Comparative & International Higher Education

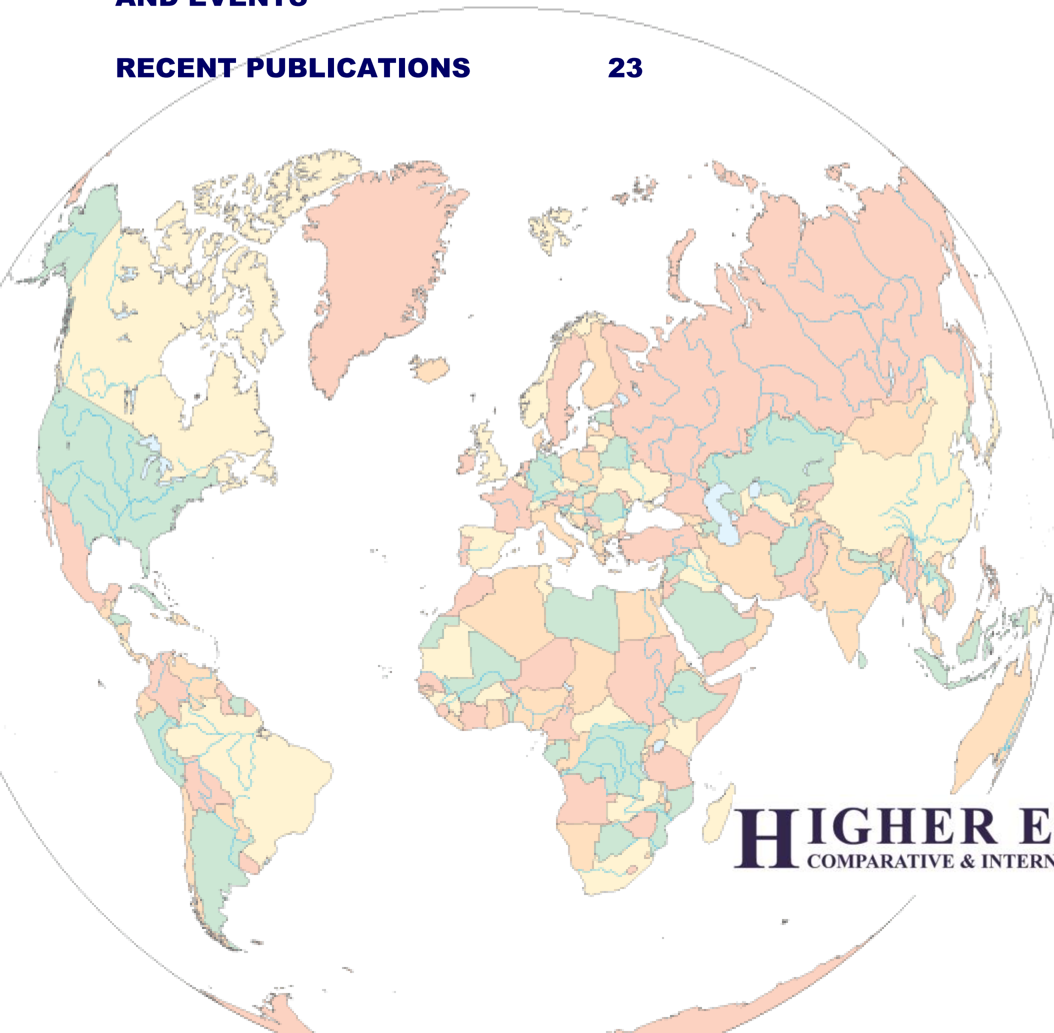
Volume 5, Spring 2013
The Official Newsletter of the Higher Education SIG

FEATURED ARTICLES

Benjamin A. Johnson and Stephanie Levitt	1	Understanding Digital Distractions to Improve Teaching and Learning
Edith Omwami	5	Non-University Sector Reform: Response to Shifts in Global Development Ideology in Africa
Gustavo Gregorutti	9	When Rankings are Urging "One Size Fits All!"
Shahrzad Kamyab	14	Higher Education and Youth Unemployment in the Middle East and North Africa
Zachary S. Ritter	16	Singapore's Search for National Identity: Building a Nation through Education

UPCOMING CONFERENCES AND EVENTS 22

RECENT PUBLICATIONS 23



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.

Submission and Review

The Editorial Board invites contributions, normally of around 1,500 words or less, dealing with the complementary fields of comparative, international, and development education and that relate to one of the focus areas listed in the Newsletter Philosophy section above. Electronic submissions are preferred and should be sent to submissions@higheredsig.org. Hard-copy manuscripts, books for review, and inquiries should be addressed to: The Editors or Regional Editors, Comparative & International Higher Education, University of Pittsburgh, School of Education, 5714 Wesley W. Posvar Hall, Pittsburgh, PA 15260, USA. Manuscripts are evaluated by the editorial board—with full confidentiality on both sides—and then accepted, returned for further revisions, or rejected. For more information, please see the website at:

http://www.higheredsig.org/newsletter.html

The style and format of *Comparative & International Higher Education* follows the Chicago Manual of Style. Only endnotes are allowed. USA spelling (e.g., center, color, organize) and punctuation are preferred (double quotation marks with single within if needed), and requires a short paragraph of bibliographical details for all contributors.

Copyright

Published by the Higher Education SIG, and University of Pittsburgh's Institute for International Studies in Education (IISE) and UCLA's Center for International & Development Education (CIDE). Copyright ©2013 by HESIG. All rights reserved. The findings, interpretations, and conclusions expressed in *Comparative and International Higher Education* are entirely those of the authors and should not be attributed in any manner to IISE, CIDE, or their sponsoring universities. The views expressed in the articles are those of the authors, who should be contacted directly about their work. *Comparative and International Higher Education* is published three times a year.

Comparative & International Higher Education
Volume 5, No. 1 • Spring 2013

Editors

W. James Jacob	Val D. Rust	Qiang Zha
University of Pittsburgh	UCLA	York University

Regional Editors

Africa: Lillian Butungi Niwagaba, University of North Texas; John Bonnell, Michigan State University

Asia/Pacific: Rebecca Clothey, Drexel University; Yi Cao, University of Minnesota

Europe: Marta A. Shaw, University of Minnesota, USA

Latin America: Gustavo Gregorutti, Universidad de Montemorelos, Mexico

Middle East and North Africa: Manar Sabry, University at Buffalo; Hana El-Ghali, American University of Beirut, Lebanon

United States and Canada: Ben Johnson, Ohio State University

Managing Editor

Ryan Donaghy
UCLA

Contact Information

Comparative & International Higher Education
Higher Education SIG
5714 Wesley W. Posvar Hall
Pittsburgh, PA 15260 USA
Direct +1 (412) 567 2517
Fax +1 (800) 327 8203
Website: http://www.higheredsig.org/newsletter.html
Email: submissions@higheredsig.org

HIGHER EDUCATION SIG
COMPARATIVE & INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY

ISSN 2151-0393 (Print)
ISSN 2151-0407 (Online)

Commented [JJ1]: Qiang, let us know what center you would like us to include here from your university. I will amend it accordingly. Thanks!

Understanding Digital Distractions to Improve Teaching and Learning

Benjamin A. Johnson[a,*] and Stephanie L. Shaulskiy[a]

[a]*Ohio State University, USA*

The integration of technology into modern classrooms, though beneficial in innumerable ways, has also come with its own set of difficulties for instructors and learners alike. The learning curve and cost associated with each program or form of technology can prove challenging for course developers. Another factor, and one we have found highly problematic in our hybrid or blended learning environment, is the constant threat of distraction from non-learning technologies.

As instructors and workshop presenters in the Dennis Learning Center at Ohio State University, we encounter all types of students and learners. For more than a decade the learning center has utilized what is called the Active Discovery and Participation through Technology (ADAPT) approach to learning (Tuckman 2002). This blended classroom with an instructor present in a computer lab has enabled thousands of students to learn success strategies, receive timely feedback, and transfer their knowledge to future situations. Research has shown that students who take our learning and motivation course are more likely to stay in college and achieve a higher GPA (Tuckman and Kennedy 2011).

With the integration of technology in the classroom, however, we have come across a number of difficulties we believe may be common to many, if not most, blended learning environments. Course software has sometimes been difficult to navigate, inhibiting instructors' ability to provide substantive feedback on assignments and papers. Software programs, including layouts, quickly become outdated. Probably most concerning however are the digital distractions in the classroom: cell phone use, non-learning computer activities such as social networking, and browsing of course material unrelated to current classroom discussion to name a few. These digital distractions can be detrimental to a student's academic progress and, if unchecked, can lead to other more serious problems. We have often found that students distracted by technology do not participate in class or group discussions, and have more difficulty staying on task.

Our observations prompted us, as instructors, to look into some of the research on technology in the classroom in order to find possible solutions to these common problems.

Literature on Technology in Education

We questioned what colleges and universities are doing, besides offering exposure to in-depth content, to grab the attention of students, many of whom expect technology-heavy learning environments. A recent empirical study in Spain found that blended learning "is more effective than face-to-face learning" (Castaño-Muñoz, Duart, and Sancho-Vinuesa 2013, p. 1). But the authors assert that, "increasing the time spent studying online is only useful when it takes place as some form of interactive learning" (Ibid.). In other words, online study needs to include interactions with other learners in order to be useful.

College and university instructors may feel ill prepared when they think of the technological capabilities of young and future higher education students, but the benefits of using innovative technology in education are worth mentioning. Clicker technology in college classrooms (Cole 2010) and poll websites like http://polleverywhere.com, provide an engaging outlet for students to voice their opinion in spontaneous and anonymous ways. Graphics and animation classroom capabilities have engaged students in K-12 schools in novel and attention grabbing methods (Schachter 2009) that have caught on in other venues. Add to these online

*Corresponding author: Email: johnson.3357@osu.edu; Address: Dennis Learning Center, Ohio State University, 250C Younkin Success Center, Columbus, OH 43201, USA.

class discussions, interactive learning software, and many other digital learning tools that promote student engagement.

Sometimes efforts to make classes more interactive, perhaps by just allowing students to take notes on laptops, have created new distractions for instructors and students alike. Some instructors have been so annoyed with student off-task classroom behavior that they have implemented "no laptop computer" policies and have had (sometimes forcibly) all wireless connections turned off (Kay and Lauricella 2011). Burns and Lohenry (2010) reported that over 40 percent of students use their cell phones for text, voice mail checking, and even as lights to see in the back of dimly lit classrooms. Today, a student might use her cell phone to take notes, message, check the time, weather or their class schedule, or even access course content, and it is difficult for the instructor to know which of these the student is doing.

Every generation of students demands newer technologies, but some technologies never actually get used at all (Boles 2011). Once an expensive technology is attained, it can quickly become outdated largely because of the huge learning curve and time needed for the instructor to understand and apply it to her educational setting. Instructors need to be seriously convinced that their time invested in the project will yield significant results in student learning outcomes (Means 2010).

Solutions

It is clear that digital devices will not go away any time soon. Whether an instructor chooses to ban, ignore, or include electronic devices in their classroom, they will still have to deal with the problems surrounding digital distractions. Posting signs to turn off cell phones completely have been met with limited success. Taking the middle ground approach and asking students to digitally disengage (close their laptops), while the instructor emphasizes a few important points can go a long way (Bugeja 2007). It seems we are at a cross roads: either meaningfully integrate classroom technology or "distractions and decreased performance are inevitable" (Kay and Lauricella 2011, p. 34).

One solution would be to consider domains of academic and social space with the use of technology. It is important to stress to students that online class discussions are not places for sharing intimate social experiences, or venues for superficial, unprocessed, or offensive content. For things to go smoothly there must be a clear distinction between on and off-task behavior. In a study about online learning, half of students in one study actively "flicked" back and forth between learning and non-learning activities (Winter, Cotton, Gavin, and Yorke 2010). The authors determined that students tend to feel more productive if they have barriers to distractions, whether inherent in the technology or set up on their own. If the distractions could not be managed, half the participants felt they would be better off reading without the use of computers. Which tasks to combine or multitask can also be a quandary. In another study, when compared to combining visual and audio tasks, combining only visual tasks decreased productivity even when the user felt like he or she was being more productive (Wang and Tchernev 2012).

The digital distractions and other problems related to technology in the classroom can create an unfortunate confrontation: professor vs. technology. Kay and Lauricella (2011, p. 34) put it well, "Outright bans on technology sends a message to students that they are not to be trusted to take responsibility for their own learning." For today's student, the electronic device in whatever form, is often seen as an appendage, virtually an extension of themselves, and an absolute severance policy may be viewed as an encroachment on their right to learn and their ability to do it. So, it is not a question of whether to include technology, but how to effectively use it (Wilson, Wright, Inman, and Matherson 2011).

How We Have Adapted Our Learning Environment

As instructors we try to maintain a quiet study area that limits distractions. Many signs in learning labs discourage digital and personal conversations. At the beginning of a course, we emphasize what is considered acceptable and non-acceptable use of technology in the classroom. We elicit feedback from students on what software and programs are helpful and try to make ad-

justments to class content and layout as needed. In our class content we include a section on minimizing distractions, including digital distractions, in order to help students identify and address diversions that conflict with their academic goals.

Recently we changed the physical configuration of our classroom lab to include more open table space for students. The classroom was originally set up as a computer lab, where students sat in rows at desktop computers. Now, the classroom has essentially been split into two sections, one that still includes desktop computers and one which has large tables where students sit during lectures and discussions. We believed it would enhance peer learning to have students sit at an open table without computer hardware barriers that seemed to limit student interaction with their peers and served as distractions at the computer workstations.

We quickly noticed a difference once the physical space was rearranged. Some of the comments from other instructors who teach in this space include:

> Changing the physical space was the single-best thing that happened to my course!
>
> Students talk so much more now, and talk more to each other!

We were pleased that the change had encouraged student interaction. However, there was another and unexpected consequence of this space adjustment; students would not migrate back to the computer stations after class or group discussion, but would remain to read course readings through hardcopy or small electronic devices (iPad, tablet, or phones), or use their personal laptops to access course materials. Simply changing the physical configuration of the classroom drastically changed how the students used digital devices.

Considering what we have found in the literature and what we have experienced in our class, we suggest the following:

- Set expectations early in the course on how technology is to be used in the classroom,
- Assess the physical arrangement of the classroom and make changes as needed,
- Consider how digital resources will be shared to promote interactive learning and discourage distractions, and
- Recognize that total bans on digital devices may not be helpful in developing rapport with your students.

While our glance into the literature was helpful for us, we know there is still much to consider and learn in this area. We close with some questions for instructors of all kinds, whether you teach in formal or informal spaces. Do you embrace new technology, and if so, when and why? When is it worth the extra effort and cost to adapt high learning-curve technologies for your learning environment? Which are most harmful or beneficial to interactive learning? How much autonomy should students have with personal or shared electronic devices?

From an instructor point of view, watching students with their eyes, ears, and hands engaged with an electronic device can elicit negative thoughts about students and their habits, but it is important to keep things in perspective. Nearly 90 years ago, after serving more than 25 years as a university president, one educator wrote: “The [modern] student may be a problem, but he is also an opportunity.… It should always be kept in mind that a generation of youth is vastly better than its follies or vices may suggest” (Thompson 1925, p. 34). Students that are digitally distracted can be very difficult to teach, and the challenges associated with integrating useful technologies in the classroom can be daunting for the instructor. But as we have experienced, these difficulties are often offset by the tremendous advantages of recent technology that can be carefully and selectively integrated into courses.

References

Boles, Stephanie Reeve. 2011. “Using Technology in the Classroom.” *Science Scope 34* (9): 39-43.

Bugeja, Michael J. 2007. "Distractions in the Wireless Classroom." *Chronicle of Higher Education*, January 26.

Burns, Shari M., and Kevin Lohenry. 2010. "Cellular Phone Use in Class: Implications for Teaching and Learning a Pilot Study." *College Student Journal 44* (3): 805-810.

Castaño-Muñoz, Jonatan, Josep M. Duart, and Teresa Sancho-Vinuesa. 2013. "The Internet in Face-to-face Higher Education: Can Interactive Learning Improve Academic Achievement?" *British Journal of Educational Technology*. doi:10.1111/bjet.12007.

Cole, Stephanie. 2010. "Quit Surfing and Start 'Clicking': One Professor's Effort to Combat the Problems of Teaching the U.S. Survey in a Large Lecture Hall." *The History Teacher 43* (3): 397–410.

Kay, Robin H., and Sharon Lauricella. 2011. "Unstructured vs. Structured Use of Laptops in Higher Education." *Journal of Information Technology Education: Innovations in Practice 10*: 34-42.

Means, Barbara. 2010. "Technology and Education Change: Focus on Student Learning." *Technology and Education Change 42* (3): 285-307.

Schachter, Ron. "Mobile Devices in the Classroom." *District Administration 45* (10): 31-36.

Thompson, William Oxley. 1925. *President's Report. Fifty-Fifth Annual Report of the Board of Trustees of The Ohio State University to the Governor of Ohio, for the Year Ending June 30, 1925*. Columbus, OH: Ohio State Reformatory Press.

Tuckman, Bruce W., and Gary J. Kennedy. 2011. "Teaching Learning Strategies to Increase Success of First-Term College Students." *Journal of Experimental Education 79* (4): 478-504. doi:10.1080/00220973.2010.512318.

Tuckman, Bruce W. 2002. "Evaluating ADAPT: A Hybrid Instructional Model Combining Web-based and Classroom Components." *Computers & Education 39* (3): 261-269.

Wang, Zheng, and John M. Tchernev. 2012. "The 'Myth' of Media Multitasking: Reciprocal Dynamics of Media Multitasking, Personal Needs, and Gratifications." *Journal of Communication 62* (3): 493-513. doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.2012.01641.x.

Wilson, Elizabeth K., Vivian H. Wright, Christopher T. Inman, and Lisa H. Matherson. 2011. "Retooling the Social Studies Classroom for the Current Generation." *The Social Studies 102* (2): 65-72.

Winter, Jennie, Debby Cotton, Joan Gavin, and Jon D. Yorke. 2010. "Effective E-learning? Multi-tasking, Distractions and Boundary Management by Graduate Students in an Online Environment." *ALT-J, Research in Learning Technology 18* (1): 71-83.

Non-University Sector Reform: Response to Shifts in Global Development Ideology in Africa

Edith Omwami[a,*]

[a]*University of California, Los Angeles, USA*

The technical and vocational education and training (TVET) development within the non-university sector has been the focus for national development programming in Africa for the last 50 years. In the immediate post-independence period, the global development agencies promoted the non-university sector as the engine for promoting the accumulation of human capital stock needed for the advancement of the new nations. The post-secondary TVET sector was critical to the immediate production of the needed skilled manpower that the new African economies required to fill the gap left by the departing foreign colonial staff (Mukudi 2004; Sifuna 2007). Since the training circle was shorter, it also made to invest in this sector for a more efficient turnover of personnel in training for public sector appointments. This article examines reform and response efforts to the shifts in global development ideology in the non-university sector in the region.

The decision to expand the non-university sector by independent African countries fitted in the international development discourse for promoting investment in education in an effort to promote human capital accumulation that support economic development (Lewin 2008). At the national level, it would also be argued that both individuals and households derive economic benefits from investment in education (Sweetland 1996). The indispensable status of development of high skilled human resource base necessary to drive economic growth through technology and innovation remains a sustainable argument in a global competitive environment (Aneesh 2000).

The focus on the non-university sector was essentially a compromise that allowed for public investment in post-secondary education that would allow for expanded access and a much higher return in service personnel yield in comparison to the yield from public investment in the university sector. The non-university higher education sector in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries are relied upon to "offer a wide spectrum of vocational education that qualify for specific occupation or prepare for a profession" that serve local economies (Kyvi 2004, p. 393). This sector essentially became the sector of public interest in the face of global fiscal austerity, because it offered opportunity for a broader representation in private returns while contributing to better national economic and social benefits for public investment (Psacharopoulos 1997; Oketch 2007). In spite of a significant expansion in enrollment in university sector in the region in the recent years, opportunities to access the sector remains highly restricted.

The 1950s marked an era when much of the Western world was concerned with human rights and national development. Primarily influenced by Keynesianism, the nation state became the focal point in the assessment of development and goal towards modernization. The Western states that emerged following World War II subscribed to the Keynesian welfare state economic model; an economic ideology in which domestic development was tied to the goal of expanding the world economy (Mundy 1999). It was therefore inevitable that they would conceptualize the public sector as the driver of economic growth and modernization in their engagement in global development. As such, the state was entrusted with the responsibility of implementing the reallocative and redistributive social policy (Mundy 1999) that was imperative for fostering economic growth while eliminating poverty and inequality.

The belief in the redeeming capability of skilled manpower was driven by the ideas of Schultz (1960,

*Corresponding author: Email: omwami@gseis.ucla.edu; Address: University of California, Los Angeles, Moore Hall 2131, 405 Hilgard Ave., Los Angeles, CA 90095-1521, USA.

1961), who proposed that there were positive externalities derived from having an educated workforce. Schultz argued that knowledge and skill attained through education are important to the realization of the full potential of human capital, the result of which is increased productivity. He was a strong advocate of development aid for the accumulation of human capital in the emerging nations of the post-World War II period. Both Keynesianism and human capital theory thus informed education sector development from the very beginning.

The non-university sector was tasked with the specific aim "of raising the level of Skills (especially technical and management skills) needed to support economic growth, and of providing an adequate supply of the whole range of professional expertise" (Sifuna 1992, p. 7). Indeed vocational and technical education had been considered as a significant component of the industrialization and modernization input for the emerging nations states of the 1960s (Kelly and Altbach 1986). The non-university public sector at the time of independence was differentiated into teacher training colleges, ministry affiliated service specific institutions (department training schools) and the open enrollment polytechnic system. The response to the global shift in development ideology and practice very much depended on the type of institution under consideration. I explore the specific shifts in development ideology and what each change meant with respect to reform measures facing the non-university sectors at the time.

In the immediate post-independence period, TVET sector development in the region was primarily financed by governments, with support from some multilateral and bilateral aid agencies. The bilateral aid agencies mostly financed the construction of infrastructure for middle-level colleges. Even though the development ideology was one that promoted the welfare state, it was not lost to the parties that the interest of each donor nation could only be served efficiently through bilateral arrangements (Mundy 1999). Between 1960 and 1970, bilateral agencies assisted in the development of agriculture and technology-focused middle-level colleges in different countries in the region. In each country, each specific non-university institution was to be identified with a specific donor.

In the 1980s, Keynesianism gave way to neo-liberal monetarism as the dominant development economic ideology (Carnoy 1995). With the adoption of the World Bank-mandated structural adjustment programs (SAPs), public sector budgetary limitations inevitably resulted in either a freeze in education budget growth or reduction in sector allocation. Informed by the rate of return analysis, the 1980s World Bank policy framework had guided development finance support towards primary education—opting to emphasize equity and expand access to basic education. Public sector education finance budgets were to be directed towards basic education. Further, even though the World Bank questioned the reliance on the vocational training-driven development investment model, it still preferred the polytechnics system as a cheaper alternative to the university system (Banya and Etu 2001). The result was that no significant expansion in middle-level non-university infrastructure was witnessed throughout the 1980s. In the face of overwhelming fiscal austerity, African governments introduced cost-sharing in the form of direct tuition cost at the public middle level colleges towards the end of the 1980s.

A radical global shift in both political and economic ideology ushered in the 1990s, made possible by the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991. This brand of neo-conservatism, largely influenced by the United States experience of the 1970s through 1980s, emphasized political individualism and unfettered free market capitalism. The global education development agenda shifted to focus on efforts to universalize basic education as a priority arising from the 1990 Jomtien Conference Declaration (UNESCO 1990); many governments redirected their already limited public sector resources to primary education.

Demand for university education had outpaced the available space by 1990. In the face of global democratization movements expressed at the national level, African governments had no choice but to respond to consumer demand in an effort to buy political states legitimacy imperative for their very survival in the global environment of the 1990s (Hughes and Mwiria

1990; Mwiria and Nyukuri 1992; Sifuna 2010). The response in the public sector meant that middle-level colleges were systematically upgraded to either constituent colleges of existing universities or granted full-fledged university status (Teferra and Altbach 2004; Sifuna 2010) as governments lacked adequate resources to expand public university sector infrastructure.

The free market capitalism of the 1990s allowed for private sector participation in the non-university education market as well. On the private initiative front, a significant number of entrepreneurs entered into the post-secondary education market that served to fill the non-university education demand. A number of Christian organizations established teacher training colleges across the region. Private entrepreneurs established specific vocational skills related non-university schools, majority of which were located in urban areas. As profits took precedence over service to community, quality of education was compromised in most of the new non-university schools. Overall, quality of education had declined in all post-secondary education institutions as evidenced from the Kenyan experience (Sifuna 2010).

By 2000, the democratization wave that had nurtured civil society throughout the 1990s had made gains in influencing the shift in the global development rhetoric towards a rights-based development paradigm. While the post-Dakar framework called for reforms that foster lifelong learning and diversification of education program options (UNESCO 2000), the reform measures that have been witnessed in the education sector—and in the non-university system in particular—have mainly been competitive market driven. For the most part, the annexation of the public sector non-university institutions into the university system continued into the post-2000 era. The more recent development involves partnership initiatives between the public university sector and the private non-university sector that seeks to expand their reach for consumers (students). In the Kenyan context, for example, the traditional university has engaged in the provision of non-degree programs with a variety of private partners (Sifuna 2010). Such efforts have taken the university system away from the traditional mandate of training students at the bachelor's and graduate levels, and into the diverse world of non-university education and training. In effect, while the university has entered into the street mall education entrepreneurship, it has also served to expand the delivery of non-university education, albeit with little attention to quality concerns.

More recently, the UNESCO-sponsored Dubai forum in March 2013 reaffirmed that public-private partnership in the delivery of education services remained important given that governments faced continued "austerity, public sector reform and budget cuts" (UNESCO 2013, p. 1). The second decade of the new millennium shifts the focus in the whole education sector towards equity and access to education opportunity. The impetus for the latest development could be seen as the return of the welfare state model that reaffirms the role of the state in meeting the rights of its citizens. The Dakar conference recommitted to supporting expansion in the higher education sector for development (UNESCO 2000). This point was made clear in the preamble quoting Mr. Thabo Mbeki, then president of South Africa, in saying that, "nowhere in the world has sustained development been attained without a well-functioning system of education, without universal and sound primary education, without an effective higher education sector, without equality of educational opportunities" (UNESCO 2000, p. 25).

The 1990 Jomtien conference had cautioned governments that commitment to ensure universal basic education should not result in the higher education sector being starved of public resources. In the follow-up Dakar conference of 2000, the position in support of higher education expansion was reiterated in the declaration urging governments to increase EFA budgets "without sacrificing needed resources for higher levels of education" and focus on the goal to increase "the number of students that completed basic, middle and higher education" (UNESCO 2000, pp. 59 and 71).

Cost remains a barrier to access to higher education for many poor students in Africa (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009; Sifuna 2010). The education finance discourse has thus shifted to consider extending loans to students in both public and private higher education institutions. In his policy brief to the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning Asso-

ciation for the Development of Education in Africa, for example, Varghese (2009) makes the case for the need to expand private sector higher education and "extending provisions such as student loans, travel concessions" and other benefits that have so far been accorded to students in the public higher education sector. Within public higher education, it will remain to be seen if the privileges accorded to bachelor's and graduate students will be extended to students enrolled in the newly-embraced, traditionally non-university programs.

References

Altbach, Philip G., Liz Reisberg, and Laura E. Rumbley. 2009. *Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution*. A Report Prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education. Paris: UNESCO.

Aneesh, A. 2000. Rethinking Migration: High Skilled Labor Flows from India to the United States. San Diego, CA: Center for Comparative Immigration Studies, University of California, San Diego.

Banya, Kingsley, and Juliet Elu. 2001 "The World Bank and Financing Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa." *Higher Education 42* (1): 1-34.

Carnoy, Martin. 1995. "Structural Adjustment and the Changing Face of Education." *International Labour Review 134* (6): 653-673.

Hughes, Rees, and Kilemi Mwiria. 1990. "An Essay on the Implications of University Expansion in Kenya," *Higher Education 19* (2): 215-237.

Kelly, Gail P., and Altbach, Philip G. 1986. "Comparative Education: Challenges and Responses." *Comparative Education Review 30* (1): 89-107.

Kyvik, Svein. 2004. "Structural Changes in Higher Education Systems in Western Europe." *Higher Education in Europe 24* (3): 393-409.

Lewin, Keith M. 2008. *Four Decades of Educational Planning: Retrospect and Prospect*. Paris: UNESCO International Institute for International Planning (IIEP).

Mundy, Karen. 1999. Educational Multilateralism in a Changing World Order: UNESCO and the Limits of the Possible. *International Journal of Educational Development 19* (1): 27-52.

Mwiria, Kilemi, and Mulati S. Nyukuri. 1992. *The Management of Double Intakes: A Case of Kenyatta University*. Paris: UNESCO IIEP.

Oketch, Moses O. 2007. "To Vocationalise or Not to Vocationalise? Perspectives on Current Trends and Issues in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Africa." *International Journal of Educational Development 27*: 220-234.

Psacharopoulos, George. 1997. "Vocational Education and Training Today: Challenges and Responses." *Journal of Vocational Education and Training 49* (3): 385-394.

Schultz, Theodore W. 1960. "Capital Formation in Education." *Journal of Political Economy 6* (6): 571-583.

Schultz, Theodore W. 1961. "Investment in Human Capital." *American Economic Review 1* (2): 1-17.

Sifuna, Daniel N. 2010. "Some Reflections on the Expansion and Quality of Higher Education in Public Universities in Kenya." *Research in Post-Compulsory Education 15* (4): 415-425.

Sifuna, Daniel N. 1992. "Diversifying the Secondary Curriculum: The African Experience." *International Review of Education 38* (1): 5-18.

Sweetland, Scott R. 1996. "Human Capital Theory: Foundations of a Field of Inquiry." *Review of Educational Research 66* (3): 341-359.

Teferra, Damtew, and Philip G. Altbach. 2004. "African Higher Education: Challenges for the 21st Century." *Higher Education 47* (1): 21-50.

UNESCO. 1990. *World Conference on Education for All- Meeting Basic Learning Needs: A Vision for the 1990s*. 5-9 March 1990, Jomtien, Thailand. New York: The Inter-Agency Commission for the World Conference on Education for All.

UNESCO. 2000. *Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments: The Dakar Framework for Action*. World Education Forum, Dakar, Senegal, 26-28 April 2000. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. 2013. *The Global Education and Skills Forum*, 15-17 March 2013, Dubai, United Arab Emirates.

Varghese, N. V. 2009. *Private Sector as a Partner in Higher Education Development in Africa*. Policy Brief IIEP/Prg.NVV/09.11. Paris: UNESCO.

When Rankings are Urging "One Size Fits All!"

Gustavo Gregorutti[a,*]

[a]*University of Montemorelos, Mexico*

Over the last two decades, an increasing trend to classify and rank higher education has set forth. This trend started in the United State of America, with *U.S. News and World Report*, as the first and most prominent university-ranking model for the country. Similar ranking systems spread like wild fire and are being used at a national level in many countries. However, recently these classifications have crossed national borders producing international comparisons identifying "World-Class Universities." The first one to do this, in 2003, was the Institute of Higher Education of the Jiao Tong University in Shanghai that published the Academic Ranking of World Universities, also commonly referred to as the Shanghai Ranking. This ranking has produced a global impact with a wide spectrum of reaction (Marginson and van der Wende 2007). Soon after, other rankings appeared with some different indicators presenting alternatives, although all of them ponder research as a central feature for higher education. Examples of these are the *Times Higher Education* (2004) and the QS Stars University rankings (2010). Recently, the *U.S. News and World Report* has also created its own version of "World-Class Universities" based on QS Stars' database.

These rankings were highly publicized, almost instantly, as real measurements of quality (Eff, Klein, and Kyle 2011). The Shanghai Ranking produced a considerable impact on many policy makers around the world (Rauhvargers 2011). This fact was associated with competing in a globalized world where universities look for the best human resources to fuel their economies through new ideas that transfer innovation and create jobs. Many Latin American countries promoted increasing amount of funds through policies that reinforced the importance of research in its multiple outputs. Moreover, assessment and accrediting agencies are weighing research as a central indicator of quality. Several government assessment policies have underscored research productivity as a defining characteristic for a university that strives for a prominent position in a globalized world (van Raan 2005).

This way, competition has become furious and very much unfair if one looks into the indicators used to rank what is understood as excellence. As it is well documented, definition of quality is hardly standardized as these international rankings promote. Now, can existing rankings be real tools for assessing universities' quality? What are some of the inconsistencies of actual rankings, and is there any alternative path to rank at all? These are some of the questions this paper seeks to answer.

Challenges of Existing Rankings

These world rankings were highly publicized, almost instantly, as real measurements of quality (Marginson and van der Wende 2007). It is important to remark that rankings and evaluations are different concepts, although they are related. When a university is assessed, it is against a set of benchmarks that an organization, such as an accrediting body, agrees to use as quality control. Universities or academic programs may pass or fail the required indicators. Many of the evaluation indicators are qualitative and are intended to guide institutions in a continuous toward complex views of quality. On the other hand, rankings set quantitative indicators that allow them to compare similar institutions. These benchmarks are combined into an index that allows rank institutions in a scale that normally goes from 0 to 100.

*Corresponding author: Email: grego@um.edu.mx;
Address: Facultad de Educación, Universidad de Montemorelos, Nuevo León, México.

TABLE 1

CRITERIA AND INDICATORS FOR THE ACADEMIC RANKING OF WORLD UNIVERSITIES (ARWU)

Criteria	Indicator	Code	Weight
Quality of Education	Alumni of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals	Alumni	10%
Quality of Faculty	Staff of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals (Not included Peace and Literature Prizes)	Award	20%
	Highly cited researchers in 21 broad subject categories (Thompson ISI website)	HiCi	20%
Research Output	Papers published in Nature and Science (With different weights for order and repetition of affiliation)	N&S	20%
	Papers indexed in Science Citation Index-expanded and Social Science Citation Index	PUB	20%
Per Capita Performance	Per capita academic performance of an institution (the weighted scores of the above five indicators divided by the number of full-time equivalent academic staff)	PCP	10%
Total			100%

Source: Shanghai Jiao Tong University's (2011) Institute of Higher Education.

TABLE 2

CRITERIA AND INDICATORS FOR THE *TIMES HIGHER EDUCATION* (*THE*)

Criteria	Indicator	Description	Weight
Teaching	Teaching reputation	Perceived reputation for teaching from international surveys (16,000-plus responses)	15 %
	Staff to students	This staff-student ratio intends to be a proxy for teaching quality	4.5 %
	Doctorate to bachelor	Institutions with a high density of research students are more knowledge-intensive and it is a marker of a research-led teaching environment valued by undergraduates and postgraduates alike.	2.25 %
	Doctorate awarded	Doctorates awarded by an institution, scaled against its size as measured by the number of academic staff it employs.	6 %
	Univ. income	It indicates the general status of an institution and gives a broad sense of the infrastructure and facilities available to students and staff.	2.25 %
Research	Acad. peer review	University's reputation for research excellence among its peers, based on the 16,000-plus responses to our annual academic reputation survey.	18 %
	Research income	This category also looks at university research income, scaled against staff numbers and normalized for purchasing-power parity.	6 %
	Research volume	Number of papers published in the academic journals indexed by Thomson Reuters per academic, scaled for a university's total size and also normalized for subject. This gives an idea of an institution's ability to get papers published in quality peer-reviewed journals.	6 %
Citations	Research influence	It looks at the role of universities in spreading new knowledge and ideas. The data are drawn from the 12,000 academic journals indexed by Thomson Reuters' Web of Science database and include all indexed journals published from 2006.	30 %
Industry income	Innovation	This category seeks to capture such "knowledge transfer" by looking at how much research income an institution earns from industry, scaled against the number of academic staff it employs.	2.5 %
Int'l Outlook: People	Students: Undergrad and grad	The ability of a university to attract undergraduates and graduates from all over the planet.	2.5 %
	Faculty	Competition for the best faculty from around the globe.	2.5 %
	Int'l research influence	The proportion of a university's total research journal publications that have at least one international co-author and reward higher volumes.	2.5 %
Total			100 %

Source: Times Higher Education (2012).

Although rankings can be useful to determine how well institutions do regionally or even internationally, they are controversial and far from neutral. One may ask, what are the indicators used to rank universities? Tables 1 and 2 show a global view of parameters and their power within the two most important ranking scales.

Even though the *THE* ranking has added teaching among its indicators, the overall emphasis is on research and its products. In the case of the Shanghai Ranking, most of its benchmarks are highly associated to research as well. Several studies have proved that there are important inconsistencies and subjectivity associated with the way both rankings' criteria are chosen (Archibald and Feldman 2008; Burness 2008; Eckles 2010). In addition, some researchers have questioned the accuracy of some the indicators (van Raan 2005; Huang 2011). Universities may rank very differently depending on indicators and the weight given to each one. This leads to the problem of trying to highlight one model of higher education over others. Rankings are actually reflecting dominant models of tertiary education. Their way of measuring education quality is after a specific higher education pattern. Is this something wrong? Well, not if it is presented as one of several models rather than as "the" model for tertiary education. There are several reasons why it is important to avoid purporting only one dominant higher education model.

First, most of these rankings honor research as the central characteristic for a quality university. All universities should carry on some research, but achieving the most cited and selective journals and have Nobel prizes is a task for well-equipped and funded institutions. This is doable for a particular group of institutions that publish many English journals, have the most advanced labs, a wide range of the best national and international researchers with a strong commitment to the applied sciences. But how many institutions match such a description? Even in the United States, a front-runner in both of the worldwide rankings highlighted in this article, only a reduced group of universities can really compete for a relevant position.

Second, what about different models of education? There are thousands of training institutions that will not develop a pattern as described by the above two tables. Is that incorrect or falling short? It all depends on the model and purpose of the institution. The for-profit sector is growing like wild fire in many countries. One may question whether they are doing a good job, but it is at least interesting to see how millions are taking this route. Institutions like the for-profit Universidad del Valle de Mexico, are gaining accreditation through the same pattern traditionally given to only private non-profit higher education institutions. What about distance education? For instance, the Virtual University of Monterrey within the Tec on Monterrey, Mexico is offering 16 master's online degree programs and one online-based PhD program. Thousands of students across Latin America are completing master's degrees, without even one on-site visit.

Third, what about other indicators of performance besides research? None of the most prominent rankings take into account community engagement, employees' perceptions, values, learning outcomes, and graduates' impact, to mention a few indicators that could have substantial impact. These are very important components that reflect higher education institution missions. There is no doubt that universities are places preparing people to be successful professionals, who contribute to their disciplines, but they should also strive for training persons with values that impact their communities. Many of the institutions that are not listed on the global rankings contribute in many unclassified ways. For instance, they function as a social "equalizer" giving opportunities to poor and undereducated students improving their chances to become middle class professionals.

Now, here is a question someone may ask: Is it possible to measure some of these extra benchmarks, since they are rather difficult to measure, and combine them into a ranking system? The following section approaches this complex question.

Creating Alternative Models

A ranking system is needed that starts from the assumption that there are multiple models of higher education institutions and that they have various missions

and serve many different kinds of students. To approach this daunting task, it is probably better to start from classifications that would support rankings and give them a solid rationale to set up some kind of "parallel" systems of tertiary education.

Due to the impact rankings have made on many policy makers, an International Ranking Expert Group (IREG) was organized in 2004 and, as part of its activities, in 2006 it announced the Berlin Principles. This is a set of guidelines for reliable rankings that can help measure higher education quality. Correctly interpreted, they can be a useful source of information for funding and policies that advance education. These 10 principles can be summarized as follows:

Purposes and Goals of Rankings

1. Rankings should be one approach, and not the primary approach, to assessing higher education. This will bring balance to decision-making.
2. They should be clear about the group of higher education institutions and purposes a particular ranking is targeting. This helps to take diversity as an important and significant factor.
3. Rankings should also specify linguistic, cultural, economic, and even the historical mixture that may impact an institutional positioning in a ranking.

Design and Weighting of Indicators

4. Rankings should state the methodology used and be clear about data and statistical procedures to ensure transparency and credibility.
5. They should be based more on outcomes and results. This may give a better picture of the quality a university has.
6. Rankings should be consistent with indicators' weight and avoid changing them.

Collection and Processing of Data

7. Data collection and processing should comply with international ethical standards and be as impartial as possible.
8. Rankings should employ a measure of quality to assure that they are reliable.
9. Link rankings to international organizations that would give credibility.

Presentation of Ranking Results

10. Offer a comprehensive understanding of all indicators employed to develop a ranking, so users would have a clear understanding of how and what is being ranked.

Recently, based on the Berlin Principles, the European Economic Community and UNESCO joined together to fund the Center for Higher Education Development in Germany, that has the mission of creating a comprehensive model to rank German and Dutch-speaking universities. This is a multi-criteria system that uses multiple dimensions and users can customize them following a set of up to 37 indicators that are grouped into nine modules. These indicators are also applied to a wide group of disciplines most universities offer. Since this ranking uses so many indicators, it regroups universities in three levels (low, middle, and high). This gives to prospective students a more comprehensive view of what universities offer.

Final Thought

Most of the existing rankings are heavily based on hard and quantifiable data, such as research productivity. However, most higher education institutions that put a good deal of resources to train professionals are "punished" as less relevant for what is defined as quality. These institutions, for instance, are huge social equalizers that improve not only people's lives but also regional economies. Advancing research and transferring of ideas is one important task for higher education. But these activities should be weighted among other im-

portant indicators. In other words, different ranking systems will provide a much better opportunity to take into consideration other dimensions of higher education to have multiple characteristics and identities. There is too much at risk with so few dominant ranking options. This can impact negatively on many institutions that are contributing to the advancement of society. These broad principles can be of help to start different types of rankings that would honor the vast diversity of simultaneous systems of tertiary education.

References

Archibald, Robert, and David Feldman. 2008. "Graduation Rates and Accountability: Regressions Versus Production Frontiers. *Research in Higher Education 49* (1): 80-100. DOI: 10.1007/s11162-007-9065-4.

Burness, John. 2008. "The Rankings Game: Who's Playing Whom?" *The Chronicle of Higher Education 55* (2): A80.

Eckles, James. 2010. "Evaluating the Efficiency of Top Liberal Arts Colleges. *Research in Higher Education 51* (3): 266-293. DOI: 10.1007/s11162-009-9157-4

Eff, Anthon, Klein, Christopher and Reuben Kyle. 2011. "Identifying the Best Buys in U.S. Higher Education." *Research in Higher Education 53* (8): 860-887. DOI 10.1007/s11162-012-9259-2

Huang, Mu-Hsuan. 2011. "A Comparison of Three Major Academic Rankings for World Universities: From a Research Evaluation Perspective." *Journal of Library and Information Studies 9* (1): 1-25.

Marginson, Simon, and Marijk van der Wende. 2007. "Top Rank or To Be Ranked: The Impact of Global Rankings in Higher Education." *Journal of Studies in International Education 11* (3/4): 306-329. DOI: 10.1177/1028315307303544

Rauhvargers, Andrejs. 2011. *Global University Rankings and Their Impact.* Brussels: European University Association.

Shanghai Jiao Tong University. 2011. *Ranking Methodology*. Shanghai: Institute of Higher Education, Shanghai Jiao Tong University.

Times Higher Education. 2012. *The Essential Elements in Our World-Leading Formula*. London: *Times Higher Education*.

van Raan, Anthony. 2005. "Fatal Attraction: Conceptual and Methodological Problems in the Ranking of Universities by Bibliometric Methods." *Scientometrics 62* (1): 133-143.

Higher Education and Youth Unemployment in the Middle East and North Africa

Shahrzad Kamyab[a,*]

[a]*University of San Diego, USA*

Today, the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) is facing a fundamental challenge to provide its overwhelmingly young population with job opportunities. The youth unemployment rate between the ages of 15-24 in MENA is hovering around 25 percent compared to the world average rate of 14 percent.

Many argue that the Arab uprising is the result of economic failure to provide the MENA youth with employment. In fact, studies that have been conducted in this regard proved that protest participants were mostly unemployed educated citizens who were frustrated by a lack of employment opportunities. The December 2010 uprising in Tunisia reflects the tipping point of the above mentioned problem. The story is similar in other MENA countries.

The youth unemployment crisis can be traced, however, to many issues including the lack of sound development strategies, weaknesses in the business environment, poor governance, lack of transparency and accountability, and widespread corruption. Also crucial is the lack of quality education to prepare youth for work. Many studies indicate severe educational deficiencies within the higher education systems in most MENA countries. The lack of connection between what students learn in universities and what industry expects them to know upon graduation has created a huge unemployment dilemma and a serious loss of opportunities.

An example of this disconnect is Jordan where the major challenge for the education system is to produce "employable" workers with a spectrum of skills and proficiencies that are sound and flexible enough to close the gap between the competencies that the industry expects and what the Jordanian labor force can offer. In Lebanon, the inconsistencies between the structure of the higher education programs and the real needs of the job market has contributed to youth unemployment and intensified the rate of youth migration.

In Iran, as in many other countries in the region, the formal labor market has provided the implication that those with a university degree are more likely to find a "good" and secure job. Therefore, the country developed an education system that is geared towards granting degrees and diplomas rather than addressing the skills and training that are needed in the job market. Furthermore, the university admission is determined by a stringent exam (*Konkur* or *Concours*) which for the most part measures the applicants' capacity for memorization rather than critical thinking abilities and problem solving.

Similarly, the Egyptian labor market suffers from a substantial gap between supply and demand as millions of graduates seek job opportunities. This paradox stems from a severe mismatch between the skills and training actively sought by the labor market and the quality of graduates. That imbalance, in turn, is the result of an education system that fails to meet the needs of the job market. Therefore, it can be predicted that the youth unemployment will continue to increase as long as education policies and the higher education quality remain the same.

Overall, the most commonly-shared deficiencies within the education systems across the region are lack of creativity and teaching of critical thinking, outdated curricula, and lack of technical/vocational popularity as these programs are still heavily stigmatized as the destination for those rejected by the formal schooling system.

In an attempt to remedy the pressing issue of youth unemployment, over time, policy makers across the region have come to recognize the immediacy of addressing the problem by introducing reforms and initia-

*Corresponding author: Email: shahrzad.kamyab@yahoo.com; Address: International education consultant in San Diego, California, USA.

tives. While specific solutions may differ from country to country, the initiative objectives have proven to be relevant across the whole region. Those initiatives, such as education for employment (e4e)[1] have a common theme which is to reform the education systems in MENA so that students gain relevant skills.

To reach this goal, the e4e initiative's recommendations call upon universities to assume leadership in collaborating and partnering with the industry. This collaboration would culminate in practicum elements that would characterize university degree programs. Furthermore, this calls upon a new generation of faculty members who would have an appropriate mix of academic theory and practitioner skills. As for students, they would have access to internships facilitated by the universities. The initiative also encourages universities to consider offering both part-time and on-line programs through evenings and week-ends in order to expand their reach.

While such initiatives may demonstrate real achievements, no country in MENA can claim to have sufficiently addressed the fundamental challenges facing its young citizens. Unfortunately, youth unemployment is exacerbated by the current political instability due to uncertainty following the so called Arab Spring. Higher education in the MENA region needs to address youth unemployment by analyzing the roots of the problem and put into effect aggressive policies that would reinforce the linkages between educational training and employability.

Note

[1]Education for employment (e4e) is an initiative headed by the International Finance Corporation, a member of the World Bank Group, and the Islamic Development Bank. Her Majesty Queen Rania Al Abdullah of Jordan is the Honorary Chair of this initiative, which is focused on positioning education as a major priority to drive improved employment prospects.

Singapore's Search for National Identity: Building a Nation through Education

Zachary S. Ritter[a,*]

[a]*American Jewish University, USA*

Higher education institutions in the United States are often concerned with access, affordability, diversity, research, and ranking, but there is less of an emphasis on building national patriotism and unity. In the case of Singapore, universities are concerned with all of the aforementioned issues, but they have also been charged by the Ministry of Education (MOE) to implement National Education, which is a program created to instill a historical understanding of the nation, but also a love for country. Singaporean politicians helped implement National Education in 1997 out of a need to create racial harmony in Singapore's multicultural society, as well as an economic desire to build national loyalty in its citizenry, in order to avoid further brain drain.

Singapore (*Singa-pura* in Malay, meaning lion city) is a small island nation of 5.18 million people, with a diverse population of Chinese (76.8 percent), Malay (13.9 percent), Indian (7.9 percent) and Caucasian (1.4 percent) citizens (Tan 2008). In the last 49 years of independence, Singapore has experienced a number of changes including economic growth, rising immigration, and increased Westernization, which have made it difficult for the ruling People's Action Party (PAP) to create a national identity. It was once a British colony (1819-1942), then a Japanese one (1942-1945), then it became one unified nation with Malaysia (1963-1965), only to separate from Malaysia and gain its independence in 1965 (LePoer 1989).

In the late 1990s, a *New York Times* article reported that out of 800 Singaporean students aged 14 to 28, many Chinese Singaporeans expressed they would rather be Caucasian or Japanese (Richardson 1999). Many of these Singaporeans wanted to identify themselves with the world's leading economic and cultural powers, namely America, Europe, and Japan. Chang Han Yin, a sociology lecturer at the National University of Singapore who conducted the survey alluded to fears that globalization and economic success were leading to an identity crises in Singapore's youth (Richardson 1999). With this crisis of identity, Singapore's MOE sought to create a new national curriculum called National Education (NE).

In addition, in 1996, the Singaporean MOE conducted student surveys that found that many Singaporean students knew little about the country's recent history. Students knew more about Singapore's past as a British colony, but few knew about the separation from Malaysia, the racial riots of the 1960s, or the nation building efforts of the People's Action Party (PAP) government (San and Goh 2003). In response, Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong announced the launch of NE: a new curriculum for primary, secondary, and post-secondary education institutes that would instill national ideals, history, and racial respect in young Singaporeans. The PAP government created a national holiday in conjunction with the launch of NE, called Racial Harmony Day, to commemorate the Malay and Chinese racial riots of 1964. Some scholars believe NE is simply propaganda, while others laud its emphasis on critical thinking as a positive shift from the traditional rote memorization for which Asian schools are often criticized (Tan and Chew 2008).

Singapore may only be a small island nation in Southeast Asia; however, its educational approach has implications and applicability to other countries facing increasing globalization, spreading of Western values, and rising global Islamic fundamentalism (Tan and Chew 2008; Velayutham 2007). As Singapore faces challenges to their social cohesion, the government constructs citizenship curriculum that inculcates youth with Chinese Confucian values, historical knowledge, and national pride, in order to prevent brain drain, main-

*Corresponding author: Email: ritter.zack@gmail.com;
Address: 15600 Mulholland Drive, Bel Air, CA, 90077, USA.

tain economic stability, and foster a racially tolerant society (Han 2009). Singapore provides a unique experiment in nation-building and societal value transmission by instituting required NE curriculum, seminars, and field trips during a student's college years (Singapore MOE Website 2007). This Singaporean case begs the question, what does it mean to be a citizen of a multicultural nation in a globalizing world?

The concepts of nation and national identity are complex ones at best. Is the nation a geographical location, a construct of the government, or an imagined community as Anderson (1991) purports? Koh (2005, 2006) argued that the Singaporean national identity is artificially constructed by the government, through media and schooling; in order to keep political stability, resist Western influences (i.e. globalization), and maintain racial harmony. Koh (2005) supports his argument by citing several speeches by Singaporean political leaders that contain nation building language as well as news coverage that indicates a lack of identity on the behalf of Singaporean youth. In a 1999 speech by Prime Minister Goh, he urged Singaporeans to become a "Singaporean tribe" (Koh 2005, p.77).

In another speech, Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong, predicated the need for NE on the notion that national instincts and "cultural DNA" (Koh 2005, p. 80) must be passed down from one generation to the next, in order to insure the survival of Singapore. Koh interprets this language as a call by the government to reclaim an authentic Singaporean identity that has never truly existed. The author goes on to assert that the Singaporean government has never recovered from the trauma of being ousted by Malaysia. The PAP government was born from crisis, thus it constructs new dilemmas in order to mobilize a "collective will" and legitimize its control (Koh 2005, p. 84).

The curriculum and pedagogy of NE is not taught as one course, but is infused across the curriculum in social studies, civics and moral education, history, and geography. The message at the primary level is to love Singapore, while the message at the secondary level is to know Singapore, and at the junior college level (pre-university), the message is to lead Singapore. For the less academically inclined students attending institutes of technical education (the United States' equivalent to vocational institutes), the NE message is that these students' role in society is to aid their families and Singapore by working hard and maintaining a stable social order, while university students should learn NE curriculum in order to lead and shape the country's future (Koh 2006). This hierarchical division of societal roles, Koh (2006) argues, seems counterintuitive for a national curriculum that aims to build a national consciousness. Other criticisms of NE are that it presents only the PAP's version of Singaporean history, which could lead to conformist thinking, or on the other spectrum, outright student rejection of the historical material (Koh 2006). Furthermore, most teachers were born post-independence; therefore, they too may disregard the new patriotic and nation-building curriculum as "jingoistic [government] propaganda" (Koh 2006, p. 367).

Sim (2008) offers a different view of NE. While critical of the authoritarian approach of NE that lacks critical questioning of national history and identity, Sim (2008) also offers a realistic portrayal of why the government still enforces NE. Chua (1995) and Sim (2011) explain that the People's Action Party is constantly concerned with Singaporean survival, their monopoly on Singaporean politics, and national stability in light of bombing threats of the Changi Airport by Islamic terrorist group, Jemaah Islamiya. Singapore has no real natural resources, is flanked by two developing Muslim nations (Indonesia and Malaysia), and has had violent racial riots in its past and as a result, the government feels it is imperative for the nation's survival to create racial harmony, foster a sense of loyalty, and cultivate educated workers.

In the 2007 Committee on National Education Executive Summary, the MOE gives data that indicates that NE is working for students at the college level, and the document also provides information on NE efforts being made at the college level. Statistical footnotes in the document indicate that over 90% of students at every grade level have reported positive responses for the measure: "I am proud to be a Singaporean" (MOE 2007) from 1999 to 2005. Furthermore, when asked if they value multi-racial characteristics of Singaporean

society, 94 percent of polytechnic students responded positively. While these figures indicate that NE's message of meritocracy, racial harmony, and loyalty to country are being instilled in pupils, one figure illustrates cause for concern for policy makers. When asked if they would stay in Singapore if given the chance to live anywhere in the world, only 23 percent of university students answered yes. The National Population Secretariat's data suggests that 180,000 Singaporeans resided abroad as of 2010, 20 percent of the top performing junior college students end up working abroad, and the number of college educated Singaporeans looking for work in Australia, Europe, and the United States continue to increase (Chan-Hoong and Soon 2010). The fear of an imminent brain drain led Singaporean political leaders to call for a strengthening of emotional ties to Singapore, and as a result, National Education was implemented to help retain Singapore's best and brightest (Chan-Hoong and Soon 2010).

At the higher education level, NE is carried out in different ways. National University of Singapore (NUS) students are required to take a course from the Singapore Studies department, which offers classes on local and global cultures and politics, such as "Singapore Film: Performance of Identity" and "Singapore, Asia, and American Power" (NUS website 2009). Other institutions, such as Singapore Polytechnic have devised a NE student committee that not only takes students on fieldtrips to culturally relevant sites (such as military bases and ethnic neighborhoods), but has also created its own curriculum called Active Citizenry: Beyond *Kopi Tiam* (Malay, meaning coffee shop) Banter, that teaches students about national history, values, identity, and future challenges (Singapore Polytechnic Website 2012).

In addition, Singapore Management University (SMU) offers a Singapore social studies program, which utilizes constructivist pedagogies and small learning communities to educate students on the rich culture, art, economy, and society that make up this unique island nation. Both NUS and SMU are compelling examples of Citizenship Education implementation at the college level that have yet to receive a great deal of attention from higher education scholars in Singapore or America. Future research should focus on a comparative analysis of patriotic views, historical understanding, multicultural awareness, and conceptualizations of national identity for both American and Singaporean college students. Studies such as this, could reveal more about how to build national unity in a diverse and continually globalizing world.

Singapore's education system has had to do a complex balancing act between maintaining a local identity, in light of a globalizing world. The government has striven to instill national pride in their young citizens, in order to keep them from venturing off to Europe, China, Australia, and Europe for job opportunities. Singapore's development of Asian values curriculum is unique in the sense that the government forged an Asian identity out of a Malay, Chinese, Indian, and Eurasian population. The need for this forging of national culture is illuminated when viewed through the prism of Tönnies transition from *gemeinschaft* (community) to *gesellschaft* (society). *Gemeinschaft* is explained as a house or family in pre-modern times in which its members cared for one another, were bound by a common ancestry, and worked together for a "common goal" (Tönnies 1957, p. 42). As the rural household or community was replaced by an industrialized society that was profit driven and selfish, the individual transformed from a communal being to an isolated social actor. Contemporary social scientists have reconstructed the *gemeinschaft-gesellschaft* antinomy to represent the conflict between the nation-state and the global society. One can draw parallels with the example of Singapore, in which the country represents a *gemeinschaft* striving to preserve its local culture in light of a dominant Western cultural *gesellschaft* threat.

The NE curriculum was thus infused with Asian values that resemble Tönnies' *gemeinschaft*: Confucian vales of familial duties, hard work, collectivism, and respect for authority (Lee et. al. 2004). Whereas, in the Western counterpart, or *gesellschaft*, individualism, materialism, and democratic values are prized. Singapore's semi-authoritarian government has come to embrace the Western free market economy, but has shied away from subscribing to Western notions of political democracy and human rights. This political and cultural

cherry picking is best explained by Japanese philosopher Masakuza Yamazaki's schema, which described East Asian countries as having adopted and adapted Western political practices at the governmental level (first strata), retained their nation's civilization in their legal institutions (second strata), and preserved their traditional cultures on the familial level (third strata) (Kennedy 2005). This schema problematizes Tönnies duality, and adds another layer of analysis, going from the most public governmental strata, to the most private familial strata. The Singaporean government began to see a tidal shift in this third strata of familial values and cultural identities of young citizens, thus it decided to take action.

NE is a fundamental part of going global and staying local because it strives to instill young citizens with the values the government hopes will boost loyalty to the country, but at the same time teaches students the value of temporarily working abroad (Koh 2007). The government's motive for creating this civic nationalism is for economic productivity and social cohesion. As Foucault's notion of governmentality (Foucault, Burchell, Gordon, and Miller 1991; Koh 2007) indicates, a government manages a country's wealth, provides health care, creates jobs, and ensures the general welfare of its people. In addition, there is a psychological dimension to party rule that involves "the cultivation of a certain mind-set and habitus conducive to guiding the conduct of human beings" (Koh 2007, p. 183). In other words, those in power prescribe youths with certain values, through schooling, in order to create loyal and productive workers that will contribute to a national economy.

In Singapore we see a society in transition. It is a nation-state that has achieved economic success in a short span of time, has overcome ethnic tensions, and gained first world status. The government has tried to limit cultural globalization but has at the same time encouraged economic globalization. The PAP encouragement of Western values and at other times Asian values may seem paradoxical, however, it is simply a mark of the difficult waters a young nation such as Singapore must navigate in a world of competing ideologies and expanding global markets.

American citizenship education at the college level is not as strong as it is in Singapore, in terms of inculcating national history, values, unity, and pride. Some US universities provide multicultural and service-learning courses that are important for fostering knowledge of different cultures and civic engagement; however, there needs to be a discussion not only of our differences, but of what makes us American in the United States. While Singapore is only a small island nation, the US may be able to take a page from Singapore's education system about how to encourage social cohesion through a common history, value system, and shared national identity.

References

Anderson, Benedict. 1991. *Imagined Communities: Reflections on the Origin and Spread of Nationalism.* London: Verso.

Chan-Hoong, Leong, and Debbie Soon. 2011. "A Study on Emigration Attitudes of Young Singaporeans." *Institute of Policy Studies, Working Papers*: No. 19.

Chernilo, Daniel. 2007. *A Social Theory of the Nation-State.* New York: Routledge.

Chua, Beng-Huat. 1995. *Communitarian Ideology and Democracy in Singapore*. London: Routledge.

Delanty, Gerard. 2001. "Nationalism: Between Nation and State." In George Ritzer and Barry George (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Denzin, Norman. 1989. *The Research Act.* 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

El-Ojeili, Chamsy, and Patrick Hayden. 2006. *Critical Theories of Globalization.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Foucault, Michel, Graham Burchell, Colin Gordon, and Peter Miller. 1991. *The Foucault Effect: Studies in Governmentality. With Two Lectures by and an Interview with Michel Foucault.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Gopinathan, S., and Leslie Sharpe. 2004. "New Bearings for Citizenship Education in Singapore." In *Citizenship Education in Asia and the Pacific: Con-*

cepts and Issues, ed. Wing On Lee, et. al. Hong Kong: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Han, Christine. 2009. "Creating Good Citizens, or a Competitive Workforce, or Just Plain Political Socialization?" In *Education as a Political Tool in Asia,* ed. Marie Lall and Edward Vickers. New York: Routledge.

Han, Christine, Jason Chew, and Jason Tan. 2001. "Singapore: Values education for a knowledge-based economy." In *Values Education for Dynamic Societies*, ed. William Cummings, Maria Teresa Tatto, and John N. Hawkins. Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, University of Hong Kong.

Hill, Michael. 2000. *Asian Values as Reverse Orientalism: The Case of Singapore. Working Paper.* Singapore: Department of Sociology, National University of Singapore.

Ho, W. M. 1976. *Asian values and modernization—A critical interpretation.* Occasional Paper: No. 1. Singapore: Department of Philosophy, National University of Singapore.

Kennedy, Kerry J. 2005. *Changing Schools for Changing Times: New Directions for the School Curriculum in Hong Kong.* Hong Kong: Chinese University Press.

Koh, Aaron. 2005. "Imagining the Singapore 'Nation' and 'Identity': The Role of the Media and National Education." *Asia Pacific Journal of Education 25* (1): 75-91.

Koh, Aaron 2006. "Working Against Globalisation: The Role of the Media and National Education in Singapore." *Globalisation, Societies, and Education 4* (3): 357-370.

Koh, Aaron. 2007. "Living with Globalization Tactically: The Metapragmatics of Globalization in Singapore." *Sojourn: Journal of Social Issues in Southeast Asia 22* (2): 179-201.

Koh, Aaron. 2008. "Disciplining Generation M: The Paradox of Creating a Local National Identity in an Era of Global Flows." In *Youth Moves: Identities and Education in Global Perspective,* ed. Nadine Dobly and Fazal Rizvi. New York: Routledge.

Lee, Wing On, David Grossman, Kerry Kennedy, and Gregory Fairbrother, eds. 2004. *Citizenship Education in Asia and the Pacific.* Hong Kong: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

LePoer, Barbara L. 1989. *Singapore: a Country Study.* Washington, DC: Library of Congress Federal Research Division.

Lincoln, Yvonna S., and Egon G. Guba, 1986. "But is It Rigorous? Trustworthiness and Authenticity in Naturalistic Evaluation." *New Directions for Program Evaluation 30* (30): 73-84.

National University of Singapore. 2009. Office of Programs: Singapore Studies. Available online at: http://www.fas.nus.edu.sg; accessed on 18 October 2009.

Richardson, Michael. 1999. "Youths Would Rather Be White or Japanese: Singapore Identity Crisis?" *New York Times*, December 1999.

San, Tan Kwang, and Chor Boon Goh. 2003. *Securing Our Future: Sourcebook for National Education Ideas and Strategies for Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges.* Singapore: Pearson Education Asia Pte Ltd. Prentice Hall.

Sim, Boon Yee Jasmine. 2011. "Social Studies and Citizenship for Participation in Singapore: How One State Seeks to Influence Its Citizens." *Oxford Review of Education 37* (6): 743-761.

Sim, Boon Yee Jasmine. 2008. "What Does Citizenship Mean? Social Studies Teachers' Understanding of Citizenship in Singapore Schools." *Educational Review 60* (3): 253-266.

Singapore Ministry of Education. 2007. *Committee of Supply Debate 3rd Reply by MOS Lui Tuck Yew on National Education Enhancing NE: Strengthening Heartware and Rootedness.* Singapore: Ministry of Education.

Singapore Ministry of Education. 2007. *Committee on National Education: Executive Summary.* Available online at: http://www.moe.gov.sg; accessed on 18 October 2009.

Singapore Polytechnic. 2012. *School of Communication, Arts, and Social Sciences: Active Citizenry Module.* Available online at: http://www.sp.edu.sg; accessed on 18 October 2009.

Smith, Anthony. 1991. *National Identity.* New York: Penguin Books.

Tan, Charlene. 2008. "Creating 'Good Citizens' and Maintaining Religious Harmony in Singapore." *British Journal of Religious Education 30* (2): 133-142.

Tan, Jason. 2007. "Pulling together amid globalization: National Education in Singapore Schools." In *Changing Education: Leadership, Innovation and Development in a Globalizing Asia Pacific,* ed. Peter D. Hershock, Mark Mason, and John. N. Hawkins. Hong Kong and Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Comparative Education Research Centre, University of Hong Kong and Springer.

Tan, Tai Wei, and Lee Chin Chew. 2008. "Political Pragmatism and Citizenship Training in Singapore." In *Citizenship Curriculum in Asia and the Pacific,* ed. David Grossman, Wing On Lee, and Kerry Kennedy. Hong Kong: Springer.

Tönnies, Ferdinand. 1957. *Community & Society.* East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.

Velayutham, Selvaraj. 2007. *Responding to Globalization: Nation, Culture, and Identity in Singapore.* Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies Publishing.

Zajda, Joseph, Holger Daun, and Lawrence J. Saha. 2009. *Nation-building, Identity, and Citizenship Education.* Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Upcoming Conferences and Events

Global

15th Comparative Education World Congress, 24-28 June 2013, Buenos Aires, Argentina. Theme: New Times, New Voices. Website: http://www.wcces2013.com

Latin America

American Association of Hispanics in Higher Education, 28-30 March 2013, San Antonio, Texas. Theme: Toward a Latino Attainment Agenda: Shaping Our Own Destiny. Website: http://www.aahhe.org/conference.aspx

The Latino Institute Inc, 9-10 April 2014, Trenton, MJ. Theme: Latinos and the Future of Higher Education: Access, Retention, and Graduate Aspirations. Website: http://latinoinstitute.net/special-events/latinos-and-the-future-of-higher-education-conference-to-be-held-april-9-10-2013/

Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities, 15-16 April 2013, Washington, DC.18th Annual National Capitol Forum on Hispanic Higher Education. Website: http://www.hacu.net/hacu/Capitol_Forum3.asp

Collegeboard, 1-2 May 2013, Chicago, IL. Theme: Preparation: Educating Latinos for the Future of America. Website: http://preparate.collegeboard.org

University College Dublin, 23-24 May 2013, Dublin, Ireland. Latin America Conference Ireland. Website: http://www.ucd.ie/sociology/newsevents/news/title,131158,en.html

Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities, 26-28 October 2013. Chicago, IL. Themes: Championing Hispanic Higher Education Success: Securing the American Dream. Website: http://www.hacu.net/hacu/Annual_Conference1.asp

United States and Canada

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), 16-20 March 2013, Theme: "Bold Without Boundaries," Orlando, Florida, United States. Website: http://www.naspa.org/conf/default.cfm

National Education Association (NEA) Higher Education Conference, March 22-24, 2013, Theme: "Faculty, Students, and the Common Good," Portland Marriott Downtown Waterfront, Portland, Oregon, United States. Website: http://www.nea.org

International Conference on College Teaching and Learning, 8-12 April 2013, Ponte Vedra Beach, Florida, United States. Website: http://www.teachlearn.org

American Educational Research Association (AERA), 27 April - 1 May, Theme: "Education and Poverty: Theory, Research, Policy and Praxis," San Francisco, California, United States. Website: http://www.aera.net

Canada International Conference on Education (CICE-2012), 24-26 June 2013, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada. Website: http://www.ciceducation.org

EDUCAUSE, 15-18 October 2013, Anaheim, California, United States. Website: http://www.educause.edu/annual-conference

Institute of Education Sciences (IES), Summer Research Training Institute: Cluster-Randomized Trials, July 15–25, 2013, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, United States. Website: http://ies.ed.gov/ncer/whatsnew/conferences/13rct_traininginstitute

History of Education Society (HES) Annual Meeting, 31 October - 3 November 2013, Nashville, Tennessee, United States. Website: https://cmt.research.microsoft.com/HES20123

Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) Conference, 14-16 November 2013, St. Louis, Missouri, United States. Website: http://www.ashe.ws/

Recent Publications in International Higher Education

Select Journal Articles by Geographic Region

Latin America

Espinoza, Óscar, and Luis Eduardo González. 2013. "Accreditation in Higher Education in Chile: Results and Consequences." *Quality Assurance in Education 21* (1): 20-38.

Galaz-Fontes, Jesús Francisco, and Manuel Gil-Antón. 2013. "The Impact of Merit-Pay Systems on the Work and Attitudes of Mexican Academics." *Higher Education*. DOI: 10.1007/s10734-013-9610-3

Roux, Ruth. 2012. "The Teaching-Research Nexus: A Comparative Analysis and Suggestions for Foreign Language Teachers." *American International Journal of Contemporary Research 2* (12): 24-29.

Torres, Nadia Paola Mireles. 2013. "Embracing Openness: The Challenges of OER in Latin American Education." *Open Praxis 5*: 81-89.

United States and Canada

Dar, Luciana. 2012. "The Political Dynamics of Higher Education Policy." *Journal of Higher Education 83* (6): 769-794.

Belfield, Clive R. 2013. "Student Loans and Repayment Rates: The Role of For-Profit Colleges." *Research in Higher Education 54* (1): 1-29.

Christman, Dana E., and Rhonda L. McClellan. 2012. "Discovering Middle Space: Distinctions of Sex and Gender in Resilient Leadership." *Journal of Higher Education 83* (5): 648-670.

Finkelstein, Martin J., Elaine Walker, and Rong Chen, 2013. "The American faculty in an Age of Globalization: Predictors of Internationalization of Research Content and Professional Networks." *Higher Education*. DOI: 10.1007/s10734-012-9607-3

Gao, Fei. 2013. "A Case Study of Using a Social Annotation Tool to Support Collaboratively Learning." *The Internet and Higher Education 17*: 76-83.

Hughes, Carolyn, Rachel Steinhorn, Blair Davis, Sara Beckrest, Elizabeth Boyd, and Kelly Cashen. 2012. "University-Based Service Learning: Relating Mentoring Experiences to Issues of Poverty." *Journal of College Student Development 53* (6): 767-782.

Hunt P.F., Gast L.K., Mitchell A., Boyd V.S., and Wilson W. 2012. "Why Some Students Leave College During Their Senior Year." *Journal of College Student Development 53* (5): 737-742.

Kezar, Adrianna, and Cecile Sam. 2013. "Institutionalizing Equitable Policies and Practices for Contingent Faculty." *Journal of Higher Education 84* (1): 56-87.

Select Books by Region

Latin America

Cohn, Samuel. 2012. *Employment and Development under Globalization: State and Economy in Brazil*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Diez, Jordi, and Susan Franceschet. 2012. *Comparative Public Policy in Latin America*. Vol. 38. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Gale, Laurence. 2013. *Education and Development in Latin America*. (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Mize, Ronald L., and Grace Delgado. 2012. *Latino Immigrants in the United States*. Moden, MA: Polity.

United States and Canada

Altmann, Andreas, and Bernd Ebersberger. 2013. *Universities in Change Managing Higher Education Institutions in the Age of Globalization*. New York: Springer.

Binder, Amy J., and Kate Wood. 2013. *Becoming Right: How Campuses Shape Young Conservatives*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Brown, Alice W. 2012. *Cautionary Tales Strategy Lessons from Struggling Colleges*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Brown, M. Christopher. 2013. *Educating African American Males: Contexts for Consideration, Possibilities for Practice*. New York: Peter Lang.

DeNicola, Daniel R. 2012. *Learning to Flourish: A Philosophical Exploration of Liberal Education*. New York: Continuum.

Drezner, Noah D. 2013. *Expanding the Donor Base in Higher Education: Engaging Non-Traditional Donors*. New York: Routledge.

Durband, Dorothy B., and Sonya L. Britt. 2012. *Student Financial Literacy Campus-Based Program Development*. New York: Springer.

Espinoza, Roberta. 2012. *Working-Class Minority Students' Routes to Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.

Esterberg, Kristin G., and John Wooding. 2013. *Divided Conversations Identities, Leadership, and Change in Public Higher Education.* Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press.

Gasman, Marybeth. 2013. *Engaging Diverse College Alumni: The Essential Guide to Fundraising*. New York: Routledge.

Geiger, Roger L., and Nathan M. Sorber. 2013. *The Land-Grant Colleges and the Reshaping of American Higher Education*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

Palmer, Robert T., Dina C. Maramba, and Marybeth Gasman. 2013. *Fostering Success of Ethnic and Racial Minorities in STEM: The Role of Minority Serving Institutions*. New York: Routledge.

Rolfe, Gary. 2013. *The University in Dissent Scholarship in the Corporate University*. New York: Routledge.

Zumeta, William Mark, and James B. Hunt. 2012. *Financing American Higher Education in the Era of Globalization*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.