolved into higher education's role in preparing specialists, its inclusion in economic and administrative rather than cultural trends, and its relation to the needs of the economy or of society.

Elitism

Another frequent element in the mission statements is elite education. This perspective appears on the websites of accredited institutions, based in Bucharest, that have larger enrollments and broad disciplinary ranges. One explicitly states it is “a university in the classical sense,” while others describe themselves as “an elite university with elite graduates,” “an elite higher education institution,” and “devoted to academic excellence.” While there are no relevant differences between the quality of web pages of accredited and authorized institutions, so-called elite institutions have more complex and better-designed pages. Still, elite institutions do not pretend to be superior to public higher education institutions. Instead, they often make the point of having similar standards or “the same

quality as some of the best public universities.” The real quality of these institutions, of course, cannot be judged from the information we have at hand.

One explanation for the current debate over elite status is also related to the communist heritage. Most of Europe had already passed through some expansionist phase by the end of the 1980s, when Romania had the lowest number of students per 100,000 inhabitants in Europe (except for Albania). The expansion of the higher education system, the liberalization of access, and private higher education itself changed the context.

The founders of some private institutions sensed the need of prospective students and parents for elite education that had slowly but surely declined in the public sector. Still, private institutions, elite or not, have a lower prestige than most public universities.

Conclusion

Almost all private higher education institutions define themselves in relation to external factors. Private higher education institutions conform to the set of values based on communist higher education's rhetoric of elite vocational education. The institutions in our study revealed themselves as mostly conservative in their mission statements and in the design of their web pages. This might be a result of the institutions' need to satisfy the expectations of their stakeholders, the normative characteristics of their leaders, and the disciplinary structure of the institutions. ■

~End of PROPHE Section~

Confronting Corruption: Ukrainian Private Higher Education

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The vice rector of a leading state university in Ukraine stated in an interview that allegations of bribery for such actions as admission to the university, passing courses, and recommendations were the misguided thinking of “hooligans and malcontents.” While other Ukrainian academics are also willing to make the dubious claim that they had never seen anyone taking bribes, the allegations of substantial if not pervasive corruption in all sectors of Ukrainian higher education persist. Now that approximately 175 private institutions of higher education have attained some level of accreditation, it is important to try and understand the challenges facing that sector as a result of corruption.

Licensing and Accreditation

The main area of corruption appears to be centered in the Ministry of Education and the large state universities controlling licensing and accreditation. In spring 2004 interviews were conducted with 43 rectors, vice rectors, and administrators at five private universities—located in Lviv, Odessa, Kharkiv, Donetsk, and Kyiv. A consensus emerged that successful licensing or accreditation applications, with few exceptions, required some form of bribery. Licensing, which is required only of private institutions, might require a bribe of U.S.\$200—about two months' salary for a typical academic—while accreditation might call for a 10 or 20 times greater “gratuity.”

Obviously, the role of bribery in Ukrainian higher education has become corrosive, and a small number of education leaders from both the private and state sectors are beginning to challenge the system. However, the leaders in the private sector largely acknowledge that the culture of bribery is deeply ingrained in society as well as in higher education and that bribes are part of the cost of getting a private university licensed and accredited. In his remarks, the rector of the private university in Odessa captured the beliefs of the private higher education leaders we interviewed: “if an American university, with exclusively Nobel prize-winning teaching staff, decided to transfer its base of operations to Ukraine, it would fail to get a license (without a bribe, of course) and could only dream of accreditation.”

Students and faculty at the institutions surveyed share, with few exceptions, a common understanding of what constitutes academic corruption.

Student and Faculty Perspectives

To explore other areas of corruption situated within private higher education institutions, we supplemented our interviews by surveying a sample of 77 faculty and 239 students at the same five private universities where we interviewed rectors and other administrators in spring 2004. To encourage reliable responses, students and faculty were guaranteed confidentiality.

Students and faculty at the institutions surveyed share, with few exceptions, a common understanding of what constitutes academic corruption. For example, more than 80 percent of faculty and students described accepting money in exchange for a favorable grade as inappropriate. Similar views are held with respect to the awarding of a favorable entrance examination grade. An even stronger consensus emerged as to whether it was appropriate for a student to have to pay money—over and above the officially set cost—to obtain a place in a student hostel, for a teacher to request sexual relations in exchange for a favorable grade, or for a student to be required to pay for borrowing a book from the university library. In those instances, more than 95 percent of faculty and students viewed such

actions as unacceptable. Faculty and students were considerably more accepting of practices such as professors receiving money, in private arrangements, for consulting with a student outside of normal classroom hours or requiring a student to purchase their books and provide proof of this purchase.

Student and Faculty Experiences

There were consistent responses from students and faculty concerning their direct experiences with corruption. More than 90 percent of the students and 95 percent of the faculty reported they neither had experienced nor knew of situations in which bribes were used to gain a favorable grade on an entrance exam or a course examination at their university. Similarly, there is little suggestion from either students or faculty of bribes being used to secure a place in a student hostel or paying a librarian to borrow a book from a university library. Finally, no data exist to indicate any personal experiences of sexual favors between faculty and students for favorable grades, although we recognize that data on this latter aspect of corruption may be the most difficult to obtain.

Approximately 10 percent of the students acknowledged they had either paid a professor or were personally aware of a situation in which a student had paid a professor for assistance outside of the classroom.

Few differences also seem to exist between faculty and student experience with what is characterized as “petty corruption.” For example, approximately 10 percent of the students acknowledged they had either paid a professor or were personally aware of a situation in which a student had paid a professor for assistance outside of the classroom. Similarly, 12 percent of faculty indicated they either had experienced or personally knew of situations where money or gifts were exchanged for consultation outside the classroom. About the same percentage of students and faculty reported either personally being in or knowing of a situation in which students were required to purchase a book written by their professor and provide proof of purchase.

While our sample is small and the private institutions studied clearly seek to be “corruption-free universities,” the data suggest these five private universities have been able to foster an institutional culture in which students and faculty agree on what constitutes corruption and have been able, especially when compared to reports from some of the other former republics (see *IHE* no. 37, Fall 2004), to create relatively “clean” institutions. Our interviews with the leaders of these institutions suggest a clear understanding of the conditions fostering corruption as well as a determination to root out behavior undermining the academic integrity of their institutions.

While it is unknown whether these findings might apply to other Ukrainian private universities, data collected in our earlier studies suggest a considerable number of institutions,

driven by the profit motive and resistant to even a hint of transparency, have little concern for academic integrity. Nevertheless, this current data collection seems to show that, if they make academic integrity a fundamental building block of their institutional culture, private universities can create a climate to combat the grim perspectives of corruption overshadowing higher education systems in the former Soviet Union. ■

The Transformations in Mexican Higher Education in the 1990s

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From the perspective of the late 1980s, the future of Mexican higher education seemed somber indeed. No one would have predicted that by 2003 an accreditation system would be in place, that public universities would be doing strategic planning, and that there would be 40 new two-year technical institutes, more than 160 four-year technical colleges, 10 new polytechnic universities, a rapidly growing postgraduate level, and a booming private sector with a growing interest in on-line programs.

It is noteworthy that these changes occurred without a major reform movement in the political sense. There has been public debate, of course, but it certainly lacked the intensity that one would have expected, given the ideological climate of the 1980s. With the exception of student opposition at the National University (UNAM) to the attempt at raising fees, it turns out that every other public university in Mexico has raised fees moderately without much ado—a significant ideological shift in itself. The media pounced on the exception and downplayed the larger picture.

These transformations have not been the result of widely debated legislative decisions. They have been undertaken without legal reforms of any significance. The executive branch of government used its considerable authority and, of course, the power of the purse. For financially starved universities, the economic incentives set forth by the federal secretary of education were irresistible.

Funding for Higher Education

Between 1989 and 2001 total public expenditures for education as a proportion of GDP increased from 3.7 percent to 5.2 percent. Federal expenditures on higher education as a propor-

tion of GDP almost doubled from 0.4 percent to 0.7 percent, going from U.S.\$1.4 billion to U.S.\$3.9 billion in the same period. Although figures for state expenditures are not available on a comparable basis, these figures also increased. Nevertheless, a closer look at the figures would reveal a less significant increase in terms of per student expenditures. Complaints by state university rectors are a constant, especially when they (rightly) point out that the enormous federal institutions with great political clout, like UNAM, get an unfairly large share of public funding. Overall, however, federal and state spending for education, with an emphasis on basic education, has remained a priority throughout the decade.

These figures tell only part of the funding story. Private expenditures in higher education have also grown over the past decade. Data from household income surveys show that the percentage of total family income spent on higher education has doubled since 1992. Figures for corporate donations are not available, but many large private universities depend more and more on this type of funding, as evidenced by the growing number of private foundations. If the data were available, they would certainly reveal a significant increment in private fund-

The percentage of total family income spent on higher education has doubled since 1992.

ing for higher education overall.

Social Participation and Equity Issues

The trends in funding mentioned here are manifestations of the growing social demand and willingness to pay for higher education that were the driving forces behind enrollment expansion. National enrollments increased by 70 percent in the 1990s. Women and private-sector enrollments took up much of this growth. Also notable is the relative growth outside the capital city: regional expansion of higher education is a very important part of the current changes.

Nonetheless, the participation rate of 19-to-23-year-olds in higher education is still quite low, compared to other Latin American countries that have also reformed their systems, such as Argentina or Chile. While the middle and upper strata are sending their children to higher education, this is not so for lower-income families. In spite of its growth, Mexican higher education remains very inequitable. Household income surveys show that public subsidies favor middle- and upper-income over lower-income families. Expansion does not necessarily lead to social mobility, if poor students lack financial aid or if institutions are not within reach of the rural population. The opportunity costs of higher education for poor rural students in a transition economy such as Mexico's can also be very high: many young people between 15 and 20 years of age from the poorer rural areas in southern Mexico decide to emigrate illegally to the United States rather than continue studies beyond secondary school. The growth of private establishments, which are all based in large cities and charging fees,

does little to offset social inequality.

Persistent inequity is thus a crucial issue for higher education policy, but it was not recognized as such when the reforms were initiated in the early 1990s. At that time quality was the main concern, and that remained the case throughout the decade. However, by the mid-1990s the single-minded emphasis on quality was criticized by examiners of higher education from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, who pointed out severe inequities. Since then and continuing into the Fox administration, there has been a greater emphasis on providing higher education to poor students and young people from rural areas. Issues concerning indigenous groups have climbed onto the agenda.

Persistent inequity is thus a crucial issue for higher education policy, but it was not recognized as such when the reforms were initiated in the early 1990s.

Institutional Diversification

The public sector has developed a whole range of two-year and four-year technical institutes. All of the establishments are part of the push toward decentralization. They are partly funded by the federal government, but it is up to state governments to carry out the planning, partial funding, and coordination of these institutes—most of them located in small cities and rural areas. The goal of this policy is twofold: to provide opportunities to preparatory school graduates in poor urban and rural settings and to strengthen technical capacity and links with firms at the local level.

A new sector of research and postgraduate institutes has received consistent support, as part of federal policy for research and development. These centers tend to specialize in certain areas of R&D, such as applied mathematics, optics, metallurgy, biotechnology, and marine sciences. Their mission is to develop strong links with firms and to train new generations of scientists. Perhaps implicit in this decision is the realistic assessment of the weak scientific capacity of state universities. Recent studies have shown a much less agile response by universities to federal incentives for strengthening research capacity than was expected earlier on.

Most notable in this story of institutional diversification, of course, is the expansion of private establishments. Similar trends are evident in other developing countries, such as South Africa, the Philippines, or Brazil. In Mexico, the number of private establishments tripled in 11 years. Most are small academies with feeble infrastructure and part-time faculty who do not normally hold Ph.D.s.

There are profits to be made in a market under the prevailing conditions. Demand for higher education diplomas is on the rise, and barriers to entry are low. Relatively small investments in facilities and infrastructure are required. Technology costs can be high, but this investment is optional if your installation is surrounded by Internet cafes. Official requirements

for quality control have not been stringent in the recent past, although policymakers are currently tightening these controls. There is a relatively qualified workforce seeking jobs in a buyer's market: higher education graduates are having trouble finding work and often accept low wages for part-time employment. Additionally, no legal distinction between for-profit and nonprofit higher education exists, which facilitates the expansion of the for-profit sector.

Notably, academically consolidated universities have doubled in number over the decade. Some of these universities have matured—having started out as small establishments, they grew into more academic institutions or specialized technical colleges as a result of academic entrepreneurship. Others are actually spin-offs from previously well-established academic institutions, taking one of a number of routes. Expansion through franchising is a model followed by the Monterrey Technical Institute, which today has large campuses in more than 20 states throughout Mexico; entrepreneurial growth with support from a religious order means going from single to multicampus establishments; expansion through buyouts—in 2000, Sylvan Learning Systems in the United States bought into Universidad del Valle de México, which has since set up campuses in several cities. Their publicity offers on-line programs and opportunities for international study. Monterrey Technical Institute has also developed a Virtual University that offers on-line programs to clients throughout Mexico and other Spanish-speaking countries. On-line programs from

Accreditation is being widely promoted by the federal government and by several accrediting organizations.

other countries, mostly the United States, are also on offer.

Accreditation is being widely promoted by the federal government and by several accrediting organizations. This process is still in its infancy, and while only a small proportion of all institutions or programs are currently accredited, the trend is certainly set to grow in the future. Thus, there is also a new market for accreditation, with opportunities for accreditation mills of various stripes.

A New Policy Agenda

Mexico has undertaken significant transformations in higher education, not unlike other developing countries. It is noteworthy, however, that these changes did not involve deep political confrontations and widespread social movements, in spite of the fact that the country's political system has undergone notable reforms toward democratization and decentralization. Nonetheless, important issues remain unresolved. The emphasis on quality improvement and institutional diversification has done little to redress social inequality in higher education, which is undoubtedly the foremost challenge today. ■

Public Universities in Mexico: The Politics of Public Policies

GERMÁN ÁLVAREZ-MENDIOLA AND WIETSE DE VRIES

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After 15 years, the policies implemented to improve the quality of Mexican universities have achieved few of the promised results. In addition to many old problems, several new ones emerged. Enrollments represent 19.1 percent of the 20-to-24-year age group, far below the 37.1 percent average in countries that are members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. The preparation level of graduates has not risen noticeably, and a substantial percentage of them are underemployed. Although graduation rates increased during the 1990s, they are still low (50 percent) and vary hugely among institutions (ranging from 9 percent to 100 percent). While some academic programs improved, many of the new ones that pop up every year seem completely improvised.

Policy Design and Implementation

In 1989, the federal government launched evaluation and funding policies to improve the quality of public universities. The “evaluative state” and the “distant steering” approach seemed to have arrived in Mexico. However, the concept of quality has remained vaguely defined ever since. Evaluations focused mainly on a review of inputs rather than on an assessment of outputs.

During the second half of the 1990s an important shift occurred: the federal government focus shifted from a “distant steering” to a “planned intervention” mode. Policymakers assumed that most problems with universities were due to inadequate operating conditions that would have to be improved before better results could be achieved. Special programs, designed to address these conditions during 1990s, were brought together under the umbrella of Integral Programs for Institutional Development in 2001. The idea is that every academic program write its development plan to get federal funds, finance inputs, and obtain accreditation.

Even though accreditation influences the possibility of obtaining extra funding for public institutions, it is not mandatory and the government cannot shut down programs. The competition for these funds is based on proposals for improvement, not on performance. This policy produces dependency on the federal government because it encourages institutions to create demands but not to strengthen their regulative capacity or to become more efficient. Therefore, it remains unclear if quality has improved, even after years of increasing inputs.

Some evidence shows that special funds produce negative effects—such as compliance behavior, pretense, bureaucratization, and unattainable goals.

The Political Context

The lack of improvement, however, cannot be attributed merely to errors in the design or implementation of policies. These policies, and policymakers, operate in a complex and changing political environment of both governments and universities.

A once pyramidal political structure, with the president and state governors at the top, has given way to a scenario of divided and juxtaposed governments. Executive powers no longer have majority backing in the now very active legislatures and where different parties occupy various levels of government. As governance used to be based on unwritten rules and party loyalty, in the new context it is unclear who is responsible for what.

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Within this changing context, the devolution of public functions to the state governments became an important issue. While the responsibility for education was transferred to them, most state governments lacked the capacity (political, technical, administrative, and financial) to tackle these new tasks.

As for higher education, intermediary bodies (State Planning Commissions for Higher Education) are supposed to coordinate and define the development of the system in each state, turning them into forums where rectors negotiate approval for new programs. New public programs have to be cofinanced (50 percent) by state governments. Nevertheless, the absence of approval by state governments only means that no additional funds will be allocated—not that the new programs are not allowed—because public universities can open any program they wish.

The impact of decentralization has been diverse. Some state governments reached agreements with institutions over desired development. In many other cases, governments face a complex and unplanned system of vested institutional interests. The situation becomes even more complicated if the governor has no majority in the local legislature that is responsible for funding decisions.

Generally, coordination among the different decision makers is flawed, often resulting in disregard for formal regulations. Rules are malleable, and decisions depend on the power of each actor within the political arena. Two decades ago, funding decisions about public universities depended mainly on the direct interaction between the federal government and university presidents. Now, state governors, federal government, and rectors may have their own agenda. In sum, the political context has become more complex, forcing rectors to play an

increasingly political role. This is not only due to the proliferation of actors but also to the loosely defined rules of the political game.

Conclusion

The resulting situation is paradoxical. The federal government is seeking to improve universities through a centralized planning process that rationalizes inputs. Far from being a neoliberal retreating state, the government is actively intervening in the operation of programs. This process has its pitfalls, because the government cannot impose compliance on autonomous universities; it can only induce them to comply by making special funds available. It can thus be said that the federal government lacks the capacity to regulate the public universities.

At the same time, the politically inspired agenda of decentralization leads to a situation in which existing government capacity is effectively undermined, by turning crucial decisions over to ill-prepared local governments. This invites rectors to engage in politics in order to obtain additional funds, instead of implementing educational policies.

The current paradox can be expressed as follows: if the federal government could design and create the public university sector, then what is the role of state governments? Or if state governments are in a better position to define local needs, then why introduce a national planning approach that does not take those needs into account? ■

Myths and Realities of Distance Education in India

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The emergence of ICT (information and communications technology) in recent years has led to the concept of open and distance learning (ODL) as the panacea for the growth, cost reduction, and quality of higher education in India. Some people even seem to imagine that the new systems will replace

traditional campus-based education. A closer look at the purpose, clientele, costing, potential, and limitations of the technology should resolve the myths and realities concerning distance education.

Myth 1: ODL Is the Only Way to Expand Higher Education in Developing Countries

It should be noted that ODL and the traditional system differ in purpose and origin. Recognition of education's essential role in enhancing the citizenry has resulted in the development of a massive formal educational system. Young people devote almost one-fourth of their lives to full-time formal education, and the state and society are committed to providing traditional formal education. Formal education promotes the academic skills and competencies that are essential for further learning. ODL, however, cannot help to provide such serious training for the relevant age group.

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In India, distance learning (DL) evolved to cater to adults who were either left out of or dropped out of the formal system. ODL is just a variation of DL that offers greater flexibility, without an age limit or qualifying prerequisites. The demand for flexible forms of continuing education resulted from the changing contexts of rapid knowledge expansion and globalization. ODL thus functions as a parallel stream to the traditional universities. Purely distance education institutions appeared later.

Myth 2: ODL Is Less Expensive Than Campus Learning

The proponents of ODL assume that it has a larger potential reach through ICT than classrooms and will be cheaper. No authentic costing has yet been done for ICT-based ODL. Any well-designed ICT-based education should cost more as all the facilities are cost intensive, both for establishment and maintenance. Besides, the hardware will quickly become obsolete and the expense of frequent renewal will be prohibitive. Students may also need their own computers. Additional requirements include widespread Internet connectivity and broadband capacity—factors that depend on the national infrastructure. The system will need the support of technical personnel as well as specially trained academics. In a country like India, ICT-based ODL would require adequate support facilities at hundreds of study centers since not all distance learners could afford to have personal high-tech environments. It is unrealistic to expect the government to offer subsidies for adult learners. All the 120 ODL units in the country are self-supporting, except for the centrally funded Indira Gandhi National Open University.

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Myth 3: ODL Should Be Subsidized Like Traditional Formal Learning

The learner profile clearly indicates that ODL predominantly serves employed and well-established adults who want to update their skills and qualifications for career development. Such a clientele can certainly afford to pay for their further learning. It is estimated that adult learners in many countries outnumber the regular student age cohort. Subsidizing the adult learners would imply a major shift in the funding priorities of the government. Additional public subsidies would be difficult to come by in a country like India that has shrinking resources and that barely provides access to 6 percent of the relevant age group. Supporting distance education cannot occur at the expense of educating the relevant age group.

Myth 4: Campus-based Formal Education Will Be Replaced by ODL

This can never happen. There is no evidence of any fresh secondary school graduates enrolling in ODL anywhere in the world. The educational benefits of human intellectual interaction are undisputed, especially for fresh high school graduates. Good teaching is aural, visual, animated, and interactive. On-line courses today are by and large textual, no matter how much ICT is integrated into them. Competent literacy and the related cognitive skills are essential for learning through on-line lessons. The profile of the normal age groups in India that attend school and undergraduate education does not indicate any such potential for independent on-line learning.

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Myth 5: ODL Is Highly Flexible in Contrast to Rigid Campus Education

Campus-based formal education intended for full-time young students should be well structured, selective in terms of curriculum and intensive enough to complete the necessary learning within a stipulated time frame. Public funding of education cannot support slow-paced learning without any time limit. Flexibility in the choice of courses is essential, and the choice-based credit system (“cafeteria model”) is gaining ground in the formal system.

Realities: Upholding the Relevance of Distance Education

As long as the educated population base continues to increase due to globalization of the economy and other trends, the education market of adult learners will continue to expand in India as well. But, the 20th-century form of ODL that catered to people who were excluded from or dropped out of the mainstream will need to undergo radical change to remain relevant in the 21st century. Very little research is under way to help bring

about such radical changes. Currently, many of the initiatives in ODL are chosen based on their novelty rather than their relevance.

The convergence between distance and campus-based education is already occurring. When technology is integrated into formal education and used as the “distributed education” for both on- and off-campus students, the distinction between the two types of learning gets blurred. This appears to be the general intention of the Indian University Grants Commission in committing enormous funds for ICT to promote distributed education in the traditional universities. That makes one wonder how the ODL providers like the national and state open universities are going to uphold their relevance and the distinct purposes they wish to pursue.

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Judicialization of Education: The Fee Cut Controversy in India

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Of late we find the Supreme Court of India playing a proactive role in matters pertaining to higher education. It seems to be a fallout of the judicialization of politics in general. Every sundry issue comes before the apex court for a hearing—ranging from the liberation of 241 caged monkeys to the playing of the national anthem as part of a Hindi movie.

Judicialization is very much in vogue these days. It implies a process whereby the judiciary engages in administrative supervision. It also implies the proactive role played by the judiciary in social engineering through laying the foundations for desirable behavior on the part of the public institutions and the masses alike.

The judiciary is supposed to be in a better position to resolve the contentious issues in pluralistic and modern complex societies as the judges appear to be apolitical, neutral, and fair to the vast majorities. Moreover, they can give equal attention to all the aggrieved parties and take a nonpartisan and long-term perspective, a feat that cannot be performed by the other two organs.

The judges not only adjudicate between the two litigants in whom the “better boxer” wins the game but also take sides with the “just party.” They can do so because they are capable

of independent decisions and autonomous actions, whereas the executive and the legislative branches are found to be too fragmented to do so.

The shift toward judicialization reflects not only the hostility with regard to partisan politics and interest group lobbying but also to some extent hopes for logical and rational solutions. The judicial intervention in the wake of recent controversy over the fee cut in the Indian Institutes of Management points to the same trend.

The Controversy Defined

A public interest litigation was filed by the three alumni of the IIMs against the Human Resource Development (education) Ministry's order on February 5, 2004, slashing the fee for a post-graduate diploma in management at the six IIMs by almost 80 percent. The government cannot afford this as it is already short of funds even toward its constitutional obligation of providing free and compulsory education to all up to the age of 14.

The petitioners have not only castigated the order passed by the HRD Ministry as arbitrary, retrograde, and ill-conceived but have also alleged that the drastic fee cut amounts to government's encroachment into academic matters. They have also challenged the basic premise upon which this order was based. Actually this order was based on the recommendation made by the U.R. Rao Committee (set up in November 2002) that the fee charged by the technical institutions in India should not be more than 30 percent of the GNP as per U.S. precedent.

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Whereas the government has justified its step in the name of equity and accessibility, the IIMs have been fighting against the fee cut with the weapons of autonomy and quality education. Whereas the government has taken the stand that the fee cut would enhance the chances of future aspirants to get management education at the top business schools in India, the IIMs have claimed that the fee has never been a deterrent.

No student has ever been denied admission at any of the six IIMs for lack of funds. In fact, the banks start wooing a student as soon as he or she is selected for admission. Since fresh IIM graduates are expected to earn an average wage of U.S.\$18,000 per annum at the entry level, they can easily repay the loans within a year or two in India. Currently, the IIMs are charging about U.S.\$3,500, whereas the government is insisting on U.S.\$700 per student per annum.

Moreover, students can also reap the tax benefits in case they chose to work in India. According to one study, the rate of interest on student loans works out to be mere 0.34 percent if the tax incentives are also taken into account.

The Issues at Stake

However, it is not a simple open-and-shut case as perceived by the HRD Ministry. There are deeper issues involved, such as equity versus accessibility, autonomy versus accountability, the elitist nature of the institutions versus the demand for massification, conflict between the socialistic principles enshrined in the constitution versus the liberalization of the economy, etc.

There are more serious issues at stake—such as, whether the judicial intervention into the realm of higher education is desirable. Can judicial intervention result in rational and better solutions than compromises made or half-hearted measures adopted by the legislatures and the executive due to political constraints? Can judicial activism be a substitute for executive efficiency or legislative farsightedness? Can it be seen as an anathema to the representative form of government?

A number of further questions arise: if the policymaking authority is vested with the executive and the legislature, why should the judiciary be allowed to interfere at all? How can the judges succeed in resolving some of the crucial problems when the majoritarian institutions have failed? Why should the judiciary be allowed to decide the fate of a nation in a democratic framework when it is neither elected nor publicly accountable?

The issue pending before the Supreme Court is not just to determine the legality of the fee cut order but also to assess the appropriateness of the government action.

Legalization Versus Judicialization

There is a lot of difference between legalization and judicialization. The issue pending before the Supreme Court is not just to determine the legality of the fee cut order but also to assess the appropriateness of the government action. Even in earlier cases, the Indian Supreme Court played a proactive role virtually amounting to “judicialization of higher education.” For instance, in *Unni Krishnan vs. State of Andhra Pradesh*, it not only banned a capitation fee at private colleges but also laid the groundwork for self-financing colleges by allowing a certain number of paid seats.

Similarly, in *T.M.A. Pai vs. State of Karnataka* (October 2002), the Supreme Court not only gave a green light to financially independent private and minority institutions to establish higher education colleges of their choice but also stipulated against “profiteering” by private higher education institutions. While deciding this case, the Supreme Court referred to 33 earlier cases in which it had intervened.

Even in the United States the judicialization of education occurred in *Brown vs. Board of Education*, where the “minority right” prevailed over the “majority will.” Whereas in the United States, the judicial intervention in higher education remains an exception, unfortunately, it is becoming a rule in India. It would be wise on the part of the Supreme Court to exercise self-restraint and maintain the status quo—as has been hinted at by the new HRD minister under the Congress-led coalition.

Students and Teachers at Private Universities in China

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Private universities in China have been expanding so fast that one wonders if the sky is the limit. Many of the private universities that were founded in the early 1990s started with a few dozen students, planning to end up with a few hundred students. However, the deluge of students quickly turned these institutions into campuses with several thousand students. The higher education expansion launched in China since 1998 has ushered in mega universities enrolling 20 to 30 thousand students. Large public teaching universities have been merged to form American-style comprehensive universities, with the intention of creating “world-class” institutions focusing both on research and teaching. Without much time available, private universities have rushed to obtain more land and build more buildings, while doubling and tripling enrollments—to 20 thousand or more than 30 thousand. Within a few short years more than a dozen of them have joined the ranks of mega universities.

Students and Teachers

The preoccupation during this stage of fast-pace growth has been to build more dormitories, libraries, teaching buildings, and computer labs and to hire teachers to handle the thousands of new students every year. The belief behind the drive is that scale is essential to ensure the survival of private universities, which would otherwise be swallowed up. Now the dust has settled, and for many people, the challenges of improving students’ motivation to learn and giving teachers and students autonomy and trust have come to the forefront.

Unlike the public universities, China’s private universities were built from scratch. They do not have a well-trained faculty and staff who have worked there for decades and have spent their life shaping the culture and soul of a campus. Instead, the faculty at private universities are hastily assembled—the main segment being retired professors from public universities and the other group, young people fresh from an undergraduate education. While the older faculty work only part time to gain extra income, younger faculty do not have any prior teaching experience. Furthermore, they are hired as “helpers” rather than as “owners of a university.” They sign a contract with the university, and their income is determined by the number of teaching hours. Every year, 5 to 10 percent of faculty are let go, and the rest have to renew their contracts. Tension and anxiety are thus high due to the uncertainty.

Private universities in China are disadvantaged by a government regulation allowing them to admit students only after public universities have done so. Thus they are left with bottom-tier students whose self-esteem has been “battered” many times, especially as a result of the hundreds of tests they have taken during their primary and secondary schooling. The students’ low motivation to learn has frustrated teachers and administrators. Seeing them as “problem students,” private universities give their students very little autonomy: the students are strictly managed in the dormitory by a “life teacher.” A “class director” monitors their thoughts, talks with them, follows them to the running track to do morning exercise, and makes sure that all students are in their dormitories at 10 PM every night. Some administrators proudly dub this as a “military style” management. When asked why the students are watched so closely, three reasons are often given: first, parents want the universities to watch over their children so that they study and graduate. Second, the students have poor study habits and lack self-control. Left to themselves many would just hang out with their girlfriends or boyfriends, a phenomenon seen as distracting students from their studies. Third, and most important of all, private universities feel themselves to be very vulnerable. The government regards them with distrust and treats them with suspicion, and society gives them low respect and sees them as the unfortunate choice they are forced to make after their children fail to gain entrance to a public university. Private universities might well be closed down should something go badly wrong. For example, a very shocking murder case occurred in which a student at Yunnan University killed four of his classmates this year. If this had happened at a private university, it would have resulted in a shutdown, whereas a public university can continue on as usual.

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Students, however, are resistant to the military-style management. They sneak off campus without permission; they upset their teachers with disrespectful attitudes. In order to find creative ways to motivate students, universities explore all kinds of methods. One university puts all the blame on the teachers if something happens to the students, making it the teachers’ responsibility that students learn and behave appropriately; another university withholds one-third of some faculty members’ salaries at the beginning of the month and gives this portion to them only when no complaints are raised by students. Some universities are contemplating channeling student energy in positive directions by setting up all kinds of student clubs and offering elective courses to students through a credit system.

Obviously, after rapid expansion, private universities need to turn their attention internally to look at what students and teachers need. Surveys indicate that students suspect that private universities promise more than they can offer and that teachers are poised to leave once they find better job opportunities. Teachers experience the tremendous pressure of handling large classes with 50 to 70 students, having to teach about 16 hours a week, and correct hundreds of student assignment books each week. Teachers report that they do not have time to do anything innovative. They also yearn for professional training, which is still a luxury since private universities are preoccupied with minimizing cost. Teachers are constantly looking to jump ship, a major reason being that in many cases they do not have their own housing. With student enrollments increasing by thousands each year, some private universities have asked teachers to move out of campus housing and rent apartments off campus. Universities promise to build housing for young teachers but delay doing so due to the pressure to build more housing for students. “Too many priorities compete for the limited funding we have,” the presidents say.

Basically, the factory-style approach to running a university, in response to the rapid expansion, is now being called into question. Students and teachers are demanding to be treated like human beings. They are demanding to study and teach in a setting defined by an autonomous, respectful organizational culture; choices and interdisciplinary learning are needed to motivate them. Professional training is a need that cannot be ignored. Private universities are realizing that the status of having a huge campus and a large number of students is no longer enough to validate the greatness of a university. It is time to slow down and work on the refinement of the interior. ■

Establishing Endowments for African Universities—Strategies for Implementation

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Not long ago, Brown University, an American Ivy League institution, received \$100 million from a philanthropist as an endowment to build a scholarship fund for needy students. Such philanthropic donations in U.S. higher education are a unique part of the institutional culture in the United States, aided both by tradition and by enabling tax policies. Leading universities enjoy massive endowments, and even many less prestigious colleges and universities have such funds available

to assist them. Endowments constitute funds that are invested by the universities; the interest earned is available to spend on academic and other institutional programs.

Endowments Outside the United States

A few countries, such as Israel, generate massive resources in endowments. Israel generates endowments mainly from the Jewish diaspora community from across the world. Operating under the umbrella of overseas-registered nonprofit organizations such as the American Friends of the Hebrew University, the American Friends of Tel Aviv University, and the Canadian Friends of the Hebrew University—supporters actively generate resources and build endowments for the advancement of higher education in Israel. For instance, American Friends of the Hebrew University raised more than U.S.\$600 million in 2000 and is now gearing up to raise U.S.\$1 billion.

Chinese universities also are undertaking similar, though less organized and less robust, initiatives. For instance, the Peking University Education Foundation operates several branches across the world. The North American chapter is committed to strengthening ties between Peking University and all areas of North America and to raising funds to promote cultural, technological, and educational communication and cooperation.

The collaborative initiative between the Nippon and Tokyo Foundations—Japanese philanthropic institutions—may be singled out as the first major endowment initiative involving African higher education institutions.

Endowments in Africa

Overall, the culture of endowments is not as extensive in other countries as it is in the United States. This is certainly the case in Africa. On the continent, South Africa leads in endowment drives for building scholarly institutions and programs. For example, in 2000, the Development Office of the University of Cape Town (UCT) reported generating 107 million rand (about U.S.\$10 million) from donors—a 14 percent increase from the previous year. The overseas partners—the UCT Fund (U.S.) and the UCT Trust (U.K.)—were central to achieving this goal, although 60 percent of the campaign funds were raised in South Africa. Through the significant endowment funds that were raised, the university was able to start or continue building endowments for four chairs: the Nelson Mandela Chair of the Humanities, the Lesley Hill Chair of Plant Biology, the Pasvolsky Chair of Conservation Biology, and the Discovery Chair of Exercise and Sports Science.

The collaborative initiative between the Nippon and Tokyo Foundations—Japanese philanthropic institutions—may be singled out as the first major endowment initiative involving African higher education institutions. The foundations committed U.S. \$1 million in endowment grants for each of the three African higher education institutions in Egypt, Kenya,

and South Africa. American university in Cairo, the University of Nairobi, and the University of Western Cape are beneficiaries of this initiative. Ellen Mashiko, the executive director of the scholarship division of the Tokyo Foundation, indicated (*IHE*, fall 2000) that the activity involving the three universities demonstrates that endowments can be well managed, contribute to institutional viability, and lead to collaboration with students, faculty, and administrators throughout the world.

Mobilizing Major Players

In 2000, the four major U.S.-based foundations—Ford, MacArthur, and Rockefeller Foundations and the Carnegie Corporation of New York—announced a U.S.\$100 million initiative for revitalizing higher education in Africa. Under the banner of the “Partnership for Higher Education in Africa,” the initiative has supported selected African institutions by strengthening teaching and research capacities, building infrastructure, undertaking strategic planning, and holding major conferences. The partnership also made possible the launching of the *Journal of Higher Education in Africa* and of a book series to foster research and publication on the continent’s higher education system. The first phase of the partnership, laid out as a five-year plan, will come to an end in 2005. It is fair to assume that—given its achievements and the increasing significance of higher education for national progress—the initiative will be renewed, most likely with more institutions in its fold and more resources at its disposal.

In the hope of sustaining what has been achieved and will be accomplished over time, this article calls upon both partner and nonpartner foundations to consider a major initiative to endow African universities.

In the hope of sustaining what has been achieved and will be accomplished over time, this article calls upon both partner and nonpartner foundations to consider a major initiative to endow African universities. Such efforts will ensure that the institutions and the many programs that they have supported and nurtured remain on stable ground.

One major approach that virtually none of the major foundations involved in Africa have yet undertaken but need to consider is to help establish endowments for select national flagship universities and to put in place the operational procedures to sustain the endowments. Endowing African universities would for sure have an enduring impact on the continent’s higher education development.

Some foundations and philanthropic institutions may be restricted by the basic policy guidelines of their organizations from committing their resources for endowments. And this may be a tough agenda to push forward—at least for now. However, the fact that the partnership is a new venture of a

coalition of organizations with disparate missions and guidelines may make it possible to deflect some of the restrictive policies inherent in individual foundations.

It is important to point out the need for foundations and other philanthropic institutions not only to commit funds to establish endowments but also to help mobilize the resources of other entities—institutions, foundations, businesses, the diaspora/immigrant community, and others—toward the endowment drive. These will help to generate more resources from other sources, for example, through matching funds.

In order to popularize and create an awareness of the concept, organizing a major international conference on endowing African universities would be an important step. Such a conference would need to bring together major development partners, such as agencies, foundations, NGOs, major Africa-based multinational corporations, private businesses, and representatives of diaspora communities. The new venture needs to start with a big bang to attract attention nationally, regionally, and internationally.

In order to popularize and create an awareness of the concept, organizing a major international conference on endowing African universities would be an important step.

As Alison Bernstein, the vice president of the Ford Foundation’s Education, Media, Arts, and Culture Program put it, “Foundations respond to needs as they are felt by people operating on the ground: but they are also proactive in the ways they try to address issues that may be just over the horizon ... [as they] have bifocal vision.” Establishing endowments for African universities stands as one of the issues that fall “over the horizon.”

Conclusion

Endowing African universities through both external and internal funding sources may appear to be an audacious initiative. It may look futile to contemplate such long-term strategies for institutions that struggle just to make it through each day. Nevertheless, the strategy to mobilize development partners to invest in sustainable initiatives of institution building through this endeavor needs to be championed and endorsed promptly while the agenda of higher education development in Africa remains in the limelight. ■

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NEW CIHE PUBLICATIONS

Women's Universities and Colleges: An International Handbook, by Francesca B. Purcell, Robin Matross Helms, and Laura Rumbley, has been published. This 290-page volume consists of an inventory of 126 women's universities and colleges worldwide. Detailed information concerning academic focus, programs, and contact information is provided. An interpretative essay is also included. This book reflects a recognition of the importance of women's education worldwide. Copies are available on request from the CIHE to readers in developing countries.

Asian Universities: Historical Perspectives and Contemporary Challenges, edited by Philip G. Altbach and Toru Umakoshi has been published by the Johns Hopkins University Press in hardback and paperback editions (ISBN 0-8018-8037-8). This book includes analytic essays focusing on the central issues facing such key Asian countries as China, India, Japan, South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, the Philippines, Vietnam, and Cambodia. The authors are key researchers and academic leaders in their countries. This volume was part of a Toyota Foundation-supported research project. Limited numbers of copies are available free of charge to researchers in developing countries. Please write to the CIHE with your request. Copies are also for sale from the Johns Hopkins University Press, 2715 N. Charles St., Baltimore MD 21218, USA. The price of the paperback edition is U.S.\$35.

UPDATE OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAM/CENTER DIRECTORY

The CIHE is now in the process of updating our inventory of centers and programs in higher education, originally published in 2000. Our goal is to provide a comprehensive listing of institutions and research and policy centers in the field of higher education, as well as training programs in the field. We welcome information concerning such institutes and programs worldwide and count on our colleagues to provide this information to us. Please contact Deirdre McMyler at the CIHE (e-mail: mcmylede@bc.edu). Copies of the 2000 book are available from the CIHE without cost. Please contact us if you would like to have a copy.

NEWS OF THE CENTER

The CIHE's core support from the Ford Foundation has been renewed for an additional two years. This support will permit us to publish *IHE* and our other publications, as well as to engage in several new research initiatives. The Ford Foundation has provided support for CIHE for the past 8 years. Work is proceeding on a bibliography on globalization and higher education as it relates to developing countries.

A new research project on "the crisis of the public university in comparative perspective" will begin in 2005. The focus will be on these key academic institutions in developing and middle-income countries. Public institutions face unprecedented problems as they cope with the implications of mass higher education and as state support is withdrawn. In much of the world, the key public universities are the central research institutions.

Former CIHE staffer David Engberg has joined the international office at Montana State University in Bozeman. He continues to assist the Center with its website and other technical issues. CIHE graduate assistant Natia Janashia published an article on higher education in Georgia in *Academe*, the journal of the American Association of University Professors. Former CIHE staff member Dr. Alma Maldonado-Maldonado, now teaching at the University of Arizona, is working with the CIHE, the University of Arizona, and the National Autonomous University of Mexico on our institutional collaboration project: a conference is being planned for spring 2005 in Mexico City. Dr. Damtew Teferra, editor of the *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, at CIHE, recently gave a paper at a conference on the brain drain in Toronto, Canada. He will participate in the Association of African Universities conference in Cape Town early in 2005. CIHE director Philip Altbach recently spoke at several universities in Taiwan at the invitation of the Taiwan government. He will participate in a conference on higher education development in the Netherlands in May and is working with a U.S.-Japan research group sponsored by the Social Science Research Council on the concept of "soft power" and higher education.

Several CIHE publications have been translated recently. A Japanese edition has appeared of *Private Prometheus: Private Higher Education and Development*, edited by Philip Altbach, published by the Tamagawa University Press in Tokyo. *The Decline of the Guru: The Academic Profession in Developing and Middle-Income Countries*, edited by Philip Altbach, has been published in Spanish by the Universidad Autonoma Metropolitana in Mexico City. The China Ocean University Press in Qingdao, China, is currently involved in translating and publishing six CIHE volumes into Chinese.

NEW PUBLICATIONS

Bashshur, Munir. *Higher Education in the Arab States*. Beirut, Lebanon: Unesco Regional Bureau for Education in the Arab States, 2004. 138 pp. (pb). ISBN 92-990012-9-4.

An up-to-date overview of developments in higher education in the Arab region, this volume provides relevant statistical information concerning the states in the region as well as an overall discussion of trends, including private higher education, access, enrollment ratios, and others. Case studies from Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Jordan are included along with 26 statistical tables.

Beerkens, H. J. J. G. *Global Opportunities and Institutional Embeddedness: Higher Education Consortia in Europe and Southeast Asia*. Enschede, Netherlands: CHEPS, 2004. 323 pp. (pb). ISBN 90-365-2041-X. Address: Center for Higher Education Policy Studies, University of Twente, POB 217, 7500 AE Enschede, Netherlands.

This doctoral dissertation analyzes the development of university consortia in Europe and Southeast Asia as an example of dealing with globalization and as a way of fostering regionalism. Consortia such as the ASEAN University Network, the Coimbra Group, and the European Consortium of Innovative Universities are included as case studies. These consortia are analyzed along a series of dimensions.

Bernasconi, Andrés and Fernanco Rojas. *Informe sobre la Educación Superior en Chile: 1980-2003*. Santiago, Chile: Editorial Universitaria, 2004. 201 pp. (pb). ISBN 956-11-1715-0. Address: Editorial Universitaria, Maria Louisa Santander 0447, Santiago de Chile, Chile.

A comprehensive overview and analysis of developments in Chilean higher education since 1980, this book discusses the constitutional and legal framework of higher education, the social and economic context, financial structures, the system of academic institutions, academic governance and autonomy, and other topics. With its strong emphasis on the private sector and its history of military dictatorship, Chile's higher education constitutes an interesting case.

Chan, Lau Kit-Ching and Peter Cunich, eds. *An Impossible Dream: Hong Kong University from Foundation to Re-Establishment, 1910-1950*. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press, 2002. 371 pp. (hb). ISBN 0-19-593842-9. Address: Oxford University Press, Taikoo Place, 979 King's Rd., Quarry Bay, Hong Kong.

A series of essays on the history and development of the University of Hong Kong, this volume presents the establishment of the university as an example of "British Ideals and Chinese Practical Common Sense." The chapters examine the university's history, including the role of women, student culture and activism, teacher training and the role of the university, a historical look at the university's finances, and other topics.

Chanana, Karuna. *Transformative Links Between Higher and Basic Education: Mapping the Field*. New Delhi, India: Sage Publications, 2004. 355 pp. \$49.95 (hb). ISBN 0-7619-3206-2. Address: Sage Publications, 2455 Teller Rd., Thousand Oaks, CA. 91320, USA.

Focusing on India, this book considers the links between higher education and basic education. It explores such topics as university research as a way of promoting basic education, training strategies, the role of universities in the development of primary education, students with disabilities and the role of higher education, and other topics.

Cloete, Nico, Pundy Pillay, Saleem Badat, and Teboho Moja. *National Policy and a Regional Response in South African Higher Education*. Oxford, UK: James Currey, 2004. 144 pp. (pb). ISBN 0-85255-435-4. Address: James Currey Publishers, 73 Botley Rd., Oxford OX2 OBS, UK.

Focusing on the intersection between policy and practice in South African higher education, this volume provides an overview of national policy and a series of case study reports on the Eastern Cape province. Policy initiatives were aimed at improving access, gender equality, strategic cooperation among institutions, and similar goals. This is one of a series of case studies on African higher education sponsored by the Partnership for Higher Education in Africa. Further information can be obtained from the PHEA,

School of Education, New York University, 239 Greene St., New York, NY 10003, USA.

Creating Institutional Responses to HIV/AIDS: Guidelines and Resources for Tertiary Institutions in Sub-Saharan Africa. Washington, DC: World Bank, 2004. 73 pp. (pb). Address: World Bank Publications, 1818 H St. NW, Washington, DC 20433, USA.

This WB Working Paper focuses on HIV/AIDS and universities in Africa. The focus is on specific policies for universities in fighting HIV/AIDS and developing programs in this area as well as providing a broader understanding of the issues relating to HIV/AIDS in the context of higher education.

Fairbrother, Gregory P. *Toward Critical Patriotism: Student Resistance to Political Education in Hong Kong and China*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press, 2003. U.S.\$35 (hb). ISBN 962-209622-0. Address: Hong Kong University Press, 14/F Hing Wai Centre, 7 Tin Wan Praya Rd., Aberdeen, Hong Kong.

Both China and Hong Kong have focused on political education in the schools and universities as a means of ensuring loyalty and commitment to the society and the state. Their approaches have been quite different. This volume discusses how students have reacted to political education in the two societies, mainly through the use of questionnaires to obtain student opinions and reactions.

Geiger, Roger L. *Knowledge and Money: Research Universities and the Paradox of the Marketplace*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 2004. 321 pp. \$27.95 (pb). ISBN 0-8047-4926-4. Address: Stanford University Press, 1450 Page Mill Rd., Palo Alto, CA 94304, USA

Historian Geiger focuses in this volume on the central themes affecting American research universities at the beginning of the 21st century. The central themes discussed include the nature of the university as a knowledge-based institution, the costs of the contemporary research university, the role of research and of undergraduate education, the relationship of universities and industry, and the influence of the market. This book brings both a historical perspective and current analysis to bear on these themes.

Hahn, Karola. *Die Internationalisierung der deutschen Hochschulen*. Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 2004. 404 pp. €34.90 (pb). ISBN 3-8-100-3762-1. This is a study of the ways in which German higher education is internationalizing. Among the topics considered are German responses to the "European process," international academic mobility in the German context, foreign language instruction, and broader intercultural issues.

Hesse-Biber, Sharlene Nagy, and Denise Laekenby, eds. *Women in Catholic Higher Education: Border Work, Living Experiences, and Social Justice*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books, 2003. 186 pp. (pb). ISBN 0-7391-0582-5. Address: Lexington Books, 4501 Forbes Blvd., Lanham MD 20706, USA.

An analysis of the working conditions and tensions faced by women working at Catholic higher education institutions in the United States, this volume deals with such topics as women of color in Catholic institutions, feminist faculty, women in leadership positions, and related topics. As the editors point out, "delving into discourse traditionally silenced by the Catholic hierarchy, this edited collection observes the ways in which patriarchal structures often hinder women's advancement within these institutions."

Higher Education Research in Japan. Hiroshima, Japan: Research Institute for Higher Education, 2003. 155 pp. (pb). Address: Research Institute for Higher Education, 1-2-2 Kagamiyama, Higashi-Hiroshima 739, Japan.

This book features a selection of English-language materials from *Daigaku Ronsho*, the RIHE's quarterly journal, with research-based articles on a range of topics concerning current developments in Japan. Included are articles on equity, earnings, and education of women, professional education, the role of fixed-term academic appointments, faculty development, and other subjects.

Huisman, Jeroen and Marijk van der Wende, eds. *On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalization of Higher Education*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmens Verlag, 2004.

280 pp. (pb). ISBN 3-932306-54-6. Address: Lemmens Verlag, Matthias-Grunewald Str. 1-3, D-53175 Bonn, Germany.

The first report of a Europe-wide project on university reactions to globalization and Europeanization, this book examines specific academic responses to these pressures. The volume begins with a European perspective on globalization and internationalization. Additional case study chapters focus on seven countries, including Germany, Norway, the United Kingdom, Portugal, the Netherlands, Greece, and Austria.

Kaur, Kuldeep. *Higher Education in India (1781-2003)*. New Delhi, India: University Grants Commission, 2003. 388 pp. (hb). Address: UGC, Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg, New Delhi 110002, India.

Organized historically, this book focuses on higher education policies from 1781 to the present time. The first section deals with the specific elements of higher education, including financing, planning, rural higher education, women's higher education, among others. The second section provides key documents concerning higher education policy, and the third consists of statistical information. This book provides a comprehensive overview of more than two centuries of higher education development in India.

Martin, James, James E. Samels, and Associates. *Presidential Transition in Higher Education: Managing Leadership Change*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2004. 271 pp. \$45 (hb). ISBN 0-8018-7934-5. Address: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2715 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218.

A comprehensive overview of presidential transition in U.S. higher education, this volume includes chapters mostly written by present or former presidents. Among the topics considered are the use of executive search firms, the role of the interim president, the role of governing boards in presidential transition and selection, the tenure of presidents, and others.

Miller, Michael T. and Julie A. Caplow, eds. *Policy and University Faculty Governance*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishers, 2003. \$31.95 (pb). ISBN 1-59311-072.

Address: Information Age Publishers, POB 4967, Greenwich, CT 08631, USA.

A set of essays on the various aspects of faculty governance in the United States, this book features chapters on current trends, historical developments, leadership, the relationship between university administration and faculty governance, the role of the department chairperson, and related topics.

Miller-Bernal, Leslie and Susan L. Poulson, eds. *Going Coed: Women's Experiences in Formerly Men's Colleges and Universities, 1950-2000*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press, 2004. 392 pp. \$29.95 (pb). ISBN 0-8265-1449-9. Address: Vanderbilt University Press, VU Station B 351813, Nashville, TN 37235, USA.

The majority of all-male colleges and universities have become coeducational institutions in the past half century. This book looks at the reasons for this trend, the experiences of women in the formerly all-male schools, the economic necessities and legal challenges involved, and related issues. Case studies from such institutions as Dartmouth and Princeton are included as well as general analysis.

Mowrey, David C. et al. *Ivory Tower and Industrial Innovation: University-Industry Technology Transfer Before and After the Bayh-Dole Act*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 2004. 241 pp. \$39.95 (hb). ISBN 0-8047-4920-5. Address: Stanford University Press, 1450 Page Mill Rd., Palo Alto, CA 94304, USA.

This book presents an analysis of American university patenting and licensing activities and policies since the 1990s, especially in the light of the Bayh-Dole Act—a law that made it easier for universities to engage in patenting and licensing. This book provides a broad analysis of the history and development of university-industry relations and the patterns of technology transfer and knowledge ownership over time, and especially in the recent past.

Nugent, Michael A. *The Transformation of the Student Career: University Study in Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden*. New York: RoutledgeFalmer, 2004. 205 pp. (hb). ISBN: 0-415-94880-0. Address: RoutledgeFalmer

Publishers, 270 Madison Ave., New York NY 10016, USA.

A comparative study of how the definition of a university student and the work of students have changed as a result of university reform, mass higher education, and the initiatives of the European Union from the 1960s to the present time—this volume focuses on Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden. The expansion of student numbers and the diversification of academic institutions is a central feature in the changes that have taken place in student careers and patterns of study. The Bologna initiatives of the EU will create additional significant change in this area.

Pawlowski, Krzysztof. *Rediscovering Higher Education in Europe*. Bucharest, Romania: UNESCO-CEPES, 2004. 145 pp. (pb). ISBN 92-9069-180-X. Address: CEPES, 39 Stirbei Voda, Bucharest, Romania.

A broad ranging essay on the future of higher education, focusing Europe and particularly on Poland, this volume considers the American challenges to European higher education, the role of knowledge and research, the management of universities, and other topics. The experience of the author as the founder of a private university in Poland informs the analysis.

Pratt, John, ed. *The "Accreditation Model" Policy Transfer in Higher Education in Austria and Britain*. Oxford, UK: Symposium Books, 2004. 142 pp. \$38 (pb). ISBN 1-873927-74-6. Address: Symposium Books, POB 204, Didcot, Oxford OX11 9ZQ, UK.

Focusing on the establishing of vocational higher education in Austria in 1993, this book analyzes the development of this sector, and especially the role of accreditation, and compares it with the British experience with accreditation of courses and degrees. The factors leading to this new Austrian model are examined, as well as how it has worked during the first decade.

Renn, Kristen A. *Mixed-Race Students in College: The Ecology of Race, Identity, and Community on Campus*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 2004. 292 pp. (pb). ISBN 0-7914-6163-7. Address: SUNY

Press, 90 State St., Albany, NY 12207, USA. There is a long tradition of studying student cultures and subcultures in American higher education. This book is one of the first that focuses on the growing number of students who come from mixed-race backgrounds—Asian/white, African-American/Hispanic, and so on. Through case studies, the racial identities, patterns of interaction, campus life and related topics are analyzed.

Sadlak, Jan, ed. *Doctoral Studies and Qualifications in Europe and the United States: Status and Prospects*. Bucharest, Romania: CEPES, 2004. 301 pp. \$20 (pb). ISBN 92-9069-179-4. Address: UNESCO-CEPES, 39 Stirbei Voda St., RO-010102, Romania.

Doctoral study is one of the most rapidly growing elements of postsecondary education worldwide. This book provides a series of case studies that analyze patterns of doctoral study in key countries in Europe and in the United States. The chapters describe the status of doctoral study, and discuss current challenges and problems. Among the countries included are Germany, France, Spain, Russia, Romania, Sweden, and the United States.

Scott, David, Andrew Brown, Ingrid Lunt, and Lucy Thorne. *Professional Doctorates: Integrating Profession and Academic Knowledge*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press, 2004. 169 pp. (pb). ISBN 033521332-4. Address: Open University Press, McGraw-Hill House, Shoppenhangers Rd., Maidenhead, Berks. SL6 2QL, UK.

Doctoral degrees in applied professional fields such as business administration, education, and engineering are the focus of this volume. The context of the analysis is the UK, but the expansion of professional doctorates can be seen in many countries. The history of the professional doctorate, its relationship to the disciplines, the aims and purposes, teaching strategies, and other factors are discussed.

Slaughter, Sheila and Gary Rhoads. *Academic Capitalism and the New Economy: Markets, State, and Higher Education*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2004. 370 pp. \$39.95 (hb). ISBN 0-8018-7949-3. Address: Johns Hopkins University Press,

2715 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218, USA.

Academic capitalism is defined as the increasing importance of marketization of higher education and the pressures on universities to earn income to support their work. In the context of the United States, this book provides examples of how academic capitalism works today by discussing such issues as patent and trademark policy, copyright, contracts with commercial firms, and related issues. Also analyzed are the ways in which these market trends affect students, academic departments, and the administrative structures of universities.

Sharma, Kavita A. *50 Years of University Grants Commission*. New Delhi: University Grants Commission, 2003. 203 pp. (hb). Address: UGC, Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg, New Delhi 11002, India.

The University Grants Commission is the main organization providing funding from the Indian central government to higher education institutions—although because higher education is mainly a responsibility of the states, it is not the main funder. The UGC also has the responsibility for improving higher education in India through reform programs and other initiatives. To celebrate the 50th anniversary of the UGC, this volume was prepared. It provides a comprehensive historical overview of the UGC and a discussion of its various programs.

Stella, Anthony and A. Gnanam. *Looking Ahead, A Decade of Accreditation in Retrospect: Developments in Quality Assurance of Higher Education in India*. Bangalore, India: Aicra Publishers, 2004. 167 pp. (pb). ISBN 81-88848-06-9. Address: 808 B Wing, Mittal Tower, M.G. Road, Bangalore 560 001, India. India's national accreditation system is a decade old, and this book analyzes the state of the system after 10 years. Undertaken by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), this study looks at the role of the NAAC as an advisory agency, the state of accreditation in several states, the process of re-accreditation, alternative models of quality assurance, and related issues.

Teather, David., ed. *Consortia: International Networking Alliances of Universities*. Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Press, 2004. 261 pp. (pb). ISBN 0-522-85096-0. Address: Melbourne University Press, POB 1167 Carlton, Victoria 3053, Australia.

Academic consortia are growing in importance as universities worldwide seek to maximize their outreach and ability to attract students. Several chapters in this book discuss consortia as a strategy for internationalization. This book features discussions of many of the consortia currently operating. These include the Association of Commonwealth Universities, the European Association of Distance Teaching Universities, Universitas

21, and several others. Lists of members of the various consortia are included.

Thelin, John R. *A History of American Higher Education*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2004. 421 pp. \$19.95 (pb). ISBN 0-8018-8004-1. Address: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2715 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218, USA.

The first comprehensive history of American higher education to be written in three decades, this volume covers the traditional periods in American higher education development—the colonial era, building undergraduate colleges in the 19th century, the development of universities, the expansion of higher education beginning in the 1920s,

and the “golden age” of the post–World War II period.

Wachter, Bernd, ed. *Higher Education in a Changing Environment: Internationalization of Higher Education Policy in Europe*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmens Verlag, 2004. 108 pp. (pb). ISBN 3-932306-55-4. Address: Lemmens Verlag, Matthias-Grünwald Str. 1-3, D-53175 Bonn, Germany.

A series of broad discussions of how internationalization is operating in the European context, this book looks at the policies of the European Commission toward internationalization, development cooperation, quality assurance, transnational education, knowledge transfer, and mobility. The authors are among the best-known analysts on this topic.

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