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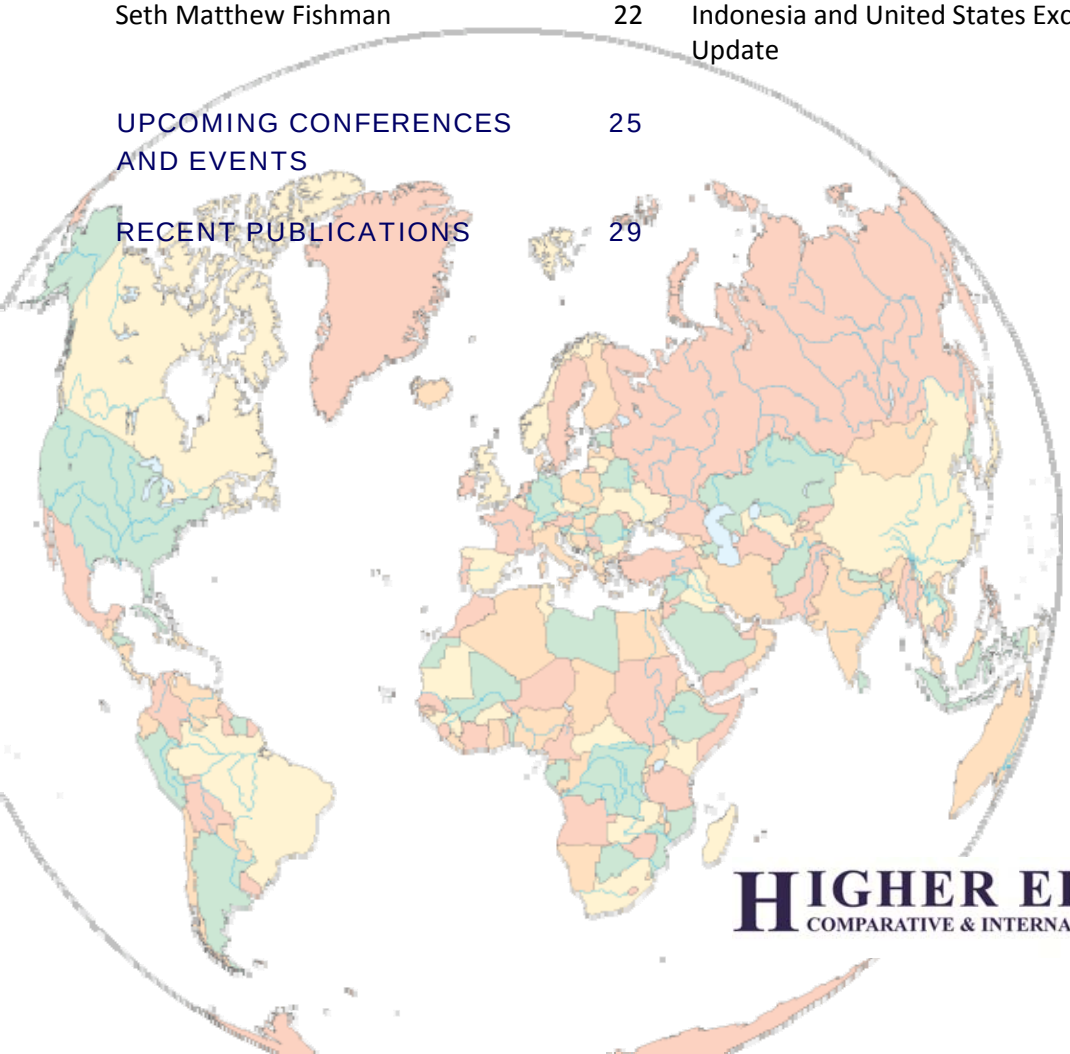

HIGHER EDUCATION SIG
COMPARATIVE & INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY

COMPARATIVE & INTERNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Philosophy for *Comparative and Int'l Higher Education*

This is the official newsletter of the Comparative and International Education Society's (CIES) Higher Education Special Interest Group (HESIG), which was created in 2008. HESIG serves as a networking hub for promoting scholarship opportunities, critical dialogue, and linking professionals and academics to the international aspects of higher education. Accordingly, HESIG will serve as a professional forum supporting development, analysis, and dissemination of theory-, policy-, and practice-related issues that influence higher education.

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HIGHER EDUCATION SIG
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The Push to Have a World-Class University

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Those of us involved in the CIES Higher Education SIG (HESIG) are aware of the global push to establish world-class universities. According to Philip Altbach (2003, p. 5), every country "wants a world-class university. No country feels it can do without one. The problem is that no one knows what a world-class university is, and no one has figured out how to get one. Everyone, however, refers to the concept." The "best" institutions are those that score high on arbitrary indicators and weightings chosen by whoever is doing the ranking.

The one thing we know is that among the tens of thousands of universities in the world, only a very few are world-class. And the most elite universities are concentrated in a relatively small number of countries, including the United States, Japan, and the United Kingdom. In most countries universities are stratified and differentiated, and those that are world class represent a tiny pinnacle of institutions. Even in the United States, of the more than 4,300 academic institutions, very few have managed to make their way to the top echelons.

Some areas of the world are making large commitments to developing world class institutions. We shall comment here on Russia and China. In Russia, President Medvedev announced the creation of a pilot program designed to create national research universities in an effort to help the country modernize its higher education system and help the country's higher education institutions become competitive with the best institutions. The goal of this commitment to enhance higher education is ultimately to boost Russia's social and economic development and to help the country become an active member of the world community. The Russians initiated a nationwide competition that resulted in the selection of universities that were designated "National Research Universities." Two other institutions, Moscow State University and St. Petersburg State University, were designated "special status" universities. Finally, two new universities, National Nuclear Research University and National Research Technological University are being created to ensure the development of advanced study in science, technology, and engineering.

Russia is keenly aware that it cannot accomplish its goals without active assistance from abroad. Educational partnerships involving exchanges in technology, communications, and pedagogy would be crucial. Russia is actively seeking to establish partnerships with US and European universities.

On 4 May 1998, China's Pre-President Jiang Zemin announced the intention to have several world-class universities to accelerate the process of modernization. In reaction to this announcement, the Minister of Education suggested that the central government should provide one percent of annual financial income to support the establishment of several world-class universities.

Even though this step signaled the origins of the well-known "Project 985" (named for its May 2008 announcement date), prior steps had already been taken. In 1995 the national government had initiated Project 211, designed to develop 100 world-class universities in the twenty-first century (named for 1 in century 21). Such ambitions were significant, because China had long seen itself as relatively weak in terms of its contribution to higher education on a world scale. This self perception stood in contrast to its self-image as one of the great civilizations of the earth, and its quest to es-

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tablish world-class universities has been both symbolic and practical. Symbolically, world-class universities would convey to the world China's value as a great civilization. Practically, higher education is seen as essential for social and economic development.

Project 211 represents the first major effort in this era by China to strengthen higher education by developing key disciplines, improving its Internet system, and building its institutional capacity. The 1999 announcement led to the naming of the first group of nine universities that would become world-class, including Peking University and Tsinghua University. After that, another 30 universities successively gained membership into this great universities club, and received different amounts of additional funding, not only from the central government but local governments and some special national institutes. Project 985 extends the earlier initiative but emphasizes "management reform, faculty development, creation of research bases and centers, infrastructure upgrades to support instruction and research, and expanded international cooperation."

These universities are regarded as the top universities in China, however, in terms of the contributions to national or global economic development and human progress in other areas, it is common knowledge in China that they are not yet competitive with world-class universities in the West, such as Harvard, Cambridge, Yale, and the University of California, Berkeley.

To this point, the 39 universities have finished their second-period research plan and the third-period plan was being initiated in 2009. To the central government, creating some world-class universities is a kind of shortcut to involve international competition on new scientific and technological revolutions, which are related to the national power competition in the world. To local governments, having one or more great universities means having more competitive accountancies against other provinces. As a result, ordinary people are paying more attention to higher education, and are beginning to encourage their young generations trying their best to enter into those best universities.

A key feature in the global race is academic capitalism, distinguished by universities that have become entrepreneurial marketers and treat knowledge as a commodity rather than a public good. Another feature is an increase in institutional mergers, which involve the melding of "strong" and "weak" institutions, intending to enhance a country's competitive advantage . With growing demand for higher education in the free-market system, the global higher education environment is also experiencing increased provision of private and cross-border higher education, accompanied by student mobility.

In the evolving global system of higher education, being competitive becomes key, and global positioning is integral to competing with other nations and institutions. Some scholars claim that universities are currently in a "reputation race," in which they compete for reputation and academic prestige. Furthermore, Simon Marginson (2006, p. 27), from the University of Melbourne, argues that "the more an individual university aspires to the top end of competition, the more significant global referencing becomes." Universities, and the countries in which they are located, thus seek to project the best image possible in order to be poised to compete for research funding, the "best and brightest" international students, and "star" faculty members.

Moreover, all of this emphasis "gravitates towards an ideal, a typical picture of a particular type of institution," (Huisman 2008, p. 2) what Kathryn Mohrman, Wanhua Ma, and David Baker (2008) call the Emerging Global Model (EGM) of the top stratum of research universities.

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Balancing Crises and Opportunities in Higher Education in Africa: A Historical Perspective

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The story of higher education development in Africa is one of a continuous struggle to balance crises and opportunities. As African countries emerged from colonialism, the period of the 1960s marked an era of promise and opportunities. Africans could at last access higher education opportunities previously denied by their colonial administrations. As African economies lacked capacity independently to supply the necessary infrastructure for higher education, development could only be realized if they partnered with development agencies. The World Bank and Western European bilateral agencies were to come to their aid in this effort.

The initial promise of development was not without a hiccup. Even though the public higher education infrastructure was lacking, the development agencies prioritized support towards vocational and technical higher education. Coupled with the Manpower Forecasting methodological approach that informed the education sector support policy of the World Bank and the bilateral agencies at the time, no significant expansion in infrastructure was realized even in the area of vocational and technical education. The humanities, arts and general sciences were not acknowledged as an area of development concern, leaving governments to design their requests for education development aid in conformity with the dictates of the aid agencies. As a result, public higher education infrastructure remained largely constricted, and access to higher education access remained limited until the 1990s.

As at independence, access to higher education was a given for those whose academic qualification merited their admission. All students were guaranteed a free education and one's socioeconomic background was not a limitation to an opportunity for access to higher education. The global economic crises of the 1970s led to the introduction of the student loans facility that was meant to help cushion government, by reducing public expenditure strain on government, and shifting part of the education cost to the consumer. The new policy was in line with the World Bank and bilateral development agencies conditionality informed by the Rate-of-Return methodological approach that sought to justify and rationalize allocation of resources under conditions of fiscal austerity. Student loans intervention allowed for those from a poor background to be able to access education, but the blanket intervention nature of the program also meant that there was no significant change in the burden of financing higher education from the perspective of public expenditure. The policy remained in effect throughout the 1970s and into the mid-1980s. It is the significant lack of governmental ability to expand the education sector infrastructure that characterized the crisis of this period as public higher education opportunities remained limited by the lack of infrastructure capacity.

As neoliberal economics ideology took hold in the Western nation states, the policies of limited-government, privatization, and free-market economics filtered to the developing regions of the World through the economic growth planning initiatives of the World Bank. Weighted by heavy debt burden, African economies were mandated to adopt economic Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) in the public sector. From the mid-1980s, the inevitable outcome was the slow elimination of non-tuition subsidies in public higher education that included meals and housing stipends. This marked the beginning of the end of the promise of guaranteed access to higher education to qualified students irrespective of their socio-economic background. It would be more challenging for poor rural students

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with no access to support services away from their rural residences.

From 1990 the disintegration of the Soviet Union offered an opportunity for the global spread of democracy; it also presented a doubled edged sword that comes with the full-fledged spread of neoliberalism as the global dominant economic ideology. Historically, higher education campuses provided the political space of engagement in national oppositional politics that helped put checks and balances on repressive regimes on the continent. The early 1990s ushered in an era when many of the active former student leaders became involved in the growing wind of multiparty politics on the continent.

The wind of expanded privatization in higher education sector also meant that more higher education opportunities became available for those seeking to access the tier of schooling. Many countries saw a growth in private higher education sector capacity that now competed with the public higher education sector. From the early 1990s, tuition subsidies were eliminated from public higher education and enrollment was also expanded. Public higher education institutions also developed a parallel model of a private-public education in which a privately funded cohort was admitted alongside a cohort of students admitted through the traditional mechanism that continued to allow for an element of government subsidy towards their education (Module I and Module II). There were also curricula and programmatic reforms that promoted accessibility and a shift from the traditional day-campus model that had been in place throughout the history of higher education in many of the counties.

While the 1990s represented an era of democratization of higher education with respect to expanded capacity in the private sector, the early experience in enrollment expansion at the public higher education institutions had to initially deal with the problem of declining quality as a result of congestion in an aging and deteriorating infrastructure. Toward the end of the 1990s, revenue stream from the privately funded students did help with revitalization of the infrastructure at many public higher education campuses participating in the provision of private-public higher education.

The shift toward the total elimination of government subsidy toward tuition cost at the public higher education institutions also meant the poor had to confront the reality of possibility of being locked out of higher education on the basis of their vulnerable socio-economic status. Until 2000, governmental response to the problem of equity in access to higher education had been to reform the student loan system to guarantee access for the poor- the criterion being a means-tested qualification. There remain challenges related to the efficiency in the delivery and recovery of the student loans. Many poor students continue to miss out on the loans as undeserving students end up receiving financial support. Further, the size of the student loan kitty remains inadequate given the high poverty rates and the significant population of needy students across much of Africa. Many schemes have a poor record in the recovery of the same. After 2000, the period of a resurgence of a rights-based development agenda has refocused the workings of the government in support of equalization and equity in the higher education sector.

A number of countries have recently made a commitment to expand higher education student loans to privately funded students in both the public and private higher education institutions. There is also a shift toward making accessible such financial aid to students in both the university and the non-university higher education institutions. This development represents gains for the economically vulnerable populations who often also ended up being locked out of accessing their desired programs at the public universities and with no option of being able to access private higher education. It also represents a challenge as to how a system that has been unable to cope with a small population of applicants for financial aid is going to be able to deal with multi-dimensional complexities of diversity in institution types and levels of need from the diverse population of students across each country.

Working toward Successful Retention Strategies with an Influx of International Students: What, Why, and How

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According to the Institute of International Education (2011), the United States has witnessed a continuous increase of 24.1 percent in the enrollment of international students from 2006 to 2010. The total number of international students was 582,984 in the academic year of 2006/2007, compared to a new record number of 723,277 in 2010/2011.

There was a considerable increase in the number of international students from both Asia and Oceania between 2010/11 and the previous academic year. Students from Asia have always been the majority non-US student body, comprising 63.9 percent of all international students studying in the US in 2010/2011. Despite a slight decrease (-1.4 percent) for students from South and Central Asia from 2009/2010 to 2010/2011, all other regions in Asia including East and Southeast Asia have had a steady increase of 9.9 percent and 5.0 percent respectively (Institute of International Education 2011). In 2010/2011, China was the single largest source country of international students in terms of number and percentage increase, reaching a total number of 157,558, which is a stunning 23.5 percent increase from the previous year. During the same timeframe, Oceania, despite a small base number, also saw an increase of 10.2 percent. This increase is primarily due to Australia and New Zealand from which 88.1 percent of all Oceania students originate.

Unlike the substantial data made accessible by the concerted effort to collect international student enrollment data, the retention data for international students is not as readily available. From the vague statistics, six-year graduation rate for international students was 59 percent, which fared marginally better than those of American students by 2 percent (Andrade and Evans 2009). So why bother focusing on retention, since international students seem to be more likely to stay than domestic students?

First of all, retaining international students ensures financially sustainable higher education institutions. This is a particularly helpful strategy at a time of economic recession when the state and federal funding is tight. International students contributed significant revenues to public and private institutions. During the academic year of 2010/2011, the United States received approximately US$20.2 billion from international students and their dependents (NAFSA 2011).

Secondly, institutions recruit and retain international students for educational gains beyond financial reasons. For example, more than one-third of engineering faculty with a PhD in the US is foreign born. Furthermore, evidence illustrates that around 12 percent of the parents whose children became finalists of a national science competition came to the US as international students (Anderson 2005). Foreign-born professionals and their off-spring make up an important pool of talent. They contribute to the continuous advancement of science, technology and global competitiveness.

Finally, while it is acknowledged that international students have made sizable contributions to America's economy and education, neither the recruitment effort nor the quality of retention programs has appeared flawless. Due to external competition, recruitment and retention of international graduate students have become more challenging (Srivastava, Srivastava, Minerick and Schulz 2010). Other host countries, such as Australia, the UK and Germany, have progressively recruited international students, posing a potential problem of shrinking the market share of US higher education

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players. Other challenges include promising job opportunities for students in their home countries, more esteemed program offerings provided by the home institution, or joint programs supported by reputable international providers. What is more of a concern is the quality of retention programs that intend to promote an international student college experience. The Noel-Levitz Report (2008) noted 33.9 percent of four-year public institutions in the US had retention programs for international students, however, only 6.8 percent of the respondents found them very effective.

A number of studies have provided insightful strategies (academically, socio-culturally and structurally) to enable the creation of effective retention programs and a pleasing environment in which international students can thrive. In Chee Khei Kwai's (2009) dissertation regarding factors influencing international student retention, he proposed improved quality of academic advising and tutoring services may be beneficial to the persistence rate of international students. It may also help to enhance the retention rate by reaching out to international students who do not typically use the services. Based on her qualitative research, Parvin Behroozi-Bagherpour (2010) also pointed out that increased retention and graduation rates can be achieved through an interactive and engaging learning environment. She further elaborated the many academic changes have yet to be made to improve the retention and graduation of international students. Suggestions included more effective advising and counseling, mandatory student orientation, better communication and training for personnel across different departments, academic progress tracking, validation and evaluation of retention programs, language proficiency testing, as well as job placement.

Other researchers, like Krishna Bista and Charlotte Foster (2011) took a more culturally and socially-oriented approach to promote student retention. They realized the importance of student non-academic needs, including services for addressing legal issues of sojourning, transportation and entertainment support, funding, as well as creating culturally educated communities.

Structural change in service provision at all university levels has also been identified as a key component in student persistence. Bista and Foster (2011) suggested streamlining various programs and service functions under one roof by setting up an Office of International Student Retention. Behroozi-Bagherpour (2010) proposed establishing an Office of International Student Support Services at each college level to engage international students. Other researchers suggested structural changes on a smaller scale, for example, to create positions that specifically deal with international student well-being (Smith and Demjanenko 2011).

In conclusion, rigorous retention efforts for international students need to be on par with that of recruitment. Ensuring international student retention and graduation brings long-term financial and academic gains to US higher education institutions. Future retention strategies can focus on academic, social-cultural and structural changes within higher education institutions.

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Impact of Neoliberal Policies: The Cases of Chile and Mexico

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In a globalized world, policy makers and universities are aligning themselves with policies that endorse neoliberalism as a way to compete successfully and as part of an increasing isomorphic trend (Ordorika Sacristan 2006; Toakley 2004). The effects of neoliberal policies can be observed through at least three broad aspects: first, the growth of private higher education in Chile and Mexico. Private universities are multiplying and outpacing publics by large numbers, an unthinkable landscape some years ago (Salmi 2007). Second, the proliferation of private institutions has led to an increase of private sources of funding for the sector (Espinoza 2005; Ginsburg, Espinoza, Popa and Terrano 2003, 2005; Stromquist 2007). Private schools are transforming themselves in a profitable business. Third, as a result of this growth private higher education is generating a quality problem in Chile and Mexico, with growing concern regarding low quality in many private universities (Boville, Argüello and Reyes 2006; Espinoza and González 2011a, 2012; González 2006, Gregorutti 2010; Zapata and Tejeda 2009). Policy makers have built a legal environment for these universities to thrive and grow as an alternative and solution for the demand of training that these two countries have experienced over the last two decades, but some of these institutions are functioning without rigorous mechanisms for assessing quality (Fielden and LaRocque 2008).

The Growth of Private Higher Education

Chile

Prior to the 1981 reform, Chile's higher education system consisted of eight publicly funded universities. Two of these were publicly controlled and enrolled 65 percent of the students, while the remainder were privately controlled (Brunner 1986; Gonzalez and Espinoza 1994). After the 1981 reform, the post-secondary education system split into three components: universities, professional institutes, and technical training centers. There followed significant growth involving new privately controlled and funded universities, professional institutes and technical training centers. Between 1980 and 2008 the Chilean higher education system was transformed from a system with eight publicly funded universities (though six were privately controlled) to one in which less than ten percent were publicly funded.

The 1981 reform spurred a significant enrollment growth in higher education, most notably in privately controlled and funded institutions. By 2009, 64.9 percent of all higher education enrollments were in new privately controlled and funded institutions without direct public support, up from 0 percent in 1980. The 1981 legislation, very much aligned with neoliberal strategies promoted by the dictatorship, sought to reduce public expenditure in higher education to meet the swelling demand for postsecondary education at a limited cost to the government (Johnstone, Arora and Experton 1998; Espinoza and González 2011b, 2012; Gonzalez and Espinoza 1994).

Mexico

Similarl to Chile, in the early 1980s, President Miguel de la Madrid undertook a set of important privatization reforms that were also aligned with neoliberal policies promoted by the World Bank, since the Mexican government had serious challenges keeping tertiary education free for all citizens. Private tertiary institutions have grown almost 12 times over the last 30 years, from 146 in 1980 to 1,740 in 2010 (1,191 percent). For

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the same period of time, the public sector has expanded a bit more than five times or from 161 public institutions in 1980 to 854 in 2010 (525 percent). For the 2009-2010 school year, private universities represented 67 percent of the total number of Mexican universities.

Enrollment in private higher education has been steadily increasing over the last 20 years. During the last 10 years, there has been growth but at a slower pace. This is probably due to the financial difficulties the country has faced over the last decade and increasing government investment in higher education (Álvarez Mendiola 2011).

These figures do not reflect the social deficit in Mexican higher education—only about one in four 19-23 years old young people attend a tertiary institution. According to Gascón Muro and Cepede Dovala (2007), the higher education system in Mexico does not attract more students as a consequence of poverty. Even though public universities are generally cheaper, they bring accompanying expenses that poor students can't afford. The government has promoted grants and scholarship for high-achieving poor students, but these policies are not enough for a growing low-income population. In addition, public institutions cannot enroll more people. Rejected students trickle down to less selective, mostly private institutions. Over the last decade, the central government has promoted the creation of regional, cultural, and even technical universities to offer more alternatives to students, but enrollment at these new institutions has lagged expectations (Rubio Oca 2006).

The Business of Private Higher Education

Chile

Since the 1970s the Chilean government decided to combine funding for higher education from private and public sources. During this period, both private and public tertiary institutions sought out to attract funds from other sources, generally private. While the funds received from the government (through Direct and Indirect Public Support) declined from 63.2 to 28.0 percent, revenue obtained from tuition fees increased from 13.1 to 25.0 percent, income earned from services increased from 6.5 to 16.0 percent, and funds obtained from private bank loans increased from 0 to 10.0 percent.

Although Chilean legislation prohibits for-profit universities, there are some loopholes that facilitate private for-profit institutions. Due to their cost, this situation has created debt among low and middle working classes. All this has annihilated the ideal of the free public university that was predominant before Augusto Pinochet's reform. Recent student movements have been reacting against these imbalances calling for the return of free and quality public universities (Espinoza and González 2011b).

Mexico

Between 1999 and 2009, the annual average growth for the Mexican economy was 5.65 percent, but for private higher education it was almost double at 11 percent. Between 1999 and 2004, before the slowdown of the economy, the annual growth of higher education was more than three times the growth of the GNP national product.

Private higher education is increasingly yielding more revenues, an important variable for investors. Returns have been positive, meaning that after expenses such as payroll and maintenance universities are still very lucrative. The cumulative growth for the last decade (1999-2009) was of almost 300 percent when the differences of income-expenses are compared.

At the same time and during the last decade, Mexican public higher education has enlarged its influence through a diversification of tertiary institutions. As Rodolfo Tuirán, Undersecretary of Education in Mexico, pointed out,

> While other countries such as, Brazil and Chile have made rely their enrollment growth at this level (tertiary) mainly on the private sector; in Mexico the bet has been to strengthen the public system…institutions with more educational opportunities and adequate quality standards are contributing to absorb part of the demand that a circuit of low quality private institutions used to enroll. To the ex-

> tent that this continues to occur with sufficient vigor, it will set a healthy contraction of this sector. (Quoted by Álvarez Mendiola 2011, p. 13)

In Chile the difference between public and private is more difficult to establish that in México, since the governmental funding system benefits both private and public institutions. About 91 percent of higher education institutions are private enrolling 75 percent of students, while in Mexico, 67 percent of tertiary institutions are private enrolling 32.3 percent of students.

Quality as a Central Problem

Chile

As a result of the changes initiated in 1981, an authorization process was established to license the operations of the new private entities and to grant them autonomy as they complied with various requirements. New legislations were created to assure sustained quality in higher education through a series of regulations whereby the government guarantees the training of technicians and professionals. This new law intended to mix public and private agencies to constitute a more open system for quality assessment (Rodríguez 2009).

However, the relationship between the National Accreditation Commission and the private accrediting agencies has not been without problems. There are few regulations to oversee these new accrediting agencies, which has stimulated malpractices, such as inappropriate linkages and conflicts of interest for staff of universities and accrediting bodies. The current legislation does not deal with this important aspect. This is such an issue that the government has recently hired an international agency to assess the whole Chilean system of accreditation.

Mexico

The Secretary of Education (SEP) has followed similar concerns with a set of new policies for quality certification. As in Chilean accrediting entities, most of the assessment system and accreditation hinges on private parties legally sponsored and regulated by the government. However, all of these accreditations are voluntary for universities in Mexico. Given this environment, quality is an option to most institutions.

Another major problem in assuring quality among private higher education in Mexico seems to be related to the way these institutions obtain the official approval for running their programs. In Mexico, a tertiary institution may offer a degree without a legal authorization from the government, although other institutions will not recognize its programs. This situation is changing, as Act 279, approved in 2000, requires legal authorization for private higher education to offer a recognized and valid degree. However, Act 279 waters down university requirements, requiring almost no full time professors, and professors do not necessarily need to have a higher degree to the level they teach (Mexican Federation of Private Institutions of Higher Education 2006), a condition almost impossible in most public and accredited private universities.

Although new tougher controls are being applied (Tuirán 2011), the government has not been able to ensure quality or a comprehensive idea of private university, since the private sector runs independently and is therefore not integrated to the national project of higher education. Lax legislations do not promote nor enforce higher standards of self-assessment. This lack of control and regulation makes it very difficult to deal with quality.

Discussion

Neoliberalism has brought a different paradigm for higher education: fewer mechanisms and an educational system that self adjusts according to market needs. This has resulted in oversimplification and distortions that are hard to correct with important social implications. Introducing market rules to higher education is not necessarily a bad thing: what is a problem is the assumption that the market will adapt in ways that benefit education and its "customers."

Quality is not necessarily the result of competition in an open higher education market. As an administrator

of public good, government must set up clear rules, so that players guarantee an education that can satisfy minimum requirements. Otherwise, it can get pretty messy, as Mexico (with its lack of supervision) and Chile (with an excess of private accreditation) illustrate. Both in Chile and Mexico, linkages between university administrators and boards of private accrediting groups are eroding public trust in these institutions that assess quality.

Given the lack of regulation and quality that affect many private universities, government should step in and set higher quality standards. Regulatory policies are necessary to avoid the commercialization and belittlement of higher education.

This case study echoes what is happening in higher education systems when they uncritically copy business approaches. Educators and educational leaders have to rethink higher education purposes (Yang 2003): is a university only a stepping-stone to boost personal income and regional wealth? The public system of universities used to be a way to equalize people and give them opportunities to be professionally productive in the society. However, education is no longer seen as a public good, but as a commodity. Private providers alone do not solve social imbalances, but they can be positioned as a contribution that brings in alternatives for those students who are not getting into more selective and prestigious public universities.

In short, taking into account the growing history of private higher education, policy makers must ponder regulations and mechanisms that may correct the negative effects that past policies have produced. Increased public funding for poor and disadvantaged students, stricter legal controls for new and existing private universities that ensure quality, and the avoidance of commercialization are key steps forward to improve private universities in Chile and Mexico.

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Pursuing Things that Work in European Higher Education Governance

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In the past two years, scholars in international and comparative higher education have paid increasing attention to the shifting landscape of university governance in Europe. Guided by theories of isomorphism and policy convergence, researchers have hypothesized that governance models in the European Higher Education Area are converging towards a common model that represents a radical departure from earlier traditions (Musselin 2005). Until recently, scholarship on governance in Europe warranted Burton Clark's (2007, p. 319) charge of "talking the talk far removed from local operating complexities." Yet emerging scholarship in the field is opening up possibilities to diminish the existing gap between research and practice by analyzing changes in governance and mapping out policy options in empirically consistent ways (Dobbins 2011; Dobbins et al. 2011). Efforts to develop coherent indicators to compare higher education systems in Europe open up the possibility for researchers and practitioners alike to "escape nationalistic tunnel vision" (Clark 2007, p. 321). This article argues that to realize the potential of its new tools, the field of international higher education must go beyond a synchronic and passive analysis of higher education systems. For the field to have real impact, it must heed the call of its founding father to "pursue the things that work" (Clark 2007, p. 319). With this aim in mind, the present article briefly traces the landscape of governance change in European higher education and critically assesses emerging pathways of future research.

In the past four decades, universities in Europe have been expected to advance social and economic activity that goes far beyond their traditional mission of creating and disseminating knowledge (Temple 2011). Changes in European governance since the 1980s reflect a search for a common response to the complicated position of universities in the region. European universities are traditional institutions with deep roots in history, but since the emergence of the global "knowledge society", their role has been undergoing a dramatic transformation that leaves many academics uneasy (Gornitzka et al. 2007; Locke et al. 2012). The growing economic role of European higher education went hand in hand with an explosion of demand, decreasing state funding, and significant changes in the funding mechanisms used by governments. The pace of change in governance practices was accelerated by the establishment of the European Higher Education Area and a tightened relationship between the Bologna Process and the Lisbon strategy of the European Union (Capano and Piattoni 2011). A redefinition of the economic role of the university has contributed to an unprecedented shift of power in Western European higher education towards market forces (Maassen 2009; Regini 2011). Universities in Western Europe are no longer mere "cultural institutions"—they have become corporate organizations, "opened up to stakeholders, and in integration with an evaluative and regulative state" (Musselin 2005). Governance has since become a significant focus of scholarship on globalization in higher education (Paradeise et al. 2009; Dobbins 2011).

Comparing Directions of Governance Change

Comparisons of changing governance systems have commonly utilized Clark's (1983) classic concept of the higher education system as a triangle of state authority, the market, and the academic oligarchy. Historically, the balance of power in European universities was slanted towards the state and the academic community. The majority of institutions in continental Europe derive

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their governance frameworks from one of two predominant models: the Humboldtian ideal, common in Germany and Northern Europe, envisions the university as a "republic of scholars" steered by the state; while Napoleonic and Soviet traditions view the university as a direct arm of the nation state (Dobbins 2011). Unlike their much younger counterparts in North America, European universities developed in close proximity to the nation-state, which is currently being profoundly redefined by the processes of globalization.

In recent decades, the power relations in European higher education have shifted towards an Anglo-Saxon model of a market-accountable university. Higher education systems in Western Europe have been undergoing a gradual shift towards more managerial and competitive approaches that emphasize the responsiveness of higher education to the local and global socioeconomic environment (Paradeise et al. 2009). The role of higher education has been redefined as much as the role of the state itself, with significant implications for the relationship between the two, and for the daily functioning of universities (Maassen 2009). Yet despite the proliferation of studies on policy borrowing and convergence, few researchers in Europe have focused on the complex realities of successful practice at universities in the midst of these tectonic changes in higher education. The result is a persistent disconnect between practitioners and researchers that impoverishes not only their respective communities, but also their institutions and higher education systems.

Recent Developments

So far, empirical study of governance policy in Europe has been hampered by a lack of attention to governance practices effective in specific national contexts, and by a lack of consistency in the variables employed in cross-national comparisons of policy formulation (Heinze and Knill 2008). Researchers at the University of Konstanz have sought to fill this gap by developing a promising set of empirical indicators in different models of governance (Dobbins et al. 2011). The indicators are yet to be tested, but they represent the first systematic directory of available policy variations.

Comparative research using these indicators will inevitably follow. As it takes its departure from earlier work on higher education governance, it faces a real danger of pursuing purely academic discussions at the risk of irrelevance to policymakers. With the tools now at its disposal, the field of comparative and international higher education must not only map out the directions of change in European universities, but also heed the call of one of its founding fathers, Burton Clark, to "pursue things that work" in real university contexts (Clark 2007, p. 319).

Responses and Controversies

In scholarship and policy debates, changes in higher education systems have often been analyzed with the implicit assumption of their inevitability (Nybom 2007). Yet recent governance transformations in Europe have been far from uncontroversial, and the effects of borrowing policies from diverse traditions far from clear (Locke et al. 2012).

Both the field of comparative higher education and the academic community have recognized that what is at stake is the soul of the European university. A shift towards managerial governance is often seen as a symptom of Americanization in European higher education, and a departure from historical ideals at its heart (Michelsen 2010). While change is inevitable, the kind of institutionally legitimated change that erodes the ethical core of European higher education will inevitably become its eventual stumbling block. Yet it is only in a few cases that postulates to correct the course of governance change produced convincing university-generated counter-narratives, neither by higher education scholars nor by academics. In the absence of powerful counter-ideas, governments tend to gain power over universities and adopt solutions legitimated in the international arena (Kwiek 2012), often without weighing contextual constraints. Indeed, it has been argued that European higher education in the last 50 years has been a passive object rather than active agent of change (Nybom 2007).

Until the present, a large proportion of scholarship on higher education in Europe has been complicit in

furthering the inevitability of externally driven change and deepening perceptions of the field's practical irrelevance. The excessive popularity of neo-institutional and policy borrowing theories has disposed researchers to explore the macro-level changes in university governance without paying sufficient attention to the needs and potential solutions perceived by university stakeholders. Empirical studies comparing the perceived realities of policymakers and implementers of eventual reforms in Europe have been scarce if not non-existent. At the current crossroad, comparative and international higher education faces the choice to either continue on its earlier pathway of highly conceptual, synchronic research, or to take Clark's path and use the new tools to explore what works in specific higher education contexts. The second path will inevitably lead researchers into the uncomfortable realm of rigorous qualitative research that captures meanings and value systems. It will likewise take them into the even less comfortable terrain of public scholarship that does not shy away from policy recommendation. In few places is the need for such a path more critical than in my home region of Central Europe.

The Case of Central Europe

In post-communist Central Europe, universities have struggled to redefine their identity, and they provide ample illustrations of the possibilities and pitfalls of resistance to global university narratives. For five decades after the Second World War, the higher education systems of most Central and Eastern European nations functioned in relative isolation from the economic and political dynamics faced by Western neighbors. In the aftermath of the political transition, academics in countries like Poland, Hungary, and Czech Republic regained levels of autonomy that often exceeded those of their Western counterparts, and secured a strong position in both policymaking and local governance (Estermann et al. 2011). Yet despite a strong political voice and social prestige, academics did not produce a convincing narrative of the academic institution (Kwiek 2012).

In Poland and Czech Republic, universities have used their existing advantages to resist changes proposed by the national governments, but without powerful founding ideas, they been vulnerable to externally imposed change. Most recently, the government of the Czech Republic moved forward with a comprehensive reform of higher education despite massive protests from the academic community (Myklebust 2012). The new bill reflects the internationally legitimated model of governance: it limits academic control of universities, strengthens the executive steering core, and involves external stakeholders in governance. Without compelling and socially convincing ideas to challenge the government, Czech universities have not been able to co-author their own identity.

Poland provides another instructive case study where the resistance of academics does halt the direction of change desired by the government, but to an effect recognized as unsatisfactory by all sides (Papuzińska 2011; Nowotnik 2011). The Polish government proposed a set of reforms largely the same as in the Czech Republic in a 2008-2010 amendment to the higher education law. The academic community successfully fought against the mandates and ensured that their adoption would be voluntary. The final result, however, yielded a model of governance that both the government and academics see as corrupt and wasteful of Poland's intellectual potential. The government and the academic community agree that change is needed, but disagree on how to accomplish it, which prevents reform even in areas recognized as pressing by both sides. The potential consequences are sobering—failure to reform higher education has been forecast to set Poland's social and economic development back by an additional 12-15 years, making it difficult for the country to compete with Western neighbors (Poland 2010).

Conclusion

In Central Europe and elsewhere, there is a critical need for higher education research that is both theoretically sound and practically relevant. The complexity of global dynamics in higher education systems must not detract emerging scholars in the field from paying close

attention to the lived realities of all participants in higher education systems under consideration. For administrators, faculty, university staff, and students, institutional governance is not an absorbing theoretical model, but the scaffolding of their daily activities and interactions. Our job as higher education scholars is not only to examine and compare the features of different scaffoldings, but also to discover how to secure and fortify them so that they allow people and their academic institutions to thrive.

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Major Issues in Egyptian Higher Education: Reflections of an Egyptian Student

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Although Egypt has one of the largest university systems in Africa (Atteh 1996), and the developing world (Salmi 1992), higher education in Egypt currently suffers from a decline in the quality of education (Reading between the 'Red Lines' 2005; Shann 1992). This decline is a result of many challenges that the Egyptian system faces. This reflection paper will discuss three issues that affect the quality of education in Egypt: inadequate academic resources, constrained curricula, and limited academic freedom.

This has not always been the case. When Egypt's first non-religious university was established in the early twentieth century, it started out as a liberal arts university that encouraged the pursuit of knowledge. This university has typically graduated Egypt's politicians, intellectuals, and professionals. In 1962, Gamal Abdel Nasser, who came into power as the president of Egypt after the fall of the monarchy, made education free at all levels and expanded the focus to include sciences and technology. He believed that education should be provided free for all people (Reading between the 'Red Lines' 2005). As a result there were targeted efforts to increase student enrollment rates, leading to a focus on quantity rather than quality. This, in turn, caused a decline in the quality of education (Shann 1992), as the number of students grew at a much faster rate than the growth in university resources (Salmi 1992). This decline in the quality of education continues to the present day due to the challenges already mentioned.

In many Western universities, basic academic needs are taken for granted; however, they are considered a privilege in most of the Egyptian universities. Computer labs, scientific equipment, and library books are benefits that not all universities enjoy (Salmi 1992; Shann 1992). Even when resources are available they are spread so thin that they have little impact. Open access computer labs and the availability of computer stations with online access in libraries is a feature only found in some private universities in Egypt. Typically, most public universities would have very few computer labs, if any. In addition, more emphasis is placed on the physical resources and almost none on digital, human or social resources (Warschauer 2001). Even when made available, these labs have to be reserved by faculty members in order to provide access to students. Scientific laboratories are not in a much better state. Most Egyptian universities and higher institutions are underequipped; they do not have the necessary scientific equipment or materials for experiments (Shann 1992).

Libraries in Egyptian universities are also in very poor condition. According to Mary Shann (1992), in the early 1990s, some universities had books that were 15 and 20 years old. The libraries in most public universities do not have the necessary funds to update their collections or provide online resources for their students. This is very paradoxical when you consider the fact that Egypt was home to the famous Library of Alexandria between the third and first centuries B.C. Sadly, the current Bibliotheca Alexandrina has a limited collection of books that mostly cannot be borrowed. Thus, both the professors and the students do not have access to the basic sources of knowledge presented in books or recent research. These limited academic resources could be considered one of the reasons behind the declining standards of instruction and poor quality of curricula in most Egyptian universities.

Another challenge is the students' limited familiarity with topics outside of their disciplines. College stu-

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dents in Egypt select their specialization in their first year. Their choice is based on the students' scores on the General Secondary Education Certificate (*Thanaweya a'Amma*). Thus they get limited exposure to anything but their field of study. Another factor that limits the scope further is that the course professor is considered as the sole source of knowledge. A typical course in any Egyptian higher education institution is highly centralized on the instructor or professor for input. Classes typically take the form of lectures that do not allow for class discussions and do not encourage critical thinking or student reflections. Despite studying in one of the very selective public universities in Egypt as an undergraduate, I was allowed only one interpretation of any text: that of the professor. This was not just a random case restricted to my university, but a generic theme that extended to other universities, majors, courses, and the following cohorts.

Assessment is another factor behind the limited scope of students' knowledge. In most western universities course assessment is varied and would incorporate multiple instruments such as quizzes, assignments, midterms, and presentations. In Egyptian public universities, on the other hand, assessment usually takes the form of an end of semester exam that represents 100 percent of the final grade depending on faculty policies, except for faculties of medicine which have practical, oral, and written exams. On the test, students are expected to reproduce the content presented by the instructor. Students depend mainly on rote memorization to pass their exams. As a result, they graduate with minimal knowledge of their field of study and almost no skills that would provide them qualifications to compete in the current job market.

This dependence on the professor for knowledge and of passing exams only through *voicing* the professor's ideas represents one example of lack of academic freedom within the higher education system in Egypt. Academic freedom in Egypt is a major concern in the current higher education system. This debate of academic freedom affects both the students and the faculty in public and private universities alike (Reading Between the 'Red Lines' 2005). Enforced by different entities, students, faculty members and institutions suffer from the lack of academic freedom. Monitoring of student activities, control over course design and restrictions on course materials, censorship of library books and resources, and repression of researchers and research topics (Reading Between the 'Red Lines' 2005) are just a few examples of how academic freedom is only a concept many students and scholars read about in Egypt, but might never experience.

In most Egyptian educational institutions academic freedom is almost nonexistent. The government of Egypt has established a complete system to ensure full control on the academic environment, starting with the presence of university police, to exhaustive rules and regulations, to political appointment of university presidents and deans (Reading between the 'Red Lines' 2005). This control extends to student activities, represented in repression of student unions, student clubs, and student publications. The government, through the university president and faculty deans, reviews and controls all course objectives, materials and outcomes (Reading Between the 'Red Lines' 2005). They also control the research topics of its graduate students and faculty (Mills 2008).

The Egyptian government established the censoring committee which is responsible for reviewing and approving all the text books and reference materials that are published or imported by any private university in Egypt in order to have a level of control over private universities close to that of public universities (Reading between the 'Red Lines' 2005). In one instance, a book on the reading list of a professor at the American University in Cairo was banned because it was allegedly a threat to the wellbeing of the society (Watzman 2000). The book was a novel by a Moroccan author and contained a few sensual scenes. In extreme cases, university professors were accused of apostasy and blasphemy or treason (Mahmoud 1995; Del Castillo 2001) leading to trial and imprisonment.

The role of universities, in its basic form of promoting knowledge and providing countries with their leaders and serving the local population, needs to be revived. The quality of education is a key factor in the development of any country and its people. However, in order for us to begin improving quality, we need to set

the grounds for it. The limited academic freedom that Egypt lives under at the moment, has developed a body of students and faculty that are vulnerable both professionally and personally. Most faculty members and students alike are either "too fearful or apathetic to challenge the status quo" (Reading between the 'Red Lines' 2005, p. 103). Even after the January revolution and the protests of faculty and staff, little is known about the actual changes that took place.

The issues tackled in this report, as well as many others, need serious attention from the policy makers. Examples of issues that were not covered in this paper and that the Egyptian higher education system faces include overreliance on private tutoring (Shann 1992), facilities and classroom size, policy and governance, overlap of roles and uncoordinated activities between different government authorities (Simpson 2008).

The academic society is inspired by the January 25, 2011 revolution; they are hoping for a radical reform. Some positive steps have taken place such as free elections of student unions, and electing, for the first time, the universities' presidents. How and whether or not change will continue is still a question that only time can provide an answer for.

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Indonesia and United States Exchanges and Partnerships: A Brief Update

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There is increased demand worldwide for higher education to prepare students for the global economy. This feeling is evident in articles and other literature about institutional partnerships between two or more nations, new joint campuses and a variety of other exchange programs, grant funding opportunities, and study abroad. Proponents of such endeavors cite numerous mutual benefits for the countries involved: increasing cultural understanding, economic gains, enhanced foreign policy, learning outcomes, and developing international networks (Osfield and Terrell 2009). This article will briefly highlight the college student exchange relationship between the United States and Indonesia.

In 2010, United States President Barack Obama announced US$165 million in funding for Indonesian academic partnerships, faculty and student exchanges, and other initiatives to create a comprehensive partnership to improve Indonesian higher education (Fischer 2010). Research opportunities for US academics included increased access to a country with daily seismic activity and a diverse ecological environment, as well as further knowledge about the fourth most-populated country and largest Muslim population in the world (Fischer 2010). Indonesia is also interested in making significant improvements to its higher education system, including establishing up to 200 community colleges by 2015 (Dessoff 2011).

In a May 31, 2011 joint letter to the editor of the *Chronicle of Higher Education,* Dino Patti Djalal, Indonesian Ambassador to the United States, and Scot Marciel, United States Ambassador to Indonesia, implored US higher education institutions to make Indonesia-America student exchanges a higher priority:

> We hope that as American colleges develop new student-recruiting strategies and contemplate partnership opportunities, you will consider Indonesia and its large number of higher-education institutions as destinations for study-abroad programs and scholarly research.

The ambassadors noted that Indonesia is the world's third largest democracy, one of the largest economies in the world and an increasingly-visible leader in Asia. Despite these prospects, few American students have studied in Indonesia. Although Indonesia has a population of 240 million, the number of Indonesians attending college is small. The Indonesian Ministry of National Education's Higher Education Long Term Strategy 2003-2010 report cited the need to continue work on increasing college access, particularly in some regions of the country.

The Institute for International Education's (IIE) *Open Doors Report 2011* was released in November. For over 50 years, the report has served as an important resource on international students studying in the United States as well as American students studying abroad. In the 2010-2011 academic year, 6,942 Indonesian students studied in American higher education institutions, ranking #19 among countries sending students to study in the United States. (IIE 2011. Peak enrollment of Indonesian students was in 1997-1998, when over 15,000 students attended US higher education institutions. The Indonesia-America academic partnership hopes to return those numbers to mid-1990 levels while doubling the number of American students studying in Indonesia.

However, the number of American students studying in Indonesia is disproportionately small compared to other countries. While approximately 200 American students studied in Indonesian higher education institu-

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tions in 2009-2010, over 1,200 US students studied in Thailand that academic year. U.S. Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, found the student mobility between Indonesia and the United States to be lacking and called for more effort to be put forth to build relationships between the two countries (Wilhelm 2011).

Ian Wilhelm (2011) reported that at a recent American-Indonesian education meeting, factors that may explain the low number of US students studying in Indonesia were discussed. These factors included the Asian financial crisis, incidents of domestic terrorism (most notably in the tourism-heavy area of Bali), and the 2004 tsunami. Collectively, these create a perception of Indonesia as being unsafe to visit. In addition, an IIE study that surveyed Indonesian institutions found that language barriers and the lack of on-campus housing may also deter American students. Likewise, Indonesian students are concerned about the perception that the United States is an uninviting country for Muslims. On the other hand, aggressive recruiting by higher education institutions in Australia and New Zealand appeal to Indonesian students, the message being that they can learn English, live closer to home, and likely spend significantly less (Dessoff 2011).

The recent summit of higher education officials from Indonesia and the United States will hopefully serve as a catalyst for improved relationships. After reviewing the summit report, I have suggested some necessary improvements to help facilitate this relationship:

1. Develop an easier process for scholar exchange, particularly obtaining visas.
2. Address perception issues such as anti-Muslim sentiment in the United States and safety in Indonesia.
3. Evaluate housing options on Indonesian campuses for international students, and explore family host exchanges.
4. Promote Indonesia's unique biodiversity and geographic features as well as its developing economy, including the tourism industry.
5. Highlight the successful partnerships between US and Indonesian institutions of higher education, many of which have histories spanning over 40 years.
6. Identify opportunities to help improve Indonesia's higher education system, which American education students and faculty may find appealing to be involved in.
7. Promote funding opportunities available through governments and institutions.

While US higher education institutions have been aggressively seeking new ventures abroad (Altbach and Knight 2007), it is essential that these partnerships are truly mutually beneficial for the countries involved. Cultural, historical, and political considerations are integral to such processes. These considerations have the capacity to enhance appreciation, intercultural respect, and mutual understanding.

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Upcoming Conferences and Events

Global

56th Annual Comparative and International Education Society Conference, 22-27 April 2012, San Jose, Puerto Rico. Theme: The worldwide education revolution. Website: http://www.cies2012.psu.edu/

Africa

2nd QS-MAPLE (Middle East and Africa Professional Leaders in Education) Conference and Exhibition, 3-4 May 2012, Durban, South Africa. Theme: Enhancing higher education in the Middle East and Africa. Website: http://standardsinhighered.com

7th International Conference of eLearning Africa (2012) on ICT for Development, Education and Training, 23-25 May 2012, Cotonou, Benin. Theme: An annual event for building eLearning capacities in Africa. Website: http://www.elearning-africa.com/

6th Annual Convention and Learning Expo: African Education Week, 2-4 July 2012, Johannesburg, South Africa. Theme: Empowerment for all through quality education for all. Website: http://www.educationweek.co.za/

10th International Internet Education Conference and Exhibition, 6-8 July 2012, Cairo, Egypt. Theme: Advanced technologies and cloud computing applications for edutainment. Website: http://www.distant-learning.net/

4th International Conference on Education Technology and Computer (ICETC 2012), 18-19 August 2012, Cape Town, South Africa. Theme: Research results and development activities in education and computer technology. Website: http://www.icetc.org/index.htm

16th Annual International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA) Conference, 29 August - 1 September 2012, Cape Town, South Africa. Theme: Promoting higher education internationalisation through international collaboration, partnerships and innovative teaching. Website: http://www.ieasa2012.cmc-uct.co.za/

Asia/Pacific

International Conference on Islamic Scholasticism (ICIS 2012), 14 April 2012**,** Dubai, United Arab Emirates. Theme: Educational implications of past Islamic scholarship for contemporary higher education. Website: http://www.icis2012.com

2nd National Conference on Managing for Tomorrow - Issues and Challenges, 14-15 April 2012, Ahmedabad, Gujarat, India. Theme: Exposure to new endeavors and horizons made in meeting management challenges for tomorrow. Website: http://www.amsom.edu.in/download/Brochure.pdf

Asia Pacific Higher Education Recruitment Conference, 20 April 2012, Melbourne, Australia. Theme: Issues faced by higher education recruiters, snapshots of the global academic, and new technology for adoption. Website: http://www.bigconferences.com/

2nd International Congress on Trends in Higher Education: Innovations and Entrepreneurship, 4-5 May 2012, Istanbul, Turkey. Theme: Foresights and new trends of innovation and entrepreneurship related to higher education both in Turkey and in the world. Website: http://icthe.unibir.org/

Institutional Performance in Higher Education, 15-16 May 2012, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. Theme: Indicators of success and quality in the context of growing demands for accountability and transparency. Website: http://standardsinhighered.com

2nd International Conference of Higher Education Spatial Planning: Theories and Experiences, 18-19 May 2012, Babolsar-Mazandaran, Iran. Themes: Theoretical views and bases of higher education spatial planning; international experiences of higher education spatial planning; evaluation of Iran's experiences in higher education spatial planning. Website: http://ihea.ir/?/en/confrences/

International e-Learning Conference 2012 (IEC2012), 14-15 June 2012, Bangkok, Thailand. Theme: Smart innovations in education and lifelong learning. Website: http://support.thaicyberu.go.th/iec2012

2nd Annual National Higher Education Communications Officers' Conference, 20 June 2012, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. Theme: Developing advanced strategies and promoting increased performance essential for communications in higher education. Website: http://bit.ly/xovhOY

Academic Identities Conference 2012: Thinking, Research and Living Otherwise, 25-27 June 2012, Auckland, New Zealand. Theme: Productive, creative and imaginative possibilities for, as well as critical encounters with, academic identities. Website: http://www.aic.education.auckland.ac.nz/

Indo-Global Education Summit and Expo 2012, 20-24 July 2012, Hyderabad, India. Theme: Fourth edition of the Indo-Global Education Summit on collaborations with foreign universities. Website: http://www.indus.org/

Europe

International Journal of Arts and Sciences Conference series on academic disciplines. Themes: Multidisciplinary tracks in social sciences and humanities, business and economics, teaching and education, and technology and science.

- 22-25 May 2012, Provence, France. Website: http://www.internationaljournal.org/provence.html
- 19-22 June 2012, Florence, Italy. Website: http://www.internationaljournal.org/florence.html
- 26-29 June 2012, Prague, Czech Republic. Website: http://www.internationaljournal.org/prague.html
- 29 October - 1 November 2012, Rome, Italy. Website: http://www.internationaljournal.org/rome.html
- April 8-13, 2012, Gottenheim, Germany. Website: http://www.internationaljournal.org/germany.html

Higher Education, Further Education and Skills, 17 May 2012, London, UK. Theme: Issues surrounding the *New Challenges, New Chances* document in the UK, higher education reform, investment in apprenticeships, community skills, widening participation, student funding and loans, social mobility.

7th International Symposium of the International Academic Association for the Enhancement of Learning in Higher Education, 3-7 June 2012, Aegina Island, Greece. Themes: Move from a discipline-based view to a learning-based view on higher education; what is learning, when does it take place, how is it measured, and in what ways are learning conceptualized and dealt with at universities around the world. Website: http://lihe.wordpress.com/future-events/lihe12-europe-2/lihe12-europe/

21st Annual Conference of the European Access Network, 27-29 June 2012, Zagreb, Croatia. Themes: Affordability, quality, equity and diversity in European higher education. Website: http://www.ean-edu.org/

19th International Conference on Learning, 14-16 August 2012, London, UK. Themes: Values in education, learning how to communicate, humanizing science and technology, sites of learning. Website: http://thelearner.com/ideas/themes/

Academic demarcations: Disciplines and Interdisciplinarity. September 12-13 2012, Oslo, Norway. Themes: structural boundaries epistemic frames which condition worldviews and career paths in research and higher education. Website: http://www.uio.no/forskning/tverrfak/kultrans/aktuelt/konferanser/demarcations/

General conference of the OECD Programme for Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE), September 17-19 2012, Paris, France. Themes: quality, accessibility and retaining academic capital in higher education, including: selectivity, regulation, quality assurance, system diversity, public/private investment, and combinations of education and research. Website: http://www.oecd.org/site/0,3407,en_21571361_47736552_1_1_1_1_1,00.html

Latin America

4th Latin American and Caribbean Conference on Human Development and Human Capabilities Approach Conference, 3-4 May 2012, Lomas de Zamora, Buenos Aires, Argentina. Theme: Education and work in the twenty-first century. Website:

http://congreso.unlzsociales.com.ar/ingles/indexingles.html

1st International Education Conference, 29 May – 1 June 2012, Chihuahua, Mexico. Theme: Building Unheard Possibilities. Website: http://cie.uach.mx/

25th CESE Conference, 18-21 June, 2012, Salamanca, Spain. Theme: Empires, post-coloniality and interculturality. Website: http://www.cese2012.org/en/welcome.html

Conference and Forum, 9-11 October 2012, Mexico City. Theme: International circulation of knowledge, academic and scientific issues for developing countries. Website: http://isavoirs.free.fr/wikini/wakka.php?wiki=CallPaper

IAU 14th General Conference, 27-30 November 2012, Inter American University of Puerto Rico, San Juan. Theme: Higher education and the global agenda. Website: http://www.iau-aiu.net/civicrm/event/info?reset=1&id=45

Middle East and North Africa

2nd International Arab Conference on Quality Assurance in Higher Education, 4-5 April 2012, Gulf University, Bahrain. Themes: Standards, academic programmes, academic institutions, scientific research, remote learning, e-learning, Arab and international experience, strategic planning, internal and external evaluation. Website: www.iacqa.org

3rd International Conference on Higher Education World Class Teaching Universities, 17-18 April 2012, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Website: http://www.ieche.com.sa/web/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=72&Itemid=79&lang=en

3rd International Exhibition and Conference on Higher Education, 17-20 April 2012, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Themes: Provide Saudi students and universities with the opportunity to interact with international higher education institutions, give local universities exposure to international education standards and expertise, establish academic agreements between local and international institutions, encourage development of the local higher education sector through interaction and communication with international institutions, provide both international and local universities with the opportunity to share and discuss their higher education expertise and insights. Website: www.ieche.com.sa

2nd QS-MAPLE (Middle East and Africa Professional Leaders in Education Conference and Exhibition), 3-4 May 2012, Durban, South Africa. Theme: *Enhancing higher education in the Middle East and Africa*. Website: www.qsmaple.org

2nd International Conference on Higher Education Spatial Planning: Theories and Experiences 17-18 May 2012, Mazandaran, Iran. Themes: Theoretical views and bases of higher education spatial planning, international experiences of higher education spatial planning, evaluation of Iran's experiences in higher education spatial planning, solutions and practical studies for Iran's spatial planning in higher education. Website: www.ihea.ir

Higher Education Governance Conference, 22-23 May 2012, Jordan. Website: www.aaru.edu.jo/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=630&Itemid=38

Gulf Education 2012, International Conference and Exhibition, 28-29 May 2012, London, UK. Theme: Create partnerships and strike up meaningful business agreements with the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) to embark on an education strategy to transform the current educational landscape within the region. Website: gulfeducation.co.uk

1st International Conference on Assessment and Evaluation, 2- 4 December 2012, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Theme: Admission criteria in higher education. Website: http://www.ica.qiyas.sa/Conference/Default.aspx?culture=en

United States and Canada

Canada International Conference on Education (CICE-2012), 18-21 June 2012, University of Guelph, Ontario, Canada. Website: http://www.ciceducation.org/

2012 International Workshop on Higher Education Reform. Annual Meeting, 10-12 October 2012, University of Pittsburgh Institute for International Studies in Education, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, United States. Website: http://www.iise.pitt.edh/her9

Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) Conference, 14-17 November 2012, Las Vegas, Nevada, United States. Website: http://www.ashe.ws/?page=728

Recent Publications in International Higher Education

Select Journal Articles by Geographic Region

Africa

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