

Guerrand-Hermès Foundation for Peace



Exploring the Relationship Between Higher Education and
Development: A Review and Report

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Contents

Section 1. Introduction to the Report	3
Section 2. HEIs in Development: Overview of the Subject	4
I. Contents of the section	
II. History of higher education in development	4
III. Concepts: how HEIs play a role in development	5
1. Human capital and economic development	
2. Methodological learning and liberal education	
3. Learning social values and democratic participation	
4. Transformative and critical approaches to education	
5. Research – R&D, action research, etc.	
6. Third Mission: Community Service	
IV. Challenges for HEIs in development	8
1. Challenges experienced world-wide	
2. Undesired effects	
3. Internal and external constraints or obstacles	
V. Trends and considerations in higher education	10
1. Content of education and curricula: tangible and intangible skills and short-term and long-term relevancy	
2. Diversification and specialisation of HEIs	
3. HEI networking and partnerships	
4. Quality and purpose of education	
VI. Conclusions	13
Section 3. Higher education in India and China	14
I. Introduction – enabling environments and national context	
II. Educational programmes in poorer areas and vocational training	
The <i>Jan Shikshan Santham</i> Barefoot Colleges	15
Chinese rural community learning centres	16
III. External trends and education in the national context	17
1. Expansion and diversification	
2. Fiscal pressure and financing	
3. Orientation to markets	
4. Demand for greater accountability	
5. Demand for improved quality and relevance	
6. Internationalisation of higher education	
7. Research	
8. Networking	

9. Autonomy and management	
IV. Conclusions	20
Section 4. Universities and Programmes for Development	22
I. Introduction	
List of universities and HEIs in this study	23
Various institutional capacities & various forms of development	
II. Educational programmes for development	23
1. Proactive role in development	
2. Comprehensive education	
3. Combining research, teaching, and service for participation	
4. Research and academic values	
5. Collaboration and networking with other entities	
6. Service	
7. Internal management	
III. Summary of section	27
Section 5. Conclusions	30
Summary and aspects to consider when thinking about the role of higher education in development	
Section 6. Bibliography	

1. Introduction

Higher education, tertiary or continuing education plays a necessary and an increasingly important role in human, social, and economic development (Sutton 1998; Escrigas 2008). The role of higher education institutes (HEIs) in development is vital, but it is also complex, fluid and dynamic. HEIs exhibit numerous different capabilities and scope, and can affect processes of development both directly and indirectly through teaching, research and service. Furthermore, HEIs operate within different contexts in which they can play numerous roles and face various challenges. For example, a university in an urban setting in China is going to look very different from one in rural Ghana as their contrasting contexts require. And while there are many challenges in providing adequate education in pursuit of certain goals, there are also promising improvements in higher education that increase the impact, quality and effectiveness of HEIs' role in development and social change.

In this report, HEIs include a wide variety of universities, vocational and technical colleges, amongst other formal, non-formal, and informal institutions. The concept of "development" is used openly as well, as is increasingly being done in mainstream literature and development projects. Development is not confined to macroeconomic forces of growth, however central that may be, but also focuses on the improvement of the individual and collective human condition, increasing choices and participation, equality, standards of living and wellbeing, the environment and sustainability, and on another level, development as a human and ways of being. Studies that incorporate similarly open definitions include Obanya (2002) and UNESCO (2005). Development is not a stage to be attained or a goal to aim for. Rather, it is a constant process of improvement in which education, research, and service play prominent roles in creating positive change in the self, the people around us, our communities, and the institutions and structures that support us. Higher education or tertiary education in this context is about empowerment and raising the quality of life where people can continue to develop their knowledge and skills. It is about learning to know, learning to do, learning to be, and learning to live together (Faure 1972). Learning, research and service at HEIs are often at the forefront of knowledge generation and dissemination and are thus important contributors to forces of social change.

Overview

This report covers a variety of subjects, each section addressing separate issues. The first section is an introduction to the role of HEIs in development and social change. It covers some of the major and basic issues in the development literature on higher education. The second part addresses higher or tertiary education in China and India as two examples of how the macro environment and educational discourses influence the provision of higher education. Additionally, it looks briefly at programmes in China and India designed to improve education and the conditions of people in the poorer and less developed areas of these countries. The third part analyses various institutions around the world that have experienced considerable success as development-oriented HEIs, and that serve as models for innovative practices. The fourth and final section is an attempt to draw some conclusions on how institutions serve developmental objectives.

2. Higher Education in Development: A Review

This section is a short introduction to some of the issues under consideration in the development literature on higher education. It is not an exhaustive list or literature review, but rather an introductory chapter to some of the concepts that dominate academic and policy fields.

History of Higher Education in Development

Although the benefits of education for development and social change have long been contemplated, the contemporary study of the role of higher education in developing countries emerged alongside post-colonial discourses and modernisation theories on how best to modernise societies. In most parts of the developing world, education in general was seen as playing an indispensable role in national economic development and cultivating the necessary civic values for societal and political participation. The object of analysis usually concentrated on the way in which governments could utilise the national higher education system to train people in the skills necessary for economic growth (See for example D'aeth 1975, 3; Hanson 1966; Chapman 2002, 6). Higher education was usually limited to universities, which often had a conception of "true education" as a purely academic endeavour, and not necessarily directly relevant to local communities. Vocational training was left primarily to government programmes (Hanson 1966).

In the 1980s, higher education was gradually considered less important in the quest for economic growth and social change. This decline was due to three trends. First, universities failed to produce the results that were expected of them in much of the developing world. Second, many HEIs were not concerned with local, regional, or national issues and problems. The content and style of education was often divorced from the reality that surrounded them and sometimes exacerbated inequalities. Lastly, due to a highly economic view of development and the resulting methods of measuring the impact of HEIs, higher education was considered to have a "low rate of return" and funding and attention were allocated to primary and secondary education (Chapman 2002, 5). This low point in the focus on the role of higher education in development facilitated the degradation of HEIs in many parts of the developing world. It also led to a decrease in studies on the subject.

More recently, the social and economic role of HEIs in development has regained prominence in the development agenda. Additionally, the analysis of this connection has expanded to incorporate new elements. For instance, the UN views higher education as integral to all aspects of development such as environmental awareness and sustainability, post-conflict resolution, poverty alleviation, cultivating values such as human rights, health care issues, and cultural preservation or change. The UN sees that HEIs cultivate certain values and understanding of issues that facilitate both economic and social development. Furthermore, the scope of the effects of HEIs is being reconsidered. Society and HEIs are widely discussed as being mutually constitutive, that society and HEIs co-evolve (Zaglul and Juma 2006; Bok 1984). HEIs, but universities in particular, are considered to be the progenitors of social change through the generation and dissemination of knowledge and new ideas especially in the context of globalisation (Taylor 2008). This suggests a re-conceptualisation of the importance of HEIs in society, culture and development (McLaughlin, T. 2007). Thus a major theme throughout the contemporary literature is

the proactive role of the HEI in the development process. The HEI should be aware of its role and base its operations around developmental objectives (Bawden 2008). For instance, according to Obanya (2002), “development-oriented higher education” constitutes “the total commitment to sustainable human development for the survival of humanity as a core value of higher education.”

Concepts and Theoretical Perspectives: How Higher Education Facilitates Development

The following points represent the most basic and common ways in which HEIs are viewed to contribute to development.

1. Human Capital and Capacity Development

In the “standard” conceptualisation, higher education constitutes a form of specialised training. What used to be referred to as “man-power planning,” higher education provides the knowledge base, skills, and training to perform specific tasks and jobs (Sutton 1998). In economic terms, “human capital” adds higher levels of education and competency to the national capacity for economic growth. Capacity development is another similar term sometimes used to describe this utilitarian aspect of education.

2. Methodological or Liberal Learning

Liberal approaches to learning are directed at the self and individual growth. In contemporary “knowledge societies” and in a globalised world with constant rapid change, methodological learning (learning how to learn) and critical inquiry are important for people and communities to adapt to new situations and to consistently upgrade and renew knowledge and skills (Pyle and Farrant 2002). This also relates to maintaining academic values and standards. Liberal approaches to education also include innovative curricula and pedagogies as well as providing opportunities for lifelong learning and learning for life (Yeaxlee 1929).

3. Social values

Higher education is also seen as cultivating and inculcating social and moral values in students and surrounding communities. As such, the HEI plays an integral role in social and cultural transformation or preservation (Taylor and Fransman 2004, Zaglul 2006). Early articulations of this perspective come from Newman’s *Idea of a University*, and there now exists numerous conceptions (Sutton 1998). One example includes the ideas of social capital and civic community popularised by Robert Putnam whereby civil society engages with government and other structures in a constructive manner so as to facilitate their functioning. Another possibility is the role of higher education in cultivating democratic values (Task Force 2000; 44; Dewey 1916) or international or global citizenship (Delanty 2008). The common claim between these arguments is that higher education should create socially responsible

and aware graduates capable of leading a country or community towards prosperity and success (Thompson 1976; McMahon 1999; Task Force 2000; 87).

4. Transformative education and critical approaches

Person-centred approaches, including transformative education theory (Mezirow 2000; O’Sullivan 1999) and critical pedagogies (Friere 1972) borrow heavily from philosophy of education (Elias and Meriam 1980). While it is clear that personal transformations and perspective shifts create the potential for wider processes of social and human development, it is sometimes unclear how specific personal transformations or educational experiences can directly and systematically contribute to development (see Newman 1994 and Schugensky 2000, p. 63). How do the benefits of transformative education permeate society and impact larger social change? What aspects of transformative education enable individuals as agents of social change and how can this education best serve as a catalyst for development? O’Sullivan (1999) argues that education can be critical of, transcend, or improve discourses and concepts of progress and development through shifts of consciousness in transformative learning.

Faure’s (1972) concept of learning to be, learning to live together, learning to do and learning to know is an important theoretical foundation of much of UNESCO’s work in higher education and development. It seeks to incorporate how individuals understand themselves, how they can fulfil their personal potential, and how they might act as agents for change in larger structural contexts. Although this does not necessarily constitute a critical or transformative approach, it contains similar elements of the importance of individual internal reflection. However, the UN social development indicators such as the Human Development Index, while improving on purely economic models, represent development *for* humans, not development *as* humans, and are, in this sense, not focused on individual transformations (Sagar 1999). This is a criticism that one could extend to notions of ‘people-centred development’ (Korten 1991) or ‘Another Development’ put forward by the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation (O’Sullivan 1999). On the other hand, the Human Development Paradigm (HDP)¹ and “personal and social development” adopted by the Ayrton Senna Institute demonstrate the UN’s commitment to the empowerment and self realisation of individuals and their participatory role in development (UNESCO report 2005).

Mott (2005) elaborates on how university education, through numerous programmes, teaching, research and service can serve as a base for community change. Taylor and Fransman (2004) and Kolb (1984) argue that participatory educational approaches benefit development objectives. Taylor and Fransman (2004) write, “A critical, systemic discourse, achieved in part by establishing the bridge between theory and practice through a process of critical reflection and action, is a challenge for all HLIs. But by providing space and an enabling environment in which teaching and research

¹ “Human Development Paradigm (HDP) is based on the view that each human being is born with a potential and has the right to develop it. The HDP also proposes that the concept of development...should be analyzed as the process of broadening the scope of people’s freedom so they can develop their potentials and, thus, be able to make choices.” (UNESCO 2005)

become integral and valued through participatory processes, and perceiving participation itself as a desirable outcome in order to challenge established power relations, HLIs have the real potential to become key actors in promoting not only transformative learning at an individual level, but also wider social, institutional and discursive change.”

5. R&D and Academic Research.

The two are not exclusive but have been separated here to emphasise certain differences in the purpose of research, application, and its impact on different aspects of development. There are many different approaches to research, such as action research or community based research that have subtle differences of purpose, scope and impact.

a. Scientific R&D

Scientific innovation through research is an important component that drives economic growth and increases knowledge and understanding. Pyle and Forrant (2002) document how R&D at the Lowell Centre, and other universities, sustains development in the USA. Calestous Juma focuses on the innovation and use of biotechnologies in rural and peasant development and sustainable practices (Zaglul and Juma 2006). HEIs produce research and apply it in a top-down fashion as well as conducting community-based action research.

b. Social R&D

R&D also pertains to social research. While the generation of knowledge and theory is important and influential for development in multiple ways, it is understood in a limited sense in the context of R&D. It usually consists of the formulation of solutions to specific social, political or legal issues. R&D has a utilitarian perspective in this sense (Pring 1998). The general or broad social effects of research are not considered for development under the rubric of R&D to the extent that they are in academic research. In other words, research is marketed so that it can be used for developmental purposes (Obanya 2002, p.12).

c. Academic research or “pure” research

Research at HEIs plays an indispensable role in development, albeit a very complex and perhaps an indirect one (Vessuri 2008, p. 119). Not only does it create and increase knowledge and ways of understanding, but research also informs policy decisions. As such, research is important for the independent development of an institution itself, as well as for government policies. Whether conducted for specific purposes (action research) or as an academic pursuit by policy makers or academics, research has an impact on all areas, especially in the context of human and social development. Taylor (2008) writes, “Research is assumed to be a vital part of the role of HEIs. However, there is a growing need to question the paradigms of knowledge and innovation that inform the research carried out by HEIs and its application in wider society; and the way that society and human development needs shape the research agenda itself. There are great differences in the ability of HEIs

around the world to conduct research...What should be the nature of the policy framework for HEI research, if we are to attend to issues of interdisciplinary research, participatory research, action research, and collaborative research? How can we encourage the emergence of international research networks and local research services that are congruent with such policy?" (pp. xxvi)

d. Dissemination of knowledge and research.

The transfer or sharing of research, ideas, knowledge, etc. is fundamental. Harnessing local knowledge is important in prioritising the local community as the object of development (Teaslade 2000).

6. Third Mission: service to communities and community outreach.

With the increased recognition of the social role of higher education in development (Bok 1984), universities are called upon to conduct projects and programmes aimed at local communities (and the world) and provide services to local people. As part of a development-oriented mission, HEIs are in a strong position to conduct research and projects in partnership with numerous organisations for development purposes.

Challenges for HEIs in Development

1. Many HEIs in developing countries experience some of the following challenges that diminish their ability to teach, conduct research, and formulate and implement service projects.

- Under-resourced – Inadequate materials and facilities
- Overcrowded
- Under-funded - How to get adequate and *stable* funding is a major concern. Conditions imposed on some sources of funding can inhibit the HEI's freedom and ability to reform in significant respects (World Bank 2002).
- Have weak faculty – Useful lessons such as secondary sources of income, job security, and teacher training at (Chapman 2002; 187; Ayuba, 2000)
- Brain drain occurs (Danso 1995; Tapsoba et al. 2000)
- Low levels of teacher training and pay – Inexperienced teachers and low pay can harbour poor teaching habits. There are many possible solutions to both (Task Force 2000; 74; Chapman 2002; 17).
- Weak infrastructure and institutional management. Many universities lack the resources to maintain an efficient administrative body.
- Lack of flexibility – Some HEIs are elitist, Western, or based on out-dated methods of instruction.

2. An HEI may also have undesired or adverse affects which are not necessarily counterproductive in the processes of development, but nonetheless have consequences. Care must be taken to ensure that education and access to it cater to local communities and acknowledge internal and external realities if it is to have an influential role in societal change.

- HEIs can create or exacerbate disparities in wealth and opportunity between rural and urban areas, genders, ethnicities, social classes and generations. In many places, higher education is reserved for elite circles, perpetuating cycles of inequality between certain groups. There is a need to increase access to education to more people and marginalised groups (Zaglul 2006; Heward and Bunwaree 1999).
- “Diploma disease” – is a critique of the reliance on the selection process in formal educational institutions. Due to the belief that educational certificates are the key to obtaining the best-paid jobs, people may come to strive for constantly higher degrees in order to secure jobs. Education, in this way, becomes merely a ritualistic process of accumulating qualifications (Dore 1976).
- “Educated unemployment” – A term given to the rise in unemployment as a result of over supply of graduates with the same degrees and qualifications. For example, India experienced an unprecedented boom in doctors and health specialists which was unproductive in the long run for many who could not secure employment due fierce competition.
- Brain rain occurs and skilled graduates emigrate to escape unemployment, underemployment and low levels of pay.

3. To operate effectively an institution has to overcome certain possible constraints.

Internal Constraints

- Good organisation and governance are prerequisites for an efficiently functioning institution (Task Force 2000; 64). Teacher training, job security, democratic and visible management structures, and many other elements play a role in the stability of an institution and how it is managed.

External constraints: rapid changes perpetuated by globalisation.

- Another major theme in the development literature (Pyle and Farrant 2002; Task Force 2000; Kapur and Crowley 2008) concerns the forces of globalisation which have created knowledge-based economies and specialised work forces but have simultaneously brought about rapid and constant change in societies and economies. In response to this changing nature of the world, higher education is “being redefined as a lifelong process that needs to be not merely readjusted, but restructured and reformed according to new requirements” (UNESCO 1998).

Taylor and Framzman (2004) argue that while some HEIs “have a clear role in building the capacity of individuals and organisations to undertake key development initiatives and to practice participation, they are often restricted by internal and external constraints. Perceptions of HLIs [HEIs] as experiencing hierarchical power systems, structural rigidities, traditional elitism, and research which is disassociated from local realities imply that a paradigm shift in the learning and research approaches of HLIs is greatly needed” (p. 3).

Trends and Considerations in Higher Education

1. Content of education

The content of the education provided, in terms of what is taught and how is perhaps the most critical issue. According to Obanya (2002) and others, in the changing knowledge based economies there is a need to balance both tangible and intangible skills. Tangible skills consist of specific knowledge, trades, and intangible life-long learning skills are abilities such as creativity, critical inquiry, entrepreneurship, participation, and other relational and inter-personal values.

a. Tangible skills

- There are virtually unlimited possible skills universities, technical and vocational schools can teach their students, and it mainly depends on the context and the exigencies of the market as to which trades or skills are most in demand.
- Literacy – Oxenham (2002) provides evidence that there is a need, alongside vocational training, to improve literacy and provide training in performing essential tasks such as writing resumes.
- Training of teachers provides access to primary and secondary education to an increasing variety of people. Teacher training in higher education is crucial in expanding access to marginalized groups in rural areas (Heward 1999; Brown 1991).

b. Intangible skills

Creativity, critical enquiry and entrepreneurship (Zaglul 2006) are important aspects of education for which alternative and experiential learning should play a central role (Taylor and Fransman 2004). There is a very clear call for a more general education, to “learn how to learn” and use knowledge effectively in various situations.

- Methodological learning or “learning how to learn” is probably the most salient suggestion for improvement, as many HEIs in developing countries are criticised for rote learning.
- Interdisciplinary education –general higher education is often associated with the liberal educational tradition or creative arts (Fraser 1998; Pring 1998). This relates to the cultivation of certain values and ideals and maintaining academic standards.
- Educational approaches that foster the appropriate skills and values in students are needed so that graduates become productive and interactive members of society. For example, according to Taylor and Fransman (2004), participatory approaches can strengthen students’ capacity to act as agents of change. There are many educational or pedagogical approaches, each with specific goals in mind, such as teaching in a way that incorporates conflict resolution, changing societal power relations, amongst many other possibilities (Taylor 2008).

- Empowerment, transformation, and participation, where students gain the social resources and confidence to allow them to take control over their own situations represent other “intangible” skills. Furthermore, increasing student participation in their education, such as through student evaluations or student-university governmental bodies in order to guarantee minimum standards of provision, can help increase the quality of education and help establish more democratic governing systems (Harvey 1996).
- Teasdale (2000) emphasises the importance of local, indigenous knowledge and ways of knowing.
- Entrepreneurial training – Many authors emphasise the need to learn the skills, values and ethics of entrepreneurship (See for instance Leibenstein 1968). A university can also learn to be entrepreneurial (Burton 1998).
- International education is an important aspect in learning about the world and how to function in it, promoting global citizenship (Llanes-Ortiz 2007).

c. Local relevancy and long term strategic planning

Teaching, research and service should be made relevant to students and the surrounding communities with long-term strategic goals in mind (Altbach 1999; 195).

2. Diversification of higher education and the need to strengthen, create new, or reform existing institutions.

a. Differentiation: horizontal and vertical (Task Force 2000)

- Horizontal differentiation refers to the creation of new and specialised types of HEIs, such as vocational schools and institutions utilising alternative methods of teaching, including distance learning.
- Vertical differentiation refers to the increase in types of degrees offered at an HEI. This provides more flexibility in terms of length of study and at what time, night, and weekend and part-time, providing greater access.

b. Alternative education is important for exploring new forms of education, knowledge, and ways of thinking.

3. HEI interaction, partnerships and networking

The creation and maintenance of networks and communication between various organisations and institutions are seen as having two important related functions.

- a. The dissemination of information, research, knowledge and possible solutions to new issues.
- b. Collaboration between experts, organisations and local citizens on the national and international level on specific projects in education, research and development.

There are many existing bodies that facilitate interaction between various HEIs. Typically the HEI should be engaging with some of the following organisations:

- a. Other HEIs – Primarily to share knowledge and research, but also for strategic organisation, feedback, staff or student exchanges, amongst other possibilities.
- b. Government – The government establishes infrastructure and the legal and political contexts in which HEIs operate, including the provision of funding and the establishment of national curriculum and other requirements. Government policy will also impact the feasibility of some development projects, especially in the rural sector through tariffs or subsidies or land granting for research. HEIs also have political power, and can lobby governments for desired political and legal changes, they are important political actors.
- c. Direct engagement with community – An HEI should not be isolated from the community in which it is located, it should have some resources open to the public (library or perhaps night classes, etc), which can also serve as another source of funding.
- d. NGOs – Cooperation with local NGOs on research and in various initiatives can increase an HEIs presence in local communities.
- e. Businesses – HEIs can set up their own business ventures, collaborate with local or international businesses, perform R&D, and provide internships to students or graduates.

4. Quality of education

Quality and purpose in education are necessarily linked issues, and both are multi-dimensional concepts. There are many methods to measure quality, and different objectives behind these methods. If not only for purposes of clarity, accountability, and quality assurance, it may be necessary for all institutions to provide succinct and clear visions for the future, including core values, scope, and a mission statement (Task Force 2002; 90). Altbach (1999) and Pyle and Forrant (2002) focus on the trade-off between public and private universities. While private universities typically have more freedom to explore options in teaching, research and service, public universities are part of a larger developmental scheme. Although that does not necessarily mean that public universities are any more successful in promoting development, but rather that private universities can seem disconnected from one another if communication between them does not exist within a given context (Banya 2001). Quality also refers to an institution's social responsibilities.

- a. Quality as exceptional - Traditional notion of quality referring to exceedingly good standards and results. This is notion of quality is often based on reputation.
- b. Quality as perfection or consistency – Refers to few defects according to a certain standard. It also measures output indicators such as student performance in school through graduation rates, acquisition of jobs after graduation, among others.

- c. Quality as fitness for purpose – This can mean, first, meeting customer (ie student) requirements or expectations or secondly, fulfilling or satisfying institutional objectives or missions.
- d. Quality as value for money – Refers to cost effective and efficient operations. This is often a criteria used by UN and World Bank to ascertain rates of return as well as measure quality of education.
- e. Quality as transformation – This last conception of quality refers to the empowerment and enhancement of the student, an added value – qualitative changes in the student (Harvey 1996).

Harvey's (1996) argument may be a useful one to consider. He suggests that there is often a tension between quality as accountability and quality as transformation that often impedes on the willingness of institutions to explore alternative educational goals and methods. This is usually a result of a bias in education policy or philosophy towards the idea of accountability in terms of output indicators (including how many students have which jobs, etc) rather than a focus on the qualitative transformation of the individual student. This results in a major impediment to investment in alternative and experimental forms of higher education.

The overwhelming consensus in the majority of the most recent development literature on higher education seems to be that the role of higher education in the age of globalisation has an increasing number of complex forces and issues to consider. Economies and societies are characterised as knowledge-based but also as experiencing constant change. Yet this does not hint at a state of crisis for HEIs, despite the fact that some higher educational systems in many countries may be in a perilous state. Instead, the literature has a positive tone reflecting a critical juncture in the role of HEIs in development. Despite extensive work in various directions, however, there is a lot of work to be done, especially in the field of person-centred education and how it relates to specific processes of development in different contexts. However, it is clear that higher education should play a role in lifelong learning, learning for life, and development in a way that focuses more on the qualitative changes in the individual. There is a strong sense, and perhaps a greater general recognition, that lifelong learning is the key to capacity building and endogenous development.

In this sense, the one-size-fits-all approach to higher education is not effective. HEIs need to be more adaptive and responsive to their local communities and students, and provide practical educational programmes aimed at human, social and economic development. According to Zaglul, Sherrard and Juma (2006 and 2007) of the EARTH University, HEI success in its development objectives depends mostly on institutional design, management and curriculum reform. As such, higher or tertiary education for development needs to be open and transparent as to what it teaches and how, it should be shaped by local requirements or desires and malleable to surrounding pressures, and should be a transformative service to the people it teaches and represents. The HEI, in other words, should be a proactive organisation in the development of individual capacities as well as a locus for regional or national human, social and economic development.

3. Higher Education in China and India

This section attempts to identify some important trends in higher education in China and India. First, however, it is important to mention that the governments of India and China recognise higher or tertiary education as indispensable to economic growth and for their country's integration into the global economy, both through training of a highly qualified workforce and through innovative research (Carnoy 2006). Largely as a result of this, the majority of the development literature concerned with higher education in these countries consists of descriptions of external conditions and the trends that affect the provision of higher education and research at a national level. Studies on higher education and development in China and India tend to highlight the importance of a number of relationships in the improvement of educational infrastructure for national economic development, whilst human and social development seem to be secondary concerns.² This economic perspective emphasises how the larger structures in which an institution operates have a strong influence on the ability of an institution to perform its primary tasks (teaching, research, and service), especially given the rapidly changing environments that so many developing countries are subject to. More specifically, an analysis of higher education in China and India highlights the “enabling framework and appropriate incentives” that can help improve higher education in relation to national economies, societies, local regions and individuals (World Bank 2002 “Constructing Knowledge Societies”). Ultimately, this raises important questions regarding the proper role of government policy in higher education, and how external pressures and educational discourses influence the provision of education. The contexts in which HEIs exist also include social, political, and cultural realities, which help define what is considered possible and desirable in higher education in the first place.

Higher Education for Development in Poorer Areas and for Vocational Training

This focus on the national level of analysis and on economic growth can detract from qualitative studies on individual institutions and how they might best serve as agents for local and individual livelihood development. Studies on institutions in poorer areas would complement the understanding of adult education and livelihoods.³ There are some particularly interesting projects directed at poverty

² See for example Heap, P. “Scientific Research and Social Change” in Bridges et al. (eds.) *Higher Education and National Development* London: Routledge, 2007 and McLaughlin, T. “Universities and Societies” in Bridges et al. (eds.) *Higher Education and National Development* London: Routledge, 2007. These studies concern the role of universities in societal transitions, such as in the Eastern European bloc and China. However, Research into how higher education plays into social and cultural dynamics are often not expressed as part of national development strategy. China only has one large major social science institution – China Academy of Social Science – and most of the others are more oriented towards scientific and technological research, which the Chinese government hopes to build into internationally competitive research universities. India also invests more in its IITs and IIMs than any of their central universities, as both countries see these institutions and type of research as indispensable for economic growth.

³ See Singh, Madhu and Mussot, Luz. (eds.) (2007) *Literacy, Knowledge and Development: South-South Policy Dialogue on Quality Education for Adults and Young People* UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

alleviation in both India and China. We will detract here for a moment to consider some of these institutions.

The *Jan Shikshan Santham* (JSS) is like a community knowledge centre similar to the *Ganokendra* in Bangladesh (UNESCO Handbook 2001). The Indian National Literacy Mission (in collaboration with PRIA) writes, “The scheme of Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS) is a unique scheme crafted by the Government of India. JSSs are institutes of People’s Education focusing on the poor, the illiterates, the neo-literates, the under-privileged and the un-reached. The Jan Shikshan Sansthans are unique in that they do not provide just skill development, but link literacy with vocational skills and provide large doses of Life Enrichment Education (LEE) to the people. They do not work in isolation but aim for convergence with other stakeholders in society. It is their endeavour to shape their beneficiaries into self reliant and self-assured employees and entrepreneurs.” (<http://www.nlm.nic.in/jss.htm>) (Also see Loomba 2007). These Life Enrichment Educational programmes offer training courses in a variety of skills ranging from plumbing, health care, or even sewing machine repair along with intangible skills such as improved literary capabilities, knowledge of legal and political rights, and others. The JSSs, with government support, are designed to be as flexible as possible to cater to individual educational desires and requirements whilst utilising minimal resources. Thus, they try to be effective in the sense of having people learn what they need or want, as identified by them rather than an external agent, in order for them to fulfil their own potential and to improve their capacity to contribute to society.

Barefoot Colleges is a national, non-governmental grassroots scheme based on the idea that local solutions come from within the community itself. There are a few of these colleges dotted all over India. No degrees or titles are provided as the colleges are dedicated to learning, skills training, and research as solutions to the immediate problems of the poorer communities in which these colleges are based. There is also a distinct reciprocal teacher-student relationship where both teach and learn from each other. As such, it operates as a community-based knowledge centre, and incorporates alternative approaches that make very useful and pertinent contributions to community development. An increase in access to education of this kind allows people to be more involved in their own education.

The vocational and technical sector in India is vast, but generally fragmented as there are no adequate central policies that address the quality, accreditation and educational content of many of these institutions (Agarwal 2006). However, India has more grassroots development-oriented HEIs that address issues of poverty and development directly than China does. These institutions vary, like Indian universities, in style, education, quality and impact on local regions, making it difficult to draw general conclusions. Little information is available on vocational and technical colleges beyond national statistics (Mishra 1993; World Bank - Human Development Unit 2002). Individual institutions, however, can be studied in the context of national environment. The New Era Development Institute, with affiliation to the Bahai movement is just one example of institutions focused on human development and individual transformations. Other examples might include Gandhigram Rural University, which served as a model for India’s agricultural reforms and research initiatives. University of Human Unity is an example of alternative, spiritual education for local and foreign people near the (in)famous foreign town of Aeroville. Another HEI might include Shreemati Nathibai Thackersey Women’s University. These are just a few examples that attempt to question conventional educational approaches and objectives, and promote alternative

discourses as to the function, purpose and impact of higher education. It seems that the Indian higher educational system is open to experimental educational projects in addressing the problems of poverty. This may have to do with a lack of or weak central regulations over the private sector and the role of private initiatives to fill in the gaps (Kanpur and Mehta 2004)

It seems that China does not have similar alternative or grassroots adult or continuing educational projects like that of the JSS, or Barefoot Colleges. This assessment may be incorrect, however, as information may not be available online in English. However, this absence of alternative HEIs may be because in a more centrally controlled higher education system, development and other social initiatives usually come from top-down rather than through grassroots movements. For example, one of the only mentions of livelihood-centred education in the government's own Development-Oriented Poverty Reduction Program for Rural China includes the following statement: "The Chinese Government encourages institutions of higher learning and scientific research institutes to promote advanced practical agrotechniques in poor areas, and has organized scientific and technological personnel and research institutions to teach in poor areas or promote agrotechniques in poor townships or villages."⁴ While this does not mean that institutions that teach in poorer areas with developmental objectives in mind do not exist, it does suggest that where they do exist, they are likely to be instituted or regulated by the central government.

China does have many successful and innovative educational schemes to alleviate poverty directed at the rural poor. Tertiary colleges or HEIs dedicated to poverty alleviation are run through larger universities, such as the School of Continuing Education in Tsinghua University. There are also multiple state schemes that focus on improving literacy and functional educative goals. Pilot projects for "rural community learning centres in education," are praised as innovative and community based projects, but what the characteristics of such centres are vague (Min 2004). Xinlong Technical Training Centre is just one example of these community-based learning centres that attempt to improve literacy and traditional skills as a form of income generation (UNESCO Handbook 2001). Finally, distance education is one of the major ways in which China has dramatically increased the provision of continuing or higher education and training courses. Distance learning courses impart and disseminate knowledge, skills and general education through radio, television, and more recently the internet (UN Innovative Approaches, World Bank 2007). Most universities operate distance learning schemes. The China Central Radio and TV University (CCRTVU) is an open and distance education institution with a wide variety of subjects and training courses, offering degrees and training courses through various means. It has been reported to have reached over 35 million people.

China has also set about reforming its vocational sector in similar ways as it has its university system such as expansion and merging of institutions, privatisation, more institutional autonomy, and diversified financing. Like it did for its universities, the Chinese Ministry of Education set about identifying the aspects of educational systems around the world that it believed could be beneficial in the Chinese context. For example, the Chinese Ministry of Education writes that "the "dual-track system" of Germany, the educational and training pattern based on the ability in Australia and Canada, the Employment Education Structure (MES) advocated by the World Labour

⁴ Development-oriented Poverty Reduction Program for Rural China
http://english.gov.cn/official/2005-07/27/content_17712.htm

Organization, the "Skill Courses for Starting Small Enterprises" initiated by the UNESCO and the "Business and Trade Simulated Company" springing up widely all over the world, all became the models for the reform of Chinese vocational education in China" (Chinese Ministry of Education website). China also has what it terms the vocational university (VU), which is a relatively new type of institution in China that resembles the American community college, providing sub-baccalaureate degree programs (Anning 2003).

External Trends and Higher Education in the National Context

The Indian and Chinese governments and HEIs have some considerable differences in the way in which they have handled external pressures and institutional weaknesses. The following trends identified by Johnstone (1998) have been dealt with in a different ways.

1. The expansion and diversification of enrolments, participation rates, and number and types of institutions. To cope with pressures from increasing demand both India and China have sought to increase enrolment rates and access by building more and diversifying their higher educational sectors. Technological solutions at IGNOU and China TV University, for example, have increased access to education primarily to marginalised groups and those who could not attend an institution on a regular basis. In India, there has been a huge increase in privately run institutions over the last 20 years, but many of these private schools are specialised institutions which vary in size, scope, and quality, making accreditation, and national reform and management more difficult (Agarwal 2006, 83). In contrast, China has sought a policy of merging universities to around a size of 8000-10,000 students for effective management of research, general administration, and for purposes of regulation. This size was also designed to provide a "comprehensive education" and to create sites for interdisciplinary and trans-disciplinary research which can compete on an international level, as part of China's mission to build world class universities. The model resembles research universities in the USA. China also created central state mechanisms through which to regulate higher education, and installed policies that favour public or state universities. Both the public and private sector in India, on the other hand, face external constraints as the legal or regulatory infrastructure sometimes prevent HEIs from performing certain tasks such as foreign exchanges of students and academics, or alternative sources of funding (Agarwal 2006).
2. Fiscal pressure as measured in low and declining per-student expenditures and as seen in overcrowding, low-paid (or unpaid) faculty, lack of academic equipment or libraries, and dilapidated physical plants (Johnstone 1998). Financing and funding is a central issue for most HEIs in developing countries. There are innovative ways of financing, such as entrepreneurial ventures, patents or publications, or other business projects (Burton 1998). Indian IITs and IIMs, as well as many Chinese research universities are actively engaged in industry and entrepreneurial activity. In China, this usually extends to factories, farms and many other business ventures (Johnstone 1998, 19; Yibing 2008). These HEI-business partnerships can benefit the provision of education. However, research often remains separate from teaching practices in China.

On another note, China has not only done more to attract investment from foreign sources than India, it has also invited foreign universities to establish branch campuses. Finally, Indian institutions, like Chinese HEIs, usually charge fees, but unlike China, there is no standard fee, and scholarships and loans are not available for all private and public institutions. Access to higher education is also proportionally lower in India as its primary and secondary schooling systems are weaker than China's, with children leaving school at younger ages.

3. Orientation to markets, the increase of market solutions, and the search for non-governmental revenue, often results in marketisation of research (determined by funding and output) and education. Marketisation of education tends to emphasise the utilitarian aspects of education to the detriment of a sense of value of education in and of itself (Altbach 2007, 8). It also influences entrance practices. In this respect, Chinese policy makers have been criticised as having a utilitarian or economic view of education, designing policies to be reactive to market incentives and capabilities (Qiping 1994). In addition, many institutions in both countries have been criticised for rote learning and for gearing education towards the acquisition of a degree for employment purposes.
4. The demand for greater accountability on the part of institutions and faculty, and on behalf of students, employers, and those who pay. This also links to demand for quality. Clear and effective mission statements and new ways of measuring success are vital for both. This may also signal new roles for universities and other HEIs as more proactive, rather than reactive, in their missions as they are increasingly being held accountable for their social role in development (Gibbons 1998, 115). However, as mentioned earlier, accountability may also hinder exploring alternative educational approaches (Harvey 1996).
5. The demand for greater quality and efficiency in terms of more rigor, relevance of education, research and service, and more learning has also affected HEIs in China and India (Johnstone 1998, 2). The World Bank's "Lessons of Experience" (Berk 2002) identifies many problems that result from overcrowding and lack of adequate funding. Both India and China have emphasised the role of universities and other HEIs in training teachers and professors in all levels of education as well as training managers and consultants to improve the entire educational system. Both countries, however, have serious problems with attracting and keeping quality teaching staff, as pay and other conditions are poor compared to other countries. This has been met with other ways to encourage teachers to stay and to maximise their potential as educators and researchers. Useful strategies such as secondary sources of income in night classes, providing tenure, or other forms of job security and teacher training schemes can be found at (Task Force 2000, 74; Chapman 2002, 17 and 187; Ayuba 2000).
6. Internationalisation of higher education is perceived as an inevitable consequence of open policies. In both China and India, as in other parts of the world, the Western model of university is standard. India has preserved some "traditional" elements, but they are usually in the minority. English is also the popular language of instruction, which has its pros and cons (Altbach and Teferra 2004, 30). Many smaller private universities in both China and India adopt the US liberal arts model, such as St. Stephens in India. There is also an internationalisation of

student and faculty exchanges, integration into international knowledge systems, and internationalisation of curriculum (Carnoy 2006, p. 19; Gibbons 1998; Altbach 1998).

7. Carnoy (2006) argues that economic growth depends on the “higher-end” of higher education to generate the necessary human capital and research for sustainable national economic growth. One example is how agricultural technologies were applied in India to great effect. The Green Revolution was not possible without local research, teaching or training, and knowledge application (Kanpur and Mehta 2004). Research into science and technology, as well as higher education itself, has become an instrument of international rivalry for both China and India. Science and technology, management and health care receive large investments and represent the primary national development objectives of both countries.
8. One of the most important aspects of tertiary education in the context of national development is HEI’s relationships to each other (both within national boundaries and internationally), with governments, and with businesses and NGOs. There is a diversification of research or “socially distributed knowledge production systems” (Gibbons 1998) whereby research is conducted by different types of organisations other than HEIs. In this way, networking in research projects between other universities, NGOs, government, and industry has been central for research development and its application. Many Chinese universities establish strong university-industry links for research (Altbach 2007, p. 7) as well as government-university partnerships. However, competitive policies for funding in China often ends up separating teaching, research and service (Carnoy 2006, p. 20).
9. There is a continuous debate regarding the effects of increased institutional autonomy and privatisation of higher education (Altbach 2005). There are concerns for the demand for greater accountability among more autonomous institutions and the national mechanisms and regulations to ensure quality. China’s reforms are characterised by merging larger institutions so as to consolidate institutional management. In contrast, the disparities in quality in India and the number of deemed “fake universities” have been attributed to inadequate central regulation and policies concerning the accreditation and support to private institutes. Additionally, there is the need for professional management bodies and appropriate structures within institutions to recognise and reconcile internal and external factors for more effective and efficient forms of organisation (UNESCO 21st Century). For example, Scott (1998) believes that “universities have to be managed in a new kind of way,” whereby “The University must now be regarded, and purposefully managed, as a large complex organisation rather than being regarded as a loose-knit aggregation of incommensurable special interests and cliques of experts” (p. 115). The failure of institutional management and an increased reliance on central authorities in the face of entrenched decentralisation has been cited as a reason for the decline in higher education in Africa (OECD – IMHE 2006).

Many countries and private organisations have invested heavily in higher education. Yet, improvement is often hampered or directed by forces originating from national

policy conditions, international pressures and internal institutional strengths or weaknesses. Thus it is important for an institution to account for, or at least consider, external constraints while formulating objectives and ways to achieve them. China has sought to create more autonomous comprehensive universities by merging institutions for management purposes and for the provision of a “comprehensive” education. Some central regulations, however, and a market-oriented bias in the provision of education and research funding have sometimes had adverse influences on academic standards and the potential for alternative forms of education. The conventional wisdom/discourse also favours state public universities, and independent or alternative schooling are less popular or common than in India. In India, where central regulations are not as strong, there are more grassroots and community based projects with alternative pedagogies, curricula and educational approaches, but accreditation is an issue where central organisations have limited the amount of “deemed universities” and other HEI capabilities. International or macro structures and discourses, as enabling environments, influence institutional missions, and there is often little room to challenge underlying assumptions, values and world views behind knowledge, learning and research.

In both countries, the emphasis on technology and science and management research paints an incomplete picture for higher education and its role in development. In addition, the specialisation of many institutions limits what they teach and research. Top-level research institutes may be important for national and international markets as well as for local social development. They can provide technologies and ideas that are of use to people in poorer areas, such as the Green Revolution technologies. As such, although such institutions may not have immediate and direct benefits for poorer people who do not have access to such education, they disseminate useful ideas and technologies that can improve people’s living standards, as a top-down approach to the relationship between higher education and development. On the other hand, there are many grassroots community-oriented HEIs in India dedicated to social change and community improvement through the teaching individuals certain values and lifelong skills, as well as programmes aimed at student participation and reflection. Many programmes focus on improving literacy levels, India having one of the highest illiteracy rates in the world, but also include teaching legal rights and other useful information so as to enable or empower people to improve their own conditions.

Furthermore, the elite research institutions geared towards national economic development depend on previous educational experiences and exclude more student-centred programmes for the improvement of the individual. This is often also the case for training or vocational institutes which teach tangible skills for the job market. The issue seems to be how to seek a balance between education for employment/market purposes and education in its own right, to instil educative values and as an empowering experience. The curriculum and educational content are of central concern and this relates to teaching, research and service, but it is clear that in order to address these concerns, certain external and internal influences or enabling factors may also need to be acknowledged.

4. Universities and Programmes for Development

This section covers some of the institutional characteristics that may best serve development objectives. This includes examples of institutions, programmes and approaches to teaching that have been successful in fulfilling commitments to teaching, research and service in pursuit of human and social development. This section identifies some of the most important elements of the following HEIs, but these conclusions are not necessarily based entirely on these institutions alone:

BRAC University
University for Development Studies (Ghana)
Gandhigram Rural Institute
Jawaharlal University
EARTH University
Makerere University
The Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS)
Barefoot Colleges

There many types of institutions and many different ways in which an HEI can play a role in development. While some conduct important research at an international level in technology and sciences, such as at Jawaharlal, which can have beneficial impacts for the poor and for national economic growth, others operate at a more community level focused directly on learning and participation for sustainable livelihoods and poverty alleviation through continued education and training, such as the JSS in India. Some of these may be training or vocational institutes while others can be universities that specialise in specific areas of research and instruction. As such, before proceeding it is important to reiterate four points:

1. There are many possible forms or areas of development to consider.

Levels – National, local or individual

Types – Economic, social, political, environmental, agricultural or rural, sustainable, human, or individual development amongst other possibilities.

HEIs as well as higher educational systems can aim at promoting development on different levels as well as different types of development, providing a number of ways in which we can conceptualise their relationship. None of these levels or types of development are exclusive, and they can affect one another to varying degrees. This list is meant as an example only and is not exhaustive; there are many other possibilities.

2. External circumstances or the context in which an HEI operates influences how it teaches, conducts research, and engages communities.

Each institution operates in specific contexts and towards different goals within those contexts. Conditions such as the quality and availability of primary and secondary education and the economic, social and political realities that countries and people face are directly related to how an institution and its graduates may serve as agents for

development. There are also multiple priorities within any given context. For example, not only are there different forms of development, as above, but there are different levels of poverty that have to be addressed in different ways given local conditions. There are no universal approaches, and people have different expectations of what higher education can do for them. Cultural differences are another factor to consider. A key question may be what traits or aspects of an institution can be universally beneficial to all levels and types of development?

3. It is important to consider individual institutions versus higher educational systems and integrating forms of development.

One of the main lessons from the earlier analysis of tertiary or higher education in India and China is that the focus on higher educational *systems* highlights collective educational initiatives and achievements and how they may influence individual institutions. No single institution is able to fulfil all the roles demanded of higher education, and in that respect it may be useful to analyse the current state of a given higher educational system, what is available and to whom. Development literature and policy makers assume that institutions fulfil specific roles within a national system, thereby leading to specialisation within single institutions.

4. Types of institutions

These previous three points lend themselves to the diversification and specialisation of HEIs. This study has attempted to examine different types of institutions such as research universities, small private universities, development-oriented rural institutions, amongst others. However, partly due to lack of available information, this study has a university bias. The Jan Shikshan Sansthan in India were some of the only interesting vocational training centres that I found. They were some of the only vocational institutions that attempted to incorporate intangible skills and values (Life Enrichment Education) in its mission to train people in specific skills. In other words, there seems to be the assumption within many vocational institutions that its sole purpose is training in skills necessary for specific jobs. When other academic or social elements are incorporated, the institution is termed a “university” anyway, such as is the case in China’s vocational universities. Furthermore, there are many methods of teaching between universities such as distance learning and so and so forth.

Educational Programmes for Participatory Development

One common element between the above mentioned HEIs is that they have adapted innovative programmes designed specifically to promote or encourage individual transformations, increase participation in processes of development and social change, to create economic growth, and to improve livelihoods. They aim to empower the student whilst simultaneously impacting local communities through implementation of service, action and community-based research and involvement in development projects. These programmes link these universities to communities and provide participatory methods of learning that not only represent effective ways of learning

(Taylor and Fransman 2004), but also help direct research, and implement university service projects.

1. Developmental objectives or active role in development

The identification of the role that an institution has in development is crucial in enhancing its performance as an agent for development, and one that many HEIs are curiously reluctant to promote (Bawden 2008, 65). Development-oriented institutions and programmes intentionally play a *proactive* role. Not only do they acknowledge the academic and social dedication to the intellectual growth and capacity development of their students, but also link this to local and national development goals through its mission, educational content, research and service. This may seem self-evident, but many universities and vocational institutes alike are not driven by such objectives. This recognition of a HEI's proactive role in development remains a relatively recent innovation and signals new potentials and avenues in the provision of continuing or adult education (Brennan and Lebeau 2002, p. 2). Previous articulations of this role were often centred on national development discourses. Furthermore, recent studies attempt to understand how theories of individual transformations, such as Mezirow (1990) and critical pedagogies such as that of Friere (1972) and Giroux (1993) can be translated or harnessed to affect larger social change and development. In this way, the institutions in this section can be viewed as an example of attempts to bridge theory and practice and as examples of good practice in different contexts. EARTH University and University of Development Studies in particular, are noted for their commitment to development as well as teaching and research. Oxford University has also done workshops and research on educational approaches to poverty alleviation and human development (OPHI 2008), and Taylor and Fransman (2004) at the IDS have researched how pedagogies and educational approaches directly contribute to social change.

2. Comprehensive educational approach

The majority of these universities have a “comprehensive” or “holistic” educational approach. This entails a dedication to a number of aspects of the development of each individual student. For example, the “complete learning” approach at Gandhigram Rural Institute stresses critical academic abilities as well as life skills and social entrepreneurship. There is a mission to teach not only how to learn and critical academic skills, but also a commitment to cultivate the social values, resources and capabilities (social entrepreneurship) to put ideas into practice, and for each graduate to act as an agent for social change. In this case, each student is expected to create or invent a potentially useful technology or idea for the benefit of a local community in which they are stationed for a period of hands on experience. Additionally, Learning via Entrepreneurially Associated Practice Schools (LEAPS) programme of instruction sees that complete learning has to come not only through the head, but also through the heart and hand. In this respect it attempts to address other aspects of human interaction, such as compassion and service to others on top of teaching course material. BRAC University is based on the US liberal arts tradition, with the aim of fostering independent thinking habits. Students learn a variety of subjects and are able to learn through participation and experiential learning due to a hands-on

approach to teaching and research. BRAC operates primarily as an NGO with numerous programmes directed at poverty alleviation. These educational approaches are designed to empower the student, to give a chance for them help themselves and others (Azim 2008). They often constitute a form of critically-inspired pedagogy as students and teachers learn from one another in developing new ideas and practices for development objectives. The JSS for example, is very keen on giving voice to each student and cultivating the life skills that they feel are necessary to improve their lives, it involves introspection and understanding what qualities, aspects, and skills may be most relevant and effective for them to learn. The JSS, in turn, will attempt to accommodate that and remains open to what it teaches. The four key pillars of the foundation of EARTH's curriculum are entrepreneurship, environmental and social consciousness, ethical values, and scientific and technical knowledge. EARTH University's "holistic" approach to education develops agricultural professionals capable of building consensus and finding innovative solutions to poverty and land use issues. This is done by incorporating teaching, research and service in its educational approach.

3. Combining research, teaching, and service for their mutual support and participatory education

One of the most innovative and effective ways to encourage the growth of the student academically and as an individual, maintain or improve academic values, create new knowledge and ideas and to apply them in a locally relevant way are programmes that combine the university's three core responsibilities; research, teaching and service for a more participatory approach to learning. For example, the University for Development's (Ghana) Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP) places students in communities where they are expected to come up with solutions, in collaboration with members of that community, to some of their pressing social or economic problems. Every student at UDS devotes one trimester (8 weeks) every year exclusively to field work; this adds up to nearly a year of practice sandwiched into a 3-year degree programme. The UDS programme is structured in such a way that the same group of students work in the same district and where possible in the same community for all 3 of their third trimesters. EARTH has developed an innovative, learner-centred and highly participatory academic programme. Students are involved in the research on and maintenance of campus farms and plantations. Many of the techniques and products created as well as the land itself, is passed on to members of the surrounding communities through different projects and services. Moreover, research implemented at EARTH University's plantations is used for business purposes. Gandhigram Rural Institute has a similar programme, (LEAPS), which is geared towards the growth of the student as a whole and providing the mechanisms for students to learn how to learn and to become socially entrepreneurial. The synergistic combination of research, teaching and service, where students learn through applying their own research, provides a distinct participatory element that emphasises learning how to learn while at the same time cultivates values of community service and helping other people. These approaches may be considered as examples of efforts to implement participatory learning (Taylor and Fransman 2003) (Kolb 1984).

4. Research and academic values

These institutions also have many strategies to preserve academic values and integrity as well as to promote and sustain research. Most have their own journals in which academics and students can publish their work. EARTH University has *Tierra Tropical: Sostenibilidad, Ambiente y Sociedad* in which it publishes findings from research conducted on its own plantations and eco systems. BRAC University Journal, like other institution's own publications, is dedicated primarily to action research applicable to surrounding local communities. EARTH University also puts its own research into practice by selling its agricultural produce. Not only does this offer another source of income revenue from which all profits are directed to further research, but the results of this research are put to use and passed on to local communities and farmers. Research is a key and primary function of all these institutions, and its utility for and application in local settings is a distinct characteristic that helps qualify each institution as an agent for development. However, and unfortunately, this commitment to research and academic values may be only available to universities with certain dispositions. The teaching mission of some vocational schools that focus on improving literary skills for better livelihoods, for example, may emphasise these academic aspects less than others (Oxenham et al 2002).

5. Collaboration and networking with other entities

A basic but important method in maintaining and strengthening research projects, knowledge dissemination, and its application is through building and fortifying research networks and collaboration schemes with various organisations. CAPTURED, for example, is an acronym for Capacity and Theory Building for Universities and Research Centres in Endogenous Development, and is a South-South initiative to improve HEIs role as an agent for human, social and economic development. In addition, UDS and BRAC universities collaborate with NGOs on development projects and take these opportunities as a way to test or apply their research. Regarding business aspects, many of these universities operate as entrepreneurial institutions. EARTH University, for example, has a number of projects which they use as a source of income to help finance further research and to sustain the functioning of the university. More importantly, perhaps, is that students participate in the management and operation of these campus businesses to get first hand experience in such environments. International exchanges of teachers and students and other forms of university collaborations and networks such as acquisition of used teaching materials like textbooks are also popular connections.

6. Service

This increase in service-oriented projects by the university has been accompanied by the increasing recognition of the relevant social role that universities play (Escrigas xxviii). HEIs have been described as the locus for bridging international trends and local developments (Taylor and Fransman 2004). BRAC and EARTH University also provide intensive short courses and night classes, for students and for members of the local community. There are mechanisms to also include local people in decision

making and make university services open for public use. As above, service in the form of creating volunteer programmes and work with NGOs offers a chance to teach, conduct and apply research, at the same time as providing certain services to local communities. HEIs, in other words, are in a position to help solve or abate some of the most pressing issues as they arise.

7. Internal management

All of these institutions are very well managed and some of them very well funded. The OECD – IMHE (2006) has compiled a list of core responsibilities for governing bodies that have been effective in the past for efficient decision making. The case of Makerere University demonstrates the importance of internal management and supportive external structures and how they interact together. The reforms undergone at Makerere have been applauded as a model for other universities in the South. The improvement of employment conditions, salaries, the standard of living, and fringe benefits to the academic staff, Nakanyike Musisi (2003) says, have combined to halt the exodus and brain drain from Uganda. More directly, “Restructuring at Makerere has had three central and interrelated elements: implementing alternative financing strategies, installing new management structures, and introducing demand-driven courses.” Such alternative strategies include, partnered research projects, R&D in science and technology, locating sources of funding in conjunction with the government, more business enterprises on campus (such as book shops and cafeterias), offering night classes which increase access and supplement academic staff income.

One aspect of management is size, as there is a global increase in demand for higher education. Smaller private universities such as BRAC and EARTH are somewhat limited in scope in what they can teach due to small sizes, and access to these universities often implies fierce competition. Student size also often matters in educational quality as some larger universities are criticised as degree mills at the expense of more person-centred approaches. EARTH, BRAC and UDS, some of the more successful and popular universities in this study emphasise a human scale to teaching and a direct relationship between student and teacher.

These HEIs demonstrate that the internal and external missions of an institution are not exclusive. Internal missions are those dedicated to teaching and improving the functioning of the university, including commitments to research and upholding academic standards. With the increasing recognition of the importance of the role that an HEI might play in social change and development, its external missions are also of importance. Services in the form of action research and its application, participation in service and development projects constitute some of the basic ways in which an institution can help affect students, local communities and larger social change. They also help challenge conventional wisdom and discourses on the proper educational approaches and forms of knowledge.

Other universities or HEIs that may be of possible interest include:

Transkei University

Manipal
Universidad del Desarrollo
Macquarie University
The New Era Development Institute (Bahai vocational university)
Universidad del Bio-Bio
Makelle University
IGNOU
China TV University
African Virtual University (launched by the World Bank)
Nakawa Vocational Training Institute
Centre for Alternative Development (Sierra Leone)

For more universities and specific programmes please refer to the list compiled by Felix Bivens (PhD candidate at IDS) provided on the accompanying disc for GHFP board members.

Kathryn Gow (1999) has developed a model for a “Third World University” based on the structure of the Grameen bank micro credit scheme. She argues that there are certain ways of disseminating knowledge based on a credit system like the Grameen Bank. However, there is little exploration into the style of education and what is to be taught for what ends and means. It basically represents a possible effective way to pass on information.

5. Conclusions

Higher education is increasingly recognised as playing a central role in human, social and economic development. Moreover, in contemporary “knowledge societies” and in the face of pressures and changes from globalisation, this role is increasingly important, yet ever more complex. HEIs serve as agents in development in multiple ways depending on their capabilities, objectives and the contexts in which they operate. Many HEIs, such as those studied in this report, have an institutional commitment to development in one way or another as part of its missions in teaching, research and service. In turn, the educational programmes and curricula, action research and university outreach projects reflect this commitment and incorporate methods designed to improve the impact of the institution and its graduates on larger processes of development and social change.

There are a number of qualities or issues in the provision of education or teaching, research and its application, and engagement in civil society that should be considered when examining the role that a HEI and its graduates can have in development. HEIs have a number of roles to fulfil and finding the right balance between the following qualities is a challenge for all HEIs.

- Maintaining **academic values** (the respect and quest for truth)
- Incorporating indigenous and **alternative knowledge** and ways of being. Such as the concept of the “Multiversity” (Tandon 2008, 147).
- **Getting the right people the right education**, to help fulfil individual potentials.
- **Relevance of education**, research and service to students and local communities and around the world.
- **Innovation** and exploring new forms of teaching, new avenues of research and possible methods or tools for development and social change.
- **Promoting access**, empowerment of women, indigenous and marginalised and poorer people.

These issues relate roughly to the following elements of an HEI in its role as an agent in various forms of development, and are potential areas for future research for the GHFP.

1. As part of long-term strategic planning, HEIs should critically examine institutional missions in education, research and service with respect to their impact on human and social development (Tandon 2008, 151). The recognition and identification of the role that an institution has in development is crucial in enhancing its performance as an agent for development, and one that many institutions are curiously reluctant to promote (Bawden 2008, 65). What is the vision of the HEI? and how can it contribute to human and social development?
2. This raises questions of what curricula and pedagogical approaches best serve what objectives, and what balance can and should be sought between missions to affect different areas of development (for instance between individual development versus human, social and economic development), and how (Taylor 2008). HEIs educate and train qualified graduates with the professional and entrepreneurial

skills relevant to present and future needs of human activity. In that respect, critical inquiry is important to adapt to new situations and to consistently and systematically upgrade and renew knowledge and skills. Non-formal and informal continuing education, learning for life and lifelong learning are important qualities for sustainability of skill training and supporting academic standards and values. Finally, in consideration of transformational approaches, what qualities does an institution seek to instil in its graduates? How does it expect certain pedagogies to propagate change in society? How do contexts impact the ability of an institution to strengthen the capacity of its graduates to act as agents for social development?

Higher education also plays a role in human and social development in terms of shaping values and ways of thinking. This includes cultivating certain values for political and social participation (Dewey 1916) and global citizenship (Ansley and Gaventa 1997) shaping, in turn, societies, cultures and points of view (Delanty 2008). However, ultimately, “HEIs may need to re-examine the values associated with the social positioning of their institutions” (Tandon 2008, 151).

3. In connection with this, exploring new forms of research and ways in which a HEI can contribute directly to development through community engagement is important in enhancing the provision of education. Current examples of promising programmes combine teaching, research, and service in attempts to create curricula that simultaneously address the development of the student in terms of capabilities, skills and values as well as the participation of the student and HEI in development projects through service learning and action research. EARTH University, UDS, BRAC and Gandhigram all attempt to incorporate these aspects into their courses and relate these participatory forms of learning to development as part of their missions to educate, create and disseminate new knowledge, and to engage social and political realities (read inequalities) in society.
4. Supporting structures and incentives have to be sustained and adapted or modified in order for such institutional missions to be effective. Key strategies such as networking with various organisations facilitate the functioning and effectiveness of higher educational objectives. Strategies for effective and efficient management and financing pose considerable challenges and raise important questions regarding the direction of higher education in an era of increased privatisation and specialisation. BRAC, EARTH and UDS engage in entrepreneurial activities in order to support their functioning. They also operate as NGOs in their outreach and participate in various projects in collaboration with government and private organisations. These programmes and alternative outlets for publication offer ways of maintaining academic research and its application. Other state-supported HEIs such as Makerere and JSS collaborate in government projects, and have become indispensable actors in government initiatives in development. Makerere conducts important research in health issues and government policy research. As part of the PRIA (<http://www.pria.org/>) and government initiatives, JSS focuses on livelihoods, life enrichment education, and literacy skills of poorer adults in India.

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Online Resources

List of journals on Education and higher education compiled by the UN
http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=49706&URL_DO=DO_PRINTPAGE&URL_SECTION=201.html

Kaufman Foundation <http://www.kauffman.org/>

University World News www.universityworldnews.com

World Bank Publications on Tertiary Education
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTEDUCATION/0,,contentMDK:20528436~isCURL:Y~menuPK:617592~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:282386,00.html>

UNESCO <http://www.unesco.org/education/educprog/brochure/002.html>

International Association of Universities with UNESCO <http://www.unesco.org/iau/>

This is probably the most useful and informative organisation doing work on HEIs and development. In collaboration with UNESCO, IAU has produced a journal “Higher Education Policy” and a number of other scholarly publications including A Guide to Higher Education in Africa among many others. It is also a useful place to locate documentations and data.

World University Service of Canada <http://www.wusc.ca/>

A leading Canadian international development agency, World University Service of Canada (WUSC) is a network of individuals and post-secondary institutions. Our mission is to foster human development and global understanding through education and training.

World University Service – in Austria. <http://www.wus-austria.org> is another example of an NGO active in promoting ways in which HEI can help development.

Association for Higher Education and Development <http://www.aheadonline.org/>

Higher Education for Development <http://hedprogram.org/>

Works in association with USAID and focuses on partnerships in the developing world between universities and other institutions and those in the USA.

Association of African Universities <http://www.aau.org/about/index.htm>

Centre for Alternative Development in Sierra-Leone <http://www.cads-sierraleone.org/>

Does interesting development projects and often works with HEIs to conduct programmes and functions for development. It seems to be in line with the GHFP concept of development and HEI role except that it itself should not qualify as an HEI because it does not teach or grant accreditation.

Chinese Ministry of Education. http://www.moe.edu.cn/english/higher_h.htm

China Education and Research Network.

http://www.edu.cn/english_1369/index.shtml

Centre on Chinese Education <http://www.tc.columbia.edu/centers/coce/index.asp>

Department of Higher Education: Ministry of Human Resource Development

<http://education.nic.in/>

Ministry of Human Resource Development “Guidelines of Jan Sikshan Sansthan” available online at National Literacy Mission <http://www.nlm.nic.in/>

National Knowledge Commission <http://knowledgecommission.gov.in/>

National Literacy Mission <http://www.nlm.nic.in/>

India Study Centre <http://www.indiastudycenter.com/>