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The new millennium is upon us. The challenges are daunting—access, expansion, privatization, distance education, technology, and the rest. But let us take a minute to reflect on the successes of the past half century in higher education before we get too depressed about the prospects for the future. The fact is that the higher education is a major force in practically every society, and that on balance academic institutions have met severe challenges with reasonable success. The universities are at the center of today’s knowledge-based economies. The postsecondary system has provided access to unprecedented numbers of students. With more than 100 million students enrolled worldwide, higher education has moved from an elite enterprise to a mass phenomenon. These are real accomplishments that are all too often forgotten in the waves of criticism that dominate the popular press in many countries. It may be useful to enumerate some of academe’s accomplishments.

**Massification and Differentiation**

Most countries have successfully expanded their higher education systems. Massification has been accompanied by a differentiated academic system of institutions with a variety of purposes operating at different levels of quality. The traditional research university is still the pinnacle of most academic systems, but it is no longer the sole model for postsecondary education. Most wealthy and middle-income countries now educate more than 30 percent of the relevant age group in postsecondary education—this is up from under 10 percent or less just two to three decades ago. Many developing countries have doubled access as well. This unique wave of expansion worldwide has added to the knowledge and skills base of society.

**Research**

Universities are the key research institutions in most countries. They are the central source for basic research, and as such have provided the underpinning of many of the innovations of modern society. To take just one field, the basic technology that went into the computer and the Internet itself had their origins in universities. Universities are the essential sources of new knowledge in almost all fields. They combine research with teaching in an atmosphere of free inquiry that provides the necessary conditions for productive research.

**Social Mobility**

Higher education provides unprecedented opportunities for social mobility and improvement in most societies. Bright students from poor backgrounds are able to obtain an education and improve their prospects. Everywhere, higher education increases income levels. Academe has opened up to women practically everywhere, with more women obtaining degrees, and joining the academic profession. Inequalities remain, but progress has been impressive.

**Differentiated Funding**

In most countries, academe has found multiple sources of funding. While government in many places remains the key fiscal base for higher education, postsecondary education now obtains money from a much wider array of sources. These include students and their families, philanthropic foundations and individuals, corporations that pay for research and development, consulting fees, patent and other income, and even the sale of sweatshirts. Less dependence on a single source of money has to some extent insulated academe from the vagaries of governmental policies.

**Internationalization**

Postsecondary education is more international than at any time since its origins in medieval Europe, when the common language of instruction was Latin. An unprecedented number of students—more than one million—are studying outside the borders of their home countries. There is an international academic labor market, with scholars and researchers routinely crossing borders for jobs. Perhaps most important, knowledge production and dissemination are international in scope, with research teams cooperating across borders and much of scientific communication taking place in English—in many ways the Latin of the 21st century. The curriculum is slowly becoming internationalized as well, and some parts of the world, most notably the European Union, are moving toward common degree structures and mutual recognition of academic qualifications.

**Academic Freedom and Freedom of Inquiry**

While there are still restrictions on research and, in some cases, teaching and expression in a number of countries, academic freedom has made remarkable progress in the...
past half century. There is a recognition that for academic institutions to be effective they must be allowed freedom of inquiry.

Higher Education and the Civil Society

Universities contribute to the cultural and political life of modern society. They are not only the source of expertise on everything from genetic engineering to classical Greek, but are also the place where controversial issues are debated in an atmosphere of inquiry. Universities are among the few places in modern society where objective analysts take place. It is not surprising that so many respected experts hold appointments in universities. Academic institutions are central to a civil society, and have, under sometimes difficult circumstances, been able to maintain their independence.

Academic institutions are not perfect, yet they have been remarkably successful during a half century of challenges. Their much criticized conservatism has permitted them to maintain their core values—autonomy, commitment to research and teaching without intellectual restrictions, and the conviction that ideas are important. At the same time, they have adapted to new circumstances. Differentiated academic systems have joined the elite universities, the curriculum has been broadened. Back in the 1960s, British scholar Sir Eric Ashby characterized the United States academic system as “any person, any study.” At the beginning of the 21st century, much of the world has joined the United States in offering academic diversity to large numbers. This is a considerable accomplishment.

Global On-line Learning: Hope or Hype?

Lawrence E. Gladieux

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As of fall 1999, less than 7 percent of the world’s adult population was estimated to be connected to the Internet. About 50 percent in the United States and Canada and 20 percent in Europe were on-line, while 2 percent or less were estimated to be on-line in Latin America, Asia, the Middle East, and Africa.

Writing anything about information technology and distance learning these days is at risk of being outdated before anyone can read it, and no doubt the on-line population has already surpassed the above estimates. (The numbers of people on-line by region are available from Lua, Ltd., Dublin [http://www.nua.ie/surveys/how_many_online/index.html]) But they remind us that the technological infrastructure that some of us take for granted is just not there for much of the world. Within the United States, the Internet revolution seems to be creating a “digital divide” between information haves and have-nots, which is liable to worsen disparities between rich and poor in our society. On an international level, the digital divide may be more like a digital chasm, leaving Third World countries and regions even further behind in the global economy.

Cisco Systems CEO John Chambers has identified education as “the next big killer application for the Internet” (quoted in Thomas L. Friedman, “Next It’s Education,” New York Times, November 17, 1999). However, sorting out the hype from the reality in today’s surging market for the electronic delivery of education is a challenge. The language used today to promote technology-delivered instruction—convenient, self-paced, individualized and interactive, faster and cheaper, flexible as to time and place—echoes that of a string of fads and movements in the United States throughout the 20th century. Thomas Edison speculated early in the century that motion pictures would replace textbooks as the principal medium of instruction. The radio revolution sparked a drive to hook up rural areas to state universities and allow course taking over airwaves. Forty years ago many heralded instructional television as the salvation of the American classroom. Video, satellite, and cable communications followed.

In each case technology enhanced and expanded learning opportunities for people who might not otherwise have had them. But history suggests that the impact of cutting-edge technologies consistently fell far short of the claims made by their proponents.

Now the sensational new phenomenon is on-line learning. The “virtual university” has arrived, and management pundit Peter Drucker has predicted that the residential university campus will be defunct within 30 years. A more likely scenario is that we will spend the next 30 years debating and experimenting with various hybrids of traditional, face-to-face, and technology-mediated learn-
Several powerful forces are fueling a global market for distance learning. The first is exploding demand. Human intellectual capital is the acknowledged coin of the realm in the increasingly globalized economy. Worldwide demand for education and training will continue to grow on into the new millennium.

Writing anything about information technology and distance learning these days is at risk of being outdated before anyone can read it.

Demographic pressures are relentless. Half the world’s population is under 20 years of age, and the population of developing countries and regions—the parts of the world in greatest need of human capital investment—tend to be even younger. The quest for new, better, and more cost-effective means of delivering education and training will intensify worldwide.

There is also the lure of profit. Venture capital has discovered distance education. It is now big business. Wall Street is betting huge sums on the convergence of education and the Internet. First came e-commerce; now there’s e-learning.

Finally, the speed of innovation itself is fueling the market. Partly because of the amount of money being poured into information technology, the pace of change is accelerating. Previous technological breakthroughs made the world smaller, but the World Wide Web shatters barriers of time and space in ways unimagined only a few years ago. Its global reach and speed have created a sense of boundless exuberance and possibility for the future that sustains and expands the market. (Perhaps the hype is the reality, after all?)

Yet the visionaries and marketers of on-line learning sometimes gloss over major complexities, including barriers of technological capacity and literacy, as well as culture, language, and learning styles. In our spring 1999 report, The Virtual University and Educational Opportunity, Scott Swail and I raised a number of questions about the virtual university, including issues of quality assurance, cost, and equity (available on-line at www.collegeboard.org). Writing primarily in a U.S. context, we focused especially on who benefits, concluding that the virtual campus may widen opportunities for some, but not generally for those at the low end of the economic scale. Virtual space is infinite, but it does not promise universality or equity, nor is it appropriate for many students whose experience with technology is limited—and who might benefit far more from traditional delivery systems.

The U.S. Department of Commerce survey, “Falling Through the Net,” demonstrates that computer ownership and Internet access are highly stratified by socioeconomic status (available on-line at www.ntia.doc.gov). In fact, the latest data show that, over the past year alone, gaps in Internet access have actually widened between the highest and lowest income groups and between whites and minorities.

Some argue that the digital divide is a passing thing; consumer prices for computer hardware, software, and online access are becoming more affordable all the time. Soon, it is said, a digital convergence will allow the packaging of communications technologies (video, voice, text or data) into one widely accessible unit, perhaps by way of the most ubiquitous appliance (in American households)—the television set. My guess is that it will take much longer than predicted to combine all these technologies into one inexpensive, reliable unit.

The challenge is how to level the playing field so that the technology revolution opens doors to all students.

The challenge is how to level the playing field so that the technology revolution opens doors to all students. There are no easy answers, but we do know that the marketplace by itself will not ensure equal access to technology. Government must play a part through industry incentives and safety-net programs to narrow the digital divide. Internationally, the issues of technological access lie much deeper. The vision of packaging courses with name instructors, beaming them over the Internet and mass-marketing them around the world is a powerful lure to investors and postsecondary providers as well as to countries trying to reach widely dispersed populations. But it hardly seems a realistic scenario in places where a radio is a luxury and telephone and electrical service unreliable. For much of the world, the promise of modern distance learning can only be realized after massive investments in communications infrastructure.

The Internet has great power and potential for good, which we must harness to the cause of educational opportunity. We must not let information technology become a new engine of global inequality.
The use of technology in higher education continues to expand rapidly and globally, offering new approaches to classroom teaching and learning as well as new ways for academics to connect with one another over long distances. Not long ago, international colleagues would see each other at the occasional conference, write letters, or rack up sizable long-distance phone bills. Today the Internet allows inexpensive, daily interaction between colleagues around the world. It is useful to take an occasional snapshot of the opportunities and challenges presented by these new technologies and their impact on academic life and work.

**International Collaboration**
Putting together an international collection of essays has never been easier. Book chapters can be solicited, reviewed, edited, designed, and printed as camera-ready copy for the publisher—all using a standard desktop computer with an Internet connection and a laser printer. The submission and review of proposals for academic conferences can be conducted entirely over the World Wide Web or by sending files as e-mail enclosures. Traditional forms of research collaboration—printing, mailing, and waiting for a response—are being replaced by faster, more efficient means of communication on a global scale. Listserv e-mail discussion groups make possible the international sharing of research questions and findings, sometimes leading to research partnerships between academics who discover their shared interests on-line.

**A New Cadre of Publishers**
With a cheap desktop PC, an Internet connection, and a web-hosting service, anyone can now be a provider of information to the masses at amazingly low cost. By developing and maintaining your own website, you can “publish” everything from scholarly essays and research agendas to pictures of your family and more. No more page limits, margin or font sizes to worry about. All you need is something to say, a few website development tools, and an imaginative way of presenting your information on the Internet. New web-based newsletters and journals are cropping up throughout academe every month, as faculty worldwide learn to make use of this mode of publishing their work. Much like the introduction of the printing press years ago, the impact of the Internet on information distribution has been enormous.

**Access to Information Worldwide**
More websites means more information at our fingertips. In the United States, students are turning increasingly to the web as a primary source of information previously only obtainable at their school library. The same information available to students in the United States is available to Internet-connected students and scholars in other countries as well. A host of on-line translators are even available to convert English-language websites into the language of choice. Of particular interest, college and university libraries worldwide are offering an increasing amount of information over the web. Students at a small rural college with a poorly stocked library can now find virtually any reference resource they need through the web. Information clearinghouses—like ERIC—and specific research databases for disciplines in the sciences or humanities offer a vast array of research opportunities for anyone with an adequate connection to the Internet.

**Gathering Research Data**
With the development and proper use of web-based surveys, a researcher can collect data from an international population of subjects. For example, imagine a survey of the academic profession in 14 geographically diverse countries. Using your website, you can provide an on-line survey form to the faculty in these countries that they fill out and submit directly into your database. No more mailing costs, or data entry hassles, and the timespan involved in your research project has been reduced dramatically.
engage in problem solving. This on-line interaction is effective for drawing out those students who usually do not speak up in class. Through hyperlinks, an on-line course website can also direct students to useful sources of information on the web.

**Challenges**

Despite the ways in which it adds an exciting new international dimension to academic life and work, technology also presents several challenges and responsibilities. Faculty are now faced with issues of information legitimacy and quality. After spending the previous evening surfing the web, a student may come to class and declare with absolute certainty that the Holocaust could never have happened. How does the teacher deal with this situation and its impact on other students’ perceptions? For educators, this presents a new task of teaching students how to judge information sources and to seek multiple perspectives on issues before deciding for themselves what is fact and what is fantasy.

The new technologies also have other implications for the college teacher seeking new and inventive ways to encourage students to develop their thinking and analytic skills. Faculty also have to evaluate themselves and their colleagues in terms of the quality of information offered on-line within their disciplines. Rather than viewing the web as a potential “soap box,” faculty could better serve the learning community by linking their websites to those of colleagues so that potential browsers might compare and contrast their differing arguments.

Increased access to information has also led to challenges in how we address issues of knowledge reproduction, copyright, distribution of research findings, and rewards for creativity. From “fair use” policies to institutional codes of conduct, the higher education community is grappling with a host of issues related to how we conduct ourselves on-line. Nevertheless, the impact of technology on academic life and work has been mostly positive. Each of us bears our own responsibility for ensuring the integrity of information transmitted through our computers—just as we take so seriously our responsibilities in ensuring the integrity of the information we provide each other in print. Our institutions of higher education have a clear mandate to provide training and professional development for faculty to make effective use of new technologies in research and teaching. How we respond to the challenges and opportunities of new technologies will have a considerable effect on the course of higher education in the next decade.

The following are some recommended websites:

- *International Higher Education*: [http://www.bc.edu/cihe](http://www.bc.edu/cihe) and [http://www.higher-ed.org](http://www.higher-ed.org);
- *Web Page Language Translators*: [http://babelfish.altavista.com](http://babelfish.altavista.com) and [http://translator.go.com](http://translator.go.com);

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**Internationalizing French Higher Education**

**Hoa Tran**

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At first glance, French universities give some semblance of looking beyond national borders, with their involvement in short-term exchanges of students and faculty. Every year the University of South Brittany, for example, sends approximately 20 students abroad for three to six months. As for faculty, 4 to 8 go abroad per year, for about two weeks. French universities receive roughly the same number of foreign students and faculty from their European partners. A closer look, however, reveals the limited nature of these international activities. Moreover, funding comes from the European Union's Socrates-ERASMUS program, and they are strictly intra-Europe. Apart from recent contacts with universities in Francophone Canada and Africa, little progress has been made in collaborating with universities outside the European Union. French universities do see exposure to the international environment as beneficial, but more for cultural discovery than for academic benefit. Only in political studies, foreign languages and business management does one find some predisposition toward internationalization.

A similar lack of enthusiasm is found with regard to receiving foreign students for full-degree programs. French universities lack the rich mix of students from different countries one sees on American campuses. Most of the “foreign” students have actually grown up in France, and only a handful are recipients of scholarships. While American universities have highly developed structures to receive and manage hundreds of thousand foreign students, most French universities set up “international relations” sections in the last few years.

Faculty may attend international conferences, or spend few weeks at a foreign (partner) university, teaching (in French) what they teach at home. Foreign exchange professors come to France for similarly short periods. This is international collaboration on a superficial level—an indication that international education is not a priority on the agenda. Nevertheless, French academics, functioning in a highly regulated bureaucracy, are captivated by the freedom of American academia, as well as the American approach toward teaching and research. But this curiosity has not yet been translated into programs of international collaboration. Although French academics are interested in links with universities in Latin America and Asia, they are motivated more by a desire for tourism or cultural enrichment than for true academic exchange.
Another aspect of internationalization is the incorporation of international elements into the curriculum. However, this has not yet occurred in French higher education. Universities follow guidelines developed by the Education Ministry that encourage uniformity rather than diversity. Faculty sometime question why they should include an international dimension in their programs when the French system of higher education is “one of the best in the world.”

Determining Factors
Several factors may account for the general lack of enthusiasm. First, French higher education is highly centralized, and universities have limited room to maneuver. In theory, universities can spend government-allocated funds as they wish; in practice, hardly any money remains after essential recurrent expenses are paid. Universities lack the resources to engage in contacts with countries other than those in the European Union (which are paid for by Socrates-ERASMUS). Moreover, programs offering partial scholarships to enable foreigners to study and work on campus at the same time do not exist in France.

Second, the university bureaucracy is governed by a myriad of rules and regulations that hamper initiatives. For example, French universities are permitted to conduct exchanges only with foreign universities with which they have established formal partnership agreements. As for students, once abroad they are expected to take exactly the same courses as in their home institution, the only difference being that the courses are conducted in a foreign language. Thus French exchange students are notable to benefit from firsthand exposure to the diverse program content and delivery methods offered by foreign universities.

French universities lack the rich mix of students from different countries one sees on American campuses.

Third, the “superior” mind-set of French academics is another obstacle. Satisfied that French higher education is among the best systems in the world, they have only cursory international interactions, and the latter are seen as having little influence on professional advancement.

French professors seldom, if ever, take a sabbatical year to do research abroad. Although research has been officially recognized as part of their duties, as illustrated by the adoption of the title enseignant-chercheur (lecturer-researcher) a few years ago, the call to “publish or perish” is not a driving force. In addition, language is a major inhibiting factor. French academics dread being misunderstood when they have to make use of a language they do not know well. While many younger professors are learning English, having realized its predominance in the academic world, the majority prefer to stick to the familiar.

What Next?
In spite of the Socrates-ERASMUS program, there is no policy to promote the internationalization of higher education. At the 1990 conference, Université 2000, the then education minister (now prime minister) did not even mention internationalization when setting out the future landscape of French universities.

Most recently, what has caught attention of policymakers is that France has far too few foreign students compared to the United States. The topic of extending international collaboration by French universities beyond the European Union figured prominently on the agenda of the prime minister and the president during their trips to Latin America last year. The agency EduFrance was created with the goal of attracting more foreign students. France is hoping that its lower costs (compared to the United States) will lead foreigners to choose to study in France. However, it is unlikely that EduFrance campaigns will bring the desired effect, for two reasons. One is that EduFrance does not provide any financial aid, without which few foreigners can come to France. The other reason is that there is a misinterpretation of the situation of foreign students in the United States. While the French assume that well-to-do foreigners are attending American universities, these such individuals in fact represent only a small percentage of the total number of foreign students. Most foreign students in the United States are not actually self-funded but are recipients of full or partial scholarships.

In any case, these efforts will not make French higher education more internationally oriented. It will be a while before debates about internationalization, similar to the ones currently under way in American higher education, surface in France. In the meantime, so long as internationalizing French higher education simply means accelerating its export, France will continue to occupy its old place in the new competition.
The Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations on European Higher Education

Hans de Wit

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On June 19, 1999, in Bologna, Italy, ministers of education of 29 European countries signed the Declaration on the European Higher Education Area. The joint declaration was based on the understanding that:

a Europe of Knowledge is now widely recognised as an irreplaceable factor for social and human growth and as an indispensable component to consolidate and enrich the European citizenship, capable of giving its citizens the necessary competences to face the challenges of the new millennium, together with an awareness of shared values and belonging to a common social and cultural space. The importance of education and educational co-operation in the development and strengthening of stable, peaceful and democratic societies is universally acknowledged as paramount, the more so in view of the situation in South East Europe.

The broad support for this declaration beyond the member states of the European Union is unique and has attracted broad international attention. This article looks at the impetus for this declaration, its goals, and the changes envisioned.

In the declaration, the ministers outline the following objectives:

• adoption of a system of clear and comparable degrees, including the adoption of a “Diploma Supplement”;
• adoption of a system based on two main cycles—undergraduate and graduate;
• establishment of a system of credits—such as the European Credit Transfer System—as a means of promoting student mobility;
• promotion of mobility by overcoming obstacles to the effective exercise of free movement;
• promotion of European cooperation in quality assurance; and
• promotion of common European patterns in higher education.

The groundwork for what is already widely known in higher education as the Bologna Declaration was laid by the Sorbonne Declaration, signed on May 25, 1998 in Paris by the ministers of education of France, Germany, Italy, and the United Kingdom on the occasion of the anniversary of the university of Paris. In this “Joint declaration on harmonization of the architecture of the European higher education system,” the ministers of four dominant countries of the European Union, stated that

[Europe is] heading for a period of major change in education and working conditions, to a diversification of courses of professional careers, with education and training throughout life becoming a clear obligation. We owe our students, and our society at large, a higher education system in which they are given the best opportunities to seek and find their own area of excellence. An open European area for higher learning carries a wealth of positive perspectives, of course respecting our diversities, but requires on the other hand continuous efforts to remove barriers and to develop a framework for teaching and learning, which would enhance mobility and an ever closer cooperation.

The Sorbonne Declaration was a French initiative based on the Attali Report, “Pour un modèle européen d’enseignement supérieur,” which compares the French system with other European systems of higher education as the basis for a reform of the French system. The declaration came as a surprise—not only to the higher education community but also to the European Commission and the ministers of education of the other member states. It seemed rather unlikely that four countries with fundamentally different higher education traditions would be willing to lead the way toward harmonization. Only in 1993, with the Maastricht Treaty, did education become an area in which the European Commission could take action, but only as a subsidiary focus. Thus, joint European action on higher education was not high on the agenda of the European Council of Ministers.

It appears that ministers of education of the four countries acted deliberately as representatives of their national governments, outside the context of the European Commission. Perhaps they saw this as a way to maintain control over the necessary process of harmonization. Such a proposal would have been far more difficult to sell if presented by the Commission, by one of the four larger countries, or by the smaller countries. (In reality, the smaller countries were already further on their way to accomplishing what the Sorbonne Declaration intended.) Thus, the United Kingdom needed France, Italy, and Germany to convince the British public of the advantages of a joint initiative to harmonize European higher education with the British system. The Germans, for their part, needed the support of the other countries to sell a plan at home to introduce the
bachelor’s and master’s degree structure. And the French and Italians needed the others to convince their publics of the need for reform of their higher education systems, something that had previously always been blocked by massive protests.

**Europe is heading for a period of major change in education and working conditions, to a diversification of courses of professional careers, with education and training throughout life becoming a clear obligation.**

Of course, intensive debates followed, complicated by discrepancies between the French and British versions of the declaration. However, the Sorbonne Declaration was surprisingly well received, both in the political arena and in the higher education community of the four countries and in the rest of Europe. Andris Barblan of the Confederation of European Union Rectors’ Conferences (CRE) gave the following explanations for this positive response during a meeting of the Santander Group:

- The process was initiated from unexpected quarters, the European role of the Commission being taken over at the national level by the education ministers.
- Politicians were calling for the fulfillment of a process they had entrusted earlier to the people primarily responsible for higher education—namely, academics.
- The discussion at the Sorbonne was an extremely rare constellation of users, providers, and political leaders.

The positive response to the Sorbonne Declaration set the stage for a broader initiative. On the invitation of the Italian minister of education, a meeting was convened in Bologna. The debate was based on the Sorbonne Declaration and on a study prepared by the Association of European Universities and the CRE on “Trends in European Learning Structures.” The study showed the extreme complexity and diversity of European curricular and degree structures. Whereas the Sorbonne Declaration spoke of harmonization, both the prepared study and the resulting Bologna Declaration avoided this word—due largely to the potential negative interpretations. Instead, the study speaks of “actions which may foster the desired convergence and transparency in qualification structures in Europe.”

What effect will the two declarations have on higher education in Europe? First of all, they reconfirm trends under way in Germany, Austria, and Denmark to introduce a bachelor’s and master’s degree structure. Second, they have stimulated similar movements in countries such as the Netherlands, where several universities have started to develop bachelor’s and master’s degrees, with the support of the minister of education. But most of all, a strong incentive has been given to the realization of an open European higher education environment. The declarations, in themselves an attempt to keep a political grip on developments in the higher education sector, will work as a catalyst for reform of higher education throughout Europe. There is still a long way to go, particularly in Germany, France, Italy, and the United Kingdom, the four countries that initiated the Sorbonne Declaration.

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**Australia and Foreign Student Recruitment**

**Barbara B. Burn**

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Australia’s universities have unquestionably gained a reputation for aggressively recruiting foreign students. Using vocabulary from the world of business (e.g., “marketing” higher education or “diversifying international student recruitment into new markets”) reinforces their perceived commercial orientation. So, also, have the universities’ “hard-sell” efforts, as at the annual conferences of NAFSA: Association of International Educators, where Australian university contingents appear among the most active in foreign student recruitment efforts.

On a recent two-week visit in Australia, a country on whose higher education system I earlier published two studies, one of my interests was to explore the universities’ motivation and strategies for attracting more foreign students to their institutions. With Chancellor David Scott of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, I arranged visits to six universities, met with administrators and faculty, collected information, and discussed the foreign student situation.

The active, even aggressive, foreign student recruiting started after the Commonwealth government announced a policy of full-cost fees in 1985, following the 1984 Jackson Committee review of overseas aid programs. The number of foreign students increased from 15,000 in 1984 to 75,000 in 1998, and is projected to reach 89,000 by the
year 2000. The universities have not recruited as actively. Leading are the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology University, the University of New South Wales, and Curtin University of Technology. A recent study carried out by Curtin’s Institute for Research into International Competitiveness showed that Curtin generates AUST$700-870 million in annual revenue for Western Australia, close to half from international student fees. Overall, international students now constitute 10 percent of all university students nationally, close to 20 percent at the universities with the largest numbers, not including international students enrolled at off-shore campuses that the Australian universities are developing through twinning and other linkage arrangements.

**Active, even aggressive, foreign student recruiting started after the Commonwealth government announced a policy of full-cost fees in 1985.**

International student recruitment has brought interesting transformations. The universities’ publications for recruiting are outstanding in design and content. However, some tend to highlight, in addition to academic quality, such attractions as Australia’s Gold Coast and surfing at Manly—so that when some American students seem to neglect the universities’ excellent academic offerings in favor of more hedonistic pursuits, this may be a kind of self-fulfilling prophecy.

That fact that some of Australia’s universities have been zealously recruiting international students for the added tuition revenues that accrue should be viewed in the context of the drastic cuts in government support of higher education, from 77.2 to 53.8 percent of costs between 1989 and 1997. This has encouraged, and even driven, the universities to obtain funds from other sources. For example, the government now allows them to charge tuition from graduate students (Australian as well as foreign) and to accept Australian undergraduates who pay full tuition for up to one-fourth of enrollments in a course. The universities are now also seeking extra funding through research earnings, privatization, summer programs, and overseas campuses. However, international student tuition will continue to be an important revenue source, and Australia hopes to double its share of international students who study in English-language countries—currently a 10 percent share (the United States now has 68, the United Kingdom 17, and Canada 5 percent). Moreover, the financial situation of Australia’s universities needs to be appreciated in relation to other issues affecting it. Relevant here are the current efforts of university academics to secure substantial salary increases with strikes and cancellation of classes at a number of universities in July. This should be looked at in the context of the 12 percent salary increase obtained in 1997, after which the universities were forced to cut more than 3,000 positions.

When they began recruiting foreign students, Australian universities claimed that this was in the interest of internationalizing their institutions. Now more and more of them are making genuine efforts in that direction. In a recent paper, “Outcomes of Student Exchange,” Fiona Clyne and Fazal Rizvi speak of a shift in policies away from “narrow commercialism” to a concept of internationalism that includes cultural and economic concerns. These efforts include international faculty contacts and scholarly collaboration, giving their students a global experience (traditionally Australian students attend university in their home state), making curricula much more international, and working with industry, research laboratories, and other entities abroad.

**An important step taken by the Australian universities in connection with international student recruitment was the development, beginning in 1989, of codes of ethical practice.**

An important step taken by the Australian universities in connection with international student recruitment was the development, beginning in 1989, of codes of ethical practice, culminating in the adoption in August 1998 of a “Code of Ethical Practice in the Provision of Education to International Students by Australian Universities.” Like the publication of NAFSA: Association of International Educators, “Guide to Ethical International Recruitment,” the AVCC code relies on the higher education institutions to monitor and enforce compliance. The code and the universities’ increased attention to internationalizing their institutions using multiple strategies should help improve the image and the practices of the Australian universities relating to international student recruitment. Much wider awareness in the United States of those efforts and goals by the Australian universities is overdue. This brief piece may help expand that awareness.

**Internet Resource**

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Public Higher Education and Tuition: The Russian Case

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In today's Russia, tuition plays an important role in the economics of public higher education. Many public institutions have become dependent on tuition revenues as the second major source of income after state allocations. Some view tuition as a potential mechanism, when coupled with means-tested financial aid, for rendering higher education more equitably accessible and the increasingly income-differentiated Russian society. Tuition policy remains, however, a highly sensitive public issue that adds to the already significant social costs brought about by the post-perestroika reforms and reduction in the public safety net.

The new private (nonstate) sector of higher education presently accounts for 6.9 percent of the nation's tuition-based enrollments. The overwhelming majority of students who pay for their studies are enrolled in public universities and colleges, where 84 percent of students are not yet charged tuition. Students who do pay tuition were either admitted for a second degree or had scores that fell just below the cutoff point for passing the entrance exams. Tuition payments are provided either from individual resources or by sponsoring prospective employers.

After a 1993 drop in enrollments in the public sector, admissions to higher education institutions rose by one-fifth in five years. Close to three-fifths of this growth was accounted for by the increase in admissions with tuition charges in state higher education institutions. Over this period not only the absolute numbers but also the rates of increase in admissions with tuition were higher in state institutions than in nonstate ones.

Instruction on a fee-paying basis is geared to the market value of a program and the prestige of the institution rather than to the actually incurred costs. Since the most demand-driven programs—such as those in law, economics, management, and foreign languages—are relatively inexpensive to provide, the tuition revenue is used to subsidize costlier programs and general university operations.

Because of fluctuating inflation, instruction is priced on a semester-to-semester basis, making financial planning more difficult for students and parents. Some prestigious institutions require an up-front fee for the first three years of instruction. Others have developed more flexible schemes, offering students several options of tuition payment. Yet another smaller group of institutions has introduced prepaid tuition schemes, in which payment is collected over a short period of several months before admission.

Affordability of higher education programs is primarily a function of individual incomes and savings, which are difficult to estimate in today's Russia. According to official statistics, real disposable incomes have continued to decline in the past two years; 22.5 percent of the population fell below the poverty line; and the incomes of the richest 10 percent of the population were 13.2 times greater than the incomes of the poorest 10 percent. At the same time, experts estimate underreporting of incomes by 40 percent in the nonstate sector, mainly in reaction to the pressure of abusively high tax rates. The total recorded savings rates are low, and the amount of cash kept outside banks can only be estimated.

The evidence of an increasingly stratified society calls into question the very existence of a stable and healthy middle class in Russia today. Some 37.5 percent of the employed population have jobs in the public sector, where salary arrears have continued to accrue over the past four years. In 1998, the average salary in education and related fields was half of that in public administration and industry, and a third of that in banking. Public-sector employees include doctors, teachers, social workers, and others who by tradition place great value on advanced education. Recently they have found it increasingly difficult to afford higher education for their children.
petition for no-tuition admissions. Students who are not being sponsored by a company often find themselves unable to continue their studies beyond the first year—due to lack of funds.

Many domestic experts on higher education rank tuition fees, complemented by means-tested financial aid and student loans, among the most effective ways to stabilize and expand higher education in Russia. Yet in a context of state austerity, compounded by strenuous economic challenges, such a solution can only be a long-term proposition.

A proposal for introducing means-tested financial assistance came at the end of 1997 when the overall education reforms were being contemplated. However, the important issue of mechanisms for means-testing was not discussed. In any event, the proposal got stalled as being too radical to accept in its major components. In the short run, the major thrust of the reforms was to use available resources more effectively and to stimulate investments in education. The proposals recommended tax deductions on investments in higher education for both enterprises and individuals, needs-based student financial aid to target poor and out-of-town students—the amount of financial aid to be at least at the minimal subsistence level—and a for-fee expansion of auxiliary campus services with assistance for needy students.

These measures were aimed at stimulating resource flows to higher education from nonstate sources—that is, from businesses and individuals. The goal was to redirect resources from the “shadow” sector into a legal sector of education, to mitigate the growing inequality in access to higher education, and to decrease undifferentiated state subsidies for auxiliary campus services. There were counterarguments to these recommendations, and in early 1998 the proposed reform plan was not supported by Parliament. However, responding to the continuing pressure of state financial cuts, policymakers offered to lift the cap on tuition-based enrollments in public institutions, decrease the student-faculty ratio, redirect state financial aid solely to the needy, and reduce state-supported admissions. The last proposal triggered a number of student protests against the privatization of higher education. According to a student survey in the Urals, almost two-thirds of respondents expressed concern about their inability to complete their studies on a fee-paying basis, and only one-quarter indicated that they would be able to carry the full costs of higher education.

A rise in the number of state-supported admissions to public higher education has been reported as of fall 1999. Yet the problems have continued to mount in higher education since the August 1998 financial setback. Recently, national policymakers have called on university leaders and other professionals to make a concerted brainstorming effort to come up with possible solutions. With the parties admitting the need for change, the effort is expected to reinvigorate higher education.

Since the most demand-driven programs—such as those in law, economics, management, and foreign languages—are relatively inexpensive to provide, the tuition revenue is used to subsidize costlier programs and general university operations.

The University of Malta’s Student Stipend System

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At a time when the major trend in universities internationally is for students to share at least some of the costs of their higher education, Malta remains what may well be a unique case: the government provides not only free instruc-
the third year to that of an administrative officer. In return, students were contractually bound to work for their sponsor for a certain number of years.

The stipend system originated in a series of reforms at the University of Malta ushered in by a Labour government in the 1970s.

During the course of its 25 years in existence, the student-worker scheme encountered severe criticism because it introduced a *numerus clausus*, with entry being regulated by the condition of sponsorship; because it was based on a model of graduate manpower planning that was unresponsive to changes in the country’s small, open economy; and because it brought about a major shift in Malta’s traditional university culture, hitherto conservatively liberal in orientation. Despite such criticisms, however, subsequent governments of different ideological orientations found it impossible to dismantle a system that had provided financial independence to students. As a result, with the “refoundation” of the University of Malta in 1987 after the election of the center-right Nationalist Party, the student-worker sponsorship system was dropped and a stipend introduced for all students. Students were no longer required to find employer-sponsors, or to work—the argument being that studying itself was work. Constantly drawing on comparisons between high rates of university attendance in Europe and relatively low ones in Malta, the government justified the new stipend system in terms of its potential to attract young people to postsecondary studies.

The stipend system has gone through various changes. In particular, the system was challenged on the grounds that the state can no longer afford to be so generous to students who are, in the main, already financially comfortable—coming as they tend to do from the middle- and upper-middle-class backgrounds. In addition, government promotion of higher enrollment levels has helped to send student numbers shooting up from just under 1,500 in 1987, to 7,500 10 years later, with dramatic financial consequences for state coffers already hard-pressed by an escalating structured deficit. The siphoning off of scarce public funds for higher education has had another consequence—that of starving the compulsory school sector from much-needed investment. As a result, the university has seen its budget increase exponentially but to the detriment of basic education—with illiteracy rates among school-age children remaining as high as 12 percent. This state of affairs does not make economic sense: it has led to an oversupply of both overqualified and underqualified personnel and a staff vacuum at middle-management, supervisory, and technical levels.

Despite these and other criticisms, and given the delicate balance of both political and class power on the island, no government has quite dared to tamper with the stipend system in any radical manner. At best, new conditions have been placed to regulate access to the stipend: between 1995 and 1997, for instance, a series of legal notices prohibited the grant of stipends to repeaters, to students over 30 years of age, and to most graduate students. An attempt to transform part of the stipend from a check handout to a book voucher was met by protests on the part of the student body. A Labour government argued that it was immoral to subsidize university studies to such a degree when other sectors of the education system were starved for funds. Worse still, there was evidence that the stipend was contributing to the consumer-oriented lifestyles of the middle classes, given that Maltese youth tend to live with their parents until they get married. In the 1997 budget provisions, the Labour government therefore reduced the stipend to a flat monthly rate of Lm50 monthly (U.S.$125) and a further Lm50 monthly on a loan basis. In 1998, a board was also set up to consider the needs of students from financially deprived backgrounds, who could qualify for an extra Lm50 monthly.

In the most recent development in the saga, the Nationalist Government—which had made an campaign promise to reform the stipend system in favor of university students—has just announced a new scheme. Students will now get a lump sum of Lm400 (U.S.$1,000) to buy equipment such as computers, and another one-time sum of Lm200 (U.S.$500) to buy books. They will then get Lm60 (U.S.$150) monthly for the duration of their studies.

It has been observed that the middle classes have a way of mobilizing themselves to benefit from free services offered by the state, rerouting in their direction money from the public coffers—even when it is meant to promote equity. Malta’s university student stipend system is a perfect illustration of how such a strategy can be exploited.

**Note**

A Special Focus: Aspects of Higher Education in the Arab States

To return home bearing this knowledge was surely a greater feat than any mechanical instrument, no matter how strategically useful. In this way the course of his life signified not gradual progression but a tool of change. If he could carry this knowledge, and set the evidence clearly before the wisest minds in the Sultan’s court, then he would be rewarded beyond any man’s dreams, but more than that, his name would be inscribed in the books of history as the man who has shed another fragment of light into the darkened cave of man’s ignorance. Surely this would be an achievement greater than any reward? On the other hand, they might just call him an apostate and slice off his head.

—Jamal Mahjoub, _The Carrier_

Since the groundbreaking monographs of J.-J. Waardenburg and F. I. Qubain, both published in 1966, the case of higher education in the Arab states has been largely neglected in the broader literature on higher education.1 The bulk of the research, commissioned by international and regional bodies, tends to be policy driven and based on human capital and managerial approaches. Few systematic or long-range efforts have been undertaken to probe the sociopolitical and economic underpinnings of higher education operation and expansion. Nor did such efforts address the contested terrains of higher education and the extent to which expansion has mediated mounting dissent and sociopolitical conflicts, affecting both the broader class structure as well as the internal stratification of elite groups.

The expansion of contemporary Arab higher education is heavily associated with the emergence of Arab state systems. Such an association was not devoid of inherent contradictions. Among other things, the expansion of public higher education meant the marginalization, if not actual expropriation and appropriation by the state, of community-based patterns of education organized around and related to religious institutions, such as university mosques and other religious institutions of higher learning. It also meant the imposition of a paradigmatic alternative, namely: a uniform, state-controlled public system. Such a transformation is not merely “modernization,” “structural change,” or “transition.” Rather, it expresses a more basic, often radical, and certainly conflict-loaded transformation of the existing social bases of power; the determination of new sources of authority (both political and social); and the definition of what valid (and therefore politically connoted) knowledge is.

Notwithstanding, within Arab societies, the current debate on higher education has taken on increasingly critical overtones since the late 1980s. The established meanings of an Arab university, and of higher education in general, are being adamantly challenged socially, politically, and economically. As the globalization process extends to all levels, and privatization is on the rise, the very definition of a “national university” has become ambiguous. And yet, the increasing share of the private sector and the gradual retreat of the state raise many questions as to what higher education should achieve, what knowledge should it impart, and what politics should it follow.

The five contributions in this thematic section provide selective illustrations of some of the issues at stake.

—André Elias Mazawi

Notes

The source for the epigraph is Jamal Mahjoub, _The Carrier_ (London: Phoenix House, 1998), 244.


Higher Education in Yemen: Knowledge and Power Revisited

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The educational reforms implemented by the Ottomans during their second occupation of Yemen (1849–1918) set the scene for gradual, profound changes in the education system. The introduction of the printing press in 1877, among other factors, precipitated bureaucratization and changes in the attitudes toward knowledge. Seeking to establish a centralized state after the departure of the Ottomans, Imam Yahya (1904–1948), the supreme leader of the Zaydi-Shii Imamate, maintained those features of the Ottoman reforms that fostered systematization of education. Newspapers and books were printed, and a history committee was set up to construct a “unified” Yemeni history.1 The Imam took over the Ottoman military academy, and in the late 1920s and mid-1930s students were sent for training as pilots to Rome and to the military college in Baghdad. In 1946, 5 students, all members of learned families, were sent to the Mahad Ali, a diplomatic school in Cairo. A year
later 40 students of different social backgrounds were sent to Lebanon at the expense of the Lebanese government. Previously, some members of privileged families completed their education at religious colleges in Cairo and Mecca; some men of the Hadramawt went to India. In contrast, those who went abroad in the first half of the 20th century received army training and a secular education.

In 1926, the Imam established the Madrasah al-Ilmiyyah, an institution dedicated to the training of senior government officials who were to possess expertise in the religious sciences. The style of teaching differed from that practiced at the mosques. The Madrasah was dedicated to producing administrators rather than Mujtahids (scholars entitled to pronounce independent judgment). Endowments were sequestered from local teaching institutions to the Treasury, which financed the new Madrasah. This constituted another innovation that led to the bureaucratization and curtailment of the authority of the Ulama (religious scholars). They had previously been allowed to administer the income from mosque endowments in the rural religious enclaves (Hijar).

In the 1930s and 1940s Imam Yahya faced criticism from those Ulama who had lost their autonomy and opposed his creation of a patrimonial state, as well as others (among them men of letters) who shared their concerns and favored profound political and educational reforms that the Imam was unwilling to implement. They demanded the introduction of a parliament, a constitution, freedom of speech, and access to knowledge that was available in Arab and European countries. Arabic translations of European literature were brought from Aden, and some reformist scholars began promoting the ideas of the Renaissance. Imam Yahya’s son, Ahmad (1948–1962), introduced schools for girls and intermediate and secondary schools in the major towns, where English and geography was taught by Egyptian and Palestinian teachers. However, demands for further reforms continued to be made. The students who completed their higher education abroad returned to Yemen with high expectations. The Imam disapproved of their nationalist ideologies and refused to assign them to senior posts.

Thus in the early and mid-20th century, the trajectories of the lives of the learned elite were shaped by intra-elite disputes about the nature of knowledge and political authority rather than by European colonial rule. Demands for reforms accompanied by political violence in the late 1940s helped to destabilize the Imamate, one of the last bastions of Hashimite power in the 20th century. By contributing to undermining the state they wished to reform rather than to obliteratate, the elite ultimately undermined themselves.

Knowledge Production under the Republic
The new elite of the republic is made up of the army, tribal leaders, technocrats, and merchants. In the immediate aftermath of the revolution, their ranks were filled by those men who had been sent abroad by the Imams. For example, Ali bin Sayf al-Khawalani, who studied in Lebanon, became chief of staff of the armed forces in 1968 and minister of the interior in 1970; Muhsin al-Ayni, a former pupil of an orphan school founded by Imam Yahya, headed the Foreign Office in 1962 and later became prime minister; Abd al-Latif Dayf Allah, who trained at the Military College in Cairo, was a member of the Revolutionary Command Council and minister of the interior under President Sallal (1962–1967).

The revolutionary government created a new, predominantly secular education system modelled on that of Egypt. Egypt, whose troops helped to defeat royalist forces during the civil war (1962–1969) offered financial assistance and expertise. The Madrasah al-Ilmiyyah, in spite of its role in the constitutional movement, was closed. The education system was to become one of the pillars of legitimacy of the new regime and a symbol of nationalist pride. The establishment of Sana University in the 1970s expressed the new regime’s self-assertion as a modern nation-state that had moved out of isolation and was promoting the nation’s education and welfare. The plan to build a university was first put forward by the education minister, Qasim Ghalib. The project was important to decision makers because at that time the number of scholarships and fields of studies was decided by donor countries. For several years, the funds to implement the plan were unavailable. However, the new elite considered university education abroad to be superior. They invested heavily into their sons’ education at foreign, especially American and European, universities. This trend has increased since Kuwait ceased sponsoring Sana University following the Gulf crisis, and the quality of education generally deteriorated. Degrees from local universities carry far less prestige and provide few employment opportunities outside Yemen. Originally, Sana University attracted students even from remote corners of the country and was attended by a substantial number of women. With the economic crisis in full swing, enrollments at the secondary and university levels declined, especially among the rural population. In October 1999,
Sana University graduates demonstrated about not being offered jobs by the government upon graduation. In accordance with the Egyptian model, there is an expectation of government patronage.

The new elite consider university education abroad to be superior.

Expert knowledge obtained at foreign universities forms part of new practices that create both uniformity and competition among the new and the old elites. New hierarchical divisions are emerging between the well-to-do members of the old and new elites who are able to afford education abroad and an impoverished majority. The old elite has abandoned religious studies for career purposes; their tradition of scholarship predisposes them to obtain scholarships abroad and to succeed in their careers.

The political dimension of conflicts about knowledge is most apparent in the sphere of law and the dual higher education system that has emerged since the 1970s. During the Imamate, jurisprudence was the bastion of the well-trained elite. After the revolution, men who studied secular law in countries such as Egypt competed with and often replaced Shariah-trained judges, challenging their monopoly over the judiciary. Both these groups of legal experts have a common enemy: Neo-Salafi Islamists, who aided the government in defeating socialism, have since the late 1970s aspired to eliminate secular (and Shii) elements from the judiciary and the education system. New religious teaching institutions (al-Maahid al-Ilmiyyah) that enjoy Saudi sponsorship and the patronage of powerful politicians, among them the leader of the Islah party and speaker of Parliament, Shaykh Abdullah al-Ahmar, have not yet been brought under government control. As a response to Islamist agitation, the religious content of the government-sponsored curricula has been reinforced. Students’ acquisition of different models of history at the various institutions raises questions about the role of education in the production of a unified nation-state. The university’s role in the democratization process has been called into question with the growing influence of the Islamists.

In conclusion, since the early 20th century there has been a marked trend toward centralization and greater control of education, a process which accompanied by changes in the organization and perceptions of knowledge. The struggle during the Imamate over these issues has continued in the republic in different guises. The Yemeni nationalist project is subject to many different claims and appeals that are based on diverse sources of knowledge.

Note

Higher Education in Egypt: The Realpolitik of Privatization

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By the academic year 1999–2000, about 1.5 million students were attending Egypt’s 12 state universities and their 7 branches. To this number, one has to add the newcomers—that is, 4 private universities attended by about 6,000 students. In spite of these small figures, private universities have rapidly acquired a major political significance as the most striking and controversial aspect of the privatization of higher education.

Forms of Privatization

In recent years, state universities have introduced foreign-language programs. These programs, for which tuition is charged, allow students originally from private foreign-language schools to follow a curriculum partly in English or French. This ensures a higher-quality education, and better job prospects for those individuals already endowed with economic and cultural capital. Furthermore, some private schools are authorized to award diplomas from foreign secondary schools. Their students are thus able to avoid the nightmare of the Thanawiyya ‘Amma (nationwide final secondary school examination), which simplifies access to university.

The ongoing debate over the new universities law, which is still under discussion, may illustrate the shifting equilibrium between state responsibilities and privatization that characterizes the current situation. The new law is supposed to replace the 1972 universities law and provide unified legislation for all the sectors of higher education: state and private universities, al-Azhar University, and higher institutes. Supporters of private higher education perceive this coming law as a way for the state to control private initiatives, while it is seen by public education supporters as a way to normalize and legitimize private higher education by including it within the larger body of na-
tional education. In the Egyptian case, both perspectives seem valid.

Historically, private schools have emerged as part of this national education system and hence as legitimate alternatives that are needed in order to create a qualified national elite. At present, with the exception of the American University of Cairo, all private higher education institutions are seen as a way to sell degrees to those who can afford them. In January 1999, private universities, especially those in the medical specialties, won a legal battle against the Physicians’ Syndicate (Naqabat al-Atibba’), which had claimed that only graduates of a state university should be authorized to practice medicine. There are 18 private universities still waiting for official authorization, among them French and German collaborations. New categories are emerging that will distinguish between private institutions and branches of foreign universities. The latter are often presented as a “national threat,” but their founders argue that they will be totally Egyptian universities, as most of their sponsors and shareholders are Egyptian.

At present, with the exception of the American University of Cairo, all private higher education institutions are seen as a way to sell degrees to those who can afford them.

The fact that education reproduces existing social inequalities is in itself not a new discovery. Studies on the social class and educational backgrounds of state university students have shown that in spite of the fact that higher education is free, most students in high-status faculties attended prestigious private secondary schools. This is because graduates of such schools generally do very well on their final secondary exams, which ensures access to what are considered the elite faculties. What does seem new is the institutionalization of privatized higher education and the fact that arguments about equity are often rejected as belonging to the past. However, the so-called “rationalization of free education” will not take place immediately or rapidly. State involvement in education is no longer a means of promoting social goals but rather of dealing with current constraints. In the official discourse, education is part of “national defense.” Along with internal security, external defense, and protection of private property, privatization fits in with the concept of the minimal state. Increasingly, concerns about the quality and standards of learning provided by mass higher education seem to be disconnected from those about equity, as if these competing goals involved different social groups. According to some, higher education no longer has to address social expectations or the quest for knowledge, but rather the job market. The variable that is supposed to adapt is higher education, rather than the job market, which is a “given.” Here too, an “invisible hand” adjusts development goals to the market—a market which is no longer national but globalized.

Studies on the social class and educational backgrounds of state university students have shown that in spite of the fact that higher education is free, most students in high-status faculties attended prestigious private secondary schools.

Realpolitik and Expectations

The whole question of private higher education should be considered in relation to the issue of unemployment. University degree holders are not the ones who suffer the most from unemployment, but their expectations carry significant political weight. It seems that the more educated a group is the more legitimate its expectations are perceived as being. Within the context of the overall decline of the middle classes, which are basically characterized by the attainment of knowledge, some people may argue that higher education is losing part of its “comparative advantage” and that investing in higher education is no longer relevant or productive with regard to salaries, working conditions, career opportunities, and social status. However, such an “objective” approach overlooks the fact that people’s expectations are not necessarily the same as those of the decision makers, the latter usually being highly educated individuals. Higher education continues to be part of individual and group hopes and dreams, which cannot be reduced to material wealth but also have to do with equality and dignity.

In early 1999, a high-level committee was set up to focus on the development of higher education. The committee is made up of subcommittees responsible for structural developments and diversity, performance assessment, higher education systems, graduate studies, economics and finance, and social needs and education. One may wonder if this new committee’s approach to higher education will be sensitive to the expectations of those who do not yet have access to it.
Higher Education, Resistance, and State Building in Palestine

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The extension of the higher education “franchise” to significant numbers of young people with modest means and from underprivileged strata since the mid-1970s has had far-reaching social and political consequences for Palestinian society. This brief article will investigate how Palestinian institutions of higher education—primarily the four universities in the West Bank and Gaza Strip—were implicated in the formation of an influential and hegemonic generation of activist intellectuals in the crucial two decades preceding the establishment of the Palestinian Authority. It will also discuss this generation’s fortunes under the current social and political regime in Palestine.

It is appropriate to locate the widening of opportunities for higher education in the mid-1970s within the general trajectory taken by the Palestinian national movement during the same period. It may be noted briefly that changes in the strategic thinking of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) after 1974 identified the Occupied Territories as the site of the future Palestinian state and the main arena for the struggle for its realization. Thus, the establishment of an infrastructure of national institutions as well as a network of political parties and front organizations to promote the struggle can be viewed as the cornerstones of the Palestinian state-building strategy. The few institutions of higher education existing in the Occupied Territories were thus “nationalized,” and their rapid expansion after the mid-1970s was supported by funds channeled by the PLO into the Occupied Territories.

Wide sectors of society took advantage of this unprecedented availability of highly subsidized “mass” university education, and enrollment in local institutions of higher education rose dramatically during the 1970s and 1980s. Although the PLO and some political parties were instrumental in providing university education in the Arab world and abroad (mainly through scholarships offered by some Arab and then-socialist countries), the bulk of university graduates in the Occupied Territories after the 1970s have been the products of the local educational system.

Palestinian universities during the latter part of the 1970s and throughout the 1980s were the prime site for the formation of a cadre of political activists.

The activist student elite we refer to here is largely of peasant, refugee, or middle-to-poor urban origins. During the late 1970s and the crucial decade of the 1980s, these young men (and a very few women) constituted the leadership of the student movement and acquired unprecedented influence in a highly politicized environment that valorized activism and commitment to the national struggle. Most, if not all, of these young men had been
imprisoned for varying periods of time and thus rose to leadership positions within their respective political organizations (of which the student groups at the universities may be considered front organizations). By the end of the 1980s, many of the top-ranking leaders of the popular uprising were individuals who had been student activists at Palestinian universities.

The far-reaching political and social transformations put in motion by the establishment of the first Palestinian authority on Palestinian territory in 1994 have had different implications for the political elite under discussion. While the fortunes of one of its components have risen considerably, the fate of the others is not as immediately obvious.

Higher education has been perceived as, and has actually been, an avenue of social mobility for sons and daughters of peasants, refugees, and the urban middle and lower classes in Palestinian society.

One of the notable features of the Palestinian political system today is its virtual control by the “ruling party,” the Fatah movement. For the generation of Fatah student leaders formed in the critical two decades preceding the establishment of the Palestinian Authority, this has meant enhanced influence and social advancement within the ranks of the “state” bureaucracy in formation. Middle-level (and a few high-level and high-profile) posts in Palestinian National Authority institutions are staffed by former student activists of the Fatah movement; their placement in the various security apparatuses is also a striking feature of the current political landscape.

Former leaders of the left student organizations have had a different experience. Faced with the erosion of a sizable portion of their organizations’ popular social base, they have pursued two principal avenues for employment and advancement. One has been employment within the expanding public sector, which has been viewed by some observers as a process of co-optation—an effort by the ruling party to neutralize a potential opposition. The other avenue pursued by the more resourceful has been in the growing body of nongovernmental organizations, in which many have found employment opportunities and some leadership positions. It remains to be seen whether these frustrated political careers will find new outlets under the new regime in the form of new parties, or in rejuvenated PLO factions turned opposition parties.

The University Education of Syrian Engineers

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This article examines instruction and learning at the university-level in Syria pertaining to the training of civil engineers. The material presented is drawn from data collected in the early 1990s in the course of research for my doctoral dissertation.

French and Syrian Curricula

The above study compared the training of civil engineers in Syria and in France in two institutional settings—Damascus University and the ENSAIS (Ecole nationale supérieure des arts et industries de Strasbourg). The data reported below relate to Damascus University. It is striking that while curricula are similar in both institutions (with the exception of computer sciences and law and, to a certain extent, the technology of construction), instructional methods differ in two major respects:

- The instruction is based on theoretical training. It is characterized by the virtual absence of vocational or technical education. Appropriate laboratory facilities are either unavailable or underutilized. The university does not maintain ties with either the public or private sector. As a result, students do not have opportunities for practical training.
- Some 85 percent of the lecturers did not assign their students any readings from the professional literature and confined their teaching to the lecture format. Only a minority of them encouraged students to look at issues outside the classroom. This state of affairs is largely a consequence of policies of Arabization and problems related to the inadequate availability of Arabic textbooks.

Politics of Arabization

University textbooks are often translated into Arabic without any mention of the original source and without any bibliographical references. In fact, producing textbooks for the university is part of the extensive policies of Arabization. Although Syria often boasts at regional and Arabic conferences of its capacity to provide “Arabized” sciences, in engineering the science produced shows mixed results at best and in some cases disastrous outcomes.

Arabization aims to make knowledge accessible to all strata of the population, not just to small a “colonial” elite.
Nevertheless, in the case of engineering education, Arabization policies produce professionals handicapped by the scarcity of translated books. Further, engineers experience great difficulty in remaining professionally up-to-date. As a result, the Arabization of the sciences, while promoting an agenda of “decolonization,” paradoxically reinforces Syria’s dependence on the former colonial countries in terms of the engineering sciences and technological know-how. This problem may go unsolved given the limited financial resources of scientific institutions in Syria and in the Arab world in general.

Arabization policies are not specific to Syria. Yet, the paradigm behind the politics of Arabization in such countries as Syria and Algeria is the substitution of foreign languages (French, English) with Arabic. By contrast, the Tunisian experience is somewhat different as the state imposes Arabic only on certain parts of the curriculum. At the same time, Tunisian students must be proficient in French, and sometimes even in English, to remain current with foreign sources and textbooks. Syrian university officials perceive such policies to be rather “schizophrenic” in their effects.

Conclusion

Finally, I am aware that instructional methods in Syrian universities cannot be separated from other general higher education issues—such as, material and financial capabilities, admissions policies, and the imbalance between the huge number of students in a “mass” public system and the small number of faculty. Furthermore, university and faculty libraries are poorly endowed, and there are always difficulties in obtaining foreign publications. This article has attempted to cover problems not directly related to financial capabilities but rather to the underlying educational philosophy in Syrian higher education.

Crossing the Distance: The Open University in the Arab States

André Elias Mazawi

The concept of an open university and, by implication, that of distance learning remains a widely discussed issue across the Arab states, although open universities are still limited to a very small number of institutions or programs. Institutional, economic, logistic, and political issues are at stake—factors that impede the dissemination of distance higher education in the Arab states. Questions pertaining to inter-Arab relations have also affected the feasibility of such a project. Several attempts to establish open universities have been made since the 1980s. One of these was for the establishment of an Open University for the Gulf States. Other initiatives were undertaken by the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization, as well as by Spain and Morocco in the mid-1980s. More recently, a proposal to establish an Arab Satellite University of Science and Technology was submitted to UNESCO by the U.S.-based National Technological University.

The first full-scale open university to operate remains Al-Quds Open University (QOU), a Palestinian institution opened in Jerusalem in the latter half of 1991. Contacts for its establishment were undertaken between UNESCO and the PLO as early as the mid-1970s, and its first television and radio programs were launched in the mid-1980s. QOU’s offices in Amman function as a liaison office coordinating educational matters with the Jerusalem headquarters. The institution extends its services to seven “educational regions”—namely, Jerusalem, Nablus, Ramallah, Bethlehem, Hebron, Gaza, and Jericho. It also operates two study centers, in Tulkarm and Jenin. Based on a credit-hour system, the university grants the equivalent of a B.A. and B.Sc. in a wide array of specializations in the humanities, social sciences, sciences, and educational technology. Quite recently, QOU obtained recognition from the Association of Arab Universities (AArU), becoming the first such higher education institution to join the association.

Calls in favor of establishing an open university for the Arab states continue to be made. It is widely held that an Arab open university would foster cooperation in the field of higher education as countries in the region work to develop their higher educational systems in response to current challenges. Such an institution would also, it is said, provide access to higher education in the region without discrimination based on nationality or gender. Arab officials appear to echo such calls when they stress the need for new alternatives for bringing about the reform and diversification of higher education.

Marginalized Groups

Women across the Arab states are the largest group directly affected by the dissemination of distance education opportunities—particularly in the Arabian Peninsula and the Maghrib. In Saudi Arabia, for instance, an open university was pointed to as a way to accommodate increased access for women and respect for Islamic customs regarding
The open university has become a viable opportunity for Palestinians, too. QOU has enabled several thousand Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza Strip (and, to a lesser extent, within Israel), who do not otherwise have access to higher education, to undertake higher education studies and thus qualify for a wider spectrum of occupational opportunities. Moreover, some Palestinian and Arab security prisoners held in Israeli prisons, especially those sentenced for longer periods of confinement, see open university studies as a viable opportunity. Attempts by QOU to introduce its curricula to this group have reportedly met with difficulties. Some inmates have consequently enrolled in the Israeli Open University, where studies and materials are in Hebrew.

Increasingly, open university programs from outside the Arab states are also directing themselves toward other locally marginalized groups. For instance, in 1997, India's Indira Gandhi National Open University began offering courses abroad for the first time—in Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, and the UAE—in response to the growing demand for higher education opportunities, particularly among Indian expatriate workers in the Gulf states.

**Crossing the Distance**

Efforts to extend alternative higher education opportunities to marginalized groups and isolated communities in the Arab states remain quite modest. The dual approach to distance education, whereby a university offers outreach courses in addition to its regular curriculum, has yet to be instituted.

Some have argued that for open university programs of study to succeed, as legitimate venues of mobility they should be launched through regionalized schemes, rather than through a centralized (pan-Arab) institution. Nevertheless, expanding open university programs would most probably speed up the process of knowledge commodification, which is already under way as part of the privatization of higher education in several Arab states (e.g., through the opening of foreign-university affiliates). As knowledge becomes increasingly transferable across distances, its commodification for marketization purposes will be affected by competition.

**Key Public Policy Issues in the United States**

**Arthur M. Hauptman**

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Since 1994, the Association of Governing Boards, an American organization representing boards of trustees of colleges and universities, has published a series of volumes that identify the leading public policy issues affecting higher education in the United States. The 1999–2000 edition in this series was recently published and, as the following list indicates, the top 10 issues in the current biennium have much relevance to trends and conditions in international higher education.

1. **Teacher Preparation**

Teacher supply and quality issues are at the top of the education agenda in the United States as in many other countries. In the United States, the issue of teacher supply is linked to the daunting demographics as growing numbers of children outstrip the ability of local school districts to educate them. The teacher shortage is exacerbated by doubts about the ability of higher education institutions to produce qualified teachers. One expressions of these concerns is recent federal legislation requiring universities to publish the pass rates on state teacher competency tests for their recent graduates.

2. **Affordability vs. Access**

Although the United States continues to have the highest participation rates in higher education in the world, the gap between rates for rich and poor students has not narrowed over time. Amid rising concerns about whether the most economically disadvantaged students will be able to afford postsecondary education, many states and the fed-
eral government are redirecting funds up the income scale by awarding aid on the basis of merit rather than need, creating prepaid tuition and savings plans rather than providing need-based student aid, and creating tuition tax credits to address middle-class fears about college unaffordability.

3. Cost and Price of Higher Education
For the past two decades, student charges in the United States have been increasing at more than twice the rate of inflation at both public and private institutions. This trend has made college costs a highly visible public policy issue as legislators at both the federal and state levels have reflected constituent worries about the future affordability of higher education. Indeed, Congress has created a national commission to investigate the increase in college costs and prices. The commission’s 1998 final report argued that it was important for the public and policymakers to understand the difference between college costs and prices. However, the report also warned that the failure of institutions to become more transparent in their accounting might result in federal cost controls.

4. Implementation of Federal Legislation
Higher education became a focus of attention in recent congressional sessions as major legislation was enacted, including creation of tuition tax credits and renewal of the Higher Education Act authorizing federal student aid programs as well as categorical (targeted) funding programs. Emphasis will now shift to implementing this legislation: including establishing procedures for students and their families to claim tax credits for their education expenses and revising federal student aid programs. In addition, the legislation contained several important new initiatives for early intervention, distance education, and teacher training for which rules and regulations must be issued.

5. Federal Support for University Research
The federal government is a major funder of basic and applied research conducted on campuses in the United States.

6. Diversity in Admissions
Affirmative action has been the most prominent public policy for promoting greater ethnic and racial diversity in American higher education as well as in employment, housing, and other policy areas. But as a result of a series of court decisions and state referenda, public and private institutions face serious challenges in using race or ethnicity as factors in the process for selecting students and hiring staff. Defenders of affirmative action are assembling evidence and developing alternative approaches to preserve their ability to use race and ethnicity in admissions, aid, hiring, and promotion decisions.

7. Information Technology and New Competition
As is true around the world, information technology and distance learning in the United States would make possible expanding access without the expense of constructing facilities. But the potential is far from being fulfilled in the United States and elsewhere as a number of obstacles remain. In the United States, recent federal legislation provides seed money for distance learning partnerships and allows demonstration projects to address whether and how distance learners should be eligible for the student aid. In the states, distance learning is where the tension between nonprofit and for-profit higher education is most intense, although for-profit providers remain less prominent in the United States than in many other countries.

8. Economic and Financial Trends
Many countries have struggled economically in recent years, but for most of the 1990s the robust U.S. economy has produced prosperity for many of America’s colleges and universities. Public and private institutions alike have seen their revenues from federal and state governments grow, and a booming stock market has inflated the value of their endowments. Few states or institutions, however, seem pre-
pared or positioned for the next recession and its consequences, with the inevitable cutbacks in staff and budgets and the rapid increases in tuition fees at public institutions that typically occur during recessions as states reduce on their funding of institutions.

**distance learning is where the tension between nonprofit and for-profit higher education is most intense**

9. Creating a Sustainable Society and Future
Interest in creating more sustainable communities has grown in the United States just as it has in many countries. It seems likely that American higher education institutions will be asked to provide greater leadership in quality-of-life, natural resource, and environmental issues through the research that is conducted on campus and in the way that institutions operate. A difficult problem remains the disposal of hazardous materials, which has been a bone of contention on many campuses. A number of institutions are seeking to address these and other difficult environmental issues through the formation of consortia.

10. Rethinking Public Higher Education Systems
Large systems of public higher education are the most typical higher education governance structure in most countries. While they represent a smaller share of all enrollments in the United States, large public systems face obvious challenges as institutional officials and public policymakers wrangle over how to encourage efficiency, productivity, and accountability while keeping costs reasonable. At the City University of New York, the third-largest system in the United States, for example, these challenges have resulted in a major debate over admissions standards and the role of remediation.

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**Economic Crisis and Privatization in Thai Universities**

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During the economic crisis of the past two years, privatization has become a major concern for Thailand’s public universities. Under the new education reform law and the provisions of a $1 billion loan for social restructuring from the Asian Development Bank, the Thai government wants all 23 state universities to break away from bureaucratic control by the year 2002. At latest report, 7 state-run universities have become independent entities, mostly within the last year. The rest are at various stages in working on their own draft bills for autonomy.

**Controversy at Chulalongkorn**

In late September, Thienchai Keeranant, an early proponent of the movement and rector of prestigious Chulalongkorn University, threatened to withdraw the draft autonomy bill already presented to the government. He cited as the reason faculty fears over future government support once the university was no longer a part of the state bureaucracy. The rector of Kasetsart University, Theera Sutabutra, spoke in the same vein—announcing his institution’s readiness to leave the state bureaucratic system as soon as government assurances for future benefits and subsidies were in place.

**University autonomy remains a controversial issue.**

In response to all the criticism, Abhisit Vejjajiva, a minister in the prime minister’s office, pointed to the government’s burden in providing free education for all students in the first 12 years of basic education by the year 2002. Only after this project was fully implemented could
the government divert the fund for education loans to university students. Meanwhile, it was each university’s responsibility to fix tuition fees that would not be out of reach. By the end of October, however, Mr. Abhisit was assuring state universities of adequate operational budgets, no cuts in subsidies, and a 50 percent increase for salaries of university personnel.

**Without a larger government fund for education loans to ease the burden of higher tuition fees, tertiary education would inevitably become unavailable to needy students.**

In fact, the project for free basic education is crucial. According to a United Nations development report, only 44.7 percent of school-age Thais entered secondary school in 1999, compared with 54.2 percent in Burma, 55.9 percent in Mongolia, and 59.2 percent in Zimbabwe. In 1998, the number of young Thais enrolling in schools fell sharply below 1997 levels. The economic crisis has created over a million jobless in the past two years, and their children have often had to leave school to help their cash-strapped families.

Chulalongkorn did not withdraw its draft bill and on November 16 the cabinet approved granting the university autonomy. Even so, opponents on campus did not let up. They called on administrators to hear their objections and review the plan. Political science professor Ji Ungphakorn’s response was to say, “I don’t see any good in it. Privatization will leave the university under market forces, sparking money-worship and treating education as a mere commodity.”

**Questions and Fears**

One positive result of the movement toward autonomy has been the increasing desire of lecturers to learn more about teamwork and quality assurance. Workshops that focus on teaching and learning are helping the process along. Inviting lecturers to participate in preparing a university’s draft bill also helps. Ramkhamhaeng University, for example, has asked all its lecturers to describe the requirements for assistant professors and actual performance to date.

Yet there is also a generalized sense of insecurity and mistrust of what university authorities will do when freed from central control. These fears include the loss of civil service benefits like tenure until the age of 60, automatic promotions, and royal decorations. The types of evaluations to be used are a major concern. Under the new system, each person must make his or her value evident to the university. Lecturers, unsure that the new system will be fair enough, naturally feel the need for reassurances because many issues remain unclear.

Administrators like Dr. Amporn A. Srisermbhok of Srinakharinwirot University and Dr. Rapin Tongra-ar of Ramkhamhaeng University have assured their staff that they will have no problems under the new system as long as they conscientiously fulfill their duties. Dr. Amporn, for one, believes that staff will readily accept changes if the government, the Ministry of University Affairs, and the university’s central administration present them with a clear vision and unambiguous policies. Top management must be seen as qualified, trustworthy, and supportive.

Clearly, university autonomy remains a controversial issue. In an effort to reduce public expenditures, increase efficiency, and improve services, the program to privatize state enterprises has been under way in Thailand for years. Generally speaking, the move was more acceptable before it was linked to conditions of the World Bank, the International monetary Fund, or the Asian Development Bank. Some charge that acceding to these conditions will lead to a national sellout. Others argue that pressure from these international funding agencies gives the universities an excellent opportunity to accomplish what they could not do earlier. At the very least, they now have a convenient scapegoat if things go wrong.

**Likely Outcomes**

Ready or not, change will come. On schedule or not, public universities will gain greater autonomy. Administrators expect the entire process to take at least 10 years. University personnel are more informed and more alert to needed changes now than two years ago. Greater openness of central administration to the voices of doubt and opposition will promote the changes required in organization and infrastructure. University rectors strong in management skills will be crucial to a successful transition.

Observers express optimism that the system of quality assurance growing out of the move to autonomy will improve the general state of affairs. There will be less absenteeism, and people will work harder. Student numbers will not go down, and the changes being instituted in public universities will not exclude the poor from higher education. The move to autonomy in Thailand’s public universities reflects global experience.
News of the Center and the Program in Higher Education

Admissions for 2000-2001
The Program in Higher Education at Boston College welcomes applications for master’s and doctoral level study in higher education. The deadline for applications for the 2000-2001 academic year is February 1, 2000. Boston College has offered graduate study in higher education for 30 years. Specializations in international higher education, student affairs, and academic administration are offered. Graduates of the program can be found in responsible professional positions worldwide, including university presidencies, research jobs, professorships in higher education, and a variety of administrative posts. There is financial assistance available to qualified students, mainly at the doctoral level. The program is linked both to the Center for International Higher Education and to the innovative Administrative Fellows Program. Please contact the program director, Professor Karen Arnold (e-mail: arnoldkc@bc.edu) for further information.

The Monan Symposium
The higher education program and the Monan Chair in Higher Education are sponsoring the first “Monan Symposium in Higher Education” during the spring 2000 semester. The Monan Symposium will feature eight prominent speakers on key higher education topics. The sessions will held in the morning so that busy professionals can attend, and will offer an opportunity for informal discussion as well as stimulating analysis. The Boston-area higher education community is invited to these sessions.

Religion and Higher Education Initiative
An exciting new initiative concerning religion and higher education is being planned at Boston College. Under the leadership of Professor Kathleen Mahoney, a special curricular theme in the higher education program will focus on issues relating to religion and higher education. In addition, summer institutes are planned for administrators and others working in Catholic higher education.

Center Related Publications
Greenwood Publishing Co. announces the publication of Private Prometheus: Private Higher Education and Development in the 21st Century, edited by Philip G. Altbach. This volume stems from a conference on private higher education held at Boston College in 1998. Chapters dealing with several Latin American countries, Southeast Asia, and with broader issues of accreditation and the responsibilities of private universities are included. Copies may be ordered from Greenwood Publishing, 88 Post Road West, Westport, CT 06881, USA. Limited numbers of a paperback edition are available from the Center for International Higher Education without cost to readers in developing countries. This book is also being translated in Spanish with the cooperation of FLACSO, the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences in Buenos Aires, Argentina, and will be available in Latin America in mid-2000.

Comparative Higher Education: Knowledge, the University and Development, by Philip G. Altbach, published in 1998 is available in a paperback edition for U.S.$30 postpaid from the Comparative Education Research Centre, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Rd., Hong Kong. Limited numbers of complimentary copies are available from the Center for International Higher Education to readers in developing countries. This book will be published in a Chinese-language edition in 2000 by the Peoples Education Press, Beijing, China.


New Publications


This encyclopedia, available only in a CD-ROM edition, includes updated versions of the two major Elsevier education encyclopedias—a 4-volume set dealing with higher education and a 10-volume general education encyclopedia. Thorough cross-indexing permits easy access to material. This is no doubt the most complete set of references materials on education available anywhere, although one wonders how many libraries will be able to afford the investment.


A comprehensive historical and contemporary analysis of the testing movement in American higher education, with a focus on the Educational Testing Service, this volume argues that the egalitarian hopes of the originators of the testing movement did not succeed as the tests became more entrenched as a means of influencing entry to the nation’s most selective universities and colleges.


Perhaps the most thorough overall analysis of Chinese higher education currently available, this volume discusses the culture and context of Chinese universities over the past century.


This volume includes a general discussion of quality assurance issues in an international context, and case studies of specific institutions. The focus of the study is on the International Quality Review Process (IQR), an effort to harmonize issues relating to quality assurance among academic institutions in different countries.


Using two departments at Stanford University as case studies, historian Cuban discusses the conflict between teaching and research in American higher education over the past century. He argues that despite efforts at reform, research retains its primacy.


Looking at how universities adapt to change from the perspective of theories of organization, this volume consists of case studies (New York University, the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Michigan, Università Boccini, Universität St. Gallen, and the Wirtschaftsuniversität Wein) that examine how specific universities in the United States and Europe have adapted to change.


This collection of essays deals broadly with a range of topics including curriculum, governance, the role of knowledge and research, and technology.


This comprehensive study examines the experience of studying at English universities in the Middle Ages. The focus is on students—learning, the university experience, undergraduates, and graduates. Attention is also given to the teaching staff and the administration of the university.

The focus of this book is how universities can be engaged with their communities in terms of community service, relevant teaching, and other aspects. The book argues that academic institutions must relate to and provide benefits to their surrounding communities. The book deals with the United States.


Father Buckley argues that academic and religious concerns are appropriately intertwined, especially in the context of the Catholic college and university. He also points out the necessity of academic freedom and the importance of linking higher education with social justice in Catholic higher education. In the current debate about the changing role of Catholic universities and the role of the Vatican and church authorities, this volume will be especially useful.


Intended as a guidebook for new faculty members in the United States, this volume provides a useful discussion of some of the central issues affecting the professoriate—including, among other topics, stress and academic life, teaching issues, and the role of the disciplines.


The world is changing and so is the structure of the university. Both are becoming more complex. The focus of this volume is on analyzing the nature of this complexity and providing new ways of thinking about it. Such topics as the role of the faculty, the management of research, teaching issues, and others are discussed.


This book consists of a series of reflections by international students studying in the United States. Students from China, India, Bulgaria, Pakistan, South Africa and elsewhere reflect on their experiences, both academic and personal.


This series of essays, including several case studies, discusses the role of universities in the economic life of their communities and the broader economic environment, including the role of research, universities and small and medium-size enterprises, and others.


A thoughtful and wide-ranging discussion of the many issues relating to accountability, this volume highlights such themes as the role of academic freedom in accountability, the role of peer review, procedures for accountability, and related topics. The author, a historian and theologian at Cambridge University, has a unique perspective on this topic.


A practical guide to assessment, this book covers a variety of disciplines and approaches to this important topic. Authors come mainly from the United Kingdom, but there are chapters that focus on the United States, Australia, and New Zealand. Models such as portfolios, skills assessment, etc. are considered.


Based on a nine year study of high school students in Indiana, USA, this study provides a detailed analysis of how and why students make educational and career choices after secondary education. The authors use case studies to illustrate the analysis.
The Skewed Revolution: Trends in South African Higher Education, David Cooper and George Subotzky. Cape Town, South Africa: Educational Policy Unit, University of the Western Cape, 1999. 220 pp. R149. Address: Educational Policy Unit, University of the Western Cape,

A discussion of trends in South African higher education, including an analysis of the increases in numbers of African students and drops in enrollments among white male students, problems faced by the different categories of postsecondary institutions, etc. Current statistics are analyzed.


A New Initiative in International Higher Education

Introduction

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

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

Programs and Resources

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

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

The Program in Higher Education

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

Now in its 14th year of publication, this valuable annual compilation of research-based studies on key areas of higher education provides a useful overview of current trends in research in the United States. Among the topics considered in this volume are costs and productivity in higher education, restructuring, organizational change in community colleges, sexual abuse in higher education, the global emergence of women’s studies, and others.