

Studies and Research

**Higher Education Management
Training and Development
Quality Indicators**

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**UNESCO thanks the OECD
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Foreword

This study by Professor John Davies, Pro Vice Chancellor (Research) of Anglia Polytechnic University, United Kingdom, marks an important milestone in UNESCO's research and training related to the management of higher education in a changing world.

In 1994, UNESCO published its policy paper entitled **Change and Development in Higher Education**, which charted the principal challenges facing national and institutional policy-makers today. It is intended that this document should be constantly reviewed and revised so as to reflect the reality of the change process across the regions of the world.

To balance this intellectual activity, the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme, launched in 1991, is the Organization's main instrument for the encouragement of inter-university co-operation in key areas related to development. This includes not only academic disciplines at the cutting edge of social and economic progress but also the renovation and management of higher education systems and institutions themselves.

In these initiatives, the assurance of quality and relevance becomes the unifying factor. Thus, UNESCO has commissioned the present study which focuses on the quality of the training process in order to ascertain how this can be identified, assessed and managed. The study, which analysed training designed to improve the capacities of higher education managers, scrutinized programmes conducted across a variety of regions where socio-cultural factors must be carefully considered. As such, it yielded results of interest to other fields dealt with by the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme. It is thus hoped that the results may be adapted to evaluating the quality of training in a wider context.

UNESCO wishes to thank the author of this document and the NGOs of the Collective Consultation on Higher Education - AAU, CRE, OUI, ANSD and ENSDHE - whose training programmes provided the essential data for analysis and whose experience constitutes an essential contribution to strategies designed to enhance the excellence of higher education worldwide.

In particular, we express our gratitude to the OECD which has been an important partner in this project and has generously offered to produce the French version of the text.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This study was commissioned by UNESCO with the prime purpose of identifying sets of indicators to ascertain the quality of training in selected areas relating to higher education management across a variety of regions. Such a framework is also intended to be used to evaluate training associated with the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme.

Evidence was collected from a wide review of the literature, and from a range of international programmes in this field based on the assumption that there is a whole series of common and generic issues confronting higher education systems and institutions. Though precise socio-cultural and institutional settings may differ, there is much to be learned from a cross fertilisation of experience and good practice.

The Report analyses the environmental context of institutional change from a number of perspectives: the increase in demands on university systems; transformation and differentiation in mission and structure; relevance of higher education provision, funding and resources; and university-state relationships.

The leadership and management challenges resulting from these changes are then identified in terms of the interpretation of environmental intelligence; review of mission; revised planning mechanisms - sensitive to the needs of self regulation and the emerging market economy in higher education; an integrated managerial core, a differentiated funding base and organisational structure; and the development of a quality culture.

The nature of situational variables in university management is then explored with particular emphasis on: the nature of university culture; the capacity for institutional change; the effect of different systemic settings; and patterns of institutional leadership career development.

In all the above, the implications for programme designers are discussed.

Using the above, a Quality Indicator Framework for international programmes is developed, based on three primary components: Design Criteria, Process Criteria and Outcome Criteria. Each of these is examined in considerable detail, and a battery of specific performance indicators is produced for each. The indicators and their use are discussed in depth, and examples of good practice, and also caveats, are widely quoted, from a wide range of different international and institutional settings.

PREAMBLE

1. The objectives of this study, commissioned by UNESCO, were to
 - identify sets of pertinent indicators to ascertain the quality of training in selected areas related to higher education management across a variety of regions
 - through this exercise, provide a useful basis for the evaluation of the training assured through the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chair programme due to begin in late 1995
2. The study was undertaken, using a number of existing international co-operative programmes in higher education management as initial evidence. These were, primarily
 - Organisation Universitaire Inter Americaine/Institut de Gestion et Leadership Universitaire (hereinafter referred to as OUI/IGLU)
 - Association of African Universities (hereinafter referred to as AAU) and the Senior Universities Management Workshop (hereinafter referred to as SUMA)
 - Project Columbus programmes for Latin American Universities including the Rectors' Leadership programme; the Study visit programmes; and the range of workshops on a variety of specialised university management topics such as technology transfer, intellectual property and academic quality.
 - various programmes conducted by the International Institute of Educational Planning in Africa, South East Asia (hereinafter referred to as IIEP)
 - CRE/OECD-IMHE new rectors programmes; and the thematic leadership seminars for Central and Eastern European rectors and senior staff
 - the IMHE Study Visit programmes and other thematic workshops.
3. In addition, use has also been made of the interesting evidence afforded by
 - regional network staff development programmes, especially the European Network Staff Development in Higher Education (ENSDHE)

Though these are not management programmes per se, they contain much in the way of pedagogic practice which is illuminating and demonstrate the potential of sound and fruitful networking.
 - European Association for International Education (EAIE) programmes on international strategy
 - British Council and NUFFIC international programmes for senior university staff

4. All these programmes have evolved in response to a realisation that there are a whole series of common and generic issues confronting higher education systems at present, and therefore, the institutions which comprise these systems. Though the precise socio-cultural settings may differ, there is nonetheless much to be learned from the international cross-fertilisation of understanding of these issues and also through the assessment of the potential of various responses to these issues in different settings.
5. The approach which has been taken in this study is as follows. A conceptual framework has been developed from the literature and practice on Quality audit and review, based on a systems model of design, process and output indicators. This has been refined interactively by looking at the evidence provided by the programmes themselves. This evidence consisted of a comprehensive dossier comprising detailed statements and commentaries on programmes objectives; target public and needs; programme evolution, definition of content, resourcing and means of evaluation.

Parallel with this, an extensive review of the literature on international trends and issues in higher education management has been undertaken, which has, as it were, provided a curriculum template against which the scope and focus of programmes might reasonably be considered.

Each of the indicators which has emerged from this analysis is explored in considerable detail, drawing on examples of good and interesting practice to demonstrate various points.

6. The purpose of considering the range of programmes identified earlier is not to assess or review them individually or competitively against a standard framework, but to collect evidence to assist in the design of that framework. Having completed this process, of course, and assembled a variety of good practice from a range of settings, it is possible to use the framework as a comparative device. More important, the framework should be able to be used as a monitoring template for existing management programmes, and as a design template for new and intended programmes including the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs.

It is also intended that the framework will offer useful information to other partners engaged in similar directions and projects (such as the World Bank or OECD), to help strengthen the quality of international training generally.

7. The author wishes to acknowledge with gratitude and appreciation the evidence and advice provided by Dr. Mary Lou Kearney (UNESCO), Dr. Andris Barblan and Alison Browning-Puymège (CRE), Daniel Samoilovich (CRE-Columbus), Kari Hypponen (OECD-IMHE), Dr. Brigitte Berendt (ENSDHE and the Free University of Berlin), Dr. Bikyas Sanyal (UNESCO), Dr. Donald Ekong (AAUA), Dr. Pierre Van Der Donckt (OUI/IGLU) and Marijk van der Wende (NUFFIC). The programmes conducted by the above organisations provide a sound base for further important developments in the decade ahead, and it is hoped that this paper will assist these developments in a very positive manner.

THE ENVIRONMENTAL CONTEXT OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IN UNIVERSITIES

8. International leadership and management programmes do not, of course, take place in a vacuum. Many have their genesis in a realisation that there are a whole series of global and common challenges in the field of university management. These may be better understood and more confidently responded to through co-operative dialogue and action, through a re-examination of the relationships between universities and the economic sector; between self-regulating and accountability in institutional - state settings; and of the whole social and intellectual purposes of universities. At the outset, therefore, it is worth sketching some of the primary global trends in the university's environment, since these, in effect, should constitute the main foci of attention and curriculum concentrations of international leadership programmes for universities, together with the institutional manifestations which are discussed in later sections of this paper.

Increase in the demands on university systems

9. It is clear that there has been a significant quantitative expansion in student enrolments in world higher education. UNESCO points out that in 1960 there were 13 million students; in 1970, 28 million; in 1980, 46 million; and in 1991, 65 million, with an especially high rate of growth in developing countries, reflecting particularly the low starting base and the larger proportion of younger age groups. The reasons seem to be
 - demographic growth and advances in primary and secondary education
 - economic growth and the assumption that higher education is a significant contributor in this respect
 - the growing maturity of developing countries and the expectations of higher education in facilitating this process, socially, politically and economically
10. This trend however, creates particular issues of equality and inequality of access; the problem of funding adequate development in more expensive subject areas; the wide variations in women's participation; in different systems; and the maintenance of quality provision where demand outstrips supply. Increased participation is no guarantee of graduate employment, of course - hence the pre-occupation with relevance of content and delivery processes.

Increased demand is not just reflected in student numbers, but also in the range of provision expected from universities - under- and postgraduate teaching; professional education and training; continuing education of various kinds; research; research and technology transfer; contributions to regional economic development etc. All these create a formidable range of objectives for universities, with different financial implications, and each assumes a different set of client groups with different modes of behaviour and expectations, and the university probably needs a particular form of internal organisation and role specialisation to deal effectively with each.

Shattock (1996) predicts a participation rate of over 50% in developed countries and, in his OECD paper, forecasts an increasing stratification in a competitive and unregulated market, which may well not only reinforce a "super league" but put many institutions at risk. These are clearly big strategic issues for programme designers.

Transformation and delivery in mission and structure

11. Given the above, it is perhaps inevitable that institutions and governments seek to accommodate the challenges through responses which emphasise non-uniform specialised and focused approaches within a very broad consensus as to what constitutes an university. This is a reflection of the difference in setting university types, traditions, sizes, academic profiles and configurations (federal, comprehensive, monotechnic etc.); the wide variation in clientele; variable access to a range of funding sources beyond government, especially to fund alternative learning delivery systems and technologies; and the massive expansion of knowledge. Dolence and Morris (1995) raise some intriguing possibilities for learning practices in universities in the 21st century, based on rapid expansion of information technology. However, this poses huge problems of financing - and thence for the possibilities of mission change (Burgan 1996). We shall consider the managerial ramifications of differentiation of mission in a following sections, including the special challenges provided by privatisation of some services (or indeed privatised status itself), but a major issue for leaders and governments is the maintenance or establishment of parity of esteem and equity and consistent autonomy for all types of institution, irrespective of specialisation of mission and differentiation. The question of the development and realisation of mission is therefore central to the attention of leaders of international programmes.

Relevance of higher education's role and provision

12. Implied in the above discussion is the assumption that universities should be fully attuned in their own way to societal needs over a broad front and able to provide appropriate services. This raises some significant issues on the balance between short term operations with discernible pay offs, and the necessary longer term reflective and critical role which universities have traditionally performed well, but which may be less amenable to easy measurement and quantification. However, relevance may be sought, planned for and realised in a number of domains, including
 - the university's role in democratisation, where it could reasonably play a significant role in democratic education, human rights, designing political and economic institutions, and attempting to prevent social fragmentation along various sectional fault lines.
 - the promotion of sustainable human development - via health care provision, environmental protection, poverty reduction, food production etc.
 - the world of work, a vast area of consideration, including life-long learning for all; continuous training and education relationships with the economic sector; curriculum content and the balance between competency based education, vocationalism and intellectual growth; development of entrepreneurs and job creators; contributions to international business and economic activities etc.; delivery mechanisms sensitive to the needs of part-time students, life-long learners and enterprise priorities - and many, many others.
 - the international/globalisation dimension, which is reinforced by significant shifts to political and economic integration and co-operation; the international mobility of staff and students; the imperatives of training graduates to work in an international context; and the explosion in international communication

technology mechanisms for the dissemination of and access to a vast knowledge base (Bengtsson 1993). The manifestations of this are profound, as far as institutions are concerned, especially in terms of international networking; international co-operation for R and D; assistance to universities and systems in decline or difficulty; speedy access to knowledge; and co-operative human resource development, including the reversal of the “South-North” brain-drain. The development of institutional strategic alliances to facilitate the realisation of mission and to impose institutional competitiveness and thence its co-operative potential is a major challenge.

It is fair to say that whilst some of these motivations are strongly advanced by governmental and economic interests, some certainly flow from the inherent altruism and social responsibility of many universities.

13. A rather more difficult and negative dimension of this factor is the manner in which many systems and institutions are characterised by continuing external interventions and a high incidence of student crises, revolts and protests. The causes are many : dissatisfaction with standards and the relevance of provision; impermeable university committee structures and resistant management; frustration with job prospects; and the fact that universities being oases of free speech may be ideal vehicles for asserting general political protest (UNESCO 1993). This poses interesting questions in respect of institutional relevance, and mechanisms for interacting with those who demand it.

Funding and Resources

14. As UNESCO (1995) observes, “the correlation between investment in higher education and the level of social, economic and cultural development is well established”. This however, focuses attention on the appropriate levels of financing to secure a desired quantum and quality of delivery. For various reasons, the growth in demand has not been paralleled internationally by a growth in the supply of funds. These reasons include other pressures on government spending (including schools); the rise of monetarist governments in some states, dedicated to the application of market ideologies as applied to higher education; demographic change; disappointing national economic growth rates; and the limited electoral support for higher education perhaps reinforced by the public image of students and universities.
15. Davies (1995) analysing international experiences of declining finances in higher education proposes a classification of five typologies of financial reduction in universities, characterised by associated university policy responses. The general ramifications of this phenomenon across systems include
 - the search for alternative sources of funding and income generation nationally and internationally.
 - the modification in the distribution of cost sharing responsibilities between governments, sponsors, students and their families (via tuition fees and other charges)
 - the commercialisation or even privatisation of some university services or provision

- institutional reductions in budget allocations for essential infrastructure (libraries, facilities etc), attention to staffing policies, practices and productivity and alternative means of delivery, and the application of so-called “efficiency gains” by government, which conspire to create depressing downward spirals.
 - a high tension between universities and governments, and a changing role for national committees of vice chancellors and rectors in the defence of university integrity, viability and quality.
16. The leadership implications are addressed later in this paper, but the visible deterioration of infrastructure in the light of increased demand is a formidable issue, associated with the tendency of some governments to wish to disengage from higher education support in potentially dangerous ways.

University-State Relationships

17. Closely related to the above is the question of the establishment and maintenance of constructive and well-organised relationships between institutions and governments. The responsibility of the state has traditionally been to provide a setting in which universities realise their mission and deliver their obligations and services to a range of stakeholders. This setting would normally encompass overall policy directions, a regulatory framework and a resource base, encapsulated in a series of continuing legislative priorities and legal relationships. Within this setting, institutions have traditionally been used to the exercise of individual and collective prerogatives and obligations, in a manner which is relatively autonomous and self regulating - the domain of academic freedom. This notion is based principally on the importance of providing guaranteed freedom for intellectual and social criticism and challenge - and free speech; the need to provide space and room for creativity; and the recognition that capacity is needed to react swiftly and purposively to external challenges and opportunities (whether responsively or entrepreneurially), without the heavy hand of bureaucratic control, precedent and conformity. The traditional scope of academic freedom and the delicate balance between autonomy and accountability is of course, recognisably under siege in many settings. This is a phenomenon which may be ascribed to alleged institutional shortcomings; intrusive political ideologies; the intensive demands for value for money; some of the more negative aspects of the quality movement, and financial scarcity. In this context, the robustness of so-called “buffer agencies” is likewise under siege, as they become more arms of central direction rather than instruments of mediation.
18. Sanyal (1994) in his comprehensive and magisterial review of global trends identifies four positions on the self regulation - accountability - control spectrum in response to this challenge. These are
- systems where self regulation and accountability has been implemented, e.g. USA, Netherlands, Canada, UK, Australia, characterised by diversification; market orientation; a pervasive management culture; sophisticated external quality mechanisms and accreditation; inter-institutional comparisons; funding incentives and investment in computerised management information systems.

- systems where self regulation is in transition e.g. Finland, Norway, Sweden. These are typified by traditionally stable systems concerned with improving efficiency; the advancement of strategic planning; self evaluation linked to budgeting; explicit quality assurance processes; and the sensible use of pilot projects to test out new forms of university-government relationship rather than swift “big bang” approaches.
- systems where self regulation is in difficulty e.g. Eastern Europe and Central and Latin America. Here, we see a decentralisation of authority to university level management but often without the necessary effective infrastructure at university level, and in a poor economic context. Regulated expansion is evident, often in the private sector and with uncertain and uneven developments in evaluation and accreditation. State bureaucracies may not have adjusted to changing scenarios, thus leading to tense contradictions between bureaucratic and market values.
- systems where centralised planning and control is dominant e.g. Germany, Austria, Pakistan, Thailand, Ghana, Egypt. Whilst widespread generalisations are suspect, one can discern limited institutional autonomy; a very limited internal management culture authority; strong direction exercised by ministries; a suspicion of market driven models of higher education and a rigid view of performance indicators; little budget discretion at university level, and little tradition of universities devising their own solutions to pressing problems.

These categories are, to a certain extent permeable and movement between them quite possible - but this transition is also quite demanding in respect of institutional processes and infrastructure, management skills, and governmental co-operation in the transition.

19. It will be observed that the quality dimension, and its relationship with funding relevance and institutional development is a central element in the above discussion, and it has become a major policy agenda in higher education throughout all four categories described. The motives and balance of emphases in the quality movement have differed. In some settings, the predominant orientation has been economic, characterised by value for money approaches, productivity measures etc. In other settings, the aim is primarily improvement and development, with attention to quality enhancement mechanisms, notably staff and institutional development. In yet others, the orientation is essentially client/market driven with consumer satisfaction with products and services as the focus. The scope of the Quality movement is potentially comprehensive and in most systems has evolved or is evolving to encompass the quality of teaching programmes; community service; research endeavours; and institutional infrastructure and academic environment. By definition this has come to include attention to the processes of quality audit, assurance and enhancement and has also embraced attention to the performance of academic staff, students, and general or support staff. There is a huge literature on the subject, of which Seymour (1992); Chaffee and Sherr (1992), Kells (1995) and Trow (1994) are particularly interesting samples, and we return to this later.
20. This section on “The Environmental Context” is capable of indefinite extension. Its purpose in this paper however is to

- indicate the macro agendas with which institutional leaders and their counterparts in higher education agencies have to confront
- provide a template of issues which could reasonably form a prospectus for the curriculum of international leadership/management programmes in higher education. Selectivity is needed in specific programme design, of course, to avoid cognitive overload, and to ensure relevance to the particular needs of particular groups of participants.

Examining the imperatives indicated above, one is drawn to the inescapable conclusion that programmes are very likely to be about assisting leaders move towards a new vision and model of the university which is constantly recognising and dealing with this vast array of global, regional, national and local issues., and in so doing, continually adjusting and renewing its academic and managerial strategies and operations. Different, but essentially consistent terms and models have been evolved to describe this central concept, for instance

- the Innovative University (Clark 1995), discussed in paras 23, 26, 29-31
- the Entrepreneurial University (Davies 1987), which encapsulates a range of recognisable characteristics of mission, culture, strategic planning, differentiated organisational structure and institutional activities, but emphasises the essentially commercial motivation, in addition to that which is largely innovative or responsive to environmental factors.
- the Pro-Active University (UNESCO 1995), which absorbs the characteristics enumerated by Clark and Davies but also emphasises the importance of “the pursuit of truth, defence, human rights, democracy, social justice and tolerance” ... “where access is possible primarily on the basis of intellectual merit and ability to participate actively” ... and “... responsibility to place training at the service of social development”, and other important universal desiderata.

The sections which follow assume the adoption of these three models as the basis for management and leadership development.

LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IMPERATIVES ARISING FROM ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE

21. The changes and trends outlined above are profound in their implications for higher education and governments, and indeed inter-governmental organisations (hence the interest of the latter in leadership programmes). As Sanyal observes (1994), “apart from those institutions subject to market forces, there was usually no equilibrating mechanism in higher education to make it respond automatically to contextual changes”. The dilemma is thus, how at manager/leader level to respond constructively to these changes and to sustain institutional vitality and prestige, whilst at the same time, managing to retain the worthwhile elements of existing traditions, structures and processes.

The central issue is now “what are the critical specific tasks and priorities to which higher education leaders and managers should address their attention, and which by implication, should form the principal agendas of leadership improvement in international programmes in higher education management?”

Interpreting the environment

22. From the Sanyal study (1994) and the various case studies on which it draws, a major factor in institutional success is the capacity of the university to perceive some way in advance any possible trends, threats and opportunities which are likely to affect its viability and reputation. This is an assertion of the primacy of an outward looking institution, rather than one which is preoccupied with its own internal tensions and narrowly defined agendas. For institutional leaders (and governmental offices with the interest of universities at heart) the primary tasks thus include
- the creation and maintenance of effective mechanisms to screen and forecast environmental trends - economic, financial, political, social - nationally and internationally.
 - the effective use of performance indicators to detect variance from desired performance, especially in terms of external comparisons.
 - a senior manager group close enough to the external influentials to detect impending problems before they develop into crises for the university.
 - a creative interpretation of governing instruments in the interests of university development (UNESCO 1993).
 - a comprehensive information base on the above in terms of problems and opportunities.
 - excellent working relationships with stockholders, funding and support agencies, and public relations processes generally.
 - institutional self evaluation mechanisms attuned to the realities of external evaluation inspired by the “system”, and the existence of adaptive processes.

Robust definition and review of mission

23. Clark (1995) is helpful on this point, preferring to talk of an “Innovative self defining idea” in his discussion of what are the characteristics of innovative universities - the idea of a distinctive institutional identity that is change oriented. This may be manifest as a “set of commandments, or felt ambiguously as a spirit”, and Clark quotes examples from Warwick, Twente, Strathclyde and Chalmers. The UNESCO African Study (UNESCO 1993) proposes a mission thrashed out endlessly with all stakeholders until a consistent perception is arrived at, but which is clearly institutional and regional specific. Sanyal notes a growing tendency for governments to encourage diversity in offerings, which implies a widespread recognition of the unique mission idea. The implications for institutions are thus clear, but yet difficult - how to define this “idea” in a way which will
- provide distinctive and profitable differentiation from other universities.
 - achieve this differentiation without making it so unique that it is unrecognisable as an university in important respects.
 - inspire external stakeholders and rally internal staff.
 - mobilise resources and focus efforts in ways essential to institutional development.
 - be easily and readily convertible into specific plans and priorities for the university’s main domains of activity.

Integrated planning mechanisms sensitive to the needs of a self regulated institution and a market economy in higher education

24. The UNESCO studies firmly reiterate the necessity of the key elements in this namely,
- a close linkage between audit, academic and financial planning as manifested in business plans
 - linking budgetary allocations to precise plans of achievement (UNESCO 1993)
 - monitoring mechanisms of a sophisticated nature firmly connected to the fulfilment of plans, including the systematic use of performance indicators
 - devolution of budgets (all costs, all income) to appropriate budget centres - at faculty or department level.
 - in-built flexibility of finance (virement and carry-over) staff, space; educational and research activities.
 - plans which contain the seeds and incentives of their own fulfilment.
25. The ramifications of this are considerable in terms especially of government - the preparedness to countenance a measure of entrepreneurship and self regulation by universities; the giving up (in centrally planned systems) of direct university-faculty

dialogues, and by definition, the strengthening of senior university management and organs (Austria is an interesting contemporary case); a sensitive and sympathetic use of performance indicators as developmental not punitive; the insertion of all relevant funds in university budgets (including personnel); and the creation of a helpful management information system. Over time, this package constitutes a considerable challenge to some ministries - and to the universities which need to develop and demonstrate the capacity to handle this devolution creatively.

An integrated administrative/managerial core

26. The response to challenges quoted earlier thus place pressure on internal management to conceptualise and realise change in a strategically determined manner. As Clark (1995) puts it, "much of the adaptive capacity of the innovative university is found in a strengthened administrative core". Reviewing the UNESCO-cases and other evidence this would seem to include
- managerial authority vested in positions like the rector, dean, administrative director, finance director
 - a strong senior management group including rectors, vice rectors, deans and directors, of key functional areas like finance and personnel (thus neatly combining devolution to faculties, with the deans as an integral part of central management). Local variations abound.
 - senates and committees strong on analysis, advice and giving legitimisation, but more restricted on action and its capacity to block initiatives.
 - increasingly professional vice rectors with specific policy portfolios and a strong professionalised administration.

International leadership programmes can significantly assist in the design and review of the effectiveness of such operations, and in providing good advice for improvement.

A diversified funding base

27. Whilst traditionally, universities are accustomed to consistency in government funding, together with standardised budgetary procedures etc., it is apparent from the trends discussed above, that this situation is being undermined. As governmental funds decline, discretionary resources become especially critical to make up shortfalls; to create space for new developments; to acquire competitive advantage; and to become less dependent on a major patron.
28. The generation of surpluses then becomes a major instrument in organisational change; in the improvement of conditions; in the provision of incentives to staff and units, and hence is a major factor in institutional morale-building. The diverse origins of these funds correspondingly conspire to enhance the more non traditional elements of university operations - continuing education; the non traditional student; access arrangements; international operations; research and development; contract research and consultancy. Over time, of course, they become traditional: differentiated from, but connected to the heart of the university.

This creates the need to consider what organisational forms are appropriate for commercial activities, and reinforces the movement towards professional full time management of faculties and departments, and shift towards an entrepreneurial ethic and expertise vital to sustain such priorities (Davies 1987). How international programmes may assist in the development of entrepreneurial skills is a key question.

A differentiated organisational structure and an innovative developmental periphery

29. Despite what has been said about the permeation of the entrepreneurial ethic, observers of the university scene are agreed on the necessity of protecting the traditional academic heart of the institution from the more short term and transitory imperatives of the market economy. To put it another way (Davies (1987), traditional academic departments created to deliver under- and postgraduate education, conduct research and protect and nourish the discipline, but are not necessarily well equipped to deal with the multi-faceted challenges of entrepreneurialism - different clientele with different expectations and demands; different timescale and different pressures etc. Hence we assume the need for what Clark (1995) calls a developmental periphery, and Davies (1987) a differentiated organisational structure.
30. The characteristics of these two ideas are similar : risk-taking organisations to seize new and often multi-disciplinary opportunities; continuous operation of product life cycles; project based management; transitory organisations; and operational freedom from the university mainstream with distinct financial and personnel profiles. Failure to take risks mean that universities stagnate and therefore, fall behind. We would thus expect to see science parks; incubators; university companies; innovation centres; directorates of continuing education, consultancy centres; spin-offs etc. and within the university administration, a strong organisational focus for income generation and new business development, especially in international markets, and for forging strategic alliances with external constituencies and partners.
31. The academic core should be significant in expanding and changing the nature of the developmental periphery, and in reciprocation, the periphery should nourish the funding base of the institution, enabling it to subsidise difficult areas and identify and pump-prime new developmental themes. Organisational design thus emerges as a key pre-occupation of international programmes.

Developing a Quality Culture

32. Implied in the above discussion is the notion that, within their special and individual settings, leaders of institutions ought to be explicitly concerned with the quality of their teaching, research and other operations, through the careful design and implementation of mechanisms of quality audit, assurance and enhancement. Governmental agencies should require institutions to demonstrate the above, but, above all, to use quality mechanisms for development and improvement rather than for purposes which are punitive, restrictive and primarily concerned with cost cutting. We shall look at a Quality model in later sections of this paper to look at the various programmes within the scope of this study.
33. As has been indicated, the drive for much of the Quality movement in universities has been inspired externally, to develop some consistency in and higher standards of provision and services according to national and international rubrics, and to give

assurance to actual and potential consumers of university services, (Middlehurst and Gordon 1995). This ensures both second and third party involvement (the client in the market place and his/her surrogate, the higher education agency).

Leadership must, in this context, be closely connected with quality since it needs to

- interpret external signals on quality and shape vision on improvement accordingly
- develop strategies for moving in this direction which need to be based on individual and group commitment and support, in teaching and learning, research and administrative service
- inspire colleagues to espouse quality for its own sake, not just in response to external bureaucratic necessities, and recognise their efforts accordingly
- infuse quality perspectives into the day-to-day operation of the university
- ensure mechanisms are in place to secure action following review, i.e. as UNESCO (1993) points out, to move beyond an audit posture to a developmental culture

Total Quality Management is a focused manifestation of this concern, and, as with strategic planning, originated in USA. A 1992 survey indicated 23 institutions in USA had implemented it in some form, and Seymour (1992) and Chaffee and Sherr (1992) indicated its application in some detail to a number of institutional settings.

This TQM movement, although phrased in contemporary jargon and terminology builds, of course, on a honourable tradition of assessing institutional effectiveness, very well conceptualised by Kells (1995), Cameron (1981) and Merli (1993), which deal admirably with quality issues on the input, process and output dimensions. Middlehurst and Gordon (1995), draw particular attention to

- a strong client orientation, where staff satisfaction is derived from serving the client
- the fact that quality is a complex process based on transactions and a network of exchange relationships
- the imperative reflective and creative management and learning from experience in a structured and systematic manner

as common characteristics of well performing organisations.

34. The Quality movement per se has clearly originated in more developed systems, and to be effective demands a certain degree of sophistication of attitude and practice which may not be common in less advanced systems. Nonetheless, the principles ought to be of particular relevance and attraction given the focus on client satisfaction and the pragmatic approaches expected in less developed systems which have substantial problems of sustaining quality in bad financial conditions.

Developing an operational model for managing change in universities

35. The implication of all the preceding sections is that senior leaders of universities and university systems have an inescapable role of managing change to respond to the environmental challenges creatively, and to put into place and refine the effectiveness the critical elements discussed above. Change is complex and takes time. From the definition and realisation of an issues - to the generation of a policy framework as a response - to the acceptance and eventual implementation of a policy is a multiple year activity. It is normally fraught with problems of lack of comprehension, organisational inertia, covert and overt resistance, limited resources, shortage of relevant management information, considerable politicisation, and variable expertise to deliver workable solutions (Sanyal 1994).
36. The literature on the management of change in universities is voluminous and authoritative, and it is not the purpose of this paper to review this literature. However, international leadership programmes clearly need to address this issue at some length and depth. Simply picking up bright ideas on institutional policy options on international programmes is not enough. Too many very coherent, rational and logical policy plans founder because they do not recognise the culture and dynamics of the organisational setting involved, and there may be considerable ambiguity regarding the design of the policy or change process needed, as distinct from the content of that policy.
37. Among the critical factors to be explored both in the general and the particular by programmes therefore are
 - a sound framework for policy formation encompassing specific phases and recognising the need for evolution (Davies 1982)
 - the design of consultation and communication mechanisms related to an analysis of the pressure group and coalition structure of the university, and a clear view of the role of bargains and incentives
 - the notion of change agents including external consultants with the necessary process skills to assist senior management, conceptualise and deliver appropriate change
 - a change task force comprising respected members of the community knowledgeable in the area concerned
 - an explicit schedule and timetable for the process related to external imperatives
 - an identification of likely primary and secondary consequences of the change, before and during the process and visible means of picking these up
 - a careful study of similar innovations elsewhere, the nature of issues addressed and situational variables involved, and an evaluation of significant pointers

- designation of resources necessary to realise the objectives of the change - structure, personnel, training, finance, facilities and information - inserted at key points in the implementation process
 - design of evaluative mechanisms to review the efficacy of the change.
38. Eight clusters of leadership and management imperatives have been identified in this section. No doubt, other classifications are possible. However, these eight are significant, in that they would provide a map which could constitute the core foci of attention of international leadership and management programmes in higher education, i.e. the base curriculum, set in the context of the major trends identified in the preceding section. How these areas are treated is considered later under the headings of Design and Process Criteria.

We must now turn to a very important question. It is all very well for programmes to address these issues, but the setting in which participants find themselves are of course very varied. Let us now consider how the question of situational variables could be handled.

THE NATURE OF SITUATIONAL VARIABLES IN INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT

39. The previous discussion has attempted to illuminate the range of current and projected issues confronting university type organisations, and the challenges these pose for those who lead and manage these institutions and, by implication, those who conduct international leadership programmes. However, the precise incidence and nature of these issues will vary in respect of the particular setting, and the possible responses of institutions to these challenges will also vary, according to the operation of a complex set of variable factors in the local situation. This factor is of importance in the design of international leadership programmes which are ostensibly designed to help participants confront, resolve and cope with difficult environmental and internal imperatives, and this section will attempt to address some of the more important of these variables. Inevitably space constrains the breadth of discussion, and the Report of the UNESCO Geneva Roundtable (UNESCO 1992) is an excellent and more extensive review of these issues.

The nature of university cultures

40. One may consider university cultures, (and all that follows) from a number of standpoints. Figure 1 indicates a formulation which might be helpful in this context. A university may be considered along two dimensions (McNay and Davies 1995)
- policy direction (vertical axis) - poses a spectrum which at one end denotes tight policy control from the Centre, and at the other end, loose policy control from the Centre.
 - operational control of detail (horizontal axis) - poses a spectrum which at one end denotes tight control of operations from the Centre, and at the other end, loose control of operations from the Centre.

If these two are superimposed, four broad categories of institutional culture or style emerge, namely

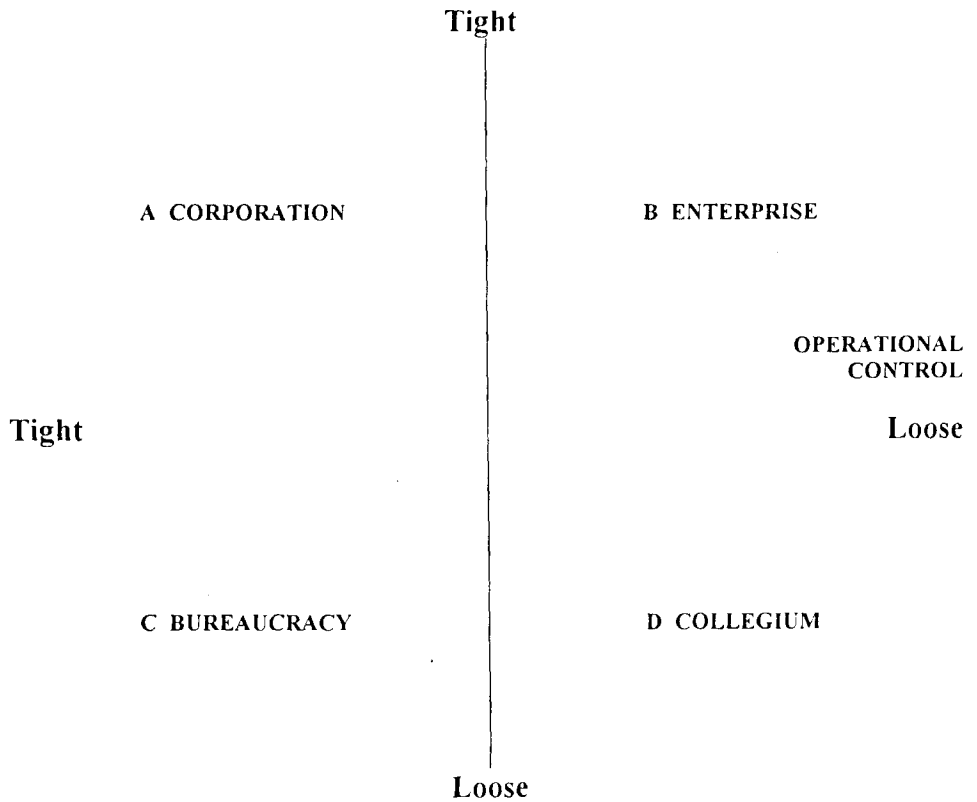
- **Quadrant A : Corporation -**
The emphasis here is on Senior Management Group leadership, top-down planning; and objectives monitored through performance indicators
- **Quadrant B : Enterprise -**
Here is seen a strong policy frame, but considerable freedom for units to interact with market. Market success determines resource allocation process and the university culture is dominated by income/business generators across the University. Project management is the favoured style of operation; and the institution is low on regulation.
- **Quadrant C : Bureaucracy -**
This is marked by a low strategic profile and where rules and precedent dominate. One observes a drive for stability and uniformity of treatment and the dominance of administration and committees.

- Quadrant D : Collegium -
This espouses a respect for individual autonomy; the dominance of professors and academic committees; peer review; loose procedures; and is marked by considerable devolution.
41. If an institution has a culture which is a mix of the Bureaucratic and the Collegial - (both essentially maintenance oriented, and probably inward looking, and low on risk taking), its capacity for responding quickly and proactively to a series of external stimuli such as we have defined earlier will be quite limited. External pressures probably need strong policy directions, but if they also require swift action at the grass roots or departmental level, then an entrepreneurial ethos and accompanying structures and processes are going to be more useful than a corporate culture.
 42. This position is not inconsistent with that advanced by Sanyal (1994), Kells (1992) and Middlehurst and Elton (1992). Here, a major trend is institutional self regulation with concomitant accountability is identified. This seems to require an environment of trust and co-operation between government and universities; governmental policy oversight but not detailed control; external validation of quality; and improved managerial expertise internally to deal with increased reporting requirements, seizure of external opportunities and incentives etc. Self-regulation does imply a more managed university, which demonstrably operates in ways different from those with a high degree of government regulation, but in ways which permeate all levels and which tend to be self adjusting. This tends to represent an evolution from positions taken by Clark (1983), Mintzberg (1983), Becher and Kogan (1991) and others. However, we should not minimise the difficulty of transition into this mode either from a traditionally collegial system, or from a traditionally centrally planned university system. In the latter case, typified by universities in Central and Eastern Europe, the sharp transition to a market economy has often not been paralleled by internal adjustments, with difficult consequences.

This discussion is important for programme designers, since presumably they will need to assist their participants analyse the precise nature of their institutional cultures in terms of change processes, and conceivably give them assistance in conceptualising how they will plan for change in a difficult culture, how they might attempt a cultural transformation itself or at the very least, a cumulative process of adjustment. This is predicated, of course, on the idea that such programmes are about institutional change in the first place.

UNIVERSITY CULTURES

POLICY DEFINITION



Institutional capacity to change

44. Since the primary clients of the leadership programmes we are discussing will be senior university staff, and since the aim is to assist the process of change, an appreciation of the scope for change in local situations becomes vital to avoid prescription or approaches which are so generalised as to be somewhat adjacent to reality. CRE, in its recently designed Quality Audit Programme, has helpfully identified four critical areas which are likely to govern high quality strategic change (CRE 1995)
- Institutional Autonomy : including the freedom of the university to select its professors, students, teaching and research activities; to organise its finances; and to develop its own enterprises.
 - Strategic Capacity for Change : including the ability to respond to internal and external demands (which implies a robust mission convertible into long term strategies and policies); mechanisms for seizing opportunities and removing inhibitors; and pro-active leadership
 - Governance : including the distribution of formal and informal powers and authority between executive head, central boards, deans, faculty boards, departments, etc. : (the vertical dimensions); and co-ordinating structures for integrating effort as appropriate (lateral dimension). This also involves a consideration of the extent to which this distribution is adequate in terms of strategic aims.
 - Evaluation Monitoring : including quality assurance mechanisms for teaching, research, human resources, external operations - and institutional assessment generally.
45. There will, of course, be other formulations of use in this context, and readers are particularly advised to cross-reference this with the excellent discussion in Sanyal (1994, Chapters V - X). In short, the perspectives offered above are important for programmes both as a means of assisting programme participants diagnose their institution, and also to give advice on the design, potential and relevance of change strategies. Programmes rightly address these important issues.

Relative positioning of institutions in different state systems

46. The papers by UNESCO (1995), Sanyal (1994) and Neave (1992) and the various institutional cases researched by UNESCO quoted in the bibliography, demonstrate very forcibly the significance of the different settings in which programmes take place. Since we shall be developing this point later, at this stage, it is worth highlighting at this stage
- the relative wealth and resource bases of universities and of university systems. This obviously conditions the nature and usefulness of the advice and recommended good practice which programmes may offer. This is particularly clear where one considers the underlying agenda of programmes with members from say, financially disadvantaged universities in Africa, Latin America or Eastern Europe. Thus what is advocated by Dolence and Morris (1995) in their very thought provoking vision of technology based learning in the 21st

Century in North America may not be at all realisable in developing countries, because of the massive infrastructure and investment needed.

- the relative sophistication of instruments of university management, including strategic planning techniques, quality audit, assurance and enhancement mechanisms, and management information systems. This is clearly related to the previous point. The adoption of certain policies must be conditional on having the managerial infrastructure to realise these policies.
- the extent of competition between institutions - its nature, the players and their respective strengths and weaknesses, the ground rules for competition, and the consequences of success or failure in competitive endeavours. Some systems may well, by virtue of their limited global resource base, impel universities to seek funding elsewhere. National ministry procedures may well however, prevent entrepreneurial behaviour - and there may well not be the economic infrastructure in the country to support entrepreneurial university activity on a meaningful scale. In this case, universities are caught in a double bind. Questions of government-university partnerships or relationships then become difficult and sensitive agendas, and programmes should expect to have to confront these head on.
- the politicisation of universities is a difficult factor for programme designers to grapple with. In some systems, the extent of interference by politicians in institutions is unfortunately not prevented by so-called buffer-organisations. In the former systems of Central and Eastern Europe this interference of course came via personal interventions by politicians, but was also exercised through the all-pervasive party machine. Coping with the after effects of this is not an insignificant theme in programmes including leaders from these universities. Some Latin American universities are often microcosms of the political fault-lines existing in society, a phenomenon reflected in the politicisation of rectorate elections and the political intensity of student life on campus. For university leaders therefore, coping with external as well as university political agendas is the order of the day.

For programme designers this raises important challenges such as

how to assist university leaders in this situation without appearing subversive

how to wean some university leaders from an attitude of "learned helplessness" (however understandable and explicable that may be)

how to use the programme to inspire participants to be innovative, and possibly to risky policy ventures

how to enhance political skills, such as policy formation, coalition building, bargaining etc.

To this, we return later.

Career patters of senior institutional management

47. If we refer back to Figure 1, to discussions by Clark (1983) and Mintzberg (1983), and to observable practice referred to by Sanyal (1994), the honoured traditions of management in universities in various systems down the years tend to be typified by a combination of the Bureaucratic and Collegial models. As far as the collegial model is concerned, we see
- a general disinterest of academics in management/leadership positions at various levels, as against a strong preference to focus on and demonstrate academic esteem to peers and externals in research and scholarship.
 - a preponderance of short terms of office with a limited mandate - 2, 3 or 4 years, sometimes subject to renewals, but often institutionalising dislocation in leadership and succession (other than the continuity provided by the permanent administration).
 - a preponderance of electoral mechanisms in many countries, as distinct from appointments to senior positions like rector, vice rector, dean or chairperson.
 - a small salary differential for senior staff beyond the level of well paid professors.
 - a reluctance by institutions to espouse robust personnel appraisal for academics generally, and academic leaders in particular.
 - limited explicitness in describing formal (reserved) powers, and therefore limited formal instruments of authority.
 - strong reserved powers/blocking mechanisms available to faculties and academic councils, which can easily thwart executive action.

For the leader or manager the aggregation of these factors means certain limitations in formal powers and clout, which thus may well present handicaps in achieving strategic change of a long-lasting nature.

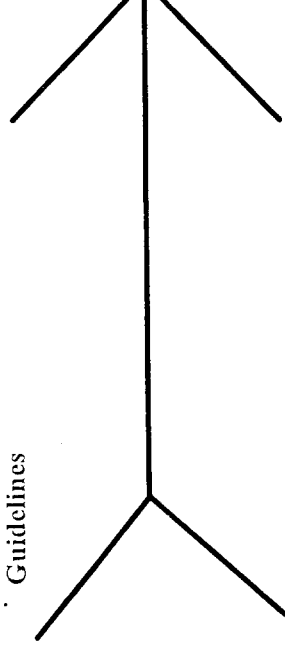
48. If we add to this some other characteristics of a Bureaucratic model (for instance, a strong permanent director of administration with interests in maintaining the status quo, rule-based management with strong respect for precedent, direct connections to ministries etc.), the limitations on the rector's capacity for strategic change are compounded, in terms of the forces arrayed in favour of conservatism. If this were not enough, add traditional forms of protectionism such as tenure and academic freedom and we have a range of significant inhibitors to change. This brings us to the point that effective managerial performance on the part of the rector and other senior staff is the product of the internationalship of some complex factors. Figure 2 illustrates this diagrammatically. Training, it will be seen, can certainly assist, especially if it is high quality, inspirational and systematic. However, many other factors can certainly negate these benefits, hence the attention later in the paper to developing programmes whose design is based on action principles, and where every effort is made to link training with direct organisational interventions.

49. In more conventional management training, participants may well invest heavily in their own development, because they see their upward mobility in the organisation related to this. In universities, this may not be the case, with consequences for programme designers in terms of commitment of participants, willingness to take risks, and the willingness to engage in course related activities before and after.

Clear and stable framework

- Policy
- Rules
- Conventions
- Information
- Guidelines

Opportunity



Personal Competence

- Skills
- Knowledge
- Attitudes

Support

- Encouragement
- Motivation
- Rewards
- Peer

A QUALITY INDICATOR FRAMEWORK FOR INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMMES IN HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

50. This paper is focused on the design of a framework which may be used to assess the quality of the various international programmes within the scope of this exercise. A framework is needed which is not likely to be used in any authoritarian sense, linked to competitive financial allocations, which is often the case in governmental systems of indicators. Instead, its use is conceived in a developmental context where review is essentially about improvement of practice. Although a comparative framework is suggested, it is therefore not cast in a competitive situation, since it is intended that programme leaders will feel able to use the framework for the quality advancement of their own activities.
51. In the light of the above, it is probably useful to outline some starting points in the definition of an approach to quality assessment in this context
- Quality as Excellence - in which case the indicators would be of universal generic significance and normally using the same standard of performance. One could assess a whole range of activities applying the indicators and related standards equally across a range of international programmes and settings. This, whilst consistent, may be quite unfair and possibly irrelevant in certain cases.
 - Quality as Fitness for Purpose - in which case, the effectiveness of a programme would be assessed against indicators and standards derived from its basic mission specifications and stated objectives. Here, the comparative element would be much weaker, but the significance of specific situational variables stronger, and would reflect the different origins and character of the various programmes.
 - Quality as Value Added or Transformation - in which case, one would compare the character of a phenomenon (e.g. capabilities of a programme participant, or the state of a policy area) before and after the operation of a programme dedicated to its improvement. The effectiveness of the process could thus be ascertained by monitoring how the programme has changed matters or added value.

Given the wide differences in the character of the programmes associated with this project (CRE, IGLU, AAUA/IIEP, UNITWIN, ENSDHE etc.) and the different socio-cultural settings in which they operate, a combination of the characteristics of Quality as Fitness for Purpose and Quality as Value Added may be potentially more useful than Quality as Excellence in the first instance. However, this analytical differentiation may be less obvious in actual practice, since

- the purposes of several of the programmes are similar.
- indicators may serve several purposes and orientations equally well.
- in all cases, we are concerned with quality assurance, quality control and quality enhancement.

Thus, it will probably be best to derive the framework from a pragmatic combination of elements of the above categories, emphasising the different cultural contexts, different stages in development and maturity, and different programme missions, and looking for excellence in each setting.

52. Critical features of a Quality framework arising from the above would therefore include the following
- the programme should be aimed at the needs of the consumer, present and future : mission is the starting point.
 - quality outcomes require quality processes.
 - quality mechanisms will need to be sensitive to the particular setting.
 - quality is perfection : one can never achieve it, but one can constantly get closer. It is a journey rather than a destination, and we are therefore looking for refinement and improvement.
 - quality involves concerted action by all programme stakeholders and beneficiaries - it is not just a matter for providers.
53. Figure 3 indicates graphically the framework we shall use in this discussion, with three categories of quality :
- it distinguishes between factors in the sense of a logical sequence - issues at the initiation of a programme; issues in the execution of a programme; and issues relating to the outcomes.
 - each category gives rise to a series of criteria which can be applied in most contexts.
 - in total, they give an analytical device for preventing and detecting defects in the quality of provision of programmes - defects in the basic design; defects in the operation; defects in expected outcomes - and of the relationship between elements in the three categories, through the feedback process.

Design criteria refer to these processes and assumptions on needs mission and appropriateness which underpin the entire exercise. Process criteria refer to those activities undertaken to deliver the programme, to convert design assumptions into reality and to provide feedback and readjustment. Outcome criteria are means of verifying that the results of the process are what was intended - not just in terms of providers, expectations and perceptions, but also with reference to all stakeholders. Quality is to be found in these three domains, inputs are merely appropriate or not to the particular purposes.

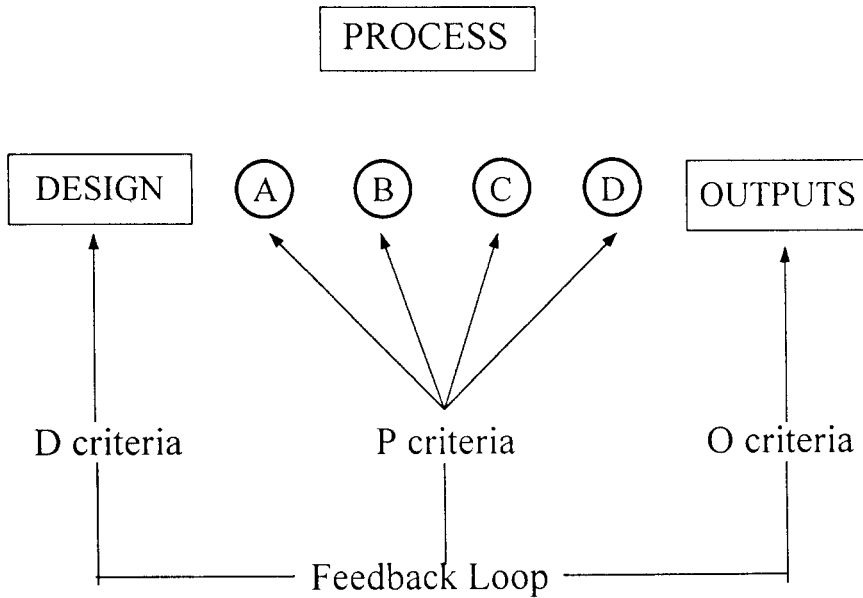
It is important also to bear in mind that Process criteria are the key ones. Good end of programme inspection does not of itself build quality into the programme : processes do, because they continually ask the questions why, what and how.

54. As has been mentioned, we shall not be using the word 'indicator' in the sense of a rigid quantitative mechanism, but more as an indication of performance which is part of a comprehensive framework. They are thus phrased as questions relating to critical areas of performance, and should be

- relevant - in that they assess something work assessing
- valid - in that they assess what they claim to assess
- reliable - in that they assess the same property even though applied in different settings, and at different times
- readily available - in time and at the right place for decision making

Though the criteria or indicators may be considered together in relation to one programme, they may be taken across the board to give a comparative perspective on say, learning assumptions or monitoring methods.

FIGURE 3



Continuous Improvement

Preventing defects

What to do with the process

(learning)

Inspection

Assessment

Detecting defects

What to do with the product

(students)

QUALITY INDICATORS IN INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMMES

- 55 This section addresses the question of what quality indicators are appropriate in the development and evaluation of programmes designed to meet the purposes outlined earlier.

For each of the broad categories of Design, Process and Output Criteria, we shall identify a series of critical indicators or questions, and for each, discuss its nature, the issues involved, and offer examples of practice derived from the various programmes which have provided evidence for this study. It is emphasised that these criteria are closely inter-related, are not self contained, and their analysis needs to be an iterative process

DESIGN CRITERIA

This category, it will be recalled, encompasses the factors which constitute the driving force for a programme, the needs of its beneficiaries, and the inputs which are appropriate to its effective delivery

Is there a clear articulation of the environment in which the proposed programme will take place?

- 56 Any programme is born in a particular context, which is a maelstrom of factors at the different levels, which have been discussed earlier. There is the context at international level, which may encompass assumptions about the movement towards regional or continental co-operation (such as the CRE Rectors programme, IMHE Eastern European projects, the IIEP regional programmes) and intercontinental co-operation (Project Columbus, IGLU). In these cases, macro political or cultural forces may be significant driving forces, backcloths or inhibitors to the development and effective implementation of a programme. There is the context at national level in respect of the countries whose institutions and agencies are likely beneficiaries of a proposed project - governmental policy towards higher education, and associated financial, socio-economic, legal and political factors. The context at institutional level is clearly significant : governance, political processes, leadership characteristics and career patterns, the extent of operational autonomy, the financial situation, and state-university relations.

It is clearly vital for programme designers to be thoroughly aware of all these elements at the start of the process of programme design and operation especially to ensure that the focus is in tune with reality and expectations at these various levels. Many false assumptions may be made about factors like the ability of participants to support a programme, to be able to move institutions in particular directions or to take aboard ostensibly desirable good practice. False assumptions may subsequently render a programme ineffective

Who are the stakeholders in the programme, and what is the basis of their stakeholding?

57. International programmes develop from and are stimulated by a wide range of interests. These may include
- international/intergovernmental organisations which see a programme as a means of prosecuting a desired policy initiative. Thus, UNESCO is clearly interested, for example, in improving the quality of HE management in various sub-regions of South-east Asia as part of its mission to sustain general socio-economic and cultural development in that region. Thus, for instance, IMHE and CRE has an interest in assisting emerging democracies and economies in Eastern Europe by assisting in the transformation of the nature of university operations in response to a market economy.
 - national governments who may well see considerable benefit in (sub)regional bilateral co-operative programmes to explore issues of internationalisation of universities international networking, or the commercial possibilities of exploiting the know-how resource (e.g. British Council, NUFFIC).
 - individual universities who may themselves (either corporately or through the activities of very entrepreneurial professors or administrators) wish to set up vibrant international programmes (e.g. Centre for Higher Education Management at Danbury Park, Anglia UK or Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies at Twente, Netherlands).
 - professional networks such as EAIE (European Association for International Education), CHER (Consortium of Higher Education Researchers) or ENSDHE (European Network Staff Development in Higher Education) composed of individuals eager to progress their competence through international co-operation.

There may be a clear difference between the stakeholders, so defined, and the people who actually participate in the programmes as the immediate beneficiaries. This gap, if it exists, may be a source of subsequent tension.

58. For programme designers, a series of critical questions now emerge, which imply statements of good practice; against which programmes may be compared:
- have all the relevant stakeholders been identified, and the nature and scope of their likely stake and contribution? This may include financial support and underpinning; access to key foci of policy formation; provision of important resource materials; provision of academic, training or research expertise in the field under consideration; access to networks of all kinds; commitment to delivery of participants; access to means of accreditation.
 - what are the mechanisms for securing the participation and commitment of stakeholders? Some form of Co-ordinating Group seems inevitable, but questions of core membership, affiliate membership and co-opted membership will need clarification. International programmes clearly have inherent political agendas - hence the importance of a group of stakeholders which balances the

political interests (whether national or sectional) and the nature of the contributions. Collective ownership of a project is crucial at any early stage.

- is the level of legitimate participation commensurate with the legitimate interest of the individual stakeholder? Some stakeholders who may be the main sponsors financially may exercise an unhealthy dominance over representatives of the so-called 'academic' providers or the actual recipients. Designers should therefore ensure transparency of the ground rules of involvement and operations, and clarity on the obligations of stakeholders.
- subsidiary and more local stakeholder networks may well need to be developed in the case of rather complex inter-continental programmes, and the experiences of IGLU, Project Columbus and ANSD is particularly interesting in the successful endeavour to create ownership on the ground.

All this does require considerable political skill, vision and perseverance by programme leaders and their patrons.

Is there a clear articulation of the needs which a programme should address, from an analysis of its environmental context and the perceptions of the stakeholders?

59. This is a complex issue, since many stakeholders will profess a clear understanding of such needs. As the OUI/IGLU project carefully observes, there is both a conceptual and practical difference between 'needs' and 'demands'. 'Needs' is perceived to be a rather objectively researched set of conditions relating to the target issues or target participants. 'Demand' is more an assertion of what is required often by a dominant group, and/or may be defined to be a quantitative assessment of the likely market take-up. Programme designers need to be clear on all the above elements as a precondition, bearing in mind the previous sections which have sought to give an overview of the principal agendas for systems, universities and leaders.
60. There will, furthermore, be a number of levels of analysis including
- at the more macro level, a definition of the broad policy issues which need exploration, or the generic management competencies which need development. For example, SUMA sketches issues such as increase in student numbers coupled with resource decline; campus violence; and graduate unemployment as core generic issues. CRE-IMHE activities in Eastern Europe cite the pressures towards internationalisation and the challenges of a market economy as being critical.
 - at the more micro-level, a more detailed finely tuned research into the precise manifestations of these issues or emerging good practice within institutions which (are likely to) participate in the programme.

There is the emerging view, well expressed in the SUMA programme, that any definition of needs should not be a one-off exercise, if the programme is a serious contribution to development. Circumstances change, which implies a continuing redefinition and updating, especially in serious long term endeavours. An important caveat also needs emphasising : in international programmes, there is a tendency to base a programme on a transplant from elsewhere, which may have worked excellently

in another setting, but may not harmonise with the local situational variables. As with biological transplants, rejection is possible, if not probable. The transplant may be inappropriate in terms of pedagogic design, content or approach. Cross-fertilisation of international experience is one of the great benefits of international programmes, but it needs to be carefully structured for maximum effect. Ineffective transplant is usually a consequence of poorly researched needs, or even a form of academic colonialism.

Thus, the critical points for designers are : appropriate involvement of parties at different levels in the identification of needs/demands, and accurate mechanisms to this end. Paras 8-38 indicate a broad perspective of the likely range of issues which would form a curriculum base.

Who are the appropriate actual clientele of the proposed programme?

61. As is apparent from the preceding discussion, there may well be different levels of clientele or beneficiary depending on the purposes of the programme and the needs identified. At the simplest level, we have the immediate sponsors who 'own' the problem in their respective systems (and see the proposed programme as a means of approaching the problem and possible solutions) together with those who will actually attend the programme as participants. The former will predominantly be interested in the outcomes, but probably less concerned with the process. The latter group will be the objects/recipients of the experience, and may be 'engineered'/manipulated by the former, raising questions about the process itself. Substantial issues arise for the designers as a consequence, including
 - are the clientele - actual participants - consistent with the needs identified, i.e. are they the people to make things happen afterwards (as ANSD, IGLU and CRE assume)? Some programmes can conveniently operate with a relatively homogeneous group (e.g. rectors, or new rectors in the case of role based programmes). Others require more heterogeneous membership, especially if thematically conceived e.g. ministers, government officers, rectors, senior university leaders, heads of operational divisions (such as quality officers, international directors, industrial liaison heads, etc.). Too much heterogeneity could well demotivate very senior staff of a hierarchic disposition, yet the perspective of others may be essential given the need for more penetrating understanding of issues and subsequent action.
 - international programmes, almost by definition, will attract personnel from a wide variety of settings - in terms of size and complexity of universities; sophistication and development of HE systems and institutions; character of government-university/accountability - autonomy relationships; public/private institutions etc. Thus, it is possible to meet needs through differentiated or common provision, or a mixture of both.
62. However, designers need to calculate the resultant dynamics and consequences of whatever mix is devised. It has not been easy, for instance, to explore issues of technology transfer, quality audit or internationalisation on an equal footing between Western and Eastern Europeans, or Western Europeans/North Americans and some Latin American groups, owing to the different starting points and experience of each. In principle, the case for mixed membership in terms of cross-fertilisation is clear : in practice, it may be more difficult to deliver and sustain.

63. This raises the necessity of eliciting the precise needs, expectations and conditions of specific individuals as distinct from the generic group. Participants on senior programmes do not like to be patronised or manipulated for some other purpose. Frustrated expectations create problems of motivation and the commitment of participants to staying the duration of the programme, participating fully in it, and utilising its findings back home.
64. If the programme is designed to be a continuing provision of a succession of courses on the same or different topics, then the issue of the size of the potential market becomes important, and its ability to replace itself. This has clearly been recognised by OUI/IGLU and the CRE New Rectors programme which have a long track record of successive cohorts. Likely programme shelf life is thus a significant indicator to be assessed.

What are the specific objectives of programmes, and how are they expressed?

65. As is evident from earlier discussion, there is a wide variation in the nature and purpose of international programmes in higher education management and related fields. It is thus improper and invidious to suggest what specific objectives might be, but some significant pointers to good practice nonetheless emerge from the evidence considered :
- it is trite, but fair to say that objectives set ought to have a close relationship with the systemic and individual needs identified earlier in the sequence of programme design and the broad curriculum prospective outlined in paras 8-38.
 - in general, the objectives need to be phrased, not in terms of what the provider is going to provide, but in terms of how, and in what domains, the client(s) is(are) likely to benefit from the experience.
 - as far as policy oriented programmes are concerned, it would therefore be expected that objectives would encompass, in appropriately phrased terminology,
 - a familiarisation experience for participants in terms of the origins and dimensions of the issue, including sub-issues;
 - an identification of broad goals/parameters for the development of specific policy;
 - a consideration of alternative approaches against criteria developed by the group for the purpose;
 - an identification of factors in the development and implementation of a dissemination and action plan;
 - design of criteria for subsequent review
 - strategies for change.

- in the case of programmes with more explicit training purposes, the development of a cadre (loosely or tightly defined) of HE professionals would seem to be the priority. In this event, objectives might well encompass assisting the individual inter alia to
 - review his/her current capability against some relatively stable and appropriate template.
 - acquire relevant knowledge and understanding of a range of issues and skills.
 - acquire relevant competencies in the leadership or management domain, particularly in terms of problem solving and managing change.
 - assess/change attitudes and behaviour in key areas .
 - conceptualise and manage change in a manner sensitive to the particular work situation or policy setting.
 - review individual motivations and avenues of career development.
66. It is apparent to the author that several programmes which already provide good experiences could be even more effective if more attention was paid to objectives relating to particular behaviour change, action and diffusion as a focus for the process rather than employing somewhat woolly aspirations based on people simply meeting and acquiring knowledge. This is not to deny the value of serendipity, but to assert the importance of active learning compared with passive teaching objectives. We should also bear in mind that objectives once set, ought to be capable of fulfilment. This will be considered in the section on Outcome Criteria.
67. Finally, designers may wish to consider what constitutes the distinctive character/mission/ unique selling proposition of their programme, which will impel likely clients. A positive programme identity is a powerful force in conditioning longevity and continuity. In a competitive international market for HE leadership programmes, it could be quite critical for survival. Many of the dimensions of such an identify will be found in this paper.

What are the learning assumptions made to underpin programme design?

68. If we assume that participants in university management leadership programmes are very busy people, immersed in day to day as well as strategic problems of a very specific as well as generic nature and that they have considerable experience and not a little expertise, a number of assumptions regarding the design of a programme immediately fall into place, namely
- the distinguishing feature of an international programme is that it is international. How designers interpret this obvious statement is the interesting question, and a number of dimensions are possible.

- the exercise could be based on an exploration of an international policy issue, such as credit transfer, student exchange or franchising (Model A).
- the exercise could be based on a number of higher education issues which are commonly found across national systems e.g. financial reduction, quality audit, and this could be examined comparatively to exchange information on perceptions and approaches (Model B).
- the exercise could take such generic issues and evaluate precisely how, and with what assumptions, institutions were approaching these issues, and with what effectiveness. This moves way beyond simple exchange of information, and demands careful analysis of performance against objectives. Skills may need to be developed to do this (Model C).
- at its most sophisticated, a programme might seek to move from the above position to identify good practice; why it was good practice; what were the key situational variables; and what could usefully be transplanted or adapted to a different setting (Model D).

All the above are legitimate in their own way. In the longer term, Model D holds out most scope for creative dialogues, and contains most safeguards against indiscriminate adoption of ideas developed elsewhere. It equally makes the most intellectual, analytical and imaginative demands. However, simply exchanging experiences (Model B) whilst interesting, does not make the most of either the occasion or the human resource thus assembled.

- international programmes are difficult in relation to language and terminology, raising operational issues of translation and single language delivery, but also of the precise nuances and meaning of words like audit, delegation etc. Programme designers thus need very explicit assumptions and policies in the linguistic domain.
- given what has already been said about need definition, it follows that programmes should be built around such factors as
 - a real problem-centred orientation and focus.
 - participant ownership of the learning process, and the ability to control the speed and direction of learning, rather than be dictated to by programme directors or dominant stakeholders.
 - the centrality of activity-based learning - project work, case studies, individual and group assignments etc. rather than a succession of non interactive presentations.
 - the respective priorities attached to group/cohort learning as against individual learning, and the consequences for design and scheduling.
 - the use to be made of theory, conceptual frameworks and research to support the analysis of policy and problems, either in methodology or

content; and how theory is integrated into considerations by explaining certain phenomena, or using templates to assess future directions of policy or practice.

- the design of explicit mechanisms to encourage the subsequent transfer of learning back to the university or agency.
- there is a very substantial issue in terms of the extent to which challenge, criticism, scepticism and inquisitiveness is expected of participants. This may well be a cultural variable reflective of the power structure, respect for veneration and hierarchy and other factors. Some programmes are predicated on the assumption of passing on a given set of conventional wisdoms and the “received truth” of authority. Others are predicated on the notion that constructive critique of national, international and institutional policy and practice is healthy as a basis for genuine problem analysis, strategy development, and most important, for the growth of personal competence. Wherever the balance falls, one would expect pedagogy to follow appropriately. Thus, the notion of a “workshop” with 150 participants being subjected to interminable plenary presentations is emphatically neither a workshop nor management development as outlined above. It may on the other hand, be an adequate device for scene setting and information-giving.
- it follows from the above that optimum group size is an important element in learning strategy, which in turn is connected to the core programme objectives. There may be a tension here with the economics of conducting such activities.
- finally, the above discussion will certainly have ramifications for the role of the programme director and tutors. There is a continuum : at some times, they will be purveyors of received knowledge; at other times support persons/facilitators for individual participants with particular problems. and on other occasions facilitators for the generation of policy preferences.

Is the structure of the programme design consistent with the needs of participants and programme objectives?

69. It is entirely consistent with the variation in the purposes of programmes in higher education management that there should be variety in length and structure. However, there are some common factors - senior HE personnel are busy and generally cannot devote extensive time to such programmes; in many systems, management roles are assignments rather than formal steps in an elongated developing career in management. Arising from this, there are some major issues for the programme designer.
- is the total time planned sufficient to realise the objectives of the programme, and also not prohibitively long to deter participants? This is a difficult tension, which can be further exacerbated by devices which have negative consequences such as overcrowding of the schedule; over-lecturing; neglect of time for group and individual reflection.
 - is the programme conceived as a single block of time, or a series of blocks over a longer period - and what longer period? If a longer period, does this admit of

alternate participants from the same organisation? If a programme is designed to shed light on a particular HE policy or management issue, this may well realistically justify a single block, as may be the case for a rapid exposure to a range of ideas for rectors with a limited short term mandate. This is typified by the CRE New Rectors' programme, and the IIEP programmes in Brunei.

Educationally, however, there is much to commend a drip-feed approach, either characterised by a series of blocks for the same cohort, or a cafeteria programme containing a series of stand alone elective courses, each with its own integrity, but with the aggregation comprising a comprehensive management development experience. The former variant is that employed by the OUI/IGLU programme, and is clearly justified by its long pedigree as a respected programme. The latter approach is adopted by for instance, the CHER programme in Europe, the Columbus Project seminar series, and ENSDHE. The compromise is a stable core programme with the addition, ad infinitum, of various blocks based on fresh themes.

- what is the basis of the programme substructure and sequencing? The nature of programme logic needs careful thought. Consistent with the foregoing philosophy would seem to be a sequence encompassing
 - problem/issue definition and analysis.
 - contribution of wider international perspectives on the issue : its incidence elsewhere, dimensions
 - case studies, projects on the issue.
 - identification of approaches in generic terms, again drawing on multi-national perspectives, and strategies to confront the issue in other settings.
 - consideration of the ramifications, possibilities and action in particular situations.
 - individual action plans (see later).

This sequence is capable of much variation in its detailed application.

- how should the content be defined? Good practice would seem to indicate a combination of the analysis: of specific situations and/or roles and the issues arising; review of literature and bibliography; diagnostic conferences, and intuition and judgement.
70. One could occupy considerable space outlining various themes and areas of content, but these are really very much conditional on the above discussion, and would give the impression of prescription which is the last property required of international programmes.

There are doubtless other design criteria which would be applied, but these seem to apply to most situations.

PROCESS CRITERIA

71. This category, it will be recalled, encompasses the range of activities needed on a programme to convert the desiderata established by the design criteria into reality (outputs). They thus constitute ongoing assurances that the transformation processes are working effectively. In this section, we will consider the detailed operational arrangements, in the actual conduct of the programme, and as with the Design Criteria, we shall identify a series of critical indicators, and for each, discuss its nature, the issues involved, and offer examples of good practice derived from the various programmes which provided evidence for this study.

What are the means by which programme participants are recruited and selected?

72. International programmes ought, in theory, to be subject to significant demand, assuming they are perceived to be of high quality, are within a tolerable price range, have not reached the end of their life cycle, and are offered at acceptable times and locations. The programmes under discussion meet these conditions.

Bringing programmes to the notice of potential clients is clearly critical, and in this respect

- the patronage and infrastructure provided by sponsoring organisations and stakeholders should be significant in underwriting the credibility of the programme, and also providing an immediately accessible network and pool of applicants.
 - accurate information needs to be made available to enable prospective participants to decide whether to apply or not. This would seem to include the demands which an international programme is going to make on the participant beyond mere physical attendance - language, prior preparations and work, access to institutional information, and perhaps university commitment to project work or action associated with the programme. This is vital in terms of subsequent commitment and co-operation.
73. There is usually an optimum range of participant numbers for an international university leadership programme, given its declared objectives and pedagogic methods. The more action oriented the programme, the more likelihood is there of less than 30 participants, usually in multiples of 5 or 6, being the optimum size for small support groups. Within this quantum the programme should also be clear about desired gender balance; institutional/national balance; linguistic capability; level of experience required; and the mix and level of positions of responsibility sought. Another factor needing to be taken into account is whether any preferential treatment is given to previous subscribers (a "club" aspect of the programme).
74. The locus of selection decisions in such programmes is normally vested in the controlling co-ordinating committee such as the IGLU Council. However, one quite important factor for international sponsors or patrons such as UNESCO is whether particular people or universities need to be included in the programme participants to support the development of other projects or institutional development in the region. This is especially significant where the organisation concerned has funding to sponsor a

given number of applicants, as CRE has done (via its own, UNESCO and EU funding) for university leaders in Eastern and Central Europe, for instance.

How do participants prepare themselves for the programme?

75. If management development in its various guises is to be a serious contributor to personal growth and organisational development, it follows that the scheduled activity itself is only a stage in the programme, and that participants should be well prepared psychologically and conceptually for the experience. Good practice abounds in this area, and contains the following elements
- very clear briefings on the nature of the programme; its assumptions regarding the learning process; its schedule; the expectations of the participants by the programme leaders in terms of their active contribution to the exercise; the obligation to be assiduous in attendance and to be supportive of their colleague participants; and the general ground rules.
 - the request for, and provision of, biographic details of participants and tutors : their careers; their particular expertise of relevance to the topics of the programme; their own expectations of and needs from the programme.
 - pertinent background reading relevant to the programme themes : key articles, books, monographs etc. The judgement of “how much” is a difficult one, since busy university leaders will tend not to read too much in advance, other than on the aircraft on their way to the seminar venue! Highly selective short pieces seems to be the consensus, with clear instructions as to what must essentially be prepared, in order not to waste valuable group discussion time.
 - international meetings can waste much valuable time also by exchanging factual descriptions of each others’ systems. Whilst the understanding of such things is a preliminary to their accurate interpretation, much can be provided beforehand, for reference purposes, in
 - brief country profiles of HE systems
 - more substantial country reports, such as those carried out by OECD
 - brief questionnaires of participants (3-4 pages) asking for basic factual information on their own national university systems; funding patterns; governance structures; quality audit mechanisms; accountability; student statistics etc. These have the advantage of requiring participants to research their own systems, which frequently enables then to unearth some unexpected findings. CRE has excellent examples of this method.
 - if much work is to be done on institutional problems defined by participants, then the preparation of brief institutional profiles is a valuable source of background information and ongoing reference - mission; student and staff profiles; institutional structures and key roles; financial sources and trends; academic structures; research profile etc.

- the foregoing is closely related to the preparation by participants of evaluations/ appraisals of their own organisations, or specific issues relating to the themes of the programme e.g. internationalisation, financial planning. These could take the form of pro-forma analyses; so called SWOT analyses; case studies etc., and will be discussed later. The aim is clearly to base as much of the programme as possible on participants' own agendas, rather than on more abstract generalisations given by tutors. It follows that the more thorough this preparation, the more the participant is likely to get from the programme, assuming these are central foci of programme work.
 - the preparation of presentations on certain topics.
76. The commitment of participants to the programme is critical, and the consensus seems to be that this is greatly enhanced by appropriate combinations of the above devices which should go a long way to securing ownership of the learning process by participants. It follows that probably 3 months should be allowed for this lead-in process, with very clear guidelines and pro-formas. Ideally, participants should then receive a dossier of materials c. 1 month before the commencement of the programme.

What means have been evolved to develop the group as an effectively working group?

77. An international group coming together for the first time will rarely function effectively immediately. Most of the research on group processes confirm that this is a natural state of affairs, and that groups tend to go through a number of phases, for instance
- forming : initial discoveries about each other's knowledge, agendas, personalities, styles of behaviour, and personal resources
 - storming : testing these patterns of behaviour, pushing personal agendas and styles, establishing through practice what is tolerable or intolerable
 - norming : establishment of acceptable ways of working together, both in terms of task and process, and personal interactions
 - performing : actually realising the purposes of the meeting, as defined in the objectives which might be policy development, knowledge exchange or skill acquisition
78. One critical task therefore, for programme organisers is to accelerate the movement of groups through these four phases and this is clearly a problem on a short seminar. A number of other negative factors may also need to be overcome, which may make progress beyond the "storming" phase problematic. These include factors intrinsic to any international gathering, as well as more idiosyncratic "blocking" behaviours, including
- linguistic difficulties
 - differences in interpretation of concepts and terms

- varying degrees of sophistication in university and institutional systems
 - possible international - or inter-institutional rivalries within the group, often based on long standing cultural or ethnic differences
 - dysfunctional personal behaviour by particular individuals (aggression, ego-assertion, blocking, withdrawal etc.).
79. As far as linguistic differences are concerned, a range of possibilities are open. One is merely to specify proficiency in a dominant language which will be that used on the programme - usually English in UNESCO, CRE programmes; Spanish on Project Columbus programmes; French in IGLU etc. for small number of participants not comfortable with the dominant language, individual translators to assist in plenary sessions may be used ("whispering in the ear"). For large meetings, simultaneous translation becomes an economical and practical alternative for plenary discussions, but less so for small group work. Ideally, for genuine multi-language programmes (OECD, EU), simultaneous translation is excellent, accompanied by documentation available in each language, and the use of clear overhead transparencies means that non fluent speakers may still be able to read and understand visual presentations, even though they may not be able to participate verbally at a high level. In Columbus programmes, participants may well be able to talk in Spanish or Portuguese and understand colleagues talking in the other language and the same is usually true in the Baltic/Nordic group.
80. Regarding concepts and terms, it may be possible to use basic glossaries of key items, but this tends to be rare, because of the practicalities. Accurate definitions by participants, and helpful interventions by tutors with terminological clarification is probably more effective
81. Several programmes have adopted so-called Orientation phases as a means of overcoming some of the other problems mentioned above. In a multi-block programme (e.g. IGLU) this naturally would comprise Block I. In single block programmes of say, 5 days, this phase would normally take c. ¼ day (e.g. CRE New Rectors' programme; Latin American Columbus Rectors programme), and would include
- normal introductions to programme design and behavioural expectations of participants
 - formal mechanisms for bringing members' agendas, expectations, and personal expertise into the open, for everyone's benefit including a classification of group expertise under the various thematic headings of the programme, so that advice may be freely sought and given
 - a carefully conceived, constructed and conducted group dynamics exercise at the outset, designed to examine processes of group behaviour and leadership in a non threatening manner, and to draw out general principles of good practice which would condition the operation of the group itself thereafter, as well as being capable of general application. This has been found in CRE/Columbus cases to be most effective in reducing subsequent dysfunctional behaviour.

International, inter-institutional or ethnic rivalries may well be contained by the above, but probably require external vigilance by programme leaders, and the readiness to step in immediately with urgent counselling should the occasion demand it.

In which practical ways is “internationalism” manifested in multi-national programmes?

82. As has been observed already, there should be quite clear ‘value added’ dimensions by bringing together participants from many different national and institutional settings, (see para 68 where four distinct Models were proposed). In terms of the processes deployed to give effect to these Models, the following are especially noteworthy in the various programmes considered:
- the theme of “Internationalisation in Higher Education” itself. This is often explored in terms of an international policy issue, such as student exchanges or credit transfer where contributions to the future development of the policy may be made, and where the sponsors may be an international organisation (e.g. EU) with a close interest in the greater effectiveness of that policy. The approach may be based on the implementation of the policy by institutions involved therein. Alternatively the approach may focus on the development of international strategy at university level, and here the attention may be on models of strategy formation, strategies in different settings, factors inhibiting or facilitating the realisation of international policy etc.
 - the selection of themes for an international programme should clearly be ones which activate the interest and commitment of participants, and, as is evident from the initial sections of this Report, there are a wide range of generic themes to choose from, in terms of contexts, systems and institutional policies and practices. However, one issue which needs to be recognised is that participants come at a common issue from different standpoints : what is very familiar to one group may be quite new to another. For example, some universities have been heavily involved in quality evaluation (internal and external) for several years, whereas for others, it is a new phenomenon just appearing on the horizon. What people can contribute - or receive - from an interchange will vary considerably, and programme leaders will need to work out mechanisms for increasing the learning of both groups as far as possible, to prevent the possibility of frustration. However, assuming group norms have been sufficiently well developed as was discussed earlier, this should be manageable.
 - learning materials used should clearly reflect a range of national and institutional settings, and experiences pertinent to the needs of participants and issues under discussion. There is much to be said for a variety of learning materials encompassing varying learning assumptions. The programmes conducted by IIEP in Brunei and Mauritius for instance, on resource allocation and financial management have developed some fine computer based simulations on financial planning and management, which provide a neutral, yet familiar base for participants to explore these issues. IGLU/OUI now has a very comprehensive resource base of cases and learning materials, which may be used continuously on successive programmes, with great effect. The CRE New Rectors Programme, the Columbus Latin American Rectors programme however take a different line. Instead of using tutor-prepared cases or

simulations, work is based on materials prepared by participants themselves. These may be real life case studies, usually not yet resolved, focused on participants' own universities, where context and problems are defined, and where small groups constitute themselves as "consultants" to probe, constructively criticise and advise the case author, who, in effect, plays the role of the "client". The roles are subsequently reversed, of course.

These programmes also require participants to complete before the programme meets, a so-called "SWOT" analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) on their institution - or their portfolio within it - accompanied by an Organisation Improvement Plan indicating proposed planning priorities arising from the analysis. This is again subject to the same treatment as in the preceding paragraph, and in both techniques, tutors will draw out points of generalisation in problem/strategy content and management process which may be used subsequently for everyone's benefit.

The assumptions in all this are that training is more effective if people are working on their own problems; that such mechanisms involve all participants in a constructive collaboration with their colleague participants drawing on a wide range of international experience; and that there is enhanced scope for translating learning's back to the job and university. Programmes, of course, would need to evolve clear and acceptable ground rules for participants in terms of confidentiality of information and circumstances for disclosure.

- several programmes employ visits to various countries as an integral part of the learning process, to expose participants to different settings and require them to think about the relationship of settings and context to issue and strategy. The multi-national group OECD Study Visits to USA 1993 (Financial Reduction) and 1995 (Entrepreneurial University) as well as the Columbus Study Visits to European 1991-94 (Academic Quality; Technology Transfer) demonstrate the efficacy of this.
- coupled with this is the growing practice of investigatory projects on a particular theme based on specific institutions as case studies. Here the participants constitute themselves as a review team (consultants, advisers) and will analyse the issue from various perspectives, using documentation and "witnesses" provided by the institution(s). They will prepare a critique and recommendations, for the use of the host institution, using their great wealth of experience and expertise drawn from many international settings. Again, immensely useful perspectives may be gained by the participants for use in their own institutions, especially if the universities investigated are state of the art, or well advanced in respect of the theme. IGLU/OUI has set up such projects in Miami and Brazil and Columbus in Mexico and Argentina. The CRE New Rectors' programme has now conducted twelve such investigations. Again, careful ground rules on confidentiality and interviewer codes of conduct need to be formulated.
- the above however whilst sophisticated is relatively high risk compared with the more traditional case studies which are much more tutor control. A very well articulated framework for the above is needed, which encompasses : clear learning philosophy; explicit procedures and guidelines for cases and SWOTs; a

robust analytical framework, tightly controlled, for investigatory projects; committed and well briefed participants; institutions sufficiently brave/mature to host such reviews and use them positively for developmental purposes.

- whilst there does not seem to be widespread evidence of this at present, apart from IGLU/OUI, internships spent attached to may be rector's offices in other countries would seem to constitute a magnificent and challenging experience, which would not only give excellent insights into good practice elsewhere, but also sharpen skills of organisational analysis, managing in different settings etc. The American Council of Education Leadership and other country-based programmes (Fincher 1992) use this method, but its international potential is considerable. The author's experience as concurrent Pro Vice Chancellor in both an UK and Australian University bears this out.

83. Given the advances in distance pedagogy, there would seem to be some potential in using the media as an ingredient in the delivery of international programmes. However, one would need to be suitably cautious regarding the scope of its use, and here, we return to the nature of the initial objectives. If the aim of a programme is to provide factual information, together with high quality discussion material on a wide range of higher education themes, such as international policy, strategic management, resource management etc., the Open University in UK has demonstrated this can be done excellently. It is also quite possible to develop interactive materials and simulations on institutional planning, leadership styles etc. which can easily be used in a distance mode. What is much more difficult is to

- hold a genuine dialogue on major policy lacunae, with a view to developing comprehensive international policy directions, or
- conduct sessions on a "client - consultant" basis described earlier

Internationalism is about genuine exchange, dialogue and cross-fertilisation, but the scope for distance learning contributions is clearly there for exploration on such programmes.

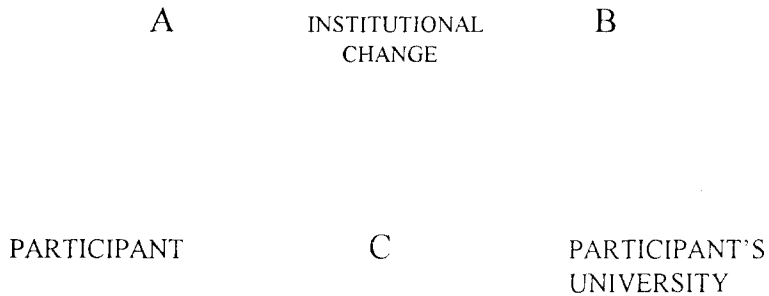
By what means does the curriculum and method of the programme prepare participants for the subsequent transfer of good ideas and practice back to their organisation?

84. Programmes such as we are discussing may be well conceived, constructed and delivered, and may be enjoyable and intellectually stimulating, but not much may happen as a consequence, despite aims and objectives which proclaim all manner of advantages and outcomes. Such shortfalls in consequences may be alleviated by the adoption of certain curriculum and method processes, including the following

- a well articulated framework for the analysis of situational variables and a consideration of the issues involved in the cross-cultural transfer of approaches. Universities create solutions to problems recognising the precise context in which they are operating. In the exchange of perspectives which is common on such programmes, participants need to be aware of the issues in transplanting solutions which apparently work in one setting to another. These will encompass assumptions about the autonomy and authority of leadership, capacity for institutional change, local political and micropolitical structures etc.

- helpful guidelines on the management of institutional change, including analysis of organisational dynamics; resistance to change; role and types of institutional change agent; processes of policy formation, the legitimisation of policy proposals, and the implementation of policy.
- related skill training
- a conceptual view of an university as a “learning organisation”
- specific slots within programmes which force participants to look systematically at their own situations, and to present for the critical scrutiny of others, policy proposals e.g. through cases, SWOTs (CRE), action plans (ENSDHE) etc.
- there is an exceptional form of programme design (not in our sample) which basis the entirety of learning on real-life strategic action projects which the participant will work at in the university and programme over a series of 4/5 linked blocks of 5 or so days spread over a year, and where tutors and other participants are solely concerned with providing intellectual and social support. This is a most exciting type of programme to run, but of comparatively high risk for all concerned. It is to be hoped this Action Learning type programme will be soon credited
- work on substantial projects based on their own universities throughout the duration of the programme. This is clearly more productive if a block structure prevails, which facilitates a phased approach to the project investigation and the implementation of changes arising therefrom. The IGLU/OUI programme has developed this aspect particularly systematically to great advantage.
- if participants are returning to their universities from the programme with various good ideas for institutional development, the question arises of the preparedness of the university to be receptive to policy change. This partly depends on the status of the participant in the hierarchy and his/her actual authority and instruments of power. If the participant is not a rector or vice-chancellor, the backing and patronage of the rector has to be ideally obtained. The rector's style or policies may well be one of the problems creating the need for change, in which case the programme is potentially subversive! There is in short, a triangular relationship which needs exploration -

PROGRAMME



and various critical activities on all three axes are necessary to ensure effective transfer of learning

85. It is, of course, appreciated that not all the above will be appropriate for each programme, or type of programme. A 3 day seminar is quite a different proposition to a 4 block programme spread over 12 months. The basic question, though, still holds good - how is transfer of learning structured/intended to take place?

How is programme monitoring and evaluation to be achieved?

86. This is an area which again needs to be sensitive to the nature, complexities and sophistication of the programme concerned, and much of what is observed amongst the various programmes is typical of good practice or any developmental project whether international or not.

Monitoring processes during a programme tend to be of a relatively and effective standard format, namely

- spot checks at the end of each session to ascertain general levels of satisfaction with content, process and style.
- checkpoints at the end of each day to ascertain whether any readjustment of curriculum design, speed or method is required to facilitate the learning process.
- the above being carried out normally by programme leaders with the whole group, but occasionally via a smaller consultative group.

The possibility of fundamental adjustment and redirection tends to be more limited in the case of programmes with a high proportion of visiting one-off speakers who are travelling considerable distances, and with programmes whose organisation is predicated on tightly planned and controlled multi-phase simulations. Much adjustment and redirection would not be particularly to be expected if the preliminary design were the outcome of intensive and consensually based consultation with clients, especially important on an international programme where perceptions and expectations may vary.

87. The Evaluation processes of these programmes similarly tend to display many common features, namely

- questionnaires handed out to participants at the commencement of the programme for completion en route and collection at the end.
- the questionnaires normally focus on the extent of satisfaction with the
 - (1) presentation and practical application of the various themes and constituent sessions
 - (2) identification of the most useful/challenging; least useful/challenging aspects
 - (3) evaluation of general elements, such as documentation, methodology, organisation
 - (4) identification of actions likely to be undertaken by participants post-programme, including co-operative ventures with others in the network
 - (5) suggestions for programme balance, new topics; new activities; follow-up, improvement
 - (6) extent to which programme objectives were met.

The use of rating scales is common here, and space is normal for personal observations which might relate to perceptions of individual growth and development; new contacts; and expanded knowledge of issues

- an evaluation session with participants (and where appropriate attended by sponsors) to work through the above, where the sponsor is an organisation such as EU, CRE, UNESCO or Columbus.

88. It is possible to go beyond these relatively common approaches, provided that the programme management has access to wider constituencies; the longevity of life to be able to undertake longitudinal studies across a succession of programmes; and the level of resources. In this case, we would find evaluations containing evidence from

- participants over a long period. In the case of IGLU/OUI, a 50% return from a six year period was obtained.

- institutions who had sponsored senior staff on international leadership programmes.
- international sponsors

In these cases, the evidence sought would be very much that contained in the next major section of this Report on Output Criteria - the “value-added” elements of programme operation.

89. The programmes we are discussing are designed, of course, for senior staffs of institutions and related agencies, and an interesting question is whether their work or performance as participants is/should be evaluated, assessed or accredited in any meaningful way. At present, this does not tend to be a major feature. Good practice thus far would seem to include
- observations, guidance and critiques of presented participants’ papers, cases, SWOTs and projects etc. (CRE, Columbus, IGLU/OUI)
 - feedback on action plans.
 - formalised or informal counselling.
 - credit given for written work which could be used in a credit accumulation process towards a certificated qualification e.g. a Masters degree in Higher Education. This exists in principle on the TEMPUS funded programme conducted by the Council of Higher Education Researchers - CHER, but is unlikely to be widespread for senior leaders as long as such roles are not thought to be a career, and given the limited take-up of credit accumulation at higher degree level internationally.

These issues are also picked up under Outcome Criteria.

What should be the organisational base for the delivery of such international programmes?

90. Conducting programmes which have senior leadership as the clientele, which deal with significant international issues; which are concerned with strategic management as the key focus; and which often constitute a continuing service over many years, clearly presents a considerable challenge for programme organisation and staffing. Several important indicators emerge in this context
- the effective operation of an international programme needs a stable organisational base. This involves a coherent sponsoring network which can provide necessary backing, a pool of potential participants, access to key documentation, a marketing framework, and a source of ongoing credibility and legitimacy. UNESCO, CRE, Columbus are excellent examples of such a base.
 - parallel with such a network is the availability of a centre of international excellence in higher education or higher education policy/management, or indeed a consortium of centre. Thus, the Centre for Higher Education

Research and Development (CHERD) at the University of Manitoba forms the base for SUMA; the Centre for Higher Education Management at Danbury Park, UK (CHEM) plays a similar role for the CRE and Columbus Rectors' programmes; and the Free University of Berlin for ENSDHE. The Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies at Twente acts as the basis for the consortium which delivers the Tempus Higher Education Leadership programme. IGLU has four co-operating centres in Latin America as an additional dimensions.

This centre idea is important as a focus for higher education research, accessing relevant literature; providing the necessary learning resources - cases, notes, etc.; providing and training tutors etc.

- a governing mechanism is needed to bring together the interests of the various stakeholders in terms of policy determination and overall co-ordination. Thus IGLU has its IGLU Council, for this purpose, and similar arrangements appertain elsewhere.
- the geographical base/location for the delivery of the programme needs careful thought, and relevant factors are : travel access for international participants; good and reliable local administration; high quality teaching and living accommodation in close proximity to facilitate rest when needed; high quality learning facilities; sufficient distance from city centres so that the "bright lights" do not pose a counter-attraction to the programme itself; and cost.
- Also if the programme incorporates field investigations at host universities, the adequacy of the host universities in this respect needs assessment, including : the scope and relevance of the topic; proposal for the investigation; its manageability in the time available; the willingness and efficiency of the university in preparing documentation, "witnesses"; and the openness and preparedness of the university in considering recommendations provided by the group.

What are the factors involved in the effective staffing of the programme?

91. Since the programmes concerned are international in nature, this ought, by definition, to be reflected in staffing. Thus,
 - the tutorial team delivering the programme should be multi-national in nature, to ensure familiarity with perspectives derived from different systems, but also with the nature of international policy agendas and trends. Some of this experience may be needed from countries outside the programme's immediate constituency, where experience and detailed knowledge of a particular phenomenon may not be evident, especially in the case of a new/emerging issue.
 - there should, in the case of more or less permanent programmes, be an adequate pool of tutors from which people are selected and rotated, also reflecting a gender balance. These increasingly, may be drawn from past participants on the programme, with proper induction and preparation e.g. CRE.

- the nature of the programmes discussed above seems to require a formidable set of characteristics in the tutorial team, including management experience in the field appropriate to the purposes of the programme; detailed knowledge in specialist areas; presentational skills; adaptability; a “student-centred” style; and well developed skills of counselling/consulting. The ability to work in a multi-national context is clearly important coupled with the capacities of being able to avoid country-based anecdotalism and to be able to tease out situational variables. Language proficiency may also be vital, given the specific context. The chances of finding all these qualities in one person are slim - hence the importance of team selection and subsequent team development.
- collective and individual training/preparation/development sessions for team members in competencies pertinent to the programme, and also in styles of teamwork is fundamental. CHEM at Danbury fulfils this function for CRE and Columbus Rectors’ programmes, and CHERD for SUMA.
- the selection of the tutorial team is thus critical, and the transparency, legitimacy and effectiveness of the process needs to be thought about. It follows that the programme directors’ role needs careful thought in relation to the above.
- one might finally reflect, of course, that such programmes as we are discussing comprise senior university personnel as participants. In this case, participants, in effect, are continually offering interesting ideas, and are quasi-tutors themselves. ENSDHE confirms this as the central plank in its operations, a distinctive feature of the networked programme.

OUTPUT CRITERIA

92. This category of indicators is essentially concerned with identifying the consequences or outcomes of the particular programme. These may be considered in the terms of the various stakeholders : the individual participant, the organisation from which he/she comes and the sponsors, as outlined earlier. It is evident that gains may be sought and evident in the short term, normally in the form of benefits to programme participants, but these should have succeeding benefits over a much longer term to individuals, the organisations from which they come, and over a much wider domain, in terms of shifts of practice across whole systems.
93. This category is undoubtedly the most difficult, since
- there is a cascade effect of benefits from person to group to institution to system and identifying cause and effect is troublesome
 - the longer the period over which outcomes are assessed, the more difficult it becomes to isolate the precise causes of a particular change or development.
 - obtaining accurate comparisons between succeeding programmes is difficult since programmes rightly evolve over time.
 - precise information on a particular outcome is notoriously difficult to collect and assess, especially given other variables.

This difficulty is reflected in the relatively limited amount of activity and energy which programmes expend in output evaluation, with some notable exceptions. Some of this has been briefly commented on in the latter issues under Process Criteria. Nonetheless, what we can usefully do here is at least to propose a series of questions which programme leaders should reasonably ask of themselves and their operations in a pragmatic manner.

As has already been indicated, programmes do have aims and objectives, and these clearly ought to be a helpful starting point for this discussion. The robustness and legitimacy of the objectives in terms of the various stakeholders then becomes an imperative if effective review of outcomes is to occur.

Is there systematic evidence to indicate the programme has brought about gains in individual knowledge levels, acquisition of relevant competencies and attitude/behaviour change?

94. Many programmes are predicated on aims and objectives which address the above, and the nature and status of such statements are discussed in the section on Design Criteria. To provide evidence that gains have occurred however, is a difficult challenge, since
- senior university leaders are mature managers, and not to be equated with undergraduates as subjects in the learning process

- unlike some qualification postgraduate programmes (e.g. MBA) where objective entry tests, entry profiles of students are constructed (e.g. G-MAT), this is not generally considered a sensitive thing to do with senior leaders, most of whom are voluntary participants - and the same thing would also apply for exit profiles. These would tend to be considered threatening and demeaning, and for relatively short workshops, either overkill or inappropriate. The use of control groups who are not programme participants is similarly likely to be very difficult.

Considerable care is thus needed in this domain.

95. Nonetheless, some interesting approaches (McDade and Lewis 1994) may be found in the use of some self administered instruments relating to personal perceptions of capabilities or attitudes in, for instance, leadership style, motivation, attitudes to specified organisational characteristics etc. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is considered helpful in giving perspectives on leadership type as well as personality type, and through its sixteen categories provides a useful vehicle for also launching into discussions on institutional culture. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Style Inventory gives insights into the role of personal style in creating interpersonal stress. The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour test (FIRO-B) does the same, whilst the Kirton Adaptation-Innovation Inventory is helpful in exploring leadership creativity and innovation - clearly useful in situations of organisational uncertainty and opportunity. The systematic completion of these by participants (or indeed their colleagues in the university!) before and after a programme component designed to explore such elements could certainly give some evidence of some movement both at individual and cohort level. Competencies and skills may be more difficult to get at, since the skills in question are rarely technical or mechanical, but more likely political and inter-personal - and these are built up over experience, rather than infused in a 2/3 day period. Exceptions would tend to be those connection with IT/qualitative proficiencies where these were the subject of international gatherings.
96. Short of this situation, programmes tend to rely on pre- and post questionnaires which simply invite the participants to comment on whether or not personal gain or improvement can be discerned or experienced. This would seem to be an area in which the major question is fair and reasonable, (given the stated objectives - which are also probably fair and reasonable), but the means of deriving objective evidence (given constraints of time, sensitivity and context) are likely to be problematical. However, there is certainly scope for improvement, and the adaptation of methods from in-service education and the wider world of management development is likely to be fruitful.

Is there evidence to demonstrate the career development of participants?

97. Many programmes will not have this as an objective. Similarly, senior university management roles in many universities and systems are not conceived as stages or destinations in career progression, so that the rectorship or deanship is an assignment (often elective) to be undertaken on behalf of colleagues, with reluctance and a sense of duty.

Having said this

- some international programmes may be conceived as preparations for senior management.
- having participated in programmes, members may well feel better prepared in many respects to assume more senior positions. An international programme should certainly provide a much broader perspective of visions, strategic options and international trends than a purely national one.

It is thus not difficult to collect evidence relating to this aspect, through pre-course application forms; biopics, and discussions during the programme, and recording subsequently who career moves are made. This is clearly easier with a flourishing alumnus organisation, and the IGLU/OUI model is a good example of this.

Is there systematic evidence to demonstrate change and development in the participants' organisations as a result of the programme?

98. This, of course, relies heavily on a number of pre-conditions some of which have been outlined under Process Criteria, including : familiarly of senior colleagues with the purposes of the programme; backing of senior staff, especially rector, support of Ministry/agency where possible; training in leadership of change, design of change processes etc.; and appropriate pedagogical devices designed to facilitate transfer of learning in explicit ways.

It is ideally desirable to record the condition of the institution (or its part) in respect of a particular phenomenon before the programme commences, but this is practicably difficult.

It ought nonetheless to be possible for programme leaders with participants and colleagues to assess after the programme inter alia,

- how far action plans have been implemented.
 - how far the outcomes projected from such devices as SWOT analyses have been realised.
 - how far models of “best practice” developed on the programme have been put into operation.
 - how far there have been changes in operating leadership style and culture as a result of the programme.
 - what new projects have been set up.
 - the cascade of acquired ideas, techniques and policies throughout the organisation. This raises questions of debriefing mechanisms, staff development, mentoring etc. (UNESCO 1993)
99. Inevitably, progress in most cases will be partial, and any analysis will need to try to disentangle the causes of partial success. In some cases, it may be that the plans were far too ambitious over too short a timescale (which may say something about the

quality of advice offered on the programme). It may be that models of "best practice" have been portrayed without discrimination for the situational variables - or that they were flawed. It may be that the internal/external political culture proved to be an insuperable barrier to the adoption of change ... and so on.

100. The mechanisms for such reviews are many and varied, encompassing questionnaires to participants after 3 months, 6 months or 12 months, focusing on
- stated developmental aims
 - extent of completion
 - explanations and commentary
 - any implications for programme design arising.

If funds allow, these could be supplemented by visits of the tutorial team who are trained evaluators to all or some of the participants' institutions. This is likely to be difficult in the case of international programmes, because of escalated costs, though it is possible that officers of sponsoring international agencies may be able to assist. One should similarly not underestimate problems at the institutional end: reluctance to admit non or limited achievement, the limited terms of office of senior leaders; unwillingness to take risks and the effort involved. One should on the other hand neither underestimate the very valuable information which such reviews can yield if conducted over several programme, so that reasonable trends and patterns may be detected, as distinct from one-off phenomena. Perspectives are certainly provided on the long term effectiveness of the programme and its various design characteristics and processes, which should lead to improvements in both domains - the feedback loop. Perspectives also are discernible on the long-term effect of the programmes on participants' organisations, especially where programmes have had a clear mission message and position in respect of various higher education phenomena, such as institutional quality review; mechanisms for technology transfer; or the development of a strategic management culture. In this case, programmes genuinely act as agents of change, and the only caveat one would add is that they should not become prescriptive or doctrinaire in relation to a particular theme. A corollary is also that fresh policy agendas should always be emerging from such reviews - for the wider international community as well as for programme leaders. This is an useful criterion for assessing the status of a programme: is it widely acknowledged as a powerhouse of new and challenging ideas?

Is there evidence of enhanced international collaboration as a result of the programme?

101. This ought to be certainly demonstrable in terms of the way in which the programme has been designed and conducted, so that the exchange of international perspectives should be a major feature. Whether or not post-programme collaboration is evident depends on whether this was a specific programme aim (in which case it is fair to judge the programme thus) or whether it happens by serendipity (in which case it is probably not unreasonable to count it as a bonus!)

102. In the case of programmes with precise international outcome objectives (such as some of those conducted recently by CRE and IMHE-OECD in Eastern and Central Europe), outcomes may certainly be sought in areas such as

- institutional agreements covering a wide range of activities
- student exchanges
- joint research
- staff exchanges
- equipment agreements and technical aid

which are likely to be between programme participants' organisations .

However, outcomes may also be sought in

- collaborative research activities in higher education as a topic
- international task groups for the preparation of policy analyses
- international support groups and advisory services
- international publications

What “after sales service” is provided by the programme?

103. The more sophisticated and thoughtful of programmes will not assume their responsibilities and obligations to programme participants and sponsors concludes soon after the final course dinner. One of the characteristics of Quality oriented programmes is “client or customer care”, and there is no reason why highly professional organisations such as universities and higher education agencies should not do this rather well. This is justifiable on groups of both professionalism, and also of investment in future goodwill and therefore ongoing business. It is a means of marketing programmes, and thus ensuring their continuity.

104. A variety of outputs may be sought here, which include

- alumnus organisation
- a programme publication and newsletter
- follow-up workshops on aspects of the same or related topics as the main programme - for the same group of people internationally; for similar networks within member countries; as a cascade to a wide range of other participants, probably using programme alumni as tutors or associates. This activity helps to consolidate the training acquired.
- “preferential treatment” for universities sending a succession of people to programmes. This is most beneficial all round, since programme leaders

develop an in-depth understanding of particular universities, which is beneficial in terms of the quasi-consulting role which many programmes espouse

- availability of consultancy/advisory services to participants after the formal conclusion of the programme. This may, of course, be provided by tutors or participants, and especially bears fruit where programmes have a mechanism for capturing and cataloguing the expertise and experience of participants, in relation to particular higher education policy and management themes. This is a feature certainly of the CRE New Rectors' programme, and IIEP's programme in Brunei, whilst ENSDHE is very active in the exchange of materials.
- publications to a wider audience. Such international programmes are often in the forefront of exploring new and emerging agendas both in higher education policy and also institutional management. The dissemination of the outcomes, in terms of the analyses of these agendas, and the propagation of recommended good practice is a significant contribution to the increase of understanding and confidence in dealing with ambiguous and complex issues. Typical outcomes here may include proceedings, case studies, manuals of good practice, training materials translated into relevant regional languages etc. IGLU/OUI is particularly active in this respect via the University of Quebec Press, and some of the planned Columbus publications will clearly benefit a much wider audience than just participants.

105. Having outlined all these criteria/proposed areas of programme effectiveness, the fact still remains that assessing programme outcomes is a difficult process for reasons quoted earlier. Nonetheless, it needs to be done as far as it practicably possible, and impressions of outcomes are probably better than none at all.

CONCLUSION

106. This paper has attempted to develop a framework of indicators for the design, monitoring and evaluation of international programmes in higher education management. Again, it should not be forgotten that improving managerial performance is not just a function of training programmes, but is a compound of many other complex factors interrelating with each other. There remains the other element in the objectives, namely the use of the framework in terms of activities associated with the UNITWIN/UNESCO chairs' programme. Launched by UNESCO in 1991, as an international plan of action for strengthening higher education in developing countries through appropriate mechanisms of inter-university co-operation, this programme had 83 Chair agreements signed at the end of 1994, with a further 65 under consideration. These cover a whole range of subject areas with eight agreements signed within the broad area of higher education management development signed, and three under discussion.
107. The scope of these mechanisms for inter-institutional networking and co-operation involves
- graduate studies and research
 - international development programmes, which whilst based at a particular location are broad enough to cater for (sub)regional needs
 - a contribution to the development and quality enhancement of institutions of higher education in the development countries
 - the attraction of internationally recognised scholars and researchers, thence transferring knowledge, assistance and expertise in a way which is intended to be regionally applicable.

The UNITWIN/UNESCO rubric requires "constant evaluation and monitoring" and "a periodic progress report".

108. It is proposed that the framework developed in this paper should form the basis for such a review process, and that the framework might usefully form that of the design criteria when such programmes are initially conceived, and evaluated for approval, in that the framework provides
- a perspective of generic issue in the management area which might be addressed
 - a quality model sensitive to the socio-cultural settings of particular Chairs
 - a set of design, process and output criteria which are comprehensive, but by no means prescriptive or descriptive, and can be adapted to local conditions
109. If acceptable in the contexts of both international programmes generally, and UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs specifically, it may be useful to conduct a series of workshops in different regions to disseminate the model and its application.

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