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SPECIAL THEME

KNOWLEDGE GENERATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

NEW CHALLENGES FOR NORTH-SOUTH
INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

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EDITORIAL

by Kenneth King

This issue is the third that NORRAG NEWS has dedicated entirely to higher education. The first was when we heard that the World Bank was setting out to develop a Higher Education policy paper in 1991 (NN11). The second was in 1994, at the time of the publication of the World Bank's *Higher Education: the lessons of experience* (NN 16). And now this, published - just in time - a couple of days before the commencement of the World Conference on Higher Education (5-9 October 1998) in Paris.

In addition, NORRAG has published a critical monograph on higher education and the World Bank, entitled: *Learning from experience: policy and practice in aid to higher education* (in 1995). This went rapidly out of print, but it has been specially reprinted for the NORRAG Conference which is taking place one day before the World Conference on Higher Education.

The present issue - NN23 - draws together some 30 contributions - mostly from NORRAG members -on various crucial aspects of higher education.

When we approached contributors, we had not yet seen the first draft of the World *Declaration* or the *Framework.* But our guess was that it would be enormously difficult to capture the major issues relating to higher education, especially higher education in the poorer countries, in a Document that had to speak for higher education in the world as a whole.

As NORRAG, with our continuing interest in North-South relations, there were several things which we identified as changing in the very recent period:

1. We wondered about the tendency for research to be located outside the higher education system, and we therefore asked Michael Gibbons to remind us of what was happening here. Especially the implications for the weaker countries of the world.

2. We were intrigued by whether the donor mechanisms for twinning, linkages and for N-S cooperation, in general, could stand out against another set of pervasive pressures for international competition rather than cooperation.

3. We thought it likely that the dimension hardest for the World Conference to handle would be the quality of life in developing country universities. We therefore asked a number of colleagues to comment on this.

The **summer of 1998 has coincided with a switch in the funding of NORRAG NEWS from** Swedish Sida (which has supported us since 1985) to the UK's Department for International Development (DFID). We are very grateful for this support, and we would want our readership to know that a little later this year there will be available an Education Policy Paper from DFID - the first since the publication of the DFID White Paper, *Eliminatin World Poverty* (1997).

Edinburgh 1998

Due to the Centre of African Studies moving premises at the very time of producing this issue, it has not been possible to collate meetings' information. Please note our new address given on the cover page.

A GLANCE AT THE WORLD CONFERENCE "VISION" OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Kenneth King, Centre of African Studies, University of Edinburgh

The World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-First Century: Vision and Action (WDHE) is a pretty surprising document. Admittedly the comments which follow are related to the second preliminary version of the Declaration of August 1998 (ED-98/CONF.202/6 Prov.Rev)), and there will since have been a further revision of this for the Conference itself. We know that the revised edition will have taken account of some of the many comments that have been made on this Draft, though it will have been problematic to alter the structure of the Articles very substantially. There is an accompanying document *Framework for priority action for change and development of higher education* which is the mechanism to be adopted for translating the Declaration into action. (The preliminary versions of these two papers are reproduced in this issue of Norrag News).

Flavour of the *Declaration* and the *Framework* The character of the *Declaration* and the *Framework is* baffling. These are calling for 'the most radical change and renewal' that higher education 'has ever been required to make'. And yet there is virtually no data and no evidence adduced to support the case for change. It may be unfair to compare this World Declaration with the World Declaration on Education for All (WDEFA 1990), but within the first 20 lines of that earlier document's Preamble, the quantitative dimension of the challenge had been established. Everyone knew that the figures offered in 1990 were simply best guesses, but they were, and have remained, very influential: 1 can still remember them even without going back to the text:

100 million children - most of them girls - with no access to schools;

960 million adults - of whom two thirds are women - illiterate;

100 million children failing to complete school, and many more completing but learning little or nothing (WDEFA 1990: preamble).

By contrast, the WDHE makes assertions about a whole raft of things, but doesn't tie them down. The challenges and difficulties cover everything from finance to relevance, and from quality to the employability of graduates. But it is difficult to get a handle on any of them. We shall try, in a very few paragraphs, to communicate something of the frustration caused by this approach.

Expansion - a good thing or not*?'? The Preamble of the 1998 *Declaration* underlines the 'unprecedented demand' for higher education, and refers to higher education's 'most spectacular expansion' between 1960 and 1995. In one of the only figures in the WDHE, there were said to be 82 million enrolled in 1995 in higher education world-wide. But no use is made of the figure, even in a very general way, to point to the extent of post-secondary enrolments in different countries or regions. It would have been relatively easy to have underlined the proportions of the particular age group with access to higher education in, say, North America or Japan as opposed to Africa. But to do so, it would have been necessary to have had a point of view about expansion. Which the *Declaration* doesn't seem to have. Or rather, it has such a general view about expansion that it can have little or no policy influence. For instance in the *Framework for Priority Action for Change and Development of Higher Education,* it says that 'each state in which enrolment in higher education is low by comparative international standards should establish plans for expanding access'. What on earth does 'low by comparative international standards' mean? Is there a comparative international standard of access that covers Japan, Russia, China, North and Latin

America, and Western Europe, to pick just a few areas? This failure to give any reasoned sense of scale or magnitude or target for this expansion is even greater when we turn to the next issue.

The gap between the industrially developed and the developing countries   This is noted early on in the Preamble as being a major problem, but there is not even the barest quantitative indicator provided to illustrate the gap. Clearly a *Declaration* cannot contain any more than the most essential data, but it would have been possible, in half a sentence or so, to have pointed, for example, to the minute proportion of research published in 'recognised' journals that derives from the developing world. Or the document could, in another few words, have captured the sheer scale on which highly trained developing country academics are working in the research and training systems of the industrialised world. It is not enough to talk about taking 'concrete steps... to reduce the widening gap' or paying attention to ' removing the grave inequalities' in access to information and communication technologies, if there has been no attempt to indicate the extent of these North-South differences, or to analyse why they are widening.

International co-operation and the trade-offs amongst levels of education   In the tradition of some World Conference style documents, there is a section of the Preamble that reminds us of the relevant recommendations of earlier international commissions and world conferences. In this listing of apparently supportive events (or "texts") from Rio, to Beijing, and from Copenhagen to Hamburg, mention is made of Jomtien and the World Conference on Education for All. What is not mentioned is of course that there is a real sense in which the recommendations of Jorntien have been directly inimical to external agency support for higher education. In several agencies, including the British ODA (now DFID), Jomtien was quite explicitly used to argue for a re-emphasis, if not a redistribution, of funding from higher education towards basic:

The World Conference on Education for all in 1990 helped to set the agenda for education for the decade. It focused attention on the inequalities of provision in many countries and established the general thrust towards

 improving access to basic education ....(ODA 1994: 6).

Such has been the influence of Jorritien that in some agencies a case has had to be specifically constructed in order to demonstrate how higher education can directly support basic education e.g. via good quality teacher education etc. etc (See Sanyal in this issue; also King, 1998).

But international cooperation is not just about the trade offs between higher and basic education in agency budgets. It also directly relates to those several schemes for encouraging North-South academic cooperation or linkages. Here the World Conference documentation is distinctly hazy. There is for instance a plea in the *Framework* for intergovernmental organisations, donor agencies and NGOs 'to develop inter-university co-operation projects through twinning institutions, **based on solidarity,** as a means to bridging the gap between rich and poor countries' *(Framework 4,* emphasis added). But there is really no recognition given to the new global dynamics which are now affecting the older 'co-operation agenda'. Northern academics and their institutions are now increasingly required to demonstrate value for money in any international activity, and they are particularly under pressure to produce high quality research. The documents discuss knowledge sharing and the promotion of solidarity 'as a main element of the global knowledge society of tomorrow' *(Framework 5).* Fine words. But it has become more and more difficult to argue for Northern solidarity with Southern colleagues, or for the older [1]capacity building' justification for cooperation.

Competition vs Cooperation The World Conference *Declaration* and *Framework simply* do not face up to these tensions between international academic competitiveness and international cooperation. There is a great deal of talk about the 'pooling' of resources, and the sharing of knowledge, North-South, but there is little or no recognition that there is a whole agenda of market-driven competitiveness to be set against what may be termed the 'solidarity agenda. Northern institutions, through franchising and schemes for offshore campuses, are directly involved in competition - not in cooperation - with national universities in the South. The same is true of Northern interest in the recruitment of foreign students.

In both these fields, the logic of competition directs international offices in the North to target countries that can pay the fee levels of the North. It should not be surprising, therefore, that international offices have - at least until the recent crisis - been targeting the Malaysias, Hong Kongs, Singapores and Indonesias for recruitment visits - apart from North America. By contrast, there are very few incentives for international offices of universities or colleges in the North to develop schemes with higher education institutions in most of the developing world. It is therefore wildly idealistic for the *Framework (p.5)* to say: 'Institutions of higher education in industrialised countries should strive to make provision in their budget for international cooperation with sister institutions in developing countries.' Equally in the *Declaration* (Article 15), the language used bears very little or no relationship to the international isolation of whole swathes of higher education in the developing world. The following ideals no longer (if they ever did) reflect the realities of life in international offices in the North, or the hard pressed management of Southern institutions:

The principle of international co-operation based on solidarity, mutual support, true partnership for mutual benefit, and the value of sharing knowledge and know-how across borders should govern relationships among higher education institutions in both developed and developing countries *(Declaration* Article 15).

It is in fact only the funding from development co-operation agencies, bilateral and multilateral, that is supporting the interaction between higher education institutions in the poorer countries of the world and those in the North. The debates about symmetry and partnership are to be found in this arena, and not in the marketdriven discourse about the 'export potential' of British, US or Australian higher education (see articles by Allsop, Monro and Sylvester in this issue).

The Challenge of 'the most Radical Change and Renewal' in the absence of a case for them We return to the item with which we started these few comments. The *Declaration* (Preamble) suggests that higher education now faces formidable challenges, and 'must proceed to the most radical change and renewal it has even been required to undertake'. For neither the Southern countries nor the Northern, however, is it possible to conclude after a careful reading of the *Declaration* and the *Framework* what are the specific, presumably critical conditions that make such radical change and renewal a requirement.

One of the problems that the drafters of these documents may well have faced is how to write anything that could address the stark problems of higher education in so many of the middle and lower income countries of the world while still being relevant to higher education in Europe, North America, Japan, and the significant number of industrialising countries of E and S. East Asia, the Middle East and Latin America.

A lesson might have been learnt from the World Conference on Education for All. There it was quite clear that the main target of the *Declaration* and the *Framework for Action* was not the DAC countries at all, but those that contained the almost one billion adult illiterates and 200 million young people out of, or not completing, school. This is not to say that the industrialised countries were completely neglected, but the great achievement of Jomtien was to harness an international concern to achieve basic education by a specific date for the majority of those thus far excluded.

With higher education, it was always going to be more difficult. There was simply no obvious target such as Jomtien's 'universal access to, and completion of primary education... by the year 2,000' (WCEFA, Framework 3). Not unless, the World Conference on Higher Education had followed Jomtien and had focused in much more detail on the plight of so many Southern higher education institutions.

Then a really focused agenda could have emerged:

Not about expansion according to 'comparative international standards', but about the dangers of politically-driven expansion of higher education in many of the poorer countries of the world;

Not about how higher education and research institutions can assure 'genuine endogenous and sustainable development' but about what research - if any - can be expected from academics who are not paid a living wage'

Not about North-South solidarity, but about the challenge of partnership and N-S cooperation schemes when the income differential between the Northern and Southern partners is about 30-fold;

Not about providing 'an open space of higher learning and for learning throughout life' (Article 1), but about what it means to share with four other students the accommodation space designed originally for one;

Not about 'provisions for research and for updating and improving their pedagogical skills' by higher education teachers, but about dealing with the fact that, for example, 4/5 of Latin American university teachers dont have a doctorate in the first place;

No t about seeing higher education 'as part of a seamless system starting with early childhood and primary education', but about the consequences for even primary school attendance of the very recent dismantling of the tradition of fee free higher education.

A last word The World Conference's *Declaration* and *Framework* contain reference to most of the cherished core values of higher education systems. We fear greatly that because these are put forward without an acknowledgement of the daily pressures that are undermining these in much of the developing world, they will appear hollow.

ODA (1994) *Education Policy Paper,* London

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SOUND SELF CRITICISM IN LATIN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

Ernesto Schiefelbein.

Can Latin American higher education deliver the equality of access, new approaches, level of training and diversification proposed in the preliminary version of the World Declaration on Higher Education (WDHE)? Serious doubts about a positive answer to these questions were raised in the regional conference (Havana, 1996). Latin America expanded enrolments twice as fast as the rest of the world in the 1960-1995 period. From 573,000 in 1960 to 8.5 million in 1995. Therefore, concerted action of public and private sectors is required, given the huge amount of resources needed to expand physical capacity.

In spite of this huge expansion there is an inequity in access, given that scholarships are mainly provided to traditional public institutions (enrolling wealthier students) rather than to the students that need economic help. However, the Havana meeting of Latin American higher education institutions agreed that higher education is a public good. This agreement highlights their social role and the fact that both private and public institutions should cooperate for the well being of the society.

Innovative higher education is constrained by accreditation granted by teams of graduates from a small number of the most traditional universities. There is an incentive for "doing more of the same" rather than generating new approaches. Furthermore, it is hard to raise the level of training when less than 20% of the faculty have doctoral degrees. Therefore, four of each five professors are not really qualified to teach in universities. The joint effort that countries should make to prepare the academic staff that could improve higher education training is not included in the WDHE.

Diversification is also one of the essential changes and transformations that are required for Latin American countries to bridge the gap with better developed countries. However, diversification is constrained when Latin American universities are required to provide professional training and to certify professional proficiency. Simultaneous performance of these two functions reduces innovation, diversification and adaptation to new needs. In spite of these issues there is a growing consensus in the need for accreditation, with the support of the World Bank. However, accreditation is usually granted by public agencies that also have the discretionary power to license or to modify the institution accredited (rather than a relevant diffusion of the main findings of the report). All these elements are serious constraints for adaptations to the type of university or higher education institutions now required by the countries. Therefore, the transformations may be delayed. In summary, there are several topics relevant for Latin **America that are not** integrated in the WDHE.

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FABRICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT:

THE CRISIS OF AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

Paulin J. Hountondji

1 - The University as a teaching institution

a) In most African countries, the present educational systems were set up at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century. The primary goal was clear: formal education was intended first and foremost to train young people for civil service. Colonial administration needed civil servants. in many countries, especially in French colonies, young people were offered scholarships both in secondary school and the university. In exchange for this, they used to sign a tenyear commitment (engagement décennal) by which they promised to accept jobs in the administration once they have completed their university training. Scholarships and study grants were, in this context, ways of anticipating the salaries of future civil servants by pre-financing the education and training that would fit them for the jobs they were needed for. Understood in this way, the system was logical and coherent.

b) However, the civil service came at some point to be saturated. This happened in most countries during the eighties. The former colonies which had become meanwhile independent States came to realise that the system could no longer work as it used to. This new awareness developed in most cases under the pressure of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. The old system still continued, nevertheless, relying on its own momentum. Scholarships are still being paid today in countries where such payment has been a tradition for decades, though it would be nonsense to ask the beneficiaries for a ten-year commitment when the State can no longer commit itself to employing them.

c) So deeply rooted is this tradition in the minds of some people that they almost consider as a duty for the State to finance higher education for anyone who meets the academic requirements to enrol as a student. For them, the statement in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that 'everyone has the right to education' advocates not only equal accessibility on the basis of merit and the rejection of discrimination but also the right to demand financial support of the State for all levels of education including the highest, no matter how efficient the system is. On the other hand the State itself thinks it has to meet this demand at least under certain conditions. Nowhere do these conditions include the adequacy between the training programme and the job opportunities available on the market. Nowhere is it realised that the socio-professional insertion of the youth is an objective far more important and urgent than higher education per se.

d) Most students' strikes and riots in African countries, especially in the Francophone area, have to do with the problem of scholarships. A very common reason is that the State does not meet, or does not meet in due time its own commitments to scholarship-holders. One month delay is much, two is too much, three is intolerable, four, five, six or more is perceived as a declaration of war. Another demand of students is that the conditions of eligibility for scholarships should be lowered in order to fit the greatest possible number. Thus scholarships are perceived as a right, almost a human right, instead of being a way of prefinancing of a future employee by his/her potential employer.

e) Most universities in Africa have become today huge fabrics which produce a kind of product unknown fifteen years ago: the unemployment of cadres and learned people. There is an increasing gap between the curricula and the amount of knowledge and

know-how required by the new job-market. Given the saturation of the civil service, new jobs can only be found today in the private sector, a sector which also has to be developed. Both curricula and the teaching methods should have been reformed, therefore, to meet this new situation. Nowhere unfortunately, to my knowledge, have such reforms been achieved. The university has ceased long ago to prepare the youth for professional life. Instead, enrolling as a student has become more and more often a way to put oneself on the sidelines and postpone the time when one is considered as an unemployed graduate. Not so long ago in Benin, people used to enrol again and again, migrating from one department to another up to the age of 30 and more, just because they didn't know what else to do.

f) To get out of this situation, higher education should be assigned new objectives and goals. Instead of enrolling students into departments formed exclusively along the classical subdivisions of learning (philosophy, linguistics, literature, history, geography, anthropology, sociology and other such departments in the Faculties of arts, science, law, economics, political science, agriculture, medicine, etc.) and then seek what jobs can fit them, the economic prospects of the country and its implications for the job market should be examined first and the whole education system, including higher education, restructured along these lines. Curricula should be entirely readjusted from this perspective. Course schedules and time-tables should be consequently reshuffled in order to allow workers to enrol for whatever courses they want. 2 - **The research system**

a) Preparing the youth for the job-market is not the only objective of university education. Another goal is, or should be, to promote and/or perpetuate a tradition of scientific and academic excellence, something which is as much needed in developing as in developed countries, and maybe paradoxically more needed in the former than in the latter. In order to move forward, poor countries should not be satisfied with just applying results of the scientific research conducted in the North, they should rather, first and foremost, comprehend and appropriate, develop for their own sake and for a responsible resolution of their economic and social problems, the available legacy in the field of science and technology.

b) Research activity in the University is part of a research system which also includes other institutions. This system, as much as the educational one, should be viewed in a historical perspective. It should be recalled, namely, that "modern" science was introduced, just like formal education, in the wake of colonisation, and its primary goal was to facilitate the economic exploitation of local resources for the benefit of the European metropoles. It is not mere chance, therefore, if the discipline mostly developed in early times was agricultural research. In French colonies at least, the modern research process began with the creation of experimental parks (jardins d'essai), aimed at experimenting different varieties of local plants with a view at improving and exporting them in significant quantities for the use of metropolitan industries. These experimental parks were managed from Paris.

c) In this sense, agricultural research in our countries was and still is to a large extent in the service of an extroverted economy, i.e. an economy externally oriented, aiming primarily at meeting the needs of the metropolitan, say, the French or the British economies. So far we have not gone much beyond this stage. From a strategic point of view, our research policies still give priority to the improvement of such export products as palm-oil, coco-nut oil, pea-nuts, cotton, etc., due to feed European industries. Research on subsistence crops necessary for local consumption is much more recent and less developed. Not only was research in the service of an extroverted economy, but the research process itself was and still is extroverted in a variety of ways. Let me just recall a few of them.

d) We have been using so far research tools and material made in Europe, America or Japan. We have never in Africa designed a microscope. The paper we use has to be imported, as well as the computers and other equipment necessary for our laboratories. We do not even master, therefore, the first end of the chain, that is the production of the means of scientific production. We have to rely, for this, on Western industry (Japan being also in this perspective, as is well known, part and parcel of the West).

e) Second, most academic and scientific publishers, significant journals, libraries and even bookstores and book distributors are located in Europe and North America. 1 do not want to undervalue the scientific and other research facilities now existing in Africa and in other parts of the world. These infrastructures, however, still lag far behind those existing in the North. Whatever the discipline, the amount of scientific and technological information stored in African libraries and documentation centres is much poorer than the information they can get from Northern facilities. This is not only true for general disciplines, but also for the so-called area studies, including African studies. The West has been for centuries accumulating all kinds of information items from and about other parts of the world. As a result, there are today many more documents about, say, the history, cultures, religions, political systems, social organisations, legal usage, economies or even about the geology of Africa in some libraries in Paris and Bordeaux, at the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, at the University of Leiden in the Netherlands, at North-western University in Evanston near Chicago, at the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C., than anywhere in Africa.

f) Third, it should be recalled that the immediate outcome of any research activity is usually a written material, whether published or not. This material is intended for various groups of readers with various degrees of expertise or specialisation. It so happens that this readership is also massively concentrated in the North. Therefore the African researcher as well as the African writer knows that his/her work will be judged first and foremost by a public alien to his/her own country and region. It depends on this public whether he/she becomes world-wide known or not. The African intellectual will be tempted, therefore, to work on such topics as can be of interest to potential readers in the West, preferably to topics related to "African issues" .

g) Given that the mainstream readership is located in the North, the African intellectual will have to use European instead of African languages to address them the more 'so as (s)he has been him/herself educated in the European languages and therefore masters them far more than (s)he does his/her mother tongues.

h) For similar reasons, the Southern scholar has to travel thousands of miles away **from home to access the intellectual and scientific treasures stored in Western libraries, documentation and research centres. The European or American scholar** does not travel or expatriate before doing research. Or if (s)he does, it is not for the purpose of accessing the available documents and scientific information. Instead, the African at home can only do field work, collect new data and process them to a limited extent. If (s)he wants to go further, then (s)he has to go to those parts of the world where the maximum of scientific information and documentation has been capitalised through centuries. The African scholar is, so to speak, an institutional nomad. 3 - **Ways forward**

We could elaborate further on the description above and show the many ways in which the research activity in Africa can be said to be extroverted, i.e. externally oriented, intended first and foremost to complement the research activity in the West and to meet Western economic and social needs rather than the needs expressed in Africa. The final question, however, is: what is to be done?

There is little to do about at least two of the points mentioned above. The massive concentration in developed countries of the potential readership available for scholarly publications is, as a matter-of-fact, a product of history which cannot be directly changed. On the other hand, what has been described above as the institutional nomadism of the Southern scholar is the consequence of this unbalanced distribution of the scientific public. There is nothing to do about it as long as this imbalance remains. However it is possible to work on other factors, including the remaining three points, in such a way as to bring about a few changes and, in the long run, a more balanced world scientific order.

Thus, the dependence on research tools and material manufactured in the North is but an aspect of the under-industrialisation of Southern countries. Though it cannot be overcome as a specific and separate issue, it can certainly and must be solved as part of the overall problem of economic dependence and underdevelopment.

In the same way, it is up to the African elites and decision-makers to initiate new language policies that promote African languages as means for scientific expression and communication, instead of the exclusive use of their former colonisers, languages. It so happens that English, French and Portuguese are more appropriate today for international communication than are African languages. This however is not sufficient reason to decree the slow death of the latter, including the most widespread ones which are spoken today by millions, dozens of millions, hundreds of millions people in Africa and sometimes outside Africa. Needless to say, the idea that some languages are too poor to express the subtleties of modern science and thought is but a prejudice which, like many commonplace prejudices, has also been unfortunately defended and elaborated on by some well-known scholars and theoreticians. This prejudice does not resist the slightest scrutiny. It is not enough, however, to denounce it as such. The point is to develop effective policies that allow the rehabilitation and development of these languages in the education and research systems, with a view at extending education and scientific awareness in Africa, no matter if European languages still have to be taught as means for easy communication on a world scale in the present-day context.

Special emphasis has to be put on the issue of documentation. The new technologies of information and communication (NTIC) today allow to minimise to some extent the necessity for the Southern scholar to travel to the North in order to take advantage of the scientific information stored in libraries, archives and documentation centres. Attempts have been made to help African universities and research communities in this area. Some results have been achieved so far. An increasing number of universities on the continent have been getting access to the Internet during the nineties. This move will hopefully continue faster and faster.

What 1 wish to point out, however, is this. In order to contribute significantly to a qualitative change in **the present situation, the ongoing efforts towards greater** Internet connectivity should be part of a wider, deliberate, self-conscious move in the current science and culture policies. Internet connectivity is not an end in itself but a tool - that can be used in many ways, good or bad. This tool has developed in recent years within Western cultures. It has considerably accelerated a process of knowledge accumulation which in fact had begun much earlier. Therefore, what is needed today in Africa is not just an additional technique intended to ease the flow of information, including scientific information, along the paths it has taken so far. What is needed is a re-ordering and re-directing of the current flows in such a way as to favour accumulation in the South and a responsible application by poor countries of all the knowledge and know-how now available in the world to the solution of their own problems.

The responsibility for this cultural move rests first and foremost on Southern countries themselves and especially on their intellectual and scientific communities. To me it is obvious that our universities and research centres, as presently constituted, will never be able to foster the necessary changes, no more than any other State institution. The State in our countries is more often an inertial force than a moving wheel. For it to move forward, a collective pressure is needed from all those members of the civil society who realise how urgent it is, first, to promote a new world order in the field of knowledge production and management and second, to foster in Africa itself, a new process of knowledge accumulation and capitalisation.

It should also be noted that national boundaries as constituted today are not the most appropriate framework for scientific and technological development. Few countries in Africa today have top-level scholars, scientists and experts in sufficient numbers to form critical masses, though thousands of young scholars and scientists have graduated so far in the existing universities. Collective mobilisation of the African intelligentsia as a whole is therefore necessary to promote a new awareness.

Everyone should realise that the intellectual work by African scholars and scientists has little been used so far for the benefit of Africa. If everyone agrees and if the States are made to agree on this point, things can change very quickly. New science and culture policies can be designed to correct the current state-of-affairs. If these policies are made to complement coherent economic policies intended to achieve selfreliance in a democratic context, then things will change even faster. Part of the dozens of thousands of unemployed graduates now available on the job-market will have the possibility to switch to new jobs after additional training when necessary. Part of them can serve as an intellectual labour force for the promotion of scientific and technological excellence.

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HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA AT THE DAWN OF THE 21st CENTURY

Aklilu Habte, President NORRAG, Washington

1 welcome the opportunity to reflect on the situation of higher education in Africa as in other regions. One wishes this and other meetings not to continue being tautologous. The problems have been captured and highlighted. The consensus on the issues is despicable. The consensus on the problems is widespread.:

Africa in relation to other regions has a very low enrolment ratio in higher education; under 5% compared to about 15% in the Middle East and Latin America.

African higher education institutions face a crisis in quality and relevance, in the management of resources and in the under-and mis-utilisation of skilled people.

African institutions are therefore preparing to welcome the 21st century with all their current 20th century unfinished agenda and the emerging Globalisation challenge. Reflections are welcome to identify and discern the causal factors and the approaches to empower the institutions to cope with them. A Tall Order! At issue is not whether these challenges could be met but rather whether there is the national collective motivation and readiness and the international honesty and integrity to consistently help. Given the experience of the past 35 or so years (1962-1998) none of these seem to prevail. There are of course exceptions, but the prevailing picture of higher education in Africa is depressing and on the decline. And such a bleak Bill of Health despite the abundance of national and international meetings, resulting in nonfunctional non implementable recommendations and conventions. We

need to ask and honestly answer the question why no improvement? And what should be done at national, and international levels to bring about the needed change, National and International meetings should concentrate on local culture specified and action bent reflections.

Many of the abundant past policy declarations are so abstract and thin on actions, lacking in implementation strategies and honest politically courageous follow up leadership. The result is talk and more talk. As we are meeting in Paris at the same time that UNESCO is holding its World Conference on Higher Education, it may be opportune to make some provocative statements such as the following, focusing on North-South aid relationships to be subjected to further scrutiny and discussion.

Should we continue the past and current mode and modality of aid to African countries?

Should aid be given at all to any country that does not have the support of its population?

Should aid be given to any government that is anti-intellectual, that is reluctant to use and dialogue with its own educated segment of population?

Should aid be directed to any country or government that is not prepared to provide the necessary minimum structural managerial and institutional autonomy and environmental atmosphere to its public and private institutions of higher learning as is the case in several African countries?

We need to address such and similar issues firmly with courage and with wisdom. But in any case the current laissez-faire or one sided donor interest laden diplomacy needs serious scrutiny. The result of the ongoing UNESCO Conference compounded with past heaps of recommendations will not by themselves result in dramatic changes, unless the national political leadership of countries and the diplomatic behaviour of the international community and civil society are ready to assume a morally responsible leadership.

One hopes that the coming of the 21 st century will beckon us towards a new era of aid, of cooperation and partnership that is genuinely focused to embrace the interests of people, not just countries, not just governments, not just favourite parties. NORRAG and similar organisations have lots of work cut out for them.

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NEW DIMENSIONS OF INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: RETHINKING RELEVANCE AND INSTITUTIONAL LOCATION OF KNOWLEDGE GENERATION IN THE SOUTH

Michael Gibbons, Association of Commonwealth Universities, London

This paper begins from changes that are taking place in the realm of production of knowledge, generally. The thrust of the argument will draw attention to the fact that, for the most part, universities are organised according to the structures of disciplinary science and that these structures are changing. A major change is the emergence of a distributed knowledge production system and, within this system, knowledge is characterised by a new set of attributes. The main change, as far as universities are concerned, is that knowledge production, particularly at the leading edge of such research in advanced materials and the bio-sciences, is no longer a series of self contained activities carried out in relative institutional isolation but involves interaction with a variety of other knowledge producers.

The research practices of universities and industry, as well as other knowledge producers, are becoming accommodated to one another. All are now, in effect, actors in the knowledge business, and the fact of globalisation means that, for each actor, the bulk of the knowledge to which access is required will have been produced elsewhere. Estimates indicate that over 90% of the knowledge produced globally is not produced where its use is required. The challenge is how to get knowledge that may have been produced anywhere in the world to the place where it can be used effectively. It is more a question of access to, rather than the generation of, new knowledge.

Universities have been far more adept at producing than drawing creatively (reconfiguring) knowledge that is being produced elsewhere in the distributed knowledge production system and it remains an open question at this time whether they can make the necessary institutional adjustments to become as competent working in the distributed knowledge production system as they have been in developing disciplinary structures. Universities need to devote more effort to the creation of a cadre of knowledge workers - people who are experts in problem identification, problem solving and problem brokering.

A further consequence of the emergence of a knowledge society is, somewhat paradoxically, that in order to operate efficiently, universities will need to be much reduced in size and they will learn to make use of intellectual resources that they don't fully control. Universities will need flexibility in terms of both organisational structure and contractual arrangements with faculty. Innovation in these areas will be essential if they are to interact effectively with the distributed knowledge production system and with the continuing, progressive differentiation of supply and demand for specialised knowledge. Universities in the future will comprise a small core of faculty and a much larger periphery of experts of various kinds that are linked to universities in various ways. Universities may become a new type of "holding institution" in the field of knowledge production; perhaps limited to accrediting teaching done primarily by others while, in research, playing their part by orchestrating problem solving teams to work on fundamental issues.

A significant adjustment that the universities will have to make in this sphere is to develop structures which promote and reward group creativity. Heretofore, the emphasis in universities -and it is associated with the disciplinary structure - has been on individual performance. Little, if any, attention is given to the challenge of teaching people to be "creative" in a team situation. To avoid wasteful duplication, an ethos based team work and, more importantly, on sharing resources will need to be developed at the centre of an institutions policies.

Universities will play major roles not only in national but also, and increasingly, in regional economic development, in the delivery of life long learning and in the development of civic culture. In order to be effective in these spheres, the values of technology transfer will have to be bought from the periphery of universities, where they reside at the moment, to their core. Universities who are serious about playing a role in the complex game of technology interchange will enter into a complex array of partnerships the dynamics of which will involve a combination of competition and collaboration, much as other knowledge producers have been doing for the past twenty years.

Universities of the future will need to develop many more and different kinds of links with its surrounding society. They will increasingly be ranked in terms of their ..connectivity" to the distributed knowledge production system and their relevance determined by their efficiency in drawing upon the resources of the distributed knowledge production system.

Universities still enjoy a privileged place in the distributed knowledge production system but existing structures are too inflexible to accommodate emerging modes of knowledge production or the demands that a greater variety of "students" will make. Both students and staff realise that their personal success lies in being able to find a niche in the emerging knowledge society. Both realise that they need to think strategically about their careers. The problem is that in neither teaching or research do the universities have this turf to themselves. And here lies a threat to the conventional way of doing things; or is it, perhaps, an opportunity?

This "re-location" of universities in relation to the wider society is proceeding apace in the developed world. The implications of this for universities in the South require some radical thinking. It has been evident for some time that to pursue a policy of "catch-up" aimed at building institutions of disciplinary excellence will, on the up side, make it possible to hitch the universities of the South to the research agendas of the North but, on the down side, it may distance higher education even further from the needs of local communities, both in terms of the research being carried out and in terms of the types of qualified personpower being generated. On the other hand, a radical re-focusing of universities on problem solving skills may present some leap-frogging opportunities for institutions of higher education.

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RESEARCH AID POLICIES FOR NORTH-SOUTH S&T COOPERATION: STAKES AND NEW PROSPECTS

Jacques Gaillard, International Foundation for Science (IFS), Stockholm

Although scientific and technical cooperation with the South and developmentoriented research capacity building are subjects that are just as urgent and timely as 30, 20 or 10 years ago, the context and the terms of the debate have changed considerably.

The first part of my longer paper (for the NORRAG meeting in Paris) which is based on a two years' survey in some 10 countries in the North, explores the extent to which the context has changed (globalised world economy, S&T activities increasingly taking a world-wide dimension, the role of the state fading, public budget shrinking, impact of new technologies, shifting problems facing research, changing status of scientific knowledge etc.). In response to all these changes and related questions, fresh thought must be given to the basis of scientific cooperation

and research support policies, fields of intervention, organisational models, and the terms and conditions of aid and cooperation. This must be done to promote the foundation of a knowledge society and, at the same time, strengthen the local research capacity in the countries of the South.

Yet, a number of problems remain. They will be addressed more fully in the main part of the paper in Paris:

What is the legitimacy of research aid policies defined and implemented by the North?

Is development oriented research public property?

How effective have been the different functions, models and approaches?

Are they still appropriate?

The comparative study on policies, programmes and institutions utilised by the countries of the North shows that there is no single universally applicable system or model. Each model has grown out of the country's particular political, social and cultural history and has given rise to a country-specific network of institutions. Although concepts, models and approaches may blend into trends, trying to grow national systems into a single model is neither desirable nor realistic. Whilst efforts to develop an optimal configuration would be to no avail, the diversity of approaches and systems could be capitalised into complementarity. The search for complementarity has become vital, both at the national and the international levels, in these times of shrinking public budgets for research and development. Moreover, complementarity is a source of wealth for all concerned.

Science itself should try to capitalise on - rather than ignore - the world's diversity of cultures. Working together, scientists from the North and the South should use this diversity to bring new problems to light and to formulate new research goals. If science is seeking to become universal, it has everything to gain from mixture, and will derive substance from the variety in lines of reasoning. The capacity for heuristic renewal depends on this cross-fertilisation, on a clearly comparative approach and on the diversity of epistemologies used.

North-South cooperation enriches this mixture but is often complicated by the unequal distribution of research resources. To compensate for this problem of world-wide asymmetry, the tools of cooperation and partnership must be complemented by research-support tools for local capacity-building that may lead to the formation of sizeable, dynamic and durable national scientific communities.

Last, a joint research **project requires strong mutual interest and understanding** with each side having something to gain from the partnership. It entails truly negotiated cooperation, and not a one-way transfer, regardless of the direction. It is high time to turn the page and throw out the "donor-beneficiary" model that dominated cooperation and research-assistance policies for the last forty years. The time has come to adopt a new paradigm of ''Interactive independence''.

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THE SOCIAL FUNCTION AS A RATIONALE FOR UNIVERSITY SUPPORT: A NOTE FROM EAST AFRICA.

David Court, The Rockefeller Foundation, Nairobi, now World Bank, Washington

The international trends that will form the context of higher education, in Africa as elsewhere in the 21 st century, are already evident. They include ever more available knowledge and more accessible information technology, economic globalisation, political democratisation, including the devolution of public authority, and the privatisation and internationalisation of the market for higher education. The consequent contribution of national systems of higher education resides, at least partially, in their responsiveness to these sweeping economic, social and technological developments. The final years of the 20th century offer dramatic signs in some African countries of the ability of systems of higher education to make this response, and reveal the partial shape that it might take. Among such signs are: the emergence of diversified systems of tertiary education, increasing use of new technologies and distance learning, new forms of cross national collaboration in teaching and research, more systematic and strategic approaches to matters of management and governance, new financing arrangements, private universities, private students, and the franchising of learning and research along with new types of engagement with the private sector. The focus is on economy, efficiency and the rationalisation of resources and facilities for the delivery of knowledge in new forms and through new channels.

The potential in technology has produced a heady and welcome optimism about the renaissance and revitalisation of higher education in Africa. This is evident in much of the background material for the UNESCO celebration. One question raised by this march to new frontiers concerns the continued utility of the type of university that has dominated the post independence landscape, whether this be the model exemplified by Ibadan and Makerere in the 1960 and 70s, its 'developmental' successor such as Dar Es Salaam in the 1980s or the sad struggling form of national university that has become familiar in the current decade. These institutions are in some measure being by-passed by new and private universities, or transformed by varieties of arrangement involving distance learning and new types of linkage, contract, and accreditation arrangements. The legitimacy of the single national university as the sole repository of the knowledge and culture of the nation has been eroded and its credibility as the guardian of certified quality has been devalued and dispersed.

The ending of monolith and monopoly, and the transfer of functions to more diversified patterns of education and training, are welcome and overdue. At the same time this technical and philosophical revolution raises the question of whether the university as a type of institution has outlived its usefulness. As new and diversified forms of higher education come to the fore is there a place for the university? The answer to this question lies in a judgement about whether universities can offer something of social value, in a given national context, above and beyond what the new, and particularly the private, providers of higher education cannot. If it can, what is it, and why is it important? Are there purposes of national and continental significance which may be left unserved by the newly emerging forms of higher education? This note does no more than pose the question and allude, propositionally, to a pointer in the search for an answer, which, in the longer run, will have to come from universities on the continent.

If universities have a continued and distinctive contribution to make, it is likely to lie in that part of their social function which is of least interest to the market.

In the new and emerging situation the market, often abetted by aid agencies, is increasingly responsible for deciding what types of knowledge are produced, in what forms, and by whom. The market and technology are proving more than ever before to be a stimulus to knowledge production and the intellectual enterprise. But, as we know from experience elsewhere, they are not sufficient for capturing all types of desirable knowledge or making provision for all types of necessary inquiry. Where the market will tend to encourage professional and technical subjects, with tangible developmental applications, it may do little for the less applied disciplines in the arts, humanities and pure science and have a time table too short for sustained intellectual endeavour. A different incentive system is needed to offer opportunities for talent not identified or encouraged by the market, to pursue enquiries which are of no interest to it but which may well produce substantial social benefit. That incentive system may need to be contained and retained within some form of the university. Particularly, it may be best sought in that part of the university which deals with the least immediately practical subjects---the arts, humanities and social sciences. At present these sectors tend to be the places where excess social demand is absorbed, especially the enrolment of women. But as numbers overwhelm facilities in such faculties, make meaningful research and teaching impossible, and undermine credibility and potential contribution, new and compelling rationales for the these areas of the university are needed.

If universities are to re-state a new incentive system, the foundation stones are probably to be found in their traditional, unique and classically familiar characteristic of assembling in one place and one time the most able students and the best teachers, for the pursuit of knowledge under agreed rules. These rules, among other things, ensure access by merit, maximise free expression, enjoin reasoned argument as the mode of discourse, permit the sanction of peer review and promote the reciprocal benefits of activities that link research and teaching, and the product of combining a variety of disciplines in close proximity. The 'rules' not only govern internal intellectual discourse but have social benefit to that the extent that they are reflected in behaviour carried beyond the corridors of academe by successive generations of students. At its best the output is the advancement and transmission of knowledge and the development of a capacity for synthesising new and traditional ideas, identifying and promulgating critical social principles and values in the evolution of national culture.

A cryptic recitation of the idealised virtues of a university model, which in Africa has in recent years often betrayed rather than promoted the ideal, may seem out of place in a context of excitement about the possibilities for alternatives inherent in the new technologies and other trends summarised at the outset. Yet, paradoxically, within new and diversified systems of higher education the university and its social and cultural function may be even more needed than before. This is because the context for the development of higher education in Africa is going to be shaped **by more than exciting new international technological and social developments.** At the national and regional level in many countries, corruption, nepotism, ethnic rivalry, militarism, inter- personal violence, de-professionalisation and the lawlessness , which accompanies extremes of poverty and inequality, are intensifying rather than receding features of the social environment. The university does not at first glance seem a very practical source of salvation for helping to restore social cohesion where it is threatened or absent. The more activist agencies of civil society -churches, community organisations, state bodies and a medley of NGOs -would seem to offer better and more immediate prospects. Yet higher education, in its purest university form concerned with value **formation and standard setting,** is uniquely placed to develop and promote the social values that in the long run can help to contain if not extinguish trends which threaten social disintegration.

However, the case remains to be made. It is now more clearly recognised than before that higher education has multiple purposes and a corresponding number of sources

of justification. No longer do funding agencies and policy makers on the continent need to seek a single justification in rubrics such as 'high level manpower training' or the promotion of the 'development university' which characterised earlier eras. However the rationale for different forms of higher education can equally not be left to entrepreneurial whim or technological impulse. In Africa this may be the time for more concentrated attention to the distinctive mission and mandate of universities within complex systems of higher education. The task has been begun by the Association of African Universities, but the continent has yet to create an institution with exclusive responsibility for research on higher education. In the meantime the Higher Education Working Group of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa is also taking on some of this task. Yet much work remains to be done by universities to identify and define that social role---the institutional characteristics, principles and processes which make it possible--- and to fulfil that role in relation to some of the surrounding social problems. The appropriate place for external partners in this process is to emphasise and support universities and relevant umbrella organisations in their own self conscious identification, definition and implement

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AN AGENDA FOR HIGHER EDUCATiON

Nahas Angula, Ministry of Education, Namibia

The World Conference on Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century will start on October 5, 1998 in Paris. This Conference promises to be watershed in Higher Education Policy Formulation at the turn of the Century. Emerging nations like Namibia are approaching the Conference with high expectations. There are critical issues facing Higher Education in Emerging Nations:

What role can Higher Education play in empowering Emerging Nations to be competitive in a global market place?

Can Higher Education address the challenges of under-development in Emergent Nations?

Is Higher Education capable of enhancing the cultural identity of Emerging Nations in a global cultural Kaleidoscope?

Development, welfare, competitiveness, marginalisation and poverty are central issues of concern to Emergent Nations. Will the Conference address these issues adequately? It remains to be seen whether this will **be the case.**

Higher Education will in many an Emergent Nation remains irrelevant to the needs of the community at large. It is a privilege for a few. It is unaffordable to the majority and unsustainable by many countries in the South. In these circumstances Emergent Nations seek to relate Higher Education to their basic needs.

This suggests that Higher Education in Emergent Nations should be reoriented towards the reality of our nations and communities. A new paradigm is emerging in this regard. Higher Education should be a midwife to development and the consolidation of national identity. This suggests that higher education institutions in our countries should lead the process of innovation, inventiveness and transformation. Higher education institutions must therefore be service oriented and be proactive.

For higher education institutions to play this role there must be a synergy between institutions, industry and communities. There is a need therefore to enhance institutional capacity for this synergy to develop. Capacity building means that the institutions will be capable to fully appreciate the context of their environment and translate such context into the content of their programmes.

Moreover, there is a need for forward and backward linkages. Such linkages will foster cooperation and collaboration with institutions within our regions and outside. Such collaboration supports cross fertilisation of ideas and the sharing of resources.

The Higher Education Conference should encourage this new paradigm and the reorientation of Higher Education in Emergent Nations by including in its Plan of Action an expression for the need to collaborate, cooperate and the creation of synergy for development and poverty reduction in our societies.

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HIGHER EDUCATION SYNTHESIS STUDY: LESSONS LEARNED

Kenneth King

This is an excerpt from a synthesis study of higher education projects, done for ODA/DFID (Evaluation Report No EV 602,1998, DFID)

The following lessons are drawn from across the whole study rather than being a précis of each of the chapters in turn. First, however, a qualification must be entered about the kinds of lessons that can be learned from this higher education synthesis that is really derived from three different kinds of material. **The scope and basis of this synthesis**

a) One category of material, e.g. on higher education links or on research, consists of a large body of reports and evaluations from many different OECD countries including the UK. Hence lessons derived from this body of data are relatively robust

b) A second category of material is made up of the five evaluations of DFID higher education projects which were selected for review as the foundation for this synthesis. From these evaluations, few general lessons about the appropriate modalities to support higher education *per se* can be drawn, nor can what Britain does particularly well in support to higher education be extrapolated with confidence from the small number of evaluations considered. Further, almost all of the 'lessons learned' from these are *operational,* rather than specific to an institution of higher education: the texture, cultures and complexities of higher education are therefore virtually absent from these evaluation studies. Not surprisingly, therefore, what is learned from this dimension of the study is close to those insights about project development that have been gained from other DFID syntheses, such as that on *The Process of Change: A Synthesis Study of Institutional Strengthening.* These operational lessons cover, for example, the importance for project success of the following: realistic assessment of the whole institutional framework; achievable and well-defined objectives; consideration of the prior conditions required; multidisciplinary approach to design and implementation; adequate and appropriate monitoring; need for flexibility in project design and implementation; and involvement of stakeholders.

c) The third kind of material is much more diverse. It consists of institutional intelligence about higher education from agency personnel in many different

bilateral and multilateral agencies; it also includes published reports, grey material, and some statistical data on all DFID's education projects. It is this material that allows conclusions to be reached about the extent of shifts in DFID policies on higher education, and in associated areas such as high level technical cooperation training in the UK, the deployment of British supplemented staff, and the centres of excellence in the UK supportive of international education.

All three sets of material do provide a number of trends and pointers to be underlined about aid to higher education. But it must be emphasised at the outset that **this study is in no sense a synthetic review or a status report on British aid to higher education in recent years.** Only five projects out of a total of some 80 DFID projects supporting higher education between 1989/90 and 1995/6 have been examined for this study, and they were examined only indirectly through the five evaluations commissioned on them.

It is argued, however, that a sub-sector review of the range, location, financing and character of British support to higher education would now be an appropriate complement to this present study. Such a portfolio review could provide valuable information for forward planning as well as raising important questions about the sustainability of what have been in many cases very long term investments in different kinds of higher education.

Methodologically, there are perhaps questions to be asked about this genre of synthesis evaluation. To the casual reader, such studies may appear to be syntheses of what has been learnt in the entire subsector, whereas they are literally summary evaluations of selected evaluations. And perhaps inevitably, therefore, they focus on the operational rather than the substantive aspects of the particular subsector. In the present report, this synthetic evaluation component is just one part of chapter 3. The remainder of the report seeks to embed the insights from the DFID evaluations within the wider context of what other donors have learnt from their own evaluations of higher education projects and programmes.

Bilateralism and support to higher education

The emphasis in the report is more on bilateral than on multilateral support to higher education. This is partly a reflection of the material made available to this study by the many different evaluation departments of bilateral agencies. But it is more a consequence of the fact that several modalities of higher education cooperation are particularly well-suited to bilateral assistance. In an era of increasing globalisation and competitiveness, the opportunities to develop North-South academic links, collaborative research, and specialised training have been attractive both to institutes of higher education in OECD countries and to their counterparts in the developing world.

In other words, there is a clear 'two-sidedness' or double role in bilateral higher education cooperation. On the one side, the Southern partner receives the benefits of linkages to research facilities, networks, and high level training opportunities in the North; on the other, the Northern partner develops new international capacities and is assisted by its own bilateral agency to develop further its human resources in consultancy work, training and research

Bilateral cooperation in higher education often, therefore, has multiple objectives. It seeks to build capacity in the South but at the same time develops or sustains the capacity of Northern institutions to contribute to technical cooperation. Bilateral agencies are aware of their responsibilities for maintaining their own national cadres of expertise in development.

Academic links as archetypal forms of bilateralism

Bilateral linkages, twinning or collaboration between higher education institutions are a very common expression of this doublesided aid to higher education. They are exceedingly diverse. Some are high cost; others are low. They often encompass multiple modalities including research training, collaborative research, institutional development, or curriculum development. It is typical of the bilateral ideal that they are normally relatively long term, and that the more successful ones derive from personal, collegial relations and often institutionalise existing NorthSouth commitments between individual scholars.

Bilateral linkages, especially when low cost and numerous, are seen as modalities for bringing in their train a whole series of other benefits. These would include staff development and international exposure (of both Northern and Southern staff). Low cost links are also justified in terms of their capacity to produce returns that are said to be many times larger than the initial investment. Claims for this multiplier effect of links are particularly evident in the 1996 evaluation of the British Council, DFID-funded links programme.

The larger and more costly links programmes, such as those of Holland, Norway and Canada, as well as one of the link projects of DFID evaluated for this synthesis, face much greater challenges to inter-institutional symmetry. The goals of these larger link programmes are much more ambitious, and involve considerable scope for the institutional development of the Southern partner, in addition to the levying of substantial overheads by the Northern institutions. There is typically much more concern about symmetry, Southern ownership and sustainability in the large scale link programmes. As a corollary, it can be argued that the relatively long-term (10-15 year), generous funding of the large scale links (e.g. Dutch and Norwegian) are likely to achieve a substantial degree of internationalisation and capacity development on both sides, though it is still too early for there to be available any comprehensive evaluation of these latest inter-institutional links.

In terms of impact and sustainability, there is some evidence to suggest that minimalist, low cost schemes such as the British Council's DFID-funded links are likely to work best in the relatively better endowed research environments of South East Asia and Latin America than in Sub-Saharan Africa. On the other hand, a long term, low cost linkage scheme may be a mechanism for securing a degree of sustainability at the end of a large scale project investment. In a number of cases, e.g. large library developments or institutional strengthening of entire faculties, low cost linkages have been mentioned as ways of managing the otherwise sudden transition from generous external funding to nothing.

Some of the same lessons as for academic links can be derived from bilateral support to research of **the kind assisted by Denmark, Sweden, Canada and Holland.** The destruction and migration of research capacity through the underfunding of public universities and their research infrastructure (e.g. libraries) in many countries have been so marked in many countries that it is difficult to conceive of certain research facilities not being donor dependent for some years to come (Appendix 4). Where there are almost no local university funds for research, there is evidence that even quite small research funding linked to a, Northern partner can help to sustain expensively developed local capacity. The same may be true of funding collaborative research as a form of project continuation at the end of a major investment programme.

In a situation where donor funding for short term contract research tasks has itself been part of the cause of the currently weak institutional research capacity of universities, new longer term strategies are required that reconnect research with universities. But for this to happen effectively, the donor interest in strategic

planning and university transformation needs to be linked to the older mechanisms of staff development and collaborative research. Evaluations also suggest that a greater degree of donor coordination within a university-owned planning process is becoming essential if reform itself is to be sustainable as compared with the sustainability of individual donor-aided components.

Long term relations are at the very heart of the bilateral vision of cooperation. It is therefore appropriate to conclude this section on bilateral support for higher education by underlining the point that bilateralism is about the sustainability of the relationship itself, not of the projects within the relationships. This is peculiarly true of the many universities and polytechnics which have had long term relationships with the UK (or for that matter with France, Sweden, Holland, the USA or Germany). Where the very culture of the university, or its faculty of law, veterinary or engineering has been influenced by a particular bilateral over 15 to 20 years, that bilateral may be in a peculiarly strategic position to aid the next generation of necessary changes that the university or polytechnic faces.

Many developing country higher education institutions have not gone through the kinds of reforms in decentralisation, financing, quality audit, teaching quality, research productivity and information networking that have characterised universities in the UK in particular in the last fifteen and more years. Yet, the shift from support to higher education within DFID (and other agencies) in recent years may mean that the very long term investments in particular institutions may be at risk because of hesitations about more fundamental, coordinated higher education reform.

Bilateralism may therefore mean taking advantage of the changing modalities of aid to ensure that an institution that has been majorly assisted by a particular agency continues to be able to profit from the most current thinking about best practice in higher education..

Rationales for supporting higher education in the era of Education for All (EFA)

The 1990s have witnessed in a number of agencies a shift of support from higher education to basic education. The trend would appear to have been particularly strong within DFID, though it is not yet evident in official education statistics for reasons that are inherent in the project monitoring system. In DFID, the reduction in numbers of large, new higher education projects has coincided with other major shifts, e.g. in UK-based technical cooperation training and in British experts working overseas, both of which were often connected to higher education programmes.

The emphasis on the importance of basic education has itself led to a number of new rationales for support to higher education. Understandably, one of these is **for higher education in the service of basic education.** The argument here is that the integrated nature of the education system makes it improbable that a policy of high quality in primary education can be pursued without substantial attention to improving the quality of teaching and inspection for which university level training has become commonplace. It so happens that some of the comparative advantage of the British resource in international education is focused on several dimensions of higher education that are of direct benefit to the quality of basic education. These would include university centres of excellence in science, maths and language teaching, as well as traditions of research and innovation in teaching and inspection.

A second rationale for support to higher education is that the quality of its graduates in all the professions (as well as those jobs for which a good general degree is a prerequisite) has a direct bearing on the institutional health of many other sectors,

from law, to medicine, to business and to the civil service in general. The evaluations which were considered in this study make it clear, however, that high quality, expensively-acquired skills can be massively underutilised if the work environment in government or the technical ministries is not conducive . The same is true of the underutilisation of highly trained teachers and researchers in the higher education sub-sector itself.

Clearly, this problem of mismatch is one that can only be in very small part laid at the door of the universities and polytechnics. It is more generally to do with the morale, and the reward and promotion systems within government, the civil service and higher education. But it cannot be expected that the new DFID policies focusing on various forms of primary education improvement can somehow be insulated from these wider, national questions of civil service morale, including what is often one of the largest groups of government employees, primary school teachers.

A third rationale for support to higher education relates to assumptions about poverty alleviation. It is tempting to imply that a policy of support to higher **education might be the** antithesis of strategies for poverty reduction, and that a priority for basic education would be one of the more obvious routes to reduce poverty. By contrast, it can be argued that the trade-offs suggested by this contrast are fundamentally misleading, and that policies supporting the improvement of the basic cycle are ultimately inseparable from equitable policies on secondary and higher education.

Lastly, it should be said that one of the distinguishing features of British aid to education is that it has traditionally adopted a holistic approach, asserting that there were powerful interactions amongst the different education sub-sectors of primary, secondary and higher, and that in any case the specific requirements of particular programme countries must take precedence over generalised prioritie. In this respect, it might now be argued that countries which are determined to pursue a path of industrial transformation cannot be restricted to prescriptions about priorities for basic education. The evidence suggests that one of the keys to the transformation of fast industrialising countries has been the appropriate balance amongst education sub-sectors, as also amongst other sectors of the economy.

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THE END OF DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION IN THE UNIVERSITIES?

Wolfgang KOper, Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), Eschborn

Since the World Conference on Education for All in Jorntien, Thailand in 1990, the promotion of higher education institutions in developing countries by Ministries of Development Cooperation has no longer been popular - at least in Germany but also in some other industrialised countries. The promotion of basic education has been getting more emphasis - in our country initially at the expense of the promotion of higher education.

Meanwhile, at least in Germany, the situation has changed again. Higher education, even in our development cooperation, has got a new impetus, but this is now in a slightly different direction.

In the age of globalisation, economic relations between the nations of this globe are becoming more and more important. Economies now depend on knowledge, science and technology. In this connection, universities are clearly important institutions in which knowledge is produced and spread. And in turn, universities are dependent on attracting students and on active relations to other universities.

Due to the fact that the number of foreign students has gone down during recent decades in our country, a major debate has arisen about the need to attract more students from other countries and to establish more and closer links with foreign universities. It was rather clear that this debate was not only based on scientific principles. The relationship we have already mentioned between science and the economy was also very much present.

Different programmes have been developed in order to enable German universities to contact their counterpart institutions in foreign countries, and particularly in the developing world:

lots of specialised post-graduate programmes for students from abroad (and German students) in foreign languages, particularly in English,

partnership programmes in teaching and research between German universities and universities in developing countries,

invitational programmes for lecturers/professors from universities in developing countries to teach in German universities,

special programmes of student exchange and exchange of scientists with important developing countries like Brazil, India or China.

These programmes are financed not only by the Ministry of Economic Cooperation, but also by the Ministry of Education and Technology. By means of these programmes the promotion of higher education in developing countries has got a new dimension.

But what does that mean with respect to the former objective of development cooperation in the field of higher education capacity or institution building in the developing countries themselves?

First of all, it has to be stated that funds for this kind of cooperation (institution building) are getting scarce. The number of the traditional higher education projects in developing countries has gone down considerably.

During the last three years, for example, we did not get any new projects. Funds were only available for the prolongation of existing projects and sometimes it was even argued that a necessary prolongation was not feasible due to the new priority for basic education which we have already mentioned.

Whereas on the one hand this means that the period of promotion of higher education in the developing countries directly has come to an end, there seems to be, on the other, a certain logic in this development. During the last three decades, no institutions of learning have developed so fast as the institutions of higher learning - even more than those of primary and secondary education, at least in quantitative terms. All over the world, graduates do not find adequate occupations. In many countries there is an overproduction of specialised manpower - at least in certain areas. Universities are still rather elitist institutions. As long as Education for All in many countries has still to be realised, only those few who get the academic qualifications, can enter higher education. Usually, the poorer segments of the population stay outside.

At least the Asian and Latin American universities we assisted have developed very well and are even now providing their services to other countries. The Faculty of Forestry of the University of Curitiba in Southern Brazil is offering scholarships - within programmes of Brazil's cultural cooperation - for students from other Latin American countries. Graduates of the Indian Institute of Technology of Madras - the first project of German higher education promotion - have for quite some time and in significant numbers been making their careers in the United States. In Africa, too, we have been quite successful. The Faculty of Engineering of the University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania which recently celebrated its 25th jubilee of operation, is completely Africanised and scientifically sustainable. There is only the big problem of financial sustainability.

At one level, therefore, It really seems that there is no further need to promote higher education in the developing countries and at least partly so because the development cooperation has historically been highly successful. This success, of course, not only refers to the German development cooperation but also to that of Great Britain, the Netherlands, the United States and many others.

Against this background, it therefore seems appropriate no longer to invest in the institutional capacities of the universities in developing countries, but really to try to establish and maintain scientific contact with them as this is normal in the international scientific community. This attitude would not only respect the state of development in these institutions in the developing world but would also promote a new spirit of cooperation: a scientific exchange between more equal partners instead of the traditional more paternalistic promotion of institutions. One may add, however, that there will certainly be some few exemptions to this conclusion: countries with very low proportions of students, like Mozambique or countries in **the need of reconstruction of their institutions like Angola, Rwanda or Somalia.**

This new trend of scientific exchange, however, can have two different starting points: on the one hand the programmes may be designed to strengthen the relationship between universities in the western world and universities in developing countries, but on the other hand one may think of activities initiated by those institutions in the developing countries themselves.

In this direction we are developing and realising the concept of integrating universities in developing countries into all kinds of development activities and development projects. This means that respective departments or university professors (and students) become involved in the preparation, execution, monitoring and evaluation of development projects in many different fields, like agriculture, infrastructure, or even education. In this way, they are fulfilling tasks which hitherto were mainly done by foreign consultants inside and outside the projects or by the project staff

themselves. There are already examples of this. But we think the existing possibilities of including universities in these kind of activities have not at all yet been fully exploited. Again this potentiality refers not only to German development projects but to all foreign projects and programmes which exist in a country and this could eventually mean joint international endeavours to benefit from existing capabilities in the developing countries and by this modality to contribute to their development and strength.

If this succeeds, integrating the existing capacities and capabilities of the universities in developing countries into the overall development cooperation would clearly mean a new dimension in development cooperation with universities. As in our German case, this new dimension could also be combined or related with new programme designed for closer cooperation of our universities with those of developing countries. New partnership programmes, for example, could be used to enable universities in developing countries to strengthen their capacities to render services to development programmes. This combination of two different directions of university promotion and exchange would definitely not mean the end but rather a new beginning of development cooperation in universities.

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REPLY TO W. KOPER'S ARTICLE ON 'THE END OF DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION IN THE UNIVERSITY?'

Dr. W. von Richter, Deutsche Gesellschaft fur
Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)

The major statement contained in the paper namely that after 30 years of development cooperation in the field of higher education no further investment in institution building of universities is necessary, cannot go unchallenged.

The spectacular progress of the education systems in the developing world in the postcolonial period with and without the assistance of the industrialised world has led to a large number of universities. The expansion of the university system has been primarily concerned with quantity and not quality.

The examples cited in the paper, IIT Madras, the Faculty of Engineering of the University of Dar es Salaam or the Forestry Faculty in Curitiba - and no doubt one could add quite a few more universities - are not representative of the vast majority of the universities in developing countries. It is therefore not justified to state that in future donor activities should concentrate mainly on supporting academic exchange.

The majority of universities in the developing world are not yet in a position to

compete on an equal footing with European or North American universities. Support and assistance are still required to achieve an effective and efficient system, particularly in postgraduate training and research. 1 concur with Mr. Küper's article as far as support to BSc level training is concerned; in this category the majority of

universities in development countries do not need any more technical assistance in institution building. The unfortunate exemptions are those countries, which due to

prolonged civic unrest and war have to reconstruct the civic structure including an appropriate education system at all levels.

Investment in institutions and capacity building in institutes of higher learning on postgraduate level are still of vital importance for the developing world. Unless the societies in the developing countries can produce a sufficiently large number of

qualified manpower, their dependence on the industrialised countries will deepen in the ongoing globalisation of science and technology.

In the face of. diminishing resources, both industrialised and the lesser industrialised countries have to prioritise development in the educational sector. The marked shift in German technical assistance in the higher education sector towards concentrating on programmes to foster academic exchange is the result of this state of affairs. But the notion of academic exchange between equal partners applies only to a very few select universities or departments or individuals. The majority of universities or academics will not benefit from this type of assistance. The enhancement of quality in teaching and research will not be achieved for the majority.

It is equally obvious that for various reasons it will not be feasible or even desirable to attempt to support every university in need. Nevertheless, institution and capacity building should still be considered as a major tool for the overall development of a country. The new or better focused concept by German technical assistance of integrating universities in developing activities into donor financed projects and encouraging host countries to do the same is a central step to make universities more relevant to the needs of society. But many universities are not yet fully prepared for this task. In this context, universities must continue to receive assistance with regard to institution and capacity building.

In summary, this states that developing cooperation in the higher education sector has not yet come and should not come to an end. Developing assistance during the last 30 years has substantially contributed to the establishment -of universities in almost every country of the developing world. Although considerable progress has been achieved, only a few universities have reached a level whereby they can aspire to be equal partners in scientific exchange with their counterparts in Europe or North America. The need for continuous efforts in upgrading and strengthening postgraduate training and research at universities in developing countries has not diminished but rather increased. Support of universities on the undergraduate level should be the exemption and restricted to those countries where the situation warrants it.

Development assistance to universities in the South should employ those instruments which a specific situation requires. Experience shows that a mix of different instruments meets the requirements of a developing university best. Even in terms of scarce resources the option should be left open what instruments serve best the partner institution and its situation.

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HIGHER EDUCATION AND NEW DEVELOPMENT TARGETS

Nobulhide Sawamura,
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Hiroshima University, Hiroshima

The new development targets adopted at DAC in 1996 say little about higher education. The most important one is to reduce the number of people living in extreme poverty. Higher education institutions frequently appear to have been obstacles rather than agents for development. The social and educational roles of higher education have often been marginalised, attention being solely focused on its economic contribution. Little research has been devoted to the unbiased impact of higher education on the rest of the education sector and on other sectors of the economy. What is important now might be to reconsider the role of higher education in national development and to re-examine

the function of higher education in the education system as a whole. It is essential to explore the possible present-day contributions of higher education in developing countries with a longer-term perspective, and arguments should go beyond cost-effectiveness analysis.

Universities in developing countries could be prime actors for change and development. Even the World Bank report *(Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustainable Growth,* 1989:81) notes that "to survive and compete in a competitive world in the 21st century, Africa will require not only literate and numerate citizens, but also highly qualified and trained people to perform top-quality research, formulate policies, and implement programs essential to economic growth and development." This implies that higher education institutions should and can play critical roles in capacity building and development.

Capacity building has been a catchword in the aid community, especially in the 1980s, alongside the concept of sustainable development. It is generally thought that one of the fundamental ways to enhance capacity is probably through education and higher education in particular. There seem to be two major categories of 'capacity' which can be developed through education and which are essential for national development. One relates to management and policy analysis, and the other concerns science and technology to manage technological change. Capacity building cannot be achieved through basic education alone and proper higher education plays a significant role in creating it.

A series of critiques of higher education in the 1970s were directed primarily towards its irrelevance to the requirements for development particularly in Africa. The current concerns about it since the late 1980s have been its high costs and inefficiency. It is worth noting that this criticism is often raised by lending agencies like the World Bank and it may well be that they are biased towards macroeconomic reform rather than educational development itself. While economic efficiency and equity are given priority, could major roles of higher education in national development be lost? The coming World Conference on Higher Education could be a turning point of aid policy in education which has rather focused on basic education since the Jomtien conference in 1990.

The critical problem of higher education may lie in the reality that enrolment in higher education has been rapidly expanded as a result of social and political pressures rather than from economic demand, without the provision of adequate financial resources. In the context of budgetary constraints, higher education seems to be competing with rather than complementary to lower levels of education.

Now it may be time to utilise the resource of higher education positively and actively to build such capacity and then to build genuine partnerships. Could higher education institutions in many **developing countries function as agents of poverty reduction through their** highly qualified human resources? The **higher education systems of** newly industrialising countries in East Asia seem to have played a vital role in generating new knowledge and manpower. Arguably, it is mandatory to make an appropriate system through which these institutions can make full contributions to national development.

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FRENCH CO-OPERATION AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Pierre Faugbres, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Paris

Just after their independence, the former French colonies asked France to provide some help (human resources and financing) to their ministries of education.

At the beginning, this aid was mainly directed towards basic and secondary education. In 1970, among nearly 8000 "coopé rants"), 3200 of them worked for basic education and 700 for higher education.

Ten years later, for about the same total figure the number of "coopérants" at tertiary level was 1700.

Quite a lot of money was spent by the French government to build, to upgrade and equip facutlies and hundreds of laboratories in Francophone universities in sub-Saharan Africa.

Due to the economic crisis of the mid 80s, together with the various programmes of '.structural adjustment", French cooperation was the advocate of a more intensive form of professionalisation of faculties and universities, because of the almost total halt in recruitment by the public service and the increase of an already high figure of unemployment in all countries. Most donors to higher education did the same.

Since 1987, French cooperation was also active in providing financial support to various research programmes set up by African scholars (100 programmes in ten years for a budget of 60 million francs).

In 1998, French cooperation decided that a new partnership would be established between consortia of French universities and similar consortia of sub-Saharan universities on definite programmes where competencies would be found in various universities in the North and in the South, The French Ministry of Education and Higher Education has been an active partner of that "university partnership" between France and sub-Saharan Africa.

Another contribution to the development of African tertiary education is provided by the Francophone Agency for Higher Education whose budget is mainly provided by French Cooperation (about 110 million francs per year). Some aid is also given to the Francophone University of Alexandria in Egypt which caters for post graduate studies in four main fields: management, environment, health and nutrition, and management of cultural heritage.

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LINKING HIGHER EDUCATION TO BASIC EDUCATION (HEBE)
A Commonwealth Project to Strengthen Basic Education

Jasbir Singh, consultant, Kuala Lumpur

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This Commonwealth Secretariat initiative, a response to Education for All, is designed to build and strengthen the capacity of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in developing countries to improve the quality of, and access to, basic education. A number of Commonwealth and international fora since the early 1990s have identified the need to address this problem. Commonwealth Education Ministers in Barbados in 1990 and in Islarnabad in 1994 reaffirmed their commitment to Education for All and

recommended that the higher education sector strive to enhance its contribution to its achievement. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (DAE) Working Group on Higher Education has also focused on this as a key area of concern. The mid-decade review of Education for All in Amman, Jordan (June 1996) emphasised the link between the two sectors. The aims of the HEBE (as the project is known) initiative are to:

support HEIs to identify appropriate strategies and activities that will be implemented and sustained by local expertise and resources, and that will, at a practical level, engage HEI's in the development of basic education.

establish regional/country/institutional working groups to plan and implement selected strategies.

assist teachers in HEI's to determine the most effective methods by which they can impact upon the practices and quality of basic education.

commission for publication key resource material, including a monograph illustrating the experiences of HEIs in achieving the objectives of Education for All and a handbook of good practice.

The project commenced the first phase of its work during 1995/96. Through critical review and analysis of eight case studies commissioned by the Secretariat and two by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs from different parts of the Commonwealth (Botswana, Ghana, India Malaysia, New Zealand, South Pacific, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, West Indies and Zambia), a report, prepared by Fiona Leach of the University of Sussex, identified examples of practices where HEIs have successfully intervened in the development of basic education. These included but were not limited to the key issues in basic education - access and equity, quality and relevance, efficiency, management and costs - and three basic functions of higher education: education and training, research and service to society.

Project work has been taken forward through two workshops: a pan-Commonwealth workshop held in Langkawi during March 1997 and a regional workshop for the South Pacific held during May 1998. Further regional activities are planned for 1999.

(Further information on this project can be obtained from Mr Jeffrey Bost, Commonwealth Secretariat. Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London SW1Y 5HX <j.bost @commonwealth. int>. Copies of workshop reports are available from the Education Department, Commonwealth Secretariat)

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SEEKING AFTER PARTNERSHIPS IN RESEARCH

Terry Allsop, Department for International Development [DFID)
(Central Africa), Harare

Many things have changed in DFID since the publication of the White Paper on International Development *Eliminating World Poverty: A Challenge for the 21st Century.* The emphasis throughout the document on partnerships is reflected in statements about research, thus:

Research is an important weapon in the fight against poverty. Without research, many development interventions would fail or be much less successful; and research has significant multiplier effects -solutions to the causes of poverty in one part of the developing world may well be replicable in another. The principle of shared knowledge is an important component of the partnerships which are essential to development. The government sees continued investment in knowledge generation as a key element in achieving its aims and objectives for international development (White Paper, 1997, page 48)

1 write this note after three years of being responsible for commissioning educational research for DFID, through a period of a five-fold expansion of the research budget for education. Many of the things which flow from the statement above have begun to show up in our research programmes, for example

Close attention in the scrutiny of research proposals to the full engagement of developing country researchers as equal partners in the enterprise

Sharing of research finances

Research capacity building as an integral part of a proposal

Equity in publication citation.

But in none of these areas would 1 pretend that we have developed equal partnerships and my guess is that we shall not succeed until we have an agreed code of conduct for partnership research similar in scope to the code for education sector funding agencies developed by the Horizon 2000 Group of Education Experts of the EC. A few tough questions, with outline comments, show some of the potentially tricky areas:

Will we in future look favourably on a research proposal which does not explicitly engage developing country researchers? [Almost certainly not]

Will we accept research proposals which have different levels of institutional funding support between the partners? [Probably yes, but we should take our line from Horizon 2000 which suggests 'work towards eventually decreasing the imbalance between national and expatriate salaries and allowances']

Should we reject the often embedded assumption of senior/lead researchers (usually from northern institutions) and junior researchers (from developing countries), specifically in relation to publication? [Almost certainly yes, given the prevailing bad practice here].

So, will our northern partners be sufficiently flexible to accommodate this new world? Given the present priorities for UK higher education institutions, 1 have to hold some doubts. For example, the dominance of the cycle of research/publication review is so great that this alone will hold problems for many university-based

researchers. Will northern researchers and their institutions wish to enter into partnerships where the conceptualisation of the research was initiated in the developing country, and where there principal role as partners is to help refine the proposal and help make it operational? Will they be interested in becoming, in effect, consultants in research methodology and research capacity building? 1 see one or two very interesting examples of this emerging, in countries like India and South Africa, where there is a huge resource of quality indigenous researchers.

1 very much hope that DFID will take a lead in supporting these very interesting, and potentially more equitable, ways of doing business. 1 anticipate that, in addition to our dedicated education research budget, our scheme for higher education links will take a stronger lead in partnerships in research and publication, perhaps adding a specific publication route which will be particularly valuable to developing country researchers.

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NEW FOCUS FOR THE UK's HE LINKS PROGRAMME

Robert Monro, Higher Education Links, British Council, Manchester

Background The UK's higher education links programme has been in operation since 1981. It is funded by the Department for International Development (DFID - formerly ODA), and managed by the British Council from its headquarters in the UK and its offices overseas. It is a low cost scheme, relying more on the commitment of its participants than on high levels of funding for its success. It has an annual budget of about £3 million which is spread across more than 450 links in 44 developing countries, so the average cost of a link is less than £7,OOO. These funds are used almost exclusively for the travel and subsistence of participants, and link partners are expected to contribute their time and facilities for free. The British Council also provides its overseas administration at no charge to the scheme and management costs are therefore less than 5% of the budget.

A cost-effectiveness study of the scheme was carried out between 1993 and 1996; this found that the value of the outputs from the programme were at least 80 times its cost to DFID. 'Significant factors contributing to this were the time that UK university staff provided and the fact that a number of links led directly to the saving of lives, which are given a high economic value. As a result of this endorsement the links programme received a further commitment to funding from DFID with effect from 1997.

Small is beautiful? The UK links are much smaller than those operated by several other countries and, individually, they cannot hope to contribute as much to major "Institution building" in developing countries. However, because they operate at the personal level they do make a significant contribution to staff and departmental development. UK academics participate in them because they are interested in the country, in development, in joint research, or in gaining international perspectives and experience. Developing country academics participate in them for much the same reasons and there is thus a symmetry to these links which may be lacking from others. At a different level, while the recipient departments are usually the immediate beneficiaries of the links, UK institutions are able to raise their international profile, attract overseas students and have more opportunities to become involved in donor funded projects because of them. They therefore work on the basis of shared interest and mutual benefit.

Focus on development Although the links programme has always been funded by the UK's development agency and only operates in developing countries, the subjects of individual links have varied widely, according to the interests of the academics concerned. While they have all contributed to "capacity building" in one way or another, some links have had little relevance to the development needs of those countries. Following the publication of the government's policy paper *Eliminating World Poverty* in 1997 this has changed, and links are now expected to make a demonstrable contribution to sustainable development and the alleviation of poverty and suffering. This does not have to be a direct contribution, as this is seldom possible through the HE sector, but when applying for link funding, participants must show that what they plan to achieve does have relevance to the country's development needs.

This re-focusing is not designed to be proscriptive or unnecessarily restrictive. Links may be in obvious developmental areas such as health, education or agriculture, or in related fields such as gender and the environment, but they can equally well be in law, politics, economics or management if their outputs will contribute to improved policies and organisational structures which will be conducive to enhanced development. There is no actual restriction, as long as the relevance of the link to the country's development is made clear.

Impact There has, as yet, been no systematic evaluation of the impact of the links programme, but evidence from individual links suggests that this could be considerable. In the last year alone links have made significant contributions to criminal law in Botswana, community health in Brazil, wind power in Chile, labour market reform in China, gender studies in Egypt, information management in Ghana, rice research in India, low cost housing in Malaysia, forest management in Mexico, science policy in Nepal, dental health in Peru, catchment monitoring in the Philippines, science education in South Africa, population studies in Vietnam and water management in Zimbabwe - to mention but a few.

In the past link co-ordinators have reported on the activities and outputs of their links. Now they are being asked to think beyond these to the impact that those outputs should have and, where possible, to provide baseline information which will allow this to be quantified in the future. That will be the challenge for the next evaluation of the links programme.

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SEARCHING FOR SYMMETRY IN UNIVERSITY COOPERATION

Jos Walenkamp, Netherlands Organisation for International Cooperation in Higher Education and Research, NUFFIC, The Hague

Symmetry in university cooperation is sought for in order to neutralise existing asymmetries in North-South relationships. This asymmetry was a naturally occurring phenomenon. From the North came the knowledge and the money. And with them came the vision on what the role of a university in its society should be, what science should be, how teaching was to be conducted, what research should be done, what a curriculum should look like and which were the standards with which to judge quality.

In the course of time, as societies changed, certain drawbacks of this asymmetry became apparent. Not all southern universities are fortunate enough to operate in the same socio-economic context as their counterparts in the North. Not everything taught or discovered is of any foreseeable use to the country which supports the university.

Many academics are inclined to look more to northern countries than to their own and some contribute to the general brain drain. Support for the university by the public or the politicians is dwindling, because the costs are hardly bearable and the benefits are perceived to be minimal.

Each country should make its own choices with regard to its own education system in its own society. Increasingly societies require that system to be relevant, to be contributing to their development. The most essential issues in symmetry are ownership and relevance. North-South, or any other, cooperation must reflect that ownership and relevance. In inter-university cooperation, ownership means that both partners work in their own interest in the framework of their own education system and institutional policy, and that their work is relevant to their own societies according to their own criteria.

Full symmetry in university cooperation is here perceived to have the following characteristics:

1. Both partners have an equivalent, although not necessarily identical, interest in the cooperation.

2. The agenda for cooperation is drawn up jointly and equally supported by both partners. Each partner fully supports what is being done, to what end, by whom and with which means.

3. Both partners have an equal say in the implementation of the cooperation. They agree on the allocation of funds, on the staff to be employed, on the services rendered, on travel and on the equipment to be purchased.

4. Both partners have a more or less equivalent share in the implementation of the cooperation.

5. If there is external funding of the cooperation, both partners are treated equally by external funding agencies.

'Partner' is an open term. It can apply to an institution, to the central administration, to a faculty dean or an individual academic. Not always do all members of a partner community see eye to eye. It is therefore important to establish early and clearly who are to be the interlocutors of the partner institutions and what is their mandate. In the interest of a balanced institutional development and sustainability, the central administration of the institution should have the final say, if only in the mandate it gives to decentralised authority.

Cooperation can take many forms. **It can be a very simple affair between two** academics, who wish to do joint research, minimally financed by their departments' budget. Or it can be a very elaborate and costly linkage, financed by a donor organisation, guided by policies and rules and regulations.

But in any case the participants should be kept on the straight and narrow of ownership and relevance by their own administrators and the funding agencies. These donors should endeavour to strengthen the position of the southern partner and to limit their own policy demands to not much more than a judicious use of public funds.

In the Netherlands programmes for institutional cooperation, ownership is safeguarded as for example in the Joint Financing Programme for Cooperation in Higher Education (MHO), by the following arrangements:

A counterpart institution in the South is selected, partly on the strength of its management and own strategic development plan. Within certain budgetary limits (some 7 million dollars over four years), the southern partner draws up a draft indicative plan, indicating the areas of possible cooperation and a first tentative allocation of funds. This plan is sent to all Dutch universities and universities for professional education. Those interested in a certain area indicate their willingness, approach and relevant expertise. A mission sent by the prospective overseas counterpart institution selects the Dutch partners on the basis of their expertise and approach. For each project the southern and the northern partners jointly formulate a proposal. Attached to the general project document there is a split cost estimate/work plan, each part reflecting the activities and the budget for each of the two partners. Each partner is responsible for its own activities and budget.

An independent project committee approves or disapproves the project proposals, also in relation to the strategic development plan and the way it contributes to the relevance of the southern institution towards its own society.

In practice, of course, complications exist and not everything works perfectly as planned. But as we all develop and gain experience, we are slowly approaching the desired symmetry in university cooperation.

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UNIVERSITIES FOR BASIC EDUCATION

Bikas C Sanyal, International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris

Universities are at the top of the education pyramid and determine to a large extent the state of the education system of a country. They are the bastion of the highest level of human resources, expertise and wisdom a country has. As such, they have a responsibility towards the whole society including the whole education system. The foundation for education lies at the basic education level. As such, development of basic education should be the responsibility of the university system. However, universities while being concerned with creation of new knowledge, development of high level human resources for economic needs and providing service to the modern sector of the economy, have very seldom been concerned with this important function except through some ad hoc individual efforts, without any institutional mechanism. The International Institute for Educational Planning has recently been concerned with this problem, and attempted to explore the ways and means for universities to include development of basic education as an explicit function of the universities.

It has undertaken two studies in this direction, one addressing the role of the university in initial teacher training and the other addressing the role of the university in reducing urban poverty through improved access to education and employment. The findings will be disseminated soon.

What the universities can do?

1. Through the programmes of research, universities could identify the preconditions for a supportive policy context for the development of basic education and explore techniques of mobilising resources. Specifically, they can:

improve access and equity in basic education by investigating the effect of the medium of instruction on motivating children of lower socio-economic status to pursue education; by identifying the role of culture on demand for education for children of different socio-economic status, especially girls, and the required corrective

measures; by finding out the reasons for non-participation, drop out and failure in examinations and the corresponding remedies;

improve quality and relevance of basic education by identifying the gaps through the perception and experience of the parents, the community leaders and the employers and formulating policies for improvement; by identifying the needs for skills among basic education completers for employment in the formal and informal sectors of the economy and designing methods of imparting these skills in the programmes and by monitoring and evaluating the progress made in achieving basic education for all;

improve managerial efficiency of basic education programmes by preparing state of the art papers on good practices from around the world; identifying the roles of the state, the community and the school in the decision-making process; by investigating the causes of inefficiency and wastage of resources and suggesting corrective measures.

11. Through the programmes of education and training universities could improve the teaching/learning strategy of the teachers, the most important agents for development of basic education. Specifically, the universities can:

(i) improve access and equity in basic education by introducing teaching of local languages for potential teachers; reinforcing teacher education and management training, including planning and management of basic education as an instructional programme; introducing affirmative action for access of female students and students of low socio-economic status;

(ii) improve quality and relevance of basic education by training teachers suitable for local contexts and environment; by involving the community in designing the content, method and structure of teacher education for basic education so that the school leavers may become employable in the formal or the informal sector; by modernising teacher education through the use of new technology and pedagogy; by introducing in-service courses for teacher management and for heads of basic schools and by introducing training programmes on how to design, produce and distribute text books costeffectively;

(iii) improve managerial efficiency of basic education by introducing courses for heads of schools on better utilisation of resources, diversification of financing through community participation and effective school management, at national, provincial and local levels.

lll. Through the programmes of public service the universities could mobilise the community at large for the development of basic education. Specifically, the universities can:

improve access and equity in basic education by initiating adult literacy classes in campus; **introducing national service for the university students to teach** in basic schools as a condition for graduation; by launching campaign through media and other means in extra mural studies department to motivate and encourage children of lower socio-economic status and girls to pursue education;

improve quality and relevance of basic education by organising evenings for the community in the extra-mural studies department to discuss the issues related to quality and relevance in so far as these are related to the universities; by preparing programmes for neo-literates for different media to sustain literacy and by using the results of the research for improving quality and relevance as identified by the research function within the university;

improve managerial efficiency of basic education by organising open door evenings or meetings with the community to discuss the reasons for inefficiency and wastage

identified by research and the concrete means of rectification; by organising meetings with potential donors to finance programmes of basic education and organising evening classes for school managers by inviting extension lecturers.

However, we must remember that for a university to succeed in performing these tasks, there must be a supportive policy context and an institutional mechanism. Universities to-day have to undertake new social functions for their survival. Paying attention to the long neglected area of basic education may help.

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NEW EXPERIENCE BY THE GERMAN ACADEMIC EXCHANGE SERVICE (DAAD) WITH REGARD TO PARTNERSHIPS WITH UNIVERSITIES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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In international discussions about the effectiveness and sustainability of collaboration for development, high priority is given to direct co-operation between well-defined groups for the realisation of concrete academic proposals of mutual interest. The basic prerequisite for a successful, long-term partnership between universities is their collaboration based on equality.

With the new programme of Interdepartmental Partnerships with Universities in Developing Countries, DAAD intends to stimulate and strengthen university collaboration for development. In particular, the following objectives are aimed at:

1. cause an innovative effect and lasting structural improvement of the conditions for teaching, research, services and management methods (institutional development) at the universities in developing countries;

2. furthering the education and training for the participating members of the universities in the developing countries (professors, junior faculty, graduate students, undergraduate students), and promoting experience of international co-operation;

3. stabilising partnerships between universities (made possible through grants over several years), which in time permits long-term institutional ties;

4. creating networks between German universities and their partner institutions.

5. and last but not least increase the sensitivity of German universities as institutions and of their members to the problems of development policies.

The funding is considered to be a partial support of the actual financial costs, with a maximum funding of DM 30 000 per year over a maximum grant period of four years for any of the applications. DAAD essentially assumes the travel expenses of the partnership participants.

The initial announcement in 1997 prompted 172 applications for 40 available grants. Activities were taken up during the same year. Further announcements received an equally positive response for grants commencing in 1998 and 1999. The applications cover a wide area of scientific subjects and are targeted at partnerships with universities in developing countries almost world-wide.

Two thirds of the approved applications come from science and engineering. About another third is covered in equal parts by humanities, economics, and medicine. The typical areas of development co-operation like agriculture and medicine form no more than 20%, indicating a possible change of demands of the universities of developing countries.

In the regional distribution, Asia is predominant. Half of the applications are from this continent. About a third of the applications are from Latin America. The planned partnerships with African universities cover the remaining 20%. The number of approved partnerships reflects a comparable ratio.

The fact that nearly 80% of all projects aim at activities in the postgraduate sector, including credit transfer plans, indicate the demand for further academic qualification in developing countries. The remaining partnerships target the improvement of research conditions, especially in science and its field work, and to a lesser degree the strengthening of service capabilities or co-operations with the industrial sector as a third party.

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THE WORLD OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES: THE EXPERIENCE OF KENYA

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The African higher education sector has witnessed some remarkable growth during the last three decades. Although the university degree is no longer the guaranteed ticket to formal employment, possession of it continues to be a major boost to the recipients social mobility prospects. The political elite, although threatened by the rising unemployment of university graduates, support higher education expansion for political reasons. After all, they can always hide behind the logic of the presumed contribution of higher education to their respective countries' socioeconomic development.

In the absence of adequate national resources to support an expanded higher education sector, a point being constantly banged in the ears of African politicians by the World Bank, private higher education has witnessed some remarkable growth in a number of African countries. Growth of this sector has been further fuelled by several other developments, among which are: the limited opportunities availed of by public universities; the constant closures of state-funded universities; the limited course offerings available in public universities; and by the need of some religious organisations to make a mark in the host African countries.

Compared to most other African countries, Kenya's private university system is relatively well-developed. The University of East Africa, Baraton which is located in the Great Rift Valley, The Catholic University of East Africa, Daystar University and The United States International University (USIU) all in Nairobi are the major private universities operating in Kenya. There are an additional eighteen smaller, mainly religious institutions which award degrees through larger universities based in the West (mainly the USA).

The Kenya National Commission for Higher Education (CHE) which is the buffer body between universities and government has the overall responsibility of licensing private higher educational institutions. CHE categorises these institutions into three main categories, namely: registered private universities; accredited private universities; and private universities operating on the basis of a letter of internal authority. CH E formulates procedures for the establishment and accreditation of private universities as well as their implementation. It needs to be pointed out that these requirements demand an unrealistically high standard of university education. If applied to the letter, few universities, including the more established public institutions such as the University of Nairobi would qualify for accreditation and the granting of a civil charter. In addition to the politicisation of the processes of accreditation and subsequent **inspection by the CHE, limited human and** physical resources are the major obstacles to the successful operation of the CHE.

Private higher educational institutions have made some noticeable contribution to the development of Kenya's higher education sector. For many parents, school leavers, and some employed persons, these institutions have provided a second chance for those who would not otherwise have benefited from university education and at no public cost. The total intake of private universities is nearing 50 per cent of the intake of public institutions. Young school leavers whose parents can afford the fees of private institutions prefer them to public universities because they are able to enrol in university earlier and complete their studies in a much shorter duration than would be possible if they were to attend the frequently closed state universities. For those already on the job market who are keen on a university education, private universities are the perfect choice. They make it possible for them to enrol for classes when it suits them (weekends and evenings) and offer them the flexibility of

enrolling during those semesters when they are able to raise fees. More importantly, such mature students are able to upgrade their professional skills, thus enhancing their chances for professional growth. The enrolment of students who possess some professional experience is a bonus for both their less experienced colleagues and lecturers.

It however needs to be stressed that the learning opportunities offered by the private universities are rather limited. None of them offers courses in the physical and biological sciences mainly because of the costs involved in mounting these programmes. Thus, the prominent course offerings in most of these institutions are the social sciences, education (arts), business administration, accounting and computer science. All the religious colleges offer programmes in theology which is compulsory in some of them.

Private universities are also providing leadership in some spheres of higher education development. In the first place, unlike the public institutions which are often characterised by a duplication of existing degree programmes, some of which open few opportunities for post-graduate employment, the leading private universities are making an effort to respond to market forces even though their programmes remain limited to the social sciences. As an example, the University of East Africa, Baraton was the first higher education institution in Kenya to offer a community health based degree beginning in 1987 following the recommendation of the Nursing council of Kenya. Even for the more traditional social science programmes, some private institutions have made an effort to orient them to changing market needs by offering related professional courses. Second, the leading private institutions have established strong links with their alumni and the business community. Such links have proved valuable with regard to student recruitment, training on the job through student internship programmes and with regard to the re-orientation of course offerings.

The leadership role of private universities is particularly visible with regard to their relatively more efficient management and planning activities. Compared to public universities: private universities; employ smaller numbers of staff; are characterized by more decentralized administrations; use merit considerations as the main criteria for employment; separate catering from academic services; and employ more efficient procurement strategies. In short, private universities are generally better run than the public ones, a situation which is helped by the fact that national politicians rarely interfere in their running. Inefficiency in the management of private universities may however result from the significant influence of religious bodies in some of these institutions. In some of these institutions the religious affiliation of potential employers may be more critical than their professional competence.

To **some limited extent, some of the private universities offer better quality education than their relatively bigger and less resourced public institutions.** This is because they are able to employ some of the most qualified academics (even from the public institutions) to teach as part time or permanent staff because they offer them a more attractive employment package than that offered by the public institutions. Some of the private universities libraries (this is especially true of USIUA) are much more resourced than those of public universities especially with regard to journals subscriptions. Public universities no longer subscribe for many of the current journals in the various disciplines of study. Moreover, students and staff of some of the private universities have more access to computer facilities and the technology which goes with it than do their counterparts in public institutions. In a sense, by focussing its attention on the private universities and constantly threatening them with de-registration, CHE has contributed to pressurizing these institutions to conform to some minimum academic standards. On the other hand,

public universities, by virtue of being political institutions are guaranteed survival in spite of the low quality of education which they may be offering their students.

Having said this, it should be noted that the standard of education offered in the majority of the smaller private institutions could be said to be relatively poor. This is firstly because many of the students who enroll in these institutions have lower academic qualifications than their counterparts in public universities. Often it is those students who cannot compete for a place in public universities who end up in the private universities. Second, as noted earlier criteria such as religious commitment and not academic excellence is used to identify potential students, lecturers and university administrators. Third, even in the more successful private institutions, the profit motive has resulted in situations in which poor students are encouraged to continue their enrollment in their respective institutions and to eventually graduate with a degree certificate. Thus, the more rigorous lecturers who demand what they consider some minimum standards from their students find themselves excluded from these private institutions. The quality of education offered in these institutions could also be lowered by the fact that private universities invest little in research programmes. Finally, with regard to the learning/teaching infrastructure, some private universities are much less endowed than some top African high schools.

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CONSTRAINTS OF AFRICAN SCHOLARS IN AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

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With a population of about 30 million, Kenya has five public universities, five chartered private ones, one Africa Campus of an American private university, and about a dozen church -sponsored tertiary colleges at various stages in the national accreditation process. The total undergraduate enrolment in the public universities is about 43,000. In the chartered private universities the undergraduate enrolment is about 6,000. All the universities are over-crowded and over-strained. There are at least 20,000 Kenyans studying abroad, mainly in India, USA, South Africa and UK. The demand for university education is extremely high, but the places for enrolment are severely limited.

It is very expensive to establish and maintain the physical facilities necessary for a conducive university environment. The expectations of students and faculty in Africa with regard to facilities are not different from those in the affluent nations of the North Atlantic. These expectations are inculcated through the values which are acquired in the process of training academic staff abroad, television, radio and newspaper reports, and also in student and staff exchange programmes. Those who have access to Internet have an additional superhighway to hike their expectations. The NGO sector has become another means of raising expectations, because the values the expatriate staff bring are often at great variance with those of the African societies they come to serve.

The work load of African academics tends to be much heavier than that of their counterparts in North Atlantic universities, but their remuneration is five, ten or even twenty times lower. Consequently, African academics tend to supplement their monthly income by additional part-time jobs, at the expense of research, writing and publishing in their respective academic specialisations.

To illustrate this point, let us compare the income levels of academics in USA and Kenya, in relation to the respective per capita GNP of the two countries. In 1994,

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the per capita GNP of USA was US$ 25,880. The average annual salary of University professors in USA was about US$ 55,000 - just about twice the GNP. Kenya's per capita GNP was US$ 250 - one hundred times lower than that of USA. The average annual salary of University lecturers in Kenya was about US$ 3,000 - nearly 20 times lower than that of USA, and twelve times higher than the national GNP. Yet the recruitment and promotion requirements were comparable in both countries. The difference is even greater in 1998.

While the national economy of an African country such as Kenya cannot sustain remuneration levels comparable to those in the North Atlantic universities, the consumption patterns and social expectations of academics in African countries is comparable to those of academics in the North Atlantic universities. This situation makes North-South 'cooperation' in higher education very difficult. At the intellectual level, the counterparts may be on par, but at the social level the northern counterparts enjoy a much higher standard of living. Whereas the northern counterparts can afford to go to theatre, do some tourism, and even host a party, the African counterpart can hardly feed himself and his nuclear family. All energy is directed towards survival, not towards knowledge for knowledge's sake! Hardly any African scholar in an African university can afford the luxury of ivory-tower academic scholarship.

Most Kenyan academics are conscious of their social status. They know that they are employed to teach, conduct research and publish their research findings. However, they also are constrained by their meagre remuneration and by the financial resources available for the university infrastructure. With the emergence of private universities, a new source of income has become providentially available for academics in public universities. Many of them teach at the public university as 'full-time' employees, and teach 'part-time' at the private universities. There is hardly any time left for them to conduct research and publish.

Thus the apparent decline in research output is not because African academics are less qualified as researchers, but because there is hardly any time or motivation to do research in the context of the university. Private universities are expediently happy to utilise the human resources available in the public universities, because the payment of casual part-time lecturers is very much cheaper than engaging them on full-time basis.

There is a clamour for North-South co-operation in higher education. But this clamour originates from the North Atlantic, and is funded from there. The structures and objectives of that co-operation do not, as a matter of policy, encourage cooperation within the African universities, or even within the regions in the south. The consequence is that African scholars become not partners or counterparts, but research assistants f or the 'principal researchers' **from the North Atlantic universities,** who **carry the purse and the wallet.** Finding themselves on the receiving end, many African academics will do the bare minimum to earn their allowance. After all, they often will not get full acknowledgement for collaboration and co-operation.

What do all these observations lead to? It is quite clear to anyone familiar with what goes on inside the African university in a country such as Kenya, that genuine cooperation between universities in the North Atlantic and those of tropical Africa will be possible only if the well endowed universities of the North are ready and willing to promote research and publication within and between African universities themselves. Academics in the North Atlantic should become consumers of research and knowledge generated in Africa, not producers of the knowledge themselves.

1 articulate this challenge as someone who has been involved in this approach for more than twenty years. It eventually pays high dividends, because the African

scholars develop self-confidence as they generate knowledge among themselves, and this knowledge in turn invigorates research in Europe and North America. An approach in which Europeans and North Americans compete with Africans on home ground is counter-productive, both in the short-term and as a long term policy.

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INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY FOR ALL IN INDIA

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That the quality of education in India needs improvement has been widely recognised for a long time. One of the important dimensions of poor quality of higher education is reflected in poor quality and out dated infrastructure. Despite some of the initiatives taken by the Government of India in terms of provision of modern audiovisual equipment including televisions and computers in schools under the programme of 'Operation Blackboard', and the 'CLASS project' and the initiatives made by the University Grants Commission (UGC) in a similar direction in the form of provision of computers to colleges in recent years, modernisation and automation of equipment in schools, colleges, universities and other institutions of higher education have not taken place sufficiently well.

In this context, the recommendations of the Prime Minster's Task Force on Information Technology and Software Development (July 1998) assume much significance. The Government of India aims at heralding an information technology (IT) revolution in the country and make the country technologically self reliant, rather than waiting for technological developments to take place outside. The Government also aims at making IT accessible to all. The Task Force has outlined 108 measures of various types in this direction. Some that have direct significance for the education sector are worth noting.

Recognising that IT will be a frontier area of knowledge in the next millennium, the Government of India plans to launch an 'Operation Knowledge,' according to which every school, college and university, including polytechnics, engineering and medical colleges, research and development organisations (and also all public hospitals) will be provided with computers with access to internet facilities by 2003 AD. All institutions of higher education will also be inter-connected with networking facilities. This is hoped to provide access to global learning resources and to entail that appropriate technology is adopted for providing effective learning. The Plan also envisages setting up of ten institutes of advanced information technology, known as Indian Institutes of Information Technology (IIITs), and also, at national level and one at each state level, a digital library. Setting up of 'smart' schools, and 'virtual' institutes is also an important part of the Information Technology Action Plan. IT will also be a compulsory course in all degree level studies. A target of the Plan is to bridge the 23.5 million manpower gap to achieve $50 billion target in the export of software. The overall strategy is to make IT a mass movement. Creation of awareness of IT among the general public becomes an essential pre-requisite for a mass scale spread of IT. IT will be an effective agent to transform the society into a 'knowledge-based society' of the 21 st century. It necessitates significant changes in habits and attitudes of the whole society towards modernisation.

The Technology Action Plan could be seen as one with a great vision for the future of the country, and at the same time as a dream, and at the least as a highly ambitious plan.

It is a plan formulated with great vision as it realises that IT would be at an important frontier of knowledge and that it is information technology that would make all the difference between the rich advanced countries and developing countries in the 21 st century. Accordingly the Government's plan to transform the whole society with extensive spread of use of IT in almost every facet of human life is worth commending.

At the same time, the plan is very ambitious, given the resource position of the government on the one hand, and its performance in the past.

It is reported that the cost of the education component of the Information Technology Plan would be prohibitive. Provision of average quality infrastructure facilities for information technology in every education institution would alone cost Rs. 30,000 million. The capital costs of setting up of the Indian Institutes of Information Technology might cost Rs. 6,000-Rs. 7,000 million. Setting up of digital libraries might cost Rs. 10,000 million. These figures become astonishingly high, given the fact the public expenditures on higher education have shrunk in recent years. In the eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) barely seven per cent of the education outlay was allocated for higher education, the corresponding figure was nearly one-quarter in the early 1970s. Not only in terms of proportions, but also absolute levels of expenditure on higher education in real prices have declined in recent years. Allocation of resources to higher education in the ninth Five Year Plan (19972002) that would take the country into the next millennium is not hoped to be much better. On the whole, while the Plan proposes to allocate $4 billion in the next ten years on IT education, it is feared that the actual costs could be double the figure. After all, provision of computer facilities and more advanced IT facilities would also require provision of reliable electricity infrastructure, telephones and related facilities in every school and higher education institutions, besides, unlike in the developed world, provision of power generators and power stabilisers with every computer. The cost of this associated necessary infrastructure would be considerable.

Critics might argue that when after half a century of independence and four decades of planning, even basic minimum facilities -- reasonably good quality chalk, black boards and learning-teaching material, sufficient classrooms and all-weather buildings -- could not be provided in all primary schools in the country, any plan to provide IT in schools and colleges in the near future would be unrealistic. At the same time, few doubt the crucial role of IT in development in the 21 st century. Given the experience of the century that is concluding, and the pace of technological developments, who knows! - the technological revolution may not be very far away!

Nevertheless, it has to be underscored that while IT might help improvement in the quality of education, universal literacy and **extensive spread of education, including post-elementary education, are a pre-requisite for IT to be an effective agent of** social transformation. The contribution of IT will be severely hampered if a large proportion of the population and work force is illiterate in terms of basic 3 R's, not to speak in terms of computer literacy. Emphasis on literacy and formal education has to be significantly stepped up, which pays on its own, besides priding a congenial environment for the IT revolution. Development of basic education should form an essential, integral part of the IT plan.

The Government of India has given IT a centre-stage in making India grow fast to catch up with the developed world. But realisation of the information technology plan would mean a giant leap forward. This is indeed a great challenge. The challenge becomes indeed tough, if (a) IT is to be evenly spread in all the geographical regions of the country in breadth and width (and to avoid creating a few pockets of technological advancement -- may be in a few selected metropolitan areas, amidst vast areas of backwardness, poverty and ignorance), (b) if IT is to be made

accessible to all irrespective of socio-economic background of the people (and not to make it a privilege of the few), and (c) if IT has to become an effective instrument of growth with equity and a human face.

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SOME VIEWS ON THE INTERNAL CULTURE OF AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

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African governments have borne much of the blame for the countless problems facing Africa's public universities. Heads of state and politicians in general have often been censured for interfering in the running of universities, for limiting academic freedom and for under-funding national universities. The preoccupation with such a view of the crisis of the African university has however tended to prevent us from coming to grips with the fact that a great deal of the damage to African universities is internally generated: by university administrators, academic staff and by students.

The Influence of the Politician Needless to stress, many university governance- related problems have their origins in the system of bestowing university leadership on unqualified administrators who are often more readily accountable to their political god-fathers than they are to their respective academic communities. For universities, this situation has resulted in a number of undesirable trends. The first is that virtually all the powers and decision-making authority in most public universities are concentrated in the office of the university's chief executive (the Vice-Chancellor or Rector). Because most other university administrators, including the immediate deputies of vicechancellors and rectors are more or less toothless, decision-making often progresses at a snail's pace resulting in major administrative inefficiencies. In some universities, the vice-chancellor or rector has to authorise expenditures such as IOUs of US$ 100, authorise staff to travel to conferences, chair staff and student disciplinary committees, chair all appointment meetings and has to have a hand in all sorts of minor administrative chores. In extreme cases vice-chancellors and rectors behave like autocrats who know everything, withhold and control information from others, and frequently manipulate staff and student leadership.

Second, because key university administrators often lack relevant professional qualifications and experience, having been elevated to their current positions to enable them to eat and to safeguard both the economic and political interests of their appointers, there is a great deal of non-transparency with regard to the use to which available university funds are put. In Kenya, for example, among other misuses, such funds have been used for: the hosting by vice-chancellors and rectors of lavish parties and expensive breakfast and lunch meetings for academic staff with the aim of co-opting them as most of them cannot afford such luxury; the holding of senate meetings in expensive Mombasa beach hotels; funding ruling party candidates during local and national elections; rewarding loyal students and professors; setting up security arrangements on campuses; and for paying police informers. The 1995/97 Report of the Kenya Auditor General (Corporations) gave evidence regarding a Kshs. 50 million (US $ 1000,000) rip-off of one of the national public universities through questionable allowances, exaggerated freight charges, concealment of fixed assets of high value from the register, unrecorded salary advances, illegal purchase and sale of vehicles, false inventory entries and contract awards among other excesses.

Third, the heavy-handed way in which some university administrators rule their institutions is demonstrated by their dealings with their various supposedly

representative university bodies. The highest university decision-making body, the University Council, does in most cases only rubber-stamp the will of the vicechancellors and rectors. Likewise, university senates which are the key academic decision-making bodies are not that democratic . It is thus common for some vicechancellors and rectors to arrange the appointment of professors who would support them to get their decisions endorsed by meetings of senate . At one university for example, the vice-chancellor has been known to openly intimidate members of senate who oppose his views. More significant perhaps is the fact that where they exist, university disciplinary committees are often a major psychological trauma for independent minded staff and students. Armed police officers and university security officers are often invited to hang around the disciplinary hearing rooms, the staff and students being arraigned in front of these committees are allowed no legal representation or witnesses and are often presumed guilty before they present their cases.

Finally, university mis-governance has resulted from the politicisation and [1] 'ethnicisation' of the African university. Always keen on pleasing the powers that be, senior university administrators have often established ruling party branches on campus while making every effort to exclude any opposition to the government of the day as well as to their own authority. With regard to this latter point, senior university administration of many African universities have openly shunned dialogue with staff and students and in some cases have openly contributed to the fragmentation of staff and student associations.

Academics and Students are, however, not blameless.

University staff and students have through acts of both omission and commission intensified the crisis of autonomy and internal governance in their respective universities. Through fear of victimization, many African academics have preferred to stay out of trouble by "shutting up".

It is in view of this that T. Zeleza, writing on Malawi, has argued that the censorship of the university community by President Karnuzu Banda was possible partly because Malawian academics and writers not only conceded political space to the state, but sometimes assisted in authenticating its authoritarianism". A rather visible and influential minority of African academics have been compromised by their respective governments in which they serve in various capacities including as supporters of anti-university legislation; heads of government departments which oppress members of the university community; advisors of dictatorial national and university leadership; and as ruling party ideologues. Julius Ibonvere in an essay entitled "The State and Academic Freedom in Africa: How African Academics Subvert Academic Freedom" describes the Nigerian situation (and one which is typical elsewhere on the continent) where universities have become fertile grounds for the identification of loyal academics to manage **unproductive parastatals and government departments.**   Among other privileges, these positions come along with free cars, free gas, free housing and other perks of office including the opportunity to award lucrative contracts and to make "other contacts".

Little wonder that such opportunists are often critical of key threats to good university education such as university autonomy and academic freedom. The extremes of such behaviour has been associated with open opposition by these academics to matters such as the unionisation of academic staff and with other forms of sycophantic behaviour. In Kenya for example, a group of such sycophantic academics openly thanked the President for ruling out the registration of the Universities' Academic Staff Union (UASU) in 1993 because in their view such an action.. 'upheld the dignity of our country and of our universities'.

Without excusing such behaviour, the co-optation of academics and students by governments needs to be understood from the point of view of the dramatic deterioration of the material conditions of African intellectuals to such an extent that writers on the African University such as Goran Hyden are surprised that there are any African intellectuals still roaming African university campuses.

Secondly, as appointed heads of university departments or managers of research projects and graduate programmes, many African academics have not proved any less corrupt, nepotistic, tribalistic or authoritarian than their counterparts in the university administration or their likes in government when it comes to dishing out favours such as scholarships and student grades on the basis of non-merit considerations. In some African universities, it is possible to identify the ethnic origins of a given head of a university department by simply knowing the dominant ethnic group among the teaching and research staff of the said department. University heads of departments are also notorious for concealing information related to academic conferences, fellowships, research grants, and related programmes with the aim of ensuring that the beneficiaries of such opportunities are either themselves or their close friends and relatives.

Thirdly, some African academics have played a key role in promoting the ethnicisation of national institutions. Again, Julius Ibonvere uses the example of Nigeria to demonstrate how nepotism and discrimination on the grounds of region, religion and ethnicity are common features of Nigerian public universities. He notes that it is rare to find academics who are willing to teach or research outside their home regions and that non-indigenes are routinely discriminated against in hiring, promotion and with regard to employment benefits such as housing and other allowances. This experience is also characteristic of some Kenyan higher education institutions. At Maseno University College which is located in Nyanza Province, Luo academics (Maseno is in the heartland of Luo-land) have been said to receive favourable treatment from university administrators, a majority of whom are Luo. Non-Luo academics on the other hand complain of being discriminated upon when it comes to promotion, opportunities for further training and with regard to the allocation of administrative responsibilities.

Finally, African academics have often done little to engender a culture promotive of quality education. The Africanisation of staff and the granting of permanent employment status to local academics and the use of promotion criteria which do not take research and publications records into account have not nurtured the pursuance of excellence by these academics. Thus an increasing number of African academics no longer assign much importance to research, teaching and publishing, having realised over the years "that they can easily flourish without having to publish". With regard to teaching, lecturers have often been blamed for: not updating their lecture notes; spending little time on individual tutoring of both undergraduate and graduate students; assigning grades to students without **careful scrutiny of their assignments**; **and for** passing female students simply because they have sexual affairs with them, among other irregularities. Poor terms and conditions of service for academic staff have only served to intensify the quality crisis, as many of them have been forced to engage in non-academic economic ventures to be able to survive. According to Ibonvebere a majority of Nigerian academics have no business being in university because

some of them stay for up to a decade without publishing a paper or attending any professional meeting. But they get promoted by playing ethnic and religious politics, obtaining political interference, boot-licking, and the politics of opportunism and gift-giving. Many continue to mis-educate students by recycling old and out-dated ideas and others simply allocate grades without reading examination scripts because they do not have the time - they need more time to farm, distribute minerals and cement to stores and

shops around town, run their food stalls, sit and drink at the staff clubs or engage in local politics.

As it is true of the academic staff community, the student culture in most African universities is not particularly promotive of transparent governance or of quality education. This is manifested in student dealings with the university administration, academic staff and with fellow students. Often, students have pressed their case through violent demonstrations which have sometimes targeted innocent civilians. Students have also promoted tribalism in national institutions through their ethnically based welfare and student associations. And female students have often been victims of male students' wrath. The story of Levina Mukassa of the University of Dar es Salaam who committed suicide following severe sexual harassment by male students is a case in point. Students have also contributed to the dilution of the quality of university education by: condoning cheating in university examinations; copying other students essays; engaging in lifestyles which are the antithesis of academic pursuits such as alcoholism and drug consumption; and by refusing to use existing library facilities while concentrating their focus on the memorisation of their lecturers' notes, among other practices. In some African universities, some female students have openly declared that they see no need for rigorous academic work if they can easily get awarded good grades by their lecturers by befriending them. In South Africa, the rallying cry for students who prefer the easy road to a university degree is "pass one, pass all".

Where students have loan facilities for academic purposes, loan funds have often been used for non-academic ends such as for petty trade in the universities and for the consumption of drugs and alcohol.

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THE CURRENT SITUATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA: NEW DEVELOPMENTS AMIDST PERSISTENT OLD PATTERNS

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The transformation of higher education in South Africa from its highly unequal and largely dysfunctional apartheid legacy has reached an important stage. The macro policy and legislative framework for a reconstructed system is now in place. This follows the report of the National Commission on Higher Education in 1996, the subsequent drafting of Green and White Papers, the recent enactment of the Higher Education Bill and inauguration of the statutory Council on Higher Education. The focus now fails on the implementation of policy and detailed planning at the national and institutional level to operationalise the new system.

The White Paper calls for a diversified but unified, coherently planned, programmedriven higher education system, characterised by equitably expanded participation, responsiveness to social and economic development needs, and by co-operation and partnership in governance. The emerging overall picture is of slow progress towards this and of very uneven systemic and institutional transformation. While there have been significant shifts, innovations and developments at some institutions, prevailing conditions and new trends are clearly obstructing policy implementation and meaningful change at the institutional level.

The lack of capacity remains a major stumbling block - both in the Department of Education, where key posts remain unfilled, and in many institutions, where strategic planning and change management is largely ineffectual. The Department has been preoccupied with reconstructing the state subsidy formula and with

operationalising the proposed national and institutional three-year rolling plan process, in terms of which the range, size and shape of funded programmes and equity targets will be negotiated.

In addition, constrained fiscal conditions continue to cause problems. Without reserves and access to alternative funding sources, several historically disadvantaged institutions (HDIs) face critical short-term financial shortfalls. The proposed new state subsidy formula is, in any case, not likely to provide anticipated levels of general and redress funding. Fees have therefore been hiked and, consequently, student debt at these institutions has risen exponentially. After interinstitutional consultation, management has now taken the politically unpopular line of refusing admissions to recalcitrant fee payers. This has led to dramatic declines in 1998 student enrolments at the historically black universities of up to 27% at the University of the North. Rationalisation, retrenchment and restructuring is now being discussed. In addition, as a result of the leadership crisis at some HDIs, sharply conflictual situations have developed, with stakeholder deadlocks paralysing decision-making. In one instance, a senate was prevented by student and worker constituencies from exercising its choice regarding a senior academic appointment. As a consequence of all these developments, staff morale is manifestly declining in most cases.

Despite the White Paper's call for co-operative governance and inter-institutional collaboration, the climate among institutions remains highly competitive as they situate themselves within the new planning framework and identify niche areas of focus. Several regional higher education institution consortia have been established, the most effective of these being in the Free State, driven by the Afrikaans-language University of the Free State. Apart from this, regional collaboration has largely been restricted to library projects, and much wasteful programme duplication persists.

On the positive side, significant restructuring and proactive strategic initiatives have occurred, notably at Afrikaans institutions, liberal English universities and in some instances at the technikons (technical vocational institutions). The Afrikaanslanguage Potchefstroom University, for example, utilised international experts to develop a comprehensive strategic and academic plan which identifies niche areas aimed at national and regional development and which sets out a systematic staff, student development and research capacity-building programme to implement this. Along the Afrikaans Universities of Pretoria and Stellenbosch, it has introduced a new 'telematic' distance education delivery mode aimed at (mainly black) national enrolments. Major restructuring and the development of new inter-disci plinary faculties and programmes have occurred at many historically advantaged institutions, though not in all cases without controversy and conflict. The reorganisation of knowledge structures towards the programme-based system is being hampered by ineffectual leadership and **by the defence of traditional disciplinary territories. While the situation at the historically disadvantaged institutions** remains generally more static, some have shown proactive initiatives. The University of the North West, for instance, has begun to offset its homelands university mould by creating a Faculty of Science and Technology, along with several specialised research units funded by the corporate and public sectors. This reverses the apartheid linked largely teacher-training function of science in the historically black universities.

The student enrolment profile of the system has changed significantly. Enrolments at the universities have declined since 1996 and increased sharply at the technikons. While the system as a whole is therefore expanding, participation rates are declining, mainly as the combined consequence of student financial problems and poor school-leaving results. Racial and gender equity in overall enrolment terms has improved, with African students in the majority in both universities and technikons since 1996. However, little progress has been made to reverse the gross under

representation of Africans and females in certain fields such as Business and at the postgraduate level. Where African enrolments have increased, as in Science, their success rate tends to be significantly lower. There has been a dramatic rise in higher achieving African enrolments at the historically white universities, including the Afrikaans institutions, where a third of the students are now African and where the proportion of white students has dropped to about half and even lower at some of the historically white technikons. The historically black institutions, by contrast, remain dominated by black disadvantaged students. An increasing trend is that (mainly white) enrolments appear to be rising at private higher education and at international institutions which have collaborative arrangements with local institutions and which, in some instances, are planning local satellite campuses.

However, the academic staff profile remains static. With the rapid Africanisation of students in white institutions, this has led to lopsided institutional climates in which the vast **proportion of staff are** white and male, especially at senior levels. Equal employment strategies have borne little fruit to date, as private and public sector salaries are highly competitive, especially in the light of the impending enactment of the Employment Equity Bill which requires the annual submission of equal employment strategies from both private and public employers.

There has been little evidence of overall improvement in quality and in the efficiency of the system. A recent survey of efficiency and innovation in higher education showed that quality comes at a price. The flagship research universities are not pressing home their comparative advantages and producing efficient as well as quality outputs, both in graduates and publications. On the other hand, there is an impressive array of innovative projects and initiatives under way at all institutional types - the previously disadvantaged and advantaged institutions, and the technikons and universities alike. These show growing pro-activity and responsiveness to social needs: towards both hi-tech economic development and small-scale . 'entrepreneurialism' and job-creation, and towards community development and social reconstruction.

Thus, amidst constrained conditions and faced with the formidable challenges of transformation, progress has been generally slow, while there are striking examples of institutional initiatives towards more efficient and effective higher education.

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QUALITY ASSURANCE, ACCREDITATION AND FRANCHISING ARRANGEMENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Alison Girdwood, Commonwealth Secretariat, London

Over recent years, an area of increasing attention and concern internationally has been the definition and control of the quality of tertiary education provision. The urgency of the need to address issues of quality and standards has increased for a variety of reasons, including a large increase in student and staff mobility and the consequent need to interpret credit across international boundaries; massification of student numbers, and a concurrent decline in the unit of resource; and the fact that education is now a major international business, with qualifications offered globally, by a variety of media, and for widely differing purposes. These and a variety of other factors have driven the need to determine the academic standards attained, both within nations -- particularly where there has been sectoral diversification or enlargement -- and between them. Across professional disciplines, such as medicine or engineering, international recognition of qualifications has also become a significant factor in the drive to develop cross-national accreditation arrangements and linkages.

There are three basic approaches: (1) a threshold or minimum standards approach (which includes yes/no judgements); (2) a summative approach, which may include ranking; and (3) a performance improvement approach. National systems may include more than one of the underlying rationales, although this may subsequently undermine the credibility of the outcome(s).

A number of related issues are given brief consideration below:

Quality assurance and declining resources: The need for quality control and explicit quality assurance mechanisms has arisen in both the developed and the developing world, often arising from increasing accountability requirements, or - particularly - from a need to ensure that at least the threshold academic standards remain in place, despite a continuing erosion of funding. Such systems are not necessarily easy to implement, particularly where morale is low, and administrative capacity and leadership may be lacking. However, looked at objectively, an understanding of where academic standards actually compare with those on a national or international scale may allow a greater understanding of the level of resourcing required, or assist with an assessment of the impact of prior, possibly long-term, underfunding.

In developing countries, as systems diversity and expand, there is a need for countries to assure themselves that, as the unit of resource declines, the quality of attainment is still consistent with international comparator qualifications, or, where this cannot be achieved, that this is understood. While institutions may resist such politically and institutionally sensitive information, it is important for the transferability of qualifications and the international recognition of a country's academic system.

Quality assurance and institutional culture: Ideally quality assurance is about institutional culture, and the need to move towards systematic performance improvement, through routine analysis of available information (e.g. student progression data, external examiners comments, student questionnaires). It should mean moving from a task-based working environment, to one where responsibilities are accepted, understood and fulfilled at all levels. Quality assurance systems should increase transparency of process, and by doing so, should help to change institutional culture, as problems are more easily identified, understood and resolved. Naturally, it rarely works in this way, and may initially be perceived as an additional

bureaucratic imposition, resulting in a paper-based compliance culture, which is far from desirable.

In many cases, the first stage will be the codification of mechanisms and procedures -- unfortunately, in many cases, a system may not progress from a manual of administrative procedures into a more dynamic series of activities. It is important to build activities into the design of a system which will ensure early reward for those involved (e.g. through academic exchanges) to ensure that the performance improvement aspect is quickly understood. Consistence and credibility of judgements is essential for any summative quality assurance or accreditation system, and it make take time to achieve this. Peer review lends academic credibility, but may vary between disciplines, leading to a lack of standardisation across an academic system. In some cases there may be political pressure on accrediting bodies to grant accreditation whatever their findings, not to find academic provision inadequate; or - from the other side - not to find too high a proportion to be of 'excellent' standing.

Equivalence of qualifications: Given the ever-increasing pressure to acquire qualifications in many countries, there are many who are willing to pay disproportionately high amounts of money for the chance to gain qualifications which they may deem (rightly or wrongly) to be equivalent to a degree-level qualification. This is particularly the case where only a tiny proportion of the age cohort can gain access to local tertiary education institutions, and where local public sector salary scales are heavily weighted towards incremental advance through the acquisition of certificates, rather than a more performance-d riven system. Although this is not in any sense a new function, ministries of education and other. appointed offices (including admissions personnel in tertiary education institutions) have an increasingly demanding task providing equivalence services, trying - often with a very limited number of reference points - to interpret the vast range of provision from ever more aggressively marketed foreign provision to anxious certificateholders. In many cases this service is offered thoughtfully and conscientiously, but, in others, there may be a bureaucratic arbitrariness about decisions, sometimes involving rigid and unfair judgements on the more innovative (and intellectually challenging?) types of international provision offered by distance education media. A traditional exam-based qualification may be easier to interpret and to 'place' against well-known qualifications, but it may do little to further the examinee's critical powers and analytical skills. While this is of course not contentious amongst education specialists, the rules which operate for equivalence have been slow to change.

Franchising of provision: Franchising arrangements are increasingly frequent, in a variety of modes, from the offer of courses for distance education, and arrangements to offer overseas qualifications in local host institutions. Again, while many such arrangements are developed with sound educational intentions, many are largely commercial in intention, and there have been some serious **expressions of** concern over the quality of the education provided in locally franchised operations. Concerns from Britain's (former) Higher Education Quality Council for example arose strongly in 1997, as audits were held of the provision offered by UK institutions in a range of franchised operations. The principle underlying these audits is that the awarding institution(s) must take full responsibility for the quality of the education which students receive, and for the procedural arrangements which guarantee that quality. But questions always arise: for example, can a UK qualification be offered in another language? How will the external examining or moderating function then be undertaken? What if the level of facilities and guidance arrangements for students vary greatly? Is there any way you can offer the same qualification in culturally disparate settings? If a course is subsequently modified, who 'owns' it, and who should be authorised to award it? In the case of distance education materials, who has responsibility for updating them?

E!

This has been only a brief look at some of the issues, but the same concerns have arisen in many countries, and are being tackled in widely varying ways. The new modes of provision, and their frequently commercially-d riven nature make it important for good systems and success stories to be shared as widely as possible.

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UNIVERSITY OF THE HIGHLANDS AND ISLANDS
SCOTLAND

Bill Saint, World Bank, Washington

"It's not what you know, it's what you can do." This is the guiding principle of a creatively conceived and recently launched new regional university in northern Scotland, which many observers are beginning to view as a prototype university for the 21 st century. What makes the University of the Highlands and Islands (UHI) so different?

First, its mission is unusual, particularly within the Commonwealth system. Simply stated, it is to develop the economic, human, and cultural resources of the Highlands and Islands. UHI therefore possesses a strong mandate to promote regional economic and social development. This region, which comprises one-fifth of the United Kingdom and includes 93 islands, shares many characteristics with developing countries. Its population is spatially dispersed and predominantly rural. Its economy is narrowly based and heavily dependent on small businesses and medium-sized enterprises. The labour force is relatively less educated, and contains above-average numbers of self-employed, part-time workers, and unemployed. Consequently, the demand for access to higher education is strong. In addition, the education system confronts challenges of multi-culturalism and bi-lingualism in the design and delivery of services. These features lead the University to emphasise mass access to higher education, qualitative skills development, and lifelong learning.

Second, UHI organisation and management is distinctive. The University is a

decentralised federation of thirteen colleges and research centres distributed across the region. Eight community outreach centres (soon to be fifteen) provide this educational network with a physical presence in smaller towns and under-served areas. Business incubation services will shortly be established on several campuses. Each college possesses its own presiding principal and governance council and its management is largely autonomous. Academic planning, curriculum development, and quality assurance are the responsibility **of a Network Academic Council drawn** from member institutions. Overall coordination and development administration are provided by a University Management Group. A 15-member Board of Directors oversees the UHI system. Five of its 3 - 6 month work placement prior to graduation. Courses of study are thematically oriented and strongly multi disciplinary. Examples are rural development, health care management, and tourism. Learning occurs through a mix of classroom participation, work groups, informal tutorials, distance education, and self-paced computerised instruction. The academic program is highly flexible with considerable ease of student entry and exit. Students accumulate credits for each course module completed. This occurs at the student own speed. When 120 credits are earned, an academic year is finished. Each completed year of post-secondary education is rewarded with recognised certification, i.e., a Higher Education Certificate for year 1, Higher Education Diploma for year 2, Higher Education Degree for year 3. Credits may also be awarded for other education and work experiences. Continuing professional

development and re-training programs are also provided. Each student is viewed as a lifelong client who will have a continuing relationship with the University.

Fourth, a substantial investment in information and communication technologies is and will continue to be the fibre which holds this network together and allows it to function. In March of this year, the UHI conducted over 800 hours of video conferencing. This is the preferred medium for meetings of the Academic Network and the University Management Group. It is also used for specialised classes, workshops, and tutorials. Supported by an extensive training program, academic staff are expected to become highly proficient in the use of computers and multimedia technologies for both teaching and academic administration.

Much of the structure and content of the LIHI enterprise is predicated on a new learning paradigm for higher education. Learning is viewed as an active--not pass ive--process in which concepts are acquired, incorporated into schemas, and tested in action. The unidirectional relationship between teacher and student is replaced by interactivity with a multitude of instructional, applied, and virtual learning environments. Learning is no longer restricted to one physical location, but is available in many places simultaneously. Instruction moves beyond oral presentation into a range of multimedia learning systems. The pace of learning is managed by the student rather than the teacher. The role of the teacher is to facilitate the student's learning. As a result, the individual rather than the classroom audience becomes the focus of the learning process. This also allows a redefinition of who is a tertiary student. No longer is the student drawn from a particular age cohort or socio-economic background. UHI students are potentially anyone from the catchment area who has completed secondary school.

Two innovations within the LIHI system illustrate how this new paradigm operates in practice. Learning Resource Centres combine a traditional college library with a large computer laboratory and meeting spaces of various sizes and functions. All are equally open to students and community members. In this way, the college library becomes essentially a public library. The computer lab of 30 or so PCs offers self-paced learning leading to technical certifications or module credits, Internet and e-mail connectivity, or simply the opportunity to compose a résumé or print a report. Meeting rooms can be booked by either students or community residents for group projects, short courses, club gatherings, tutorials, or specific discussions. In this way, UHI eliminates barriers between town and gown, study and work, financial means and access, age and learning.

A second innovation is the Learning Outreach Centre. These are simply a large room containing distance learning references and a dozen or so computers staffed by a facilitator which operates under the supervision of one of the UHI constituent colleges. **Located in remote areas such as the western islands or highland communities, they enable local residents to pursue distance learning, comp members** are elected directly by a UHI Foundation comprising 86 local businesses and service organisations, which links the University closely to the private sector. An executive office of six professional staff supports these groups and liaises between the UHI system and outside funding, quality assurance, and political bodies. Stakeholder consultation is fundamental operating principle.

Third, the UHI approach to teaching and learning is different. It recognises that in a rapidly changing world, knowledge can quickly become outdated, and that the real value of higher education lies in the capabilities which students acquire. Coursework consequently emphasises the building of individual capabilities or competencies rather than the transfer of knowledge. Examples of these capabilities include problem -solving, teamwork, communication skills, time management, and high levels of computer literacy. Students are expected to actively manage their educational development, and are also required to undertake auto-based instruction,

and general access to information. Video conferencing and e-mail links allow campus-based tutors to guide and support local learners. The rooms can also be used by community groups for meetings or other activities. Established in publicly accessible places, they are open ten to twelve hours a day, including part of the weekend.

At this point, what is the UHI? It is a functioning partnership of 13 tertiary institutions, 8 associated Learning Outreach Centres, businesses, service organisations, local governments, and regional development agencies. It enrols 22,500 students (8,900 FTEs) of which 4,546 students (3,264 FTEs or 37%) are involved in higher education courses. The curriculum is structured into seven multi-disciplinary academic clusters: Art and Design; Business and Management; Computing and Information; Construction and Technology; Culture and Heritage; Health, Education and Care; Science and Environment. Collaborative distance learning activities with universities in Ireland, Iceland, and Scandinavia are underway. The first post-graduate programs will be launched next year. UHI's emerging research program is intended to nourish regional development efforts. Initial topics include rural health care and telemedicine provision, tourism development, environmental management of fishing resources, Gaelic language and culture, and North Atlantic studies. Recurrent funding is received from the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council and student fees. Capital development funds have been contributed by proceeds from the national lottery, the European Union, the Highlands and Islands regional development authority, and local partnerships. A major external fund-raising effort focusing on private and charitable sources will begin later this year.

Is UH 1 really a prototype university for the 21 st century? Possibly. It certainly represents a radical break from higher education tradition within the British Commonwealth and clearly challenges the long-standing Oxford/Cambridge model. And it incorporates contemporary good practice from around the world, anticipating many of the recommendations contained in recent higher education assessments by the Dearing Commission (UK), the Delors Commission (UNESCO), the OECD Thematic Review of Tertiary Education, the Netherlands Scientific Council Report to Government on Higher Education, the New Zealand Green Paper on Future Tertiary Education Policy, and the South African National Commission on Higher Education. Its distinguishing features are student-managed learning, mass access, flexible entry and exit, multiple partnerships, stakeholder consultation and accountability, a competencies based curriculum oriented towards regional economic and social development, substantial investment in information and communication technology, and a lifelong relationship with learners. If UHI doesn't foreshadow the future of higher education, it certainly takes a bold transitional step in that direction.

The UHI and its executive office are interested in learning from other higher education initiatives and in sharing its own emerging experience. For further information, contact:

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THE AFRICAN VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY PROJECT OF THE WORLD BANK: SOLUTION FOR AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES? SOME PRELIMINARY IDEAS ON ACHIEVEMENTS AND ALTERNATIVES

Cristoph Oberle, DSE, Bonn

At the end of August 1 presented the concept of the African Virtual University (AVU), which is currently implemented by the InfoDev Program of the World Bank, to a group of twenty mid-career educational researchers and lecturers from East African universities. Only one of the audience had some knowledge of the project; the rest had not even heard of it. AVU installations do exist at most of their universities. However, the few German participants were very well informed about the AVU concept as presented at the AVU web site.

Challenge

According to a presentation available from the AVU website "The challenge" of the AVU is to "provide quality, cost-effective, mass education at the tertiary level in a resource deprived environment (declining budgets, too few faculty, outdated equipment, limited space and facilities) ... Use the power of interactive satellite- and computer-based telecommunications technologies". (http://www.avu.org)

Reality

The AVU in its core offers televised live sessions of Northern American and Irish universities in basic sciences and telecommunications for undergraduate African students. These sessions are transmitted via satellite to existing lecture halls of selected African universities (in more than twenty countries) each equipped with a number of television sets. At the end of each session questions can be asked by the students of English speaking participating universities. (Recently 1 had the chance to observe a AVU calculus course offered by the New Jersey Institute of Technology at Kenyatta.) So far, in the pilot phase until Mid 98, only individual courses have been offered, implementation of "complete degree programs in technical, medical, and scientific fields for unserved but qualified students" (AVU-web site) is planned for the future. This core program has been expanded by a "digital library" component after discussions with the AAU and African scholars.

Achievements

Students (and some lecturers) of African universities get access to equipment and know how of e-mail and www use.
The library component could be a quantum leap to broadening access to latest scientific information at African universities.
International communication networks (of parts) of participating universities are supported.
Local entrepreneurs are informed about the business potential of internet use.
Tutorial activities for a limited number of students are clearly improved.

Problems

There are some practical problems like satellite transfer interruption, power cuts even in capital cities, speed and accent of the Northern lecturers, different time zones, missing availability of separate accounts for AVU sites, and security for the

equipment. Most of these will certainly be solved (... generators are already operating at different sites).

However, the core problem remains. AVU needs faculty support for supplementary local classes to adapt AVU courses to different curricular requirements of the participating universities, Furthermore, African lecturers have to organise tutorials and mark, not only exams, but also the homework of the students. This way university resources are used by the AVU to support a few (who will have to pay after an initial phase), not reducing the workload of the regular faculty or solving space problems, maybe even adding more students to the remaining classes. It looks as if AVU will not meet "The challenge" of providing "cost effective mass education". Moreover, AVU undermines professionalism and self-esteem of African lecturers when pretending that even calculus classes could be substantially better taught via expensive satellite lines from North America.

Alternatives

During a joint conference of German seconded staff at African universities and their African counterparts in March this year in Kampala a working group on internet use developed ideas for alternative use of the internet. The group suggested to aim much more at the lecturers than directly at undergraduate students. African lecturers could be trained via internet to improve their performance in class. This way African lecturers would remain professional educators not just tutors and by learning continuously they could fulfil their task as guides and role models for their students.

To meet the challenge of cost effective mass education AVU should be decentralised to the regions of the different participating countries. Small study centres with basic technology could be created and supported by the World Bank, without satellite TV transfer, even without often very expensive ~-connection. Some PCs, a digital library based on CD-Roms, E-Mail-access (via small satellite phones) and solar power supplies could be installed as study and extension centres of African universities. Courses could be taught by university lecturers who are connected to their "mother universities" and to the world via e-mail being coached by experienced colleagues from Africa or overseas and being actively included in networks of fellow lecturers of similar centres.

Invitation

Reflection on alternatives is still in a preliminary **stage. Any comments and new ideas are** highly welcome. The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) is including discussion on AVU and internet use in African universities systematically in its seminars for university managers and lecturers from Africa. You are very much invited to contribute to the ongoing discussion. Please, email to oberle@zed.dse.de.

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INTER-DISCIPLINARY CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY STAFF DEVELOPMENT:

EXPANDING COMPETENCIES FOR RESPONSIVENESS AND QUALITY

Matthias Wesseler, University of Kassel, Germany

1. **Towards an International Learning Community** In times when material resources get more and more scarce every day in the Higher Education's efforts to cope with the current challenges, the impact of the development of mental resources looms large. There is thus internationally a growing demand for staff development activities which go beyond discipline oriented upgrading and imparting some didactic 'tips', valuable as those programmes are, anyway.

For 25 years now, the Institute for Socio-cultural Studies - ISOS, University of Kassel, located at Witzenhausen, Germany, is engaged in international university staff development. More than 900 scholars (lecturers, professors, deans, registrars and even university presidents) mainly from Africa, Asia and Latin-America, participated in the University Staff Development Programme Witzenhausen - UNISTAFF.

The core programme today is a two months intensive dialogue and training course in English, once a year, which covers the modules:

* organization development, with university structures, management, cooperation and conflict;

* teaching and learning, including curriculum development, quality assurance and evaluation;

.. research management, focusing on co-operative disciplinary and interdisciplinary research.

These courses, which go beyond discipline specific matters, are complemented by a series of outreach seminars and workshops abroad (some of them supported by the EC ALFA Network), and by a regular news-letter, both contributing to the generation of a community of scholars committed to scientific quality as well as to social and environmental responsiveness.

2. **The Profile: Focus on Competencies** There are tour crucial features which determine the profile of the UNISTAFF programme:

(1) A shared vision: universities need to transform themselves into learning organisations, if they are to survive in the 'age of knowlege'; this very need of transformation is equally a vital opportunity to strengthen a meaningful quality of academic life for students and university staff, closely and pro-actively interrelated with the professional labour market, with society's needs, and with the environment.

(2) A systems approach: the teaching and learning within the programme is based on a concrete awareness of the systemic interactions within higher education institutions: scholars, students, curricula, institutional structures and cultures, and - last, not least - the context. Furthermore, there is also a growing process of systemic globalisation in the realm of higher education, which requires increased mutual learning efforts. The main topics of the modules mentioned above are thus discussed in reciprocal learning settings and with close interrelations.

(3) A focus on competencies: to expand the knowledge base is - of course - one of the objectives of the programme, the main goal however is beyond the cognitive domain. The programme is geared towards the strengthening and the empowering of academic key-competencies, including emotional and social qualifications. Therefore a conducive course culture which builds on personal

experiences and allows for individual risk taking and experimenting is an essential dimension.

(4) An orientation towards practical work: beyond the dialogue and training sessions, participants are invited to identify an essential challenge within their institutions and to focus their energy on preparing a practical solution oriented project-work. Papers of relevance to a wider academic or professional audience are published regularly.

3. **The Organisational Setting** Such an ambitious programme could not be run successfully without co-operation from within - and from outside - the University of Kassel. The Centre for Research in Higher Education and Work is considerably contributing to the modules of the programme. Furthermore, UNISTAFF participants and programme receive valuable conceptual support and decisive financial help from the German Foundation for International Development (DSE), Bonn, and the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), Bonn. The programme is directed by Prof. Dr. Michael Fremerey.

4. **The Perspectives** In the near future, UNISTAFF in strong co-operation with DSE will widen its scope to support regional and national centres for university staff development activities, in Central-America, in East-Africa and in Indonesia. Beyond the UNISTAFF community of scholars, corresponding institutional 'joint ventures' are being planned to establish a network of academic units committed to quality and relevance in university staff development. This will also strengthen the international cooperative dimension of the UNISTAFF programme at Witzenhausen. For 1999, a larger evaluation has been prepared to look for the longer-term impact of the programme.

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DEMOCRACY IN EDUCATION, EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTIONS CONCERNING DEMOCRACY AND HUMAN RIGHTS IN STATES IN TRANSITION (BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA, MOZAMBIQUE, SOUTH AFRICA AND YUGOSLAVIA).

Holger Daun, Institute of International Education, Stockholm

The project started in 1997 and aims at comparing (i) the country context; (ii) pupils perception of democracy; and (iii) the way of presenting the theme of democracy in school curricula and textbooks. Each country will produce a country report and reports concerning democracy as perceived by pupils in the ages 12 - 16 years and the extent to which and the way of presenting democracy in curricula and textbooks.

The study in Bosnia-Herzegovina is conducted by Lidija Kolouh-Westin at the Institute of International Education in Stockholm, who was born in former Yugoslavia and is presently a Ph.D. student at IIE. In Mozambique, the Pedagogical University is in charge of the study (Dr. Manuel de Morais), and in South Africa the Department of Education, University of Witwaters rand (Prof. Penny Enslin). The Department of Psychology, Belgrade, (Prof. Ivanlvic) is responsible for the Yugoslavian study.

The three themes mentioned constitute the core for a comparative study. Apart from this, each country has its own priorities. In South Africa, action research is conducted with teachers, for instance.

The project is planned to be finished in July 1999. Until now, the planned activities have been possible to perform with the exception of Yugoslavia. There, the authorities have now allowed the researchers to enter more than a few of the sampled schools.

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ESTABLISHMENT OF A LIS RESEARCH AND EDUCATION NETWORK IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Irene Wormell, Royal School of Library and Information Science (LIS), Copenhagen

On the invitation of the Human Sciences Research Council in Pretoria (HSRC) in February 1997, together with one of my colleagues, Professor Peter Ingwersen, we provided a series of lectures and seminars at various universities combined with workshops on curriculum developments and issues of new professional roles and functions within the LIS field.

During the meetings and workshops we have seriously discussed the problem of professional developments with the South African colleagues. The teaching staff of the former "black universities" as well as the former "white" ones have strongly emphasised the great need for creating a platform for a nation-wide Cupertino for fostering the modern LIS professionals -educated and trained at an advanced level to meet the demands of the new RSA.

We noticed a great interest and willingness from all parties to support the existing political and social developments in the country and to find new ways to improve the conditions of LIS professionals This positive atmosphere and the spirit of good professional cooperation initiated the idea of the establishment of a national education

and research network, based on the concept of a similar one functioning within the Nordic countries by support of NorFA (Nordic Academy for Advanced Study).

After several months of intensive work and lobby activities the project finally got financial support from DANIDA , the Danish International Development Agency.

The project plan has been initiated and developed by Professors Irene Wormell and Peter Ingwersen, Royal School of Library and Information Science, Copenhagen, in collaboration with LIS colleagues in the RSA.

The network is planned for a three-year period, 1998-2000 and having a budget of 2,4 mill. DKK. It consists of two major components per year:

Planning, coordination and evaluation activities (Managed an supervised by the Standing Committee) Research course activities (For each year the network organises two advanced research courses of one week's duration each, consisting of lecturing and seminars)

Each course should be planned to accommodate 20 PhD or Masters students from the participating LIS university departments. The Standing Committee performs the selection based on written standard applications and recommendations from the candidates' local supervisors.

The 20 participants are receiving a per diem for hotel accommodation and daily expenses as well as travel costs. Course materials (books, -photocopies) are covered by the network via central acquisition.

Every year the students will prepare an essay on a given topic. The two best essays receive an award, a travel scholarship, to pursue their research work at universities other than their own. The award is planned to cover the travel costs, per diern and hotel costs for one week for two students.

It is to provide support for those LIS departments who want to offer a high level education and research programme for staff, MA and Ph.D. students, but their local resources at present do not make them capable of alone to launch this

The Standing Committee has just started its planning work for the first course week which will. be held in the end of September 1998 at the University of Pretoria, Dept of Information Science.

1 am very pleased to report the successful launch of this project and 1 should like to use it as an attractive example of fruitful scholarly and professional cooperation across the traditional boundaries. **Although the project formerly is linked to the Royal School of Library and Information** Science in **Copenhagen, the initiative and the** spirit to promote the professional developments of the modem information professionals are related to those contacts and activities which grew in the last few years.

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World Conference on Higher Education

Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century:
Vision and Action

Paris, 5 - 9 October 1998

WORLD DECLARATION ON HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY: VISION AND ACTION

Preliminary version

WORLD DECLARATION ON HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY:
VISION AND ACTION

PREAMBLE

On the eve of a new century, we are witnessing an unprecedented demand for and a great diversification in higher education and an increased awareness of its vital importance for socio-cultural and economic development. Higher education includes 'all types of studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by universities or other educational establishments, that are approved as institutions of higher education by the competent State authorities'.* Everywhere higher education is faced with great challenges and difficulties related to financing, equity of access, enhancement and preservation of quality in teaching, research and services, relevance of programmes, employability of graduates and equitable access to the benefits of international co-operation.

The second half of this century will go down in the history of higher education as the period of its most spectacular expansion: an over six-fold increase in student enrolments worldwide, from 13 million in 1960 to 82 million in 1995. But it is also the period which has seen the gap between industrially developed and the developing countries with regard to access and resources for higher learning and research, already enormous, becoming even wider. Without adequate higher education and research institutions, no country can assure genuine endogenous and sustainable development and, in particular, the developing countries cannot reduce the gap separating them from the industrially developed ones.

Higher education has given ample proof of its stability and ability to adapt, to change and to induce change and progress in society over centuries of uninterrupted existence. Due to the scope and pace of change, society has become increasingly knowledge-based so that higher learning and research now act as essential components of cultural and socio-economic development of individuals, communities and nations. Higher education itself is confronted therefore with formidable challenges and must proceed to the most radical change and renewal it has ever been required to undertake.

It is with the aim of providing solutions to these challenges and of setting in motion a process of in-depth reform in higher education worldwide that UNESCO has convened a World Conference on Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century: Vision and Action. In preparation of the Conference, UNESCO issued, in 1995, its Policy Paper for Change and Development in Higher Education. Five **regional consultations (Havana, November 1996**; Dakar, **April 1997; Tokyo, July 1997; Palermo, September 1997; and Beirut, March 1998)** were subsequently held. The Declarations and Plans of Action adopted by them, each preserving its own specificity, are an integral part of the present Declaration.

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We, participants in the World Conference on Higher Education, assembled at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris, from 5 to 9 October 1998:

Recalling the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which states in Article 26, paragraph 1 that 'Everyone has the right to education' and that 'higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit', and

endorsing the basic principles of the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), which, by Article 4, commits the States Parties to it to 'make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity';

Taking into account the recommendations concerning higher education of major commissions and conferences, inter alia the international Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, the World Commission on Culture and Development, the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990), the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio de Janeiro, 1992), the Conference on Academic Freedom and University Autonomy (Sinaia, 1992), the World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993), the World Summit for Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995), the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), the International Congress on Education and Informatics (Moscow, 1996), and the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (Hamburg, 1997);

Convinced that education is a fundamental pillar of human rights, democracy, sustainable development and peace, and shall therefore be the first priority of the world in the twenty-first century;

Pointing out that its unitary and interdependent nature requires coherent measures for its improvement at all levels and modalities in order to become truly accessible to all throughout life, as well as co-ordination and co-operation across and between the various sectors, particularly between secondary and post-secondary education;

Believing that, in this context, the solution of the problems faced by higher education on the eve of the twenty-first century will be determined by the vision of the future society and by the role that is assigned to education in general and to higher education in particular;

Emphasizing that higher education systems everywhere must enhance their capacity to live with uncertainty, to change and bring about change, and to address social needs and to promote solidarity; must preserve and exercise scientific rigour and originality, in a spirit of impartiality, as basic prerequisite to attain and sustain a culture of quality; and must place students at the centre of their concerns, within a lifelong perspective, so as to allow their full integration into the global knowledge society of the coming century;

Considering that the radical change of higher education, the enhancement of its quality and relevance, and the solution to the major challenges it faces, in particular the resource crisis, require the strong involvement not only of governments and of higher education institutions, but also of all stakeholders, including students and their families, teachers, business and industry, the public and private sectors of the economy, parliaments, the media, the community, professional associations and the public opinion at large;

Proclaim the following

WORLD DECLARATION ON HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY: VISION AND ACTION

MISSIONS AND FUNCTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Article 1. Mission to educate and to train

We reaffirm that the core missions and values of higher education should be preserved, reinforced and further expanded, namely to:

provide an open space of higher learning and for learning throughout life, as an opportunity for individual development and social mobility in order to educate for full citizenship, with a worldwide vision and active participation in society, for endogenous capacity-building, the consolidation of human rights, democracy and peace; advance and disseminate knowledge through teaching and research and provide, as part of its community service, relevant expertise to assist societies in cultural, social and economic development, promoting and developing scientific and technological research; train highly qualified graduates, who will be also responsible citizens able to meet the needs of all sectors of human activity, by offering occupational qualifications which combine high-level knowledge and skills, using courses and content continually tailored to the needs of society; help preserve, enhance and disseminate national and regional cultures, drawing on the heritage of each generation, and thus contribute to national stability and cohesion, to the reinforcement of regional integration, international understanding and the building of a culture of peace;

• help protect and enhance societal values by addressing moral and ethical issues and by providing critical and detached perspectives to assist in the discussion of strategic options and humanistic renewal;

• contribute to the development and improvement of the society as a whole, including the education system .

Article 2. Ethical role and anticipatory function

Higher education institutions and their academic personnel must:

• develop their crucial functions, through the pursuit of truth and justice and by exercising ethical and scientific rigour in all activities;

• enhance their prospective and critical functions, through the permanent analysis of emergent social, economic, cultural and political trends, thus acting as a watchtower, able to foresee, anticipate, give early warning and prevent; exercise their intellectual capacity and moral prestige to defend and actively disseminate universally accepted values, at a time when there is a **perceived value crisis**; enjoy **full academic freedom and preserve their autonomy, while being** fully responsible and accountable towards society.

SHAPING A NEW VISION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Article 3. Equity of access

In keeping with Article 26.1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, admission to higher education will depend on the merit, capacity, and the efforts and devotion showed by those seeking access to it, and can take place in a longlife scheme, at any time, with due accreditation of previously acquired skills. Equity of access to higher education should begin with a profound reorientation of its inter-face with secondary education. The latter

must serve not only to prepare qualified candidates for access to higher levels. Its function to prepare for entry into active life by providing training for a broad range of jobs should be reinforced. However, access to higher education must remain open to those completing secondary school at any age. As a consequence, the rapid and wide-reaching demand for higher education calls for a shift from an elite-based to a merit-based approach in any policy concerning access to higher education. The merit principle should apply to teachers and students alike. The access of currently under-rep resented groups (minority and disadvantaged groups) must be improved.

Article 4. Harmonization with the world of work and anticipating societal needs

In economies characterized by changes and the emergence of new production paradigms based on knowledge and its application, and on the handling of information, the links between higher education, the world of work and society should be placed on an entirely new basis. Developing entrepreneurial skills and initiative must become major concerns of higher education, in order to facilitate employability of graduates who will increasingly be called upon to cease being job seekers and turn into job creators. As a lifelong source of professional training, updating and recycling, higher education institutions will permanently respond to the work requirements. They will, as well, within the framework of their anticipatory functions, promote the creation of new jobs.

Article 5. Innovative educational approach: critical thinking and creativity

* In a world undergoing rapid changes, there is a perceived need for a new vision and paradigm of higher education calling for radical renewal and change of its policies of access (so as to cater for ever more diversified categories of people), and of its contents, methods, practices and means of delivery, based on new types of links and partnerships with the community and with the broadest sectors of society.

* Higher education institutions must educate students to become well-informed and deeply motivated citizens, who can think critically, analyse problems, look for solutions to the problems of society and accept social responsibilities. To achieve these goals, curricula need to be recast so as to go beyond simple cognitive mastery of disciplines. They must include the acquisition of skills, **competencies and abilities for creative and critical** analysis, independent thinking and team work in pluricultural contexts.

Article 6. Diversification for enhanced equity of opportunity

  Diversifying systems, institutions and programmes of study, and recognizing the value of each, is essential both to meet demand and to give students the rigorous background and training that will be required in the ' knowledge society' of the twenty-first century. Learners must have an optimal range of choice and the acquisition of knowledge and know-how should be viewed in a lifelong perspective, based on flexible entry and exit points to and from the system of higher education.

Article 7. Higher education personnel and students as major actors

A vigorous policy of staff development is an essential element for higher education institutions and clear policies should be established concerning higher education teachers, with provisions for updating and improving their pedagogical skills, with stimulus for constant innovation in curriculum, teaching and learning methods, and with an appropriate professional and financial status for excellence in teaching, in keeping with the provisions of the Recommendation concerning the Status of Higher- Education Teaching Personnel approved

by the General Conference of UNESCO in November 1997. National and institutional decision-makers should place students and their needs at the centre of their concerns, and should consider them as major partners and responsible stakeholders in the renewal of higher

education. Guidance and counseling services should be developed, in order to assist students in the transition from secondary to higher education, in reorienting their options during their courses and to meet the special needs of mature learners. Regional and international normative instruments for the recognition of studies should be ratified and implemented, including certification of skills, competencies and abilities of graduates to facilitate mobility within and between national systems.

Article 8. Enhancing participation and promoting the role of women

Although significant progress has been achieved to enhance the access of women to higher education, further effort is required to consolidate their participation and, in particular to enhance their participation at all levels and in all disciplines, while also strengthening their presence at the decision-making levels of the sector, thereby ensuring that the gender dimension is included in the renewal process.

FROM VISION TO ACTION

Article 9. International quality standards without uniformity

• Quality in higher education is a multidimensional concept which should embrace all its functions and activities: teaching and academic programmes, research and scholarship, staffing, students, infrastructure, services to the community and the academic environment. Transparent internal self-evaluation and external review are vital for ensuring quality and internationally recognized mechanisms must be developed in this respect. **Due attention should be paid to specific contexts and to avoiding uniformity.**

• To attain and sustain quality, certain components are vital, notably strict selection and continuous staff development and mobility. The new information technologies are an important tool in this process, due to their impact on the acquisition of knowledge and know-how.

Article 10. Advancing knowledge through scientific research

The advancement of knowledge through research is an essential function of all systems of higher education. Innovation, interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity should be promoted and reinforced in programmes having direct bearing on sustainable human development. An appropriate balance should be established between basic and applied research. Institutions with an avowed research mission must find the material and

financial support required, from both public and private sources. Research must be enhanced in all disciplines, including the social sciences, within the framework of national and regional research and development policies. Of special importance is the enhancement of capacities of research into higher education itself.

Article 11. The potential and the hazards of technology

* The rapid breakthroughs in new information and communication technologies have radically changed the way knowledge is developed, acquired and delivered. Higher education institutions must take leadership to draw on the advantages and potential of new information and communication technologies in a spirit of openness, equity and international co-operation by:

- engaging in networks, technology transfer and sharing experiences of their application in teaching, training and research, thus making excellence accessible to all;

  - creating new learning environments, including ' virtual' higher education institutions, capable of bridging distances and developing high quality systems of mass education, thus serving social advancement and democratization;

  In making full use of educational technology, particular attention should be paid to:

- removing the grave inequalities which exist among the countries of the world with regard to access to new information and communication technologies;

- warning and taking action against the hazards implicit in the development of a 'knowledge industry' and a 'knowledge market', by adhering to equitable regulations against the commercial misuse of technology, preserving high quality of its productions and, above all, by making the spirit of co-operation prevail over that of market place.

Article 12, Long-term orientation based on social needs

Relevance in higher education should be assessed in terms of the fit between what the institutions do and what society expects of them. This requires political impartiality and, at the same time, a better articulation with the world of work, basing long-term orientations on social aims and needs. **The concern must be to provide broad basic education**, often interdisciplinary, focusing on skills and aptitudes that equip individuals to live in a variety of settings, to operate efficiently and to change occupations with minimum dislocation. Higher education should reinforce its community service functions, especaillay its activities aimed at eliminating poverty, violence, illiteracy, hunger and disease, through an interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary approach in the analysis of problems and issues. Higher education should enhance its contribution to the development of the whole education system, notably through improved teacher education and educational research.

Article 13. Strengthening higher education management and financing

• Management and financing of higher education require the development of appropriate planning and policy-analysis capacities and strategies, based on partnerships established between higher education institutions and state and national planning and co-ordination bodies. Higher education institutions need to adopt forward-looking management practices that respond to the needs of their environments and are articulated in their missions. Managers in higher education need to be responsive, competent and able to permanently evaluate -by internal and external mechanismsprocedures and administrative rules.

• The ultimate goal of management must be to enhance the institutional mission by delivering high-quality teaching, training and research. This objective requires governance which combines social vision, including understanding of global issues, with efficient managerial skills. Leadership in higher education is thus a major social responsibility and can be significantly strengthened through dialogue with all stakeholders in higher education.

Article 14. Higher education as a public good

Diversified sources of funding reflect the support that society provides to higher education and must be further strengthened. However, public support for higher education and research remains essential to ensure a balanced achievement of educational and social missions. Society as a whole must support education at all levels, including higher education. Mobilization for this purpose depends on public awareness and involvement, the public and private sectors of the economy, parliaments, the media, governmental and non-governmental organizations, families and all the social actors involved with higher education.

Article 15. Sharing knowledge and know-how across borders and continents

The principle of solidarity and true partnership amongst higher education institutions worldwide is crucial for education and training that encourage an understanding of global problems, the role of skilled human resources in their solution and the need for living together with different cultures and values. Consequently, an international dimension should permeate the curriculum, and the teaching and learning processes. Co-operation and sharing should be based on these principles for the benefit, in particular of the developing countries..

Article 16. From ' brain drain' to 'brain gain'

The 'brain drain' has yet to be stemmed, since it continues to deprive the developing countries, in particular in Africa, and those in transition of the high-level expertise necessary to accelerate their socio-economic progress. International co-operation schemes must give priority to short-term intensive programmes and to facilitate the return - permanent or temporary - of highly trained scholars and researchers to their countries of origin. At the same time, efforts must be directed towards reversing to a process of 'brain gain' through collaboration programmes which, through their international dimension, reduce exodus and enhance endogenous capacities. The experience of the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme and the principles established in the regional conventions on the recognition of higher education degrees and diplomas are of particular importance in this respect

Article 17. Partnerships and alliances

Partnership and alliances amongst stakeholders - national and institutional policy-makers, teaching staff, researchers and students, the world of work, community groups - is a powerful force in managing change. Also, non-governmental organizations are key actors in this process. Henceforth, partnership, based on common interest, mutual respect and credibility, should be a prime modality for renewal in higher education.

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We, the participants in the World Conference on Higher Education, adopt this Declaration and reaffirm the right of all people to education in general and the right of access to higher education in particular, based exclusively on individual merit and capacity;

We pledge to act together within the frame of our individual and collective responsibilities, by taking all necessary measures in order to realize the principles concerning higher education contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the Convention against Discrimination in Education;

We adopt, therefore, this World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-first Century: Vision and Action. To achieve the goals set forth in this Declaration and, in particular, for immediate action, we agree on the following Framework for Priority Action for Change and Development of Higher Education.

World Conference on Higher Education

Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century: Vision and Action

Paris, 5 - 9 October 1998

FRAMEWORK FOR PRIORITY ACTION FOR CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Preliminary Version

FRAMEWORK FOR PRIORITY ACTION FOR CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCA11ON

1. Governments, parliaments and other decision-makers should:

   establish the legislative, political and financial framework for the reform and further development of higher education, in keeping with the terms of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. No discrimination can be accepted and no one can be excluded from higher education for his/her race, religion or gender;

   . fulfil their commitments to higher education and be accountable for pledges made at several forums over the past decade with regard to the provision of human and financial resources to human development and education in general, and to higher education in particular;

   . establish clear policies concerning higher education teachers based on the Recommendation concerning the Status of Higher-Education Teaching Personnel approved by the General Conference of UNESCO in November 1997;

   . establish new partnerships to include students and their involvement in all aspects of higher education: policy-making, institutional management and the evaluation process, including curriculum and pedagogical renewal.

2. Each state in which enrolment in higher education is low by comparative international standards should establish plans for expanding access. Concrete action must be taken to improve the participation at all levels of higher education of women, of minorities and of disadvantaged groups.

3. Measures will be adopted by each state for an in-depth reorientation of secondary education, with emphasis on its function to prepare for active life, by providing knowledge, capacities and skills for exercising a wide range of jobs, with complementary training whenever required. Access to higher education must remain open to those completing secondary school at any age, but preparation for higher education should not be the sole or primary purpose of secondary education.

4. Concrete steps are needed to reduce the widening gap between industrially developed and developing countries with regard to higher education and research. This requires adequate budgetary provisions for that purpose. Governments should reach agreements with national as well as with international companies in order to contribute, through appropriate incentives, to education, research and development of high-level expertise in these countries. Similarly, a quota of international financial assistance to developing countries should be **geared to the same purpose, as a** prerequisite to self -sustainable development.

5. Each higher education institution must define its mission in harmony with the needs of society and base it on the awareness that higher education is essential for any country to reach the necessary level of economic and social development, and of social mobility, increased living standards and internal and international harmony and peace, based on human rights, democracy, tolerance and mutual respect.

6. In establishing priorities in their programmes and structures, higher education institutions must:

a. Take into consideration that ethical and scientific rigour are indispensable in all its activities. They must develop their universal watchtower function, through the analysis of emerging social, economic and political trends, approached in a multidisciplinary and

transdisciplinary manner, giving particular attention to:

- attainment of high quality, a sharp sense of the social pertinence of studies and on their anticipatory function, based on scientific rigour;

- knowledge of fundamental social questions, in particular related to sustainable development and the shaping of a culture of peace;

  - fundamentals of human morality and ethics, applied to each profession and to all areas of human endeavour.

  b. Set their relations with the world of work on a new basis, starting from a reciprocal harmonization of action and search for solutions to pressing problems of humanity, all this within a framework of responsible autonomy and academic freedom.

  c. Consider accountability and evaluation as normal and inherent in their functioning, and create special units responsible thereof.

  d. Promote research, which is essential to all higher education systems, in all disciplines, including the human and social sciences, given their relevance for development. Also, research on higher education itself must be strengthened through mechanisms such as the

UNESCO/UNU Forum on Higher Education and the UNESCO Chairs on Higher Education.

   e. Pay **particular attention to the participation of women in scientific and technological higher education,** as well as to their appropriate representation in managerial positions.

7. While the need for closer links between higher education and the world of work is important worldwide, it is particularly vital for the developing countries, given their low level of industrial development. Governments of these countries should take appropriate measures to reach this objective. At the same time, international action is needed in order to help establish joint higher education-industry undertakings in these countries. Higher education graduates should be supported, through various schemes, following the positive experience of the micro-credit system, in order to start small and medium size enterprises.

8. The use of new technologies must be generalized and must help higher education institutions to reinforce academic development and to reach universal delivery of knowledge, by extending the concept of learning throughout life. Governments should ensure that informatics and communication network infrastructures, computer facilities and human resources training, which are a prerequisite for the normal functioning of higher education institutions and research centres, should be adequately provided. Measures must be taken to ensure the recognition of qualifications earned.

9. Co-operation must be conceived as an integral part of the institutional missions of higher education institutions and systems. Intergovernmental organizations, donor agencies and non-governmental organizations should extend their action in order to develop inter-university co-operation projects through twinning institutions, based on solidarity, as a means to bridging the gap between rich and poor countries in the vital areas of knowledge production and application. Each institution of higher education must envisage the creation of a specialized unit for promoting and managing international co-operation.

10. In developing a new interdisciplinary programme for higher education, UNESCO should take the initiative to stimulate better co-ordination among intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, agencies and foundations which sponsor existing programmes and projects for international co-operation in higher education. This could allow the pooling and sharing of resources, avoid overlapping and promote better identification of projects, greater impact of action and increased assurance to their validity through collective agreement and review. Programmes aiming at the rapid transfer of knowledge, supporting institutional development and establishing centres of excellence in all areas of knowledge, in particular for peace education, conflict resolution, human rights and democracy, should be supported by institutions and by public and private donors.

11. The academic community and all concerned partners in society shall further promote international academic mobility as a means to advance knowledge and knowledge-sharing in order to build-up a global knowledge society oftomorrow, to which the international academic community could bring its contribution through a better application of the regional conventions on the recognition of studies, degrees and diplomas and through a large scale movement, "Academics without Frontiers". Institutions of higher education in industrialized countries should strive to make provision in their **budget, for international co-operation with sister institutions in developing** countries.

12. In order to alleviate the negative effects of the brain-drain and to shift to a dynamic process of 'brain gain', a vigorous campaign should be launched, through the concerted effort of the international community and based on academic solidarity. The campaign should involve the return to their home country (temporary or permanent) of expatriate academics (e.g. TOKTEN and TALVEN Programmes) as well as the involvement of university volunteers -newly retired academics or young academics at the beginning of their career- who wish to teach and undertake research at higher education institutions in developing countries.

13. UNESCO, jointly with various intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations could organize each five years a World Forum on Higher Education, aiming at: a) updating the state of knowledge on higher education issues in all parts of the world; b) promoting innovative projects of training and research; c) reinforcing international co-operation and emphasizing the role of higher education for citizenship education, sustainable development and peace.

14. In order to facilitate the implementation of the World Declaration on Higher Education and of the Framework for Priority Action, a mechanism could be created to support its follow-up, additional to the financial and human resources provided by the Member States and other sources on a voluntary basis and all relevant stakeholders in higher education should be represented. The Division of Higher Education of UNESCO could be in charge of the Secretariat of this new structure with the NGO Collective Consultation on Higher Education, and the UNESCO Student Forum closely associated.

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