Knowledge Area Module 6

International Learning Institutions: Organization, Purpose, Goals, and Missions

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KAM Introduction

This KAM applies to my self-designed doctoral program, with a particular emphasis on international distance learning and transcultural issues in education. This KAM helped to fortify my understanding of issues and trends concerning international learning organizations, especially as they apply to international and domestic institutions of higher education and matters of social change and equity.

For the Breadth component, I examined current issues, trends, and methods in learning institutions of higher education, including how global, multicultural, and technological developments have altered methods of instruction and the way education is administered, with a particular emphasis on adult learning in international environments. As I considered the implications for expanded learning opportunities worldwide, it laid a foundation for the Depth examination of contemporary methods and problems in international learning. For the Depth component, I considered how international learning institutions might be impacted by global, cultural, social, technological, and fiscal influences, as they adapt to the challenges and opportunities of distance learning and the internationalization of education.

For the Application component, I integrated the research and findings from the Breadth and Depth components, as well as additional relevant materials, toward an article on expanded opportunities for international higher education enabled through new technologies, to be submitted to *The Journal of Distance Learning Administration.*

Knowledge Area Module 6

International Learning Institutions: Organization, Purpose, Goals, and Missions

Breadth Component

EDUC 8610: Organization of Learning Institutions

Breadth Introduction

The Breadth component of this KAM examines the challenges, objectives, goals, strategies, and tactics facing leaders, administrators, faculty, students, and other stakeholders with an interest in international higher education. These broad headings necessarily encompass many factors including the market forces of globalization, increasing competition, diminishing budgets, burgeoning demand, transformative technologies, rooted traditions, curriculum renovation, pedagogical innovation, academic freedoms, universal access to learning, evolving governance, faculty reformation, as well as quality protections and overall equity.

Rather than treat these factors as distinct and isolable, the Breadth and Depth components of this KAM will interweave them as they interrelate in often overlapping categories of challenges, policy, strategy, tactics, and so on. In this effort, the discourse attempts to construct a spiral rather than a mere repetition of issues, drilling through layers of breadth, depth, and ultimately to application. This may provide a fuller sense of the multidimensional academic frontlines in lieu of a simpler linear and more categorical progression. That, alas, was the aim if not the ultimate end. The architectural problem is further compounded in that though the most pressing issues in academia are accelerating at an urgent pace, the institutional response is often parsimoniously measured. That frequently makes it difficult to contrast the profound nature of the need with the incongruently mild reaction. However, while the reforms in academia may move at a glacial crawl, it is possible to seek at least a sense of where and in what ways the glacier might be advancing or receding.

The Challenge

Leaders of academia are facing new challenges and opportunities unparalleled throughout the history of education. The following sections will consider the role of higher education in a rapidly changing world, the increasing demand for educational opportunities, and ways of meeting that demand.

The World Setting

The United States has found itself as global role model in the design and delivery of higher education (Altbach, 2001). Academic leaders from around the world tour American campuses to glean policies and mechanisms that have contributed to a highly successful educational system. The visitors return to their home countries hoping to reengineer their own programs along the lines of U.S. practices such as the course credit system; how public and private institutions coexist while challenging one another in a competitive environment; what issues are confronted in achieving diversity, accountability, and coordination of serving public needs. Indeed, “American universities and colleges are widely viewed as having dealt constructively with many of the challenges facing higher education throughout the world” (Altbach, 2001, p. 11).

The United States’ academic prestige is not necessarily due to the nation’s economic or cultural super-status – “elements in the Americanization of so many other institutions and other countries – but because American higher education as a system is simply better adapted, normatively and structurally, to the requirements of a postindustrial age” (Trow, 2001, p. 122). Such prominence comes with an enhanced responsibility, desired or not, of

developing systems that prove worthy as other peoples worldwide pattern themselves on our example. Thus, leaders and visionaries in American higher education must responsibly embrace a global perspective.

While such a sense of duty to a worldwide educational system may seem to some an excessive call to altruism, a global perspective on education also serves the self-interested national needs of American students. Engberg and Green (2002) proposed as a truism "that American college graduates will live and work in a world in which national borders are permeable; information and ideas flow at lightning speed; and communities and workplaces reflect a growing diversity of culture, languages, attitudes, and value" (p. 7). In this setting, an American education must produce graduates who will be productive contributors to society both locally and globally while understanding that "the fates of nations, individuals, and the planet are inextricably linked."

Such a global approach to education "provides a realistic, balanced perspective on world issues, as well as an awareness of how enlightened self-interest includes concerns about people elsewhere in the world" (Cushner, McClelland, & Safford, p. 254). It is institutions of higher learning that must take the lead "educating the world citizens to allow us to live upon our planet while protecting it" (Duderstadt, 2000, p. 21). This is not a call to impose a *one-world* philosophical ideology on students, ignoring the fundamental realities of human nature and international relations often grounded in adversarial positions. While a broader perspective is necessary to provide a context for academic curriculum, colleges and universities everywhere "owe it to their students and to the public to deliver in concrete and meaningful ways on their promise to prepare students for the global world" (Engberg &

Green, 2002, p. 17). Such a practical approach to developing curricula – addressing the loftier aims along with the baser realities – should seek to provide a practical undergraduate education for the 21st century, grounded in a "liberal education that produces an individual who is intentional about learning and life, empowered, informed, and responsible," then ensuring that such an education is "available to all students, not simply the self-selected (and comparatively privileged) group of the past" (AACU, 2002, p. 25).

> What individuals and society need is an invigorated liberal education that expands horizons while nourishing the mind. Such an education develops practical competencies so students can make a difference in the world. By holding every student to high standards of accomplishment, and supporting them all in meeting greater expectations, this education will prove personally empowering, intellectually challenging, beneficial to civic society, and eminently useful. (AACU, 2002, p. 10)

Corresponding with a move toward a more global perspective in higher education, a continued motion toward universal participation in postsecondary education will "surely have revolutionary consequences for existing institutions and systems of higher education as well as for the larger societies that sustain and depend on them" (Trow, 2001, p. 115). Governments and individuals around the world are increasingly turning to higher education to play a decisive role in "broadening the horizons of students and allowing them to develop a deeper understanding of the multiplicity of languages, cultures and business methods," as numerous programs are established and fortified to promote such global advances (OECD, 2003, p. 273). One of the largest challenges in achieving such sweeping access to and benefits of higher education is reducing the direct costs of schooling, particularly to engage poorer households and nations, and most especially for young girls and women (UNESCO, 2003).

Higher education analysts such as Georgetown University's Martin Irvine (2003) have said this global demand matched with the enormous disparities in supply provide an "unprecedented market opportunity for educational services," along with a "huge social and economic challenge for developed nations hoping to spread the benefits of globalization to the poor countries and expand the global marketplace":

> Most people continue to see education as the only hope to forestall impending worldwide catastrophes and cultural misunderstanding and economic disparity. The need to exchange knowledge and learning across borders, cultures, and languages is felt more urgently than ever. (Irvine, 2003, p. 104)

The gap between the need and supply of higher education has advanced the emergence of a global business network. Among the participants in this network guided by market forces are found traditional and digital publishers, media companies, software and hardware producers, consultants, communication services, as well as for-profit and nonprofit education providers (Irvine, 2003, p. 71). Such business drivers and motives may help to address in particular the social and economic divides caused by "devastating consequences of ignorance and exclusion from the world marketplace" (p. 104).

Educational offerings guided by market forces are expanding worldwide. Countries including Egypt, Singapore, China, Poland, German, Malaysia, and others are establishing private and frequently for-profit universities in competition with traditional institutions (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). In Asian countries including Japan, South Korea, the Philippines, India, and Indonesia, as many as 80 percent of university students are now enrolled in private universities (pp. 36-37).

Distance learning programs are also stepping into the international void, providing perhaps otherwise precluded students around the world the opportunity to obtain university degrees. It is indeed an era "when many students have never known life without the Internet, when time is constrained for adult learners seeking additional education, and when worldwide demand for education is at an all-time high, the classroom no longer bounds the learning environment" (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001, p. 2).

The Demand

It is frequently said that a college education today is as important to career success as gaining a high school diploma was in the 1950s, and "it is now the pathway to social mobility, personal prosperity, and civic engagement" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 154). The realization of this is reflected in the more than three-fold increase in U.S. college enrollments, which between 1960 and 2001 expanded from 4.1 million to 14.8 million (AACU, 2002, p. 3). In a ten-year period between 1998 to 2008, 14.1 million jobs will required a bachelor's degree or some level of postsecondary education, which more than doubles those new jobs requiring a high school diploma or less (p. 4). It has also been found that college graduates can expect to earn 80% more (about $1 million) than high school graduates over a lifetime of work (p. 5). With this sort of economic incentive to achieve a college education, the demand for graduate degrees beyond the bachelor's is climbing as well. Nearly 2 million American students are in graduate programs, with an annual production of 43,000 doctoral degrees and 400,000 master's degrees (LaPidus, 2001, p. 259). Postsecondary education throughout the United States totals up to be a $250-billion industry (Irvine, 2003).

The numbers demonstrate an even more precipitous worldwide climb in higher education enrollments. From 1950 to 1997, global postsecondary education enrollments increased from 6.5 million in 1950 to 88.2 million in 1997, and are forecasted to reach 160 million by 2025 (Irvine, 2003). "In short, the global education marketplace represents an extraordinary opportunity" (p. 69). However, even though global demand for higher education is growing at double-digit proportions, the resources for paying the tuition bill are low or nonexistent in large parts of the world, with insufficient government funds to meet the full educational needs even in richer nations (p. 69). Given this stark imbalance, higher education must seek new avenues of delivery tapping new technologies able to transcend national boundaries and limited budgets, such as those provided through electronic learning (*e-learning*) programs:

> With only 17 percent of the world's adults participating in some form of tertiary (postsecondary) education, e-learning is rapidly being embraced as the only way to scale ongoing education to the world of need. … The challenge to the e-learning industry is capturing the opportunity with enough combined resources to meet the needs of the marketplace in all its cultural diversity. (Irvine, 2003, p. 78)

A Gist of Solutions

The structures and systems of higher education enterprise are likely to be dramatically transformed over the next decade, whatever the forces may be that drive the change (Duderstadt, 2000). The transformation may spring from within innovative organizations responding to societal needs, but academia is "more likely to be transformed by new markets, new technologies, and new competition. … The institutions most at risk will not be of any particular type or size but rather those most constrained by

tradition, culture, or governance" (p. 297). At a time when the academic world should be responding to global needs with innovation, it responds instead as a "a repository of the cumulative knowledge, functions as a conservator, slow to change in fundamental ways," where any new ideas only slowly find fertile ground, "taking root at the margins of institutions, and maintaining themselves by the patient effort of a few dedicated individuals" (AACU, 2002, p. 19).

Though much of the world looks toward the United States as a model for academic reforms, there may be an unfortunate and misguided American tendency to ignore the rest of the world (Altbach, 2001). There are many lessons that U.S. educators may learn from other nations, such as:

> New approaches to teaching and research assessment in Britain, the reform of governance in the Netherlands, or the efforts to free the Japanese national universities from the Ministry of Education. It may be useful to study academic systems that are largely private, such as those in Korea, the Philippines, or Japan. (Altbach, 2001, p. 34)

Educators around the world must go beyond their moribund institutional models and historically narrow national interests to achieve a higher order of purpose serving the best interests of all peoples. This poses challenges on numerous fronts, as "education has traditionally been a jealously guarded local and national matter and a solidifier of cultural differences, approached more in social and cultural terms then in the terms of business models and markets" (Irvine, 2003, p. 69). Much of the global economic world functions by international exchanges of goods, services, currencies, communications, and so forth. Thusly may the academic world expand on a working assumption that education is also "part of a global, networked knowledge economy" where economic and social effects are

driving new methods of interaction (p. 70). Such economic concepts applied to higher education may be offensive to "many who entered academic life to escape the ethos of buying and selling that governs so much of modern life," however upcoming educators in the new academic environment will need to devise and adopt transformational models of relations between and within ranks of students and teachers, although it may still be unclear what those models might be (Trow, 2001, p. 130).

What is clear is that opportunities for American higher educational institutions extend well beyond the borders of the United States (Bok, 2003). "Vast numbers of potential students are now within reach of American higher education in countries that lack universities with a reputation or the resources of their leading counterparts in this country" (p. 90). Though the United States has seen a recent drop in the net numbers of international students attending American universities and colleges, a total of more than 720,000 international students for the academic year 2003/2004 still places the United States as a top choice for students studying outside of their home country, contributing some $13 billion annually to the U.S. economy (IIE, 2004). However, large numbers of potential international students are precluded from studies in the United States due to travel, financial, and national barriers. This provides an opportunity for e-learning organizations through international outreach and agreements opening markets (Irvine, 2000). The degree of success that institutional leaders find in making "critical connections between technological possibilities and institutional priorities and using their vision and influence to chart a successful course … will profoundly influence the future of higher education in our country" (Hitt & Hartman, 2002, p. 21).

Researchers and analysts observe that there has never been a more important time for serving the purposes of higher education (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). American society, as well as other societies around the world, needs to address problems such as economic revitalization, growing income disparities, enhanced social mobility, health care provision, and ensuring the needs of an engaged and safe civilization. Many nations look to the United States for solutions to much of the world's woes. "For the United States to be a successful democracy and a model to the world, higher education must stand as a central source of hope, vision, and assistance" (p. 214).

Objectives in Higher Education

Having considered the general challenges facing higher educators, it is a logical progression to examine objectives, strategies, and tactics for meeting those challenges. A key objective, simply put, may be stated as achieving the greatest accessibility and productivity of higher education as possible, so as to better obtain the fullest development of individuals and society. That objective may be achieved by better understanding and setting goals within fundamental issues visited below, such as demographic conditions, foundational infrastructure, leadership and governance, and the impact of emerging technologies.

Demographic Conditions

The nature of challenges in greater worldwide access to higher education may be effectively illustrated by examining the particular dynamics and disparities of academic

achievement in the United States. American college attendance has grown so that now 70 percent of high school graduates receive some sort of college education within two years of graduating, and nearly 90 percent say they hope to attend college at some point (AACU, 2002). Along with the rise of American high school graduates going right into college, the average age on campuses is growing older, as adults return to complete their degrees started earlier, or start afresh. Students aged 25 years or older account for 45 percent of college classroom attendance, and now so many more women than men are enrolling, that educators are seeking ways to increase the number of men enrollees (Kuh, 2001). While "the complexion of college classrooms is much more colorful today" (p. 281), studies have found that the actual college completion rates for low-income and students of color are "abysmal" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 159). Nearly half (48 percent) of students from high-income families have graduated from college by age 24; compared to only 7 percent of low-income students, where 29 percent of African-American and 31 percent of Hispanic students drop out before completing their first year (p. 57).

One reason for this high drop out rate among racial minorities is the finding that many high schools – especially in poorer school districts – have been unable to produce graduates prepared for college-level performance, for reasons including "poor quality teaching, low teacher and student expectations, large class size, weak curricula, and unconscionably poor resources" (AACU, 2002, p. 12). Lower income students may also suffer from a shortage of role models such as parents or siblings who have gone to

college. This puts them at a distinct advantage to those students who may have a pattern to follow.

> Affluent students, or students who have parents or role models who have gone to college, are born into a network that teaches them the process of success, instructing them at each step on how to apply for financial aid; how to seek out faculty mentors; how to obtain necessary help from deans, advisers, and counselors; and fostering a belief that they will succeed. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 175)

Many lower-income students may be the first of the family to attend college. Whereas 78 percent students whose parents have graduated college also have the same goal, only 36 percent of first-generation students aspire to a college degree (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). “As a result, far too few take the necessary steps that lead to enrolling in a college or university” (p. 164).

Similar demographic and economic issues affecting educational opportunities are found beyond America’s borders. The divisions between rich and poor countries, as well as between the rich and poor within a country, create vast disparities separating those who are able to find a place in the new economy, and those who cannot. While there has been global growth in education and training over the last two decades, “the world still suffers from intolerable inequalities at the international level and sometimes within nations”:

> Many countries are struggling with limited access to education and training for children and young people, and at the same time have to address the basic needs of an older generation. Low quality and insufficient relevance are other concerns. At the root is often the problem of financing adequate provision, and adequate structures for education and training. (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 7)

Foundational Infrastructure

Arthur Levine (2001), president of Teachers College at Columbia University, has warned that the present design and structure of American higher education is unsustainable. Various aspects of the "radically different environment" educators must address include forces such as the nation's transition to an information society, shifting demographics, downward pressures on the cost of higher education, emerging technologies, and a "legion of new competitors" (p. 57). Levine proposed that the traditional academic guardians (administrators and faculty) must either reform their purpose and methods in the new environment, or, if they do not, face a revolution in who will ultimately control education.

There is an array of issues and players rearranging the fundamental forms and functions in higher education. Some of the dynamics within the new environment include:

- Public, private, and for-profit institutions alike are competing to attract students, in ways and with an intensity never seen before.
- Traditional universities are more focused on developing new revenues than ever before.
- There has been huge growth in the number of for-profit universities and colleges, the degrees they give, and the acceptance of their degrees by students and employers.
- Thousands of virtual programs are growing rapidly, altering the way many students attend college and how classes are delivered.
- Corporate universities and certificate programs are widespread, in some fields becoming the preparation preferred by employers.
- New organizational forms are emerging that rely heavily on technology and challenge the hegemony of the traditional faculty and the academic discipline-oriented college or university.
- For the first time, higher education has gone global. Even the degree structure of ancient European universities is changing to make them more competitive. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 29)

Pittinksy (2003) observed that some of the most critical ways in which the American higher educational landscape is shifting includes the growing competition between for-profit companies and nonprofit institutions for students, the enrollment boom across the country beyond the capacity to accommodate it, and the increasing number of older and more professionally oriented learners with different expectations than the traditional student. On the administrative side, there are intensified cost pressures, new funding sources such as corporate giving along with the strings attached, the changing composition of faculty with more reliance on adjuncts and professional instructors; all combined with the "explosive adoption" of Internet technologies, it makes for a "convergence of industry and technology change that is most potent" (p. 14).

Within the United States, there is a growing movement to see the higher education system as an array of institutions competing in an academic marketplace (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). With an entry of large numbers of for-profit institutions added to a mix of more than four thousand degree-granting universities and colleges, some say an educational marketplace has already been formed, where indeed "perhaps only a market can serve the public effectively" – a shift also evident in numerous other countries around the world (p. 34).

Gumport (2001) found that those who see higher education as an industry serving a market sector of the economy might consider the metaphor of the corporate model, where colleges and universities are to produce and sell goods and services such as training the workforce, advancing economic development, and conducting research. Through this corporate model, "harsh economic challenges and competitive market pressures warrant

better management, which includes swift programmatic adjustment, maximum flexibility, and improved efficiency in the direction of greater accountability and, thus, customer satisfaction" (p. 87). On the other hand, there are those who still see higher education as a higher calling that must cultivate social qualities such as civic participation, the preservation of cultural heritage, and the development of "individual character and critical habits of mind, as well as economic development functions. The tension between the two legitimating ideas is profound" (p. 87).

Given the growing demand for access to higher education, governments around the world may find few options but to "encourage the growth of private institutions to increase enrollments while minimizing the public investment" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 119). Still, even private for-profit educational institutions have an obligation to a greater social purpose beyond corporate profit, since they typically receive state and federal tax dollars through a student's financial aid. For even the few accredited private colleges and universities that have rejected public funding (typically religious organizations) – if they are nonprofit organizations, "their tax-exempt status makes them reliant to a degree on the public's goodwill" (p. 107).

An important distinction as market forces and terms intrude in traditional academic settings, is the difference among the concepts of *costs* incurred by the university in providing educational programs, the *prices* charged to students in the form of tuition, and the *value* students might find in the educational experience (Duderstadt, 2000). Certainly, students are finding a market value in a higher education so critical to success in the globalized marketplace. However, at the current pace in pricing of education – since 1980,

the average price of four years of college has risen more than 110 percent over inflation's costs – by 2015, half of all American students will be unable to afford higher education (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 60).

Seeking ways to pay for college education will become more critical to both students and society as the necessity is made dearer. To paraphrase Nietzche, those who have a commanding *why* will passionately seek a functional *how*. Traditional financial support for higher education includes personal funds, grants, and loans. Low-income students are likely precluded from sole reliance on personal funds. Student loans can be problematic, perhaps due to a cultural aversion to debt among minority students (Johnstone, 2001), or through life plans "such as marriage or the choice of a socially worthwhile but low-paying career" waylaid by high indebtedness (p. 156). Students who may work excessive full- or part-time jobs to pay their way through school frequently find the work interferes with class schedules, course selection, and learning, and are less likely to graduate or even finish their first year of studies (AACU, 2002, p. 18).

For most of the last decade of the 20th century, the average total of spending on education has remained about 5 percent of the gross national product (GNP) for developed countries, and slightly less (4 percent) for less developed countries (Irvine, 2003). Approximately 63 percent of worldwide education costs are paid for with government funds (p. 72). This investment in education has benefited from a multiplier effect, where in the U.S., education can return $5 to the economy for every dollar spent, and for every increase of one year in average length of education in a country could lead to a 3 percent raise in gross domestic product (GDP) (p. 73).

Governance

Those involved in the governance and guidance of higher education (traditionally institution administrators and faculty), have a number of factors to contend with in the transformation of academia. That number includes five key underlying forces, the most prominent being the shift of policy makers toward a market-oriented structure in higher education:

- The growing competition among traditional nonprofit universities and colleges;
- the impact of the new providers of higher education, including for-profit degree-granting institutions, virtual programs and institutions, and corporate universities;
- the impact of digital technology;
- the globalization of higher education;
- and the growing dependence of political leaders on market forces to structure higher education. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 31)

As these economic, social, and technological impacts gather in market forces, it demands a need for decisions and actions to be made at market speeds, rather than the traditionally and even anecdotally slow pace of academic governance. With a number in the area of 70 percent of American high school graduates going on to attend some form of higher education, the public has a solid stake in the effectiveness and value delivered by colleges and universities (Eaton, 2002). Education administrators have been held to greater levels of accountability for institutional performance, and in turn are in need of "greater autonomy in the operation of the institution to fulfill the agreed-upon mission" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 38). Some areas of greater accountability that have been sought by various state legislatures include curbing the rise in costs, cutting bureaucratic bloat, increasing faculty involvement in teaching, addressing the perceived uselessness of some scholarship, reducing administrative sabbaticals, shortening the amount of time

students take to graduate, removing program overlap, and reconsidering faculty tenure (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 76).

The topic of tenure is a hot-button item for faculty (especially among the tenured or tenure-track), as well as with those who hold the belief that tenure protection is an important guarantor of academic freedom. Tenure has also been a frequent target of criticism for the institutional weaknesses it may create:

> Unchecked by discipline to peer review, academic freedom can become academic license. Much too often academic freedom is confused with unconditional or absolute professorial autonomy, the ability of a faculty member to do whatever he or she wishes – deciding whether to turning grades in a timely fashion, whether to hold office hours, or even whether to convene classes. Tenure can also become a vehicle for sheltering unproductive or poorly performing professors from being dismissed. (Levine, 2003, p. 28)

Still, Levine (2003) describes tenure as a "fragile system that must not be undermined by comparisons with business, which is not in the market of discovering new knowledge for knowledge's sake, or of offering its employees lifetime engagements" (p. 29). Market protections serving more developed sectors, such as business equity and *golden parachutes,* are not part of the common university structure.

Yet one of the largest problems facing effective management in the new academic environment is finding new ways of engaging faculty in governance, while keeping the greater interests of the organization moving ahead in a highly charged and competitive marketplace. "In too many institutions, faculty members feel the strongest attachments to their disciplines, the weakest to the institution as a whole" (AACU, 2002, p. 16). Some might compare the college or university as the institutional equivalent of a honeycomb, where the academic culture promotes separateness between administrators, faculty, staff, and students

(Seymour, 1995). “Nowhere, however, is the organization more fragmented than between and among the academic units” (p. 5). In spite of such divisions and separation from the overall mission of the institution, “professors continue to talk about the community of scholars, and they demand a full partnership in the governance of the institutions to which they are attached, even as their allegiance to their home college or university and to fellow scholars on campus becomes more tenuous” (Keller, 2001, p. 312).

Finding ways to expand the cross-departmental and institutional perspectives of faculty involved in governance, so they can better participate in an effective management process within the competitive higher educational marketplace, may be a tall but necessary order. “Involving people in all aspects of work life that affect them is where an improvement starts. Such a change is not easy; indeed, it may very well be impossible for some. Letting go is often the most difficult step” (Seymour, 1995, p. 161). The stakes are high, in both protecting the noblest purposes of the educational tradition, as well as ensuring institutional validity in an increasingly competitive and unforgiving market.

> For higher education to become simply another self-focused, revenue-oriented sector of the society would be a tragedy of massive proportions. The task, then, is to rebuild the compact, renew the understanding between higher education and the public, and renew and strengthen the commitment to the public purposes of higher education. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, pp. 214-215)

Emerging Technologies

Rapidly developing information and communication technologies (ICTs) in a movement towards more “knowledge-intensive, interdependent and internationalized societies” are creating many new “challenges and opportunities for the design and delivery of education” (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 8). Education analysts forecast that the worldwide

market for education could reach as high as $2 trillion in revenues with the growth of for-profit education, along with universities opening transnational satellite campuses, and education content providers tapping communication technologies for international e-learning opportunities (Irvine, 2003, p. 70). The technological innovations are coming so fast that scholars are unable to keep up with the developments in books and reports, but "only journalism can seem to keep abreast of the rapidly changing IT world" (Trow, 2001, p. 130).

Governments, industry, and educators are finding that conventional structures and institutions are not able to meet the changing demands for higher and continuing education for a whole lifespan, and are eagerly turning to new technologies to meet the evolving needs of learners (Moore & Tait, 2002). These technologies in particular allow for *open and distance learning*, where "all or most of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in time and space from the learner" allowing for "greater dimensions of openness and flexibility, whether in terms of access, curriculum are other elements of structure" (p. 8).

Another useful term, *distributed learning*, "refers to technology-mediated instruction that serves students both on and off campus, providing students with greater flexibility and eliminating time as a barrier to learning" (Hitt & Hartman, 2002, p. 1). It is likely that a hybrid model of higher education will become more common in future learning, where "site-based and electronically delivered instruction and support services will be offered together, whether from traditional institutions or new providers" (Eaton, 2002, p. 4).

Along with the potential benefits of technology-enhanced learning models, there are some considerable challenges, limitations, and threats to consider as decisionmakers plan their agendas. Duderstadt (2000) acknowledges the possibilities posed by distance learning technologies such as the collaborative "promise to enhance the intellectual environment of all, while opening up our community to the vast potential of world-spanning dialogue," though worries that a residential component where students interact with each other face-to-face is critical, especially for undergraduate studies (p. 281). Furthermore is the paradoxical problem where students who might benefit the most from distance learning – "disadvantaged groups, rural communities, illiterate populations or even entire countries" – may not have access to the technologies and tools that would "enable them to become full-fledged members of the knowledge society," furthering a digital divide that might actually lead to greater disparities in educational opportunity (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 8).

Also critical to the success of new learning models is how they will fit into traditional institution accreditation standards. Historically central to higher education, there has been a "delicate balance of accreditation to assure quality and higher education, the self-regulation of higher education institutions, and the availability of federal money to colleges and universities" (Eaton, 2002, p. 1). New models of education may threaten this balance if the application and evaluation of standards are thrown off balance.

> Distance learning challenges accreditation by altering the traditional faculty role in higher education, thus diminishing face-to-face contact with students. It may also alter the fundamental intellectual tasks of faculty members. Some distance-learning models, for example, separate curriculum design from curriculum delivery, substituting standardized course content for curricula designed by individual faculty members. Similarly, distance-

> learning can shift responsibility for determining academic standards from faculty members to the staff of corporate or other distance-learning providers or standards may already be embedded in commercially prepared curricula. (Eaton, 2002, p. 5)

Government regulators, as well as the institutions that are regulated, find themselves facing three primary questions as the shift from traditional to newer models of education advances (Eaton, 2002): Can federal funds be delivered to distance learning providers in a way that avoids fraud and abuse? Can traditional standards of accreditation be applied to quality assurance in distance learning, or will new methods of review need to be developed? Will more government controls be needed for the regulation of higher education as distance learning expands? These issues are critical to the continued growth and credibility of new models of education, not only in the United States but globally as well.

The growing numbers of worldwide learners seeking opportunities to advance through higher education, and attracted to the appeal of a U.S. degree in the international marketplace, has American institutions eager to capture a portion of the "ever-increasing global audience" (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001, p. 11). While those institutions and companies involved in e-learning within the United States can rely on "general industry homogeneity, known regulations and standards, reliable demographics and economic data, and reliable infrastructures," they are likely to find that is not the case across other borders, where "entry into the global marketplace requires local knowledge, local partners, and focused market research" (Irvine, 2003, p. 76). They may also find that though an American degree is highly prized and sought in other countries, they may find difficulty in attracting large numbers of international students to U.S. distance education programs (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001).

> First, many cannot access Internet-based education. Second, some may not be able to take advantage of instruction provided in English. Third, international learners may be expecting different content from Americans taking the same course. Finally, there are competitors for these learners. (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001, p. 12)

Nonetheless, emerging technologies and the expansion of communication networks will continue to have a "radical effect on the transformation of education and training in all sectors" as both developed and developing countries seek to "take part in the emerging global educational community" (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 11). Several countries, such as India and South Africa, are already heavy importers of distance learning programs through top exporting countries including the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom; while China, Thailand, and Japan are developing their own distance learning technologies and programs (Eaton, 2002). Distance education and training will also likely play an important role in expanding access to educational opportunities throughout Central and Eastern Europe, provided there is sufficient funding and regional collaboration to develop the necessary communication infrastructure (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 54).

The success found by institutional leaders in meeting the promise and peril offered by the new technologies "will profoundly influence the future of higher education in our country" (Hitt & Hartman, 2002, p. 21), and indeed around the world. "The true challenge for current and future campus leaders lies in making critical connections between technological possibilities and institutional priorities and using their vision and influence to chart a successful course."

The Strategies

Having addressed some of the objectives that educational leaders may be considering over the immediate years ahead, the following section explores some of the strategies to help fulfill goals along the way. Some of the topics worth investigation include issues of market expansion, curricula development and delivery, and the changing role of faculty engagement.

Market Expansion

One of the most difficult aspects of considering the market dynamics in higher education is establishing a mindset – especially among traditionalists who decry the *commodification* of education – where a market way of thought is seen as more than the "outsourcing of higher education's core purposes of teaching, learning, and service" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 44). The intensified clashing of perspectives has required a renewed clarification of the core purposes and values of higher education (Levine, 2001). "The imperative for higher education is to determine the ground rules by which partnerships with the private sector might be accomplished … This juncture presents an enormous opportunity" (p. 57). If higher educators fail to debate and plan a strategy to advance in the new environment, the "system of higher education will likely drift into some new market-oriented format without adequate restraints and with an ongoing erosion of its fundamental purposes, a format difficult to change once established" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 46).

Irvine (2003) observed that higher education is in a remarkable transition period providing an opportunity in worldwide markets, where the "globalized economy is beginning to transform state monopolies in education and credentialing into more open and cooperative public and private systems with common economic goals" (p. 93). This shift in political and economic conditions opens "many new opportunities for e-learning companies to enter new markets over the long term." Of course, it also opens many dangers. As the division between for-profit and public purposes becomes blurred, there is a peril that "higher education will become – both in perception and reality – just another interest group devoid of any attributes that raise its interests above those of the marketplace" with its emphasis on revenue streams, subsidiaries, corporate sponsorships of research, high presidential salaries, and "other trappings of private enterprise" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 219).

Duderstadt (2000) argued that it would be the marketplace that drives the necessary change in higher education rather than governments or the institutions themselves. The new postsecondary enterprise along with along with traditional havens of higher education – driven by innovation and consumer demand – will also consist of "computer hardware and software companies, telecommunications carriers, information services companies, entertainment companies, information resource organizations, and corporate and governmental educational organizations" (p. 296).

A significant threat posed by these new for-profit education providers will be as they cherry-pick the more valuable and high-demand subject areas such as business and education, leaving the most costly and low-volume programs to public institutions

(Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 77). College presidents are increasingly concerned over this attack on revenues, since the more popular and profitable programs have been used to "cross-subsidize other activities that do not have sufficient income to support themselves" (p. 79). Furthermore, as competition becomes fiercer for students with higher test scores or wealthier means, "even those colleges and universities that typically are seen as open-door institutions have begun to shift their attention and their resources from low-income students and students of color to the more affluent and easy-to-educate students" (p. 166). Public institutions may counter these pressures by generating revenues from additional sources such as state legislatures, new student markets, new resources for research funding, as well as expanded efforts to generate alumni giving or other private contributions (Gumport, 2001, p. 95).

One likely financial change over the upcoming years will be that funding dollars will more closely follow the students than the educators (Levine, 2003). "With the growth of educational providers and the emphasis on outcomes, public and private financial supporters will increasingly invest in the educational consumer rather than the expanding grab bag of organizations that offer collegiate instruction" (p. 24). For traditional institutions to best survive, they should consider preserving and promoting critical attributes of higher education's role in society (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004):

- Bear responsibility for student learning
- Provide social mobility by moving beyond student *access* to student *attainment*
- Protect the public investment by addressing efficiency and productivity
- Support early education providing for better prepared college students
- Conduct needed research
- Serve as society's critic
- Build civic engagement to sustain democracy

Newer profit-focused institutions have already expressed a reluctance to fulfill all the tasks the public has come to expect from higher educators – such as pure research and promoting social mobility – in that they do not see such tasks as the duty of for-profit businesses (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). “Rather, they see only the need to provide skills for successful job preparation,” a position that may erode public support if the perceived nature of higher education changes for the worse (p. 220).

The global marketplace as well is experiencing fundamental changes in the ownership and provision of education, all the way from childhood through adulthood, along with an increase in private-sector involvement (Irvine, 2003). Some of the drivers behind the shift to private providers include increasing numbers of school-age populations and increased demand by adults needing new skills; governments unable to cover the costs; increasing numbers of middle-class students who can afford the education costs; and more corporations needing skilled workers. “The global education marketplace is primed for huge growth as more governments and organizations open markets for private and for-profit providers to meet education needs were public funds cannot” (p. 74).

Within most developing-world countries, non-state providers of education have been engaged longer and deeper in educational services than the state (UNESCO, 2003). Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have been major education providers, especially among the poorest and most disadvantaged groups, and commercial education providers are a rapidly growing sector (p. 14). Even in more developed European nations, government leaders are “becoming increasingly aware that education goals can only be achieved by allowing more private and for-profit education providers to enter the marketplace” (Irvine, 2003, p. 87). In

order to achieve universal basic education, the worldwide goal is vast: 180 governments have pledged to hire 15 million teachers by the year 2015 to meet the need. It may take decades more for many nations to reach the point of a global marketplace fully prepared provide an Internet-enabled postsecondary education (p. 76).

The United States may yet play a major role responding to the powerful forces changing higher education around the world (Levine, 2003). Still, some academy leaders may fear that American's colleges and universities could ignore those forces "and the important questions that they demand we confront – or that, simply through complacency or the glacial speed of our decision-making processes, we will fail to respond in time to help shape tomorrow" (p. 25).

Curricula

The rapidly changing world of academia must adjust as a part of the as vast or even vaster changes occurring within the greater social and economic environment – or the *real world*, as college students often refer to it. Students entering the higher educational system today will be facing a radically different workplace come graduation as opposed to even a decade ago; currently 60 percent of all employees work in unsupervised, self-managed teams in nontraditional settings or telecommute to work, and within the next decade, as many as half of all workers may be temporary, contract or part-time employees (Kuh, 2001). College curricula will need to modify for this reality where employers are "less interested in how much college graduates know and more concerned about whether they can obtain and apply new information in productive, creative ways and can anticipate and address the emerging needs of their organizations" (p. 288). About 90 percent of current

college graduates say their degrees helped them land a job, but they did not learn the skills in college they need to succeed in the workplace (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). Employers as well complain about the graduates' "lack of such skills as critical thinking, ability to write clearly, or ability to work on a team" (p. 55).

Demonstrating a gap between the perspectives of academia and the *real world*, while higher education faculty report they are "generally pleased with the quality of graduates, only 46 percent of business leaders say graduates know what they need to know" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 73). Legislators are increasingly calling on higher education to become more accountable for preparing students to succeed in the new economy (p. 75). Clearly, this calls for rethinking the purposes of higher education, as well as the curricula and pedagogy.

The university has historically operated under mechanisms apart from direct market dictates and consumer demands. The university, as a privileged and protected dispenser of accredited degrees, was able to inscribe a curriculum not based so much on what a student or society asked for, but instead what it believed the public needed (Levine, 2003). While adjusting the university program for a changing environment, nonetheless, the curriculum should be such that it goes beyond simple vocational training, while seeking to educate "the whole person for a full life":

> A liberal education that includes such things as cognitive development; emotional and ethical knowledge; preparation for citizenship and membership in a multicultural society; instruction related to family and community life; development of the taste in conduct needed to enjoy the good life; leisure or use and health skills; development of personal traits such as leadership, coping, and adaptability; and, of course, preparation for productive work. (Levine, 2003, pp. 31-32)

Such an aim of holistic, integrative education – blending the needs of the student, the academy, the greater socioeconomic system, as well as the upward growth of an aspiring humanity – is daunting, however worthy. One of the most formidable obstacles to overcome in achieving a more integrative higher education is the inclination to define and defend departmental territory; an atomization of curriculum that divides knowledge into distinct and isolated fields, "even though scholarship, learning, and life have no such artificial boundaries" (AACU, 2002, p. 16). Faculty attempts to work across departmental barriers with a multidisciplinary approach have found some success in altering curricula, however "such integrative approaches still butt against real administrative problems" (p. 16).

Along with a greater integration of academic disciplines, the university has a need to integrate fully its historic core missions as well – research, teaching, and service – with the evolutionary redesign of its curriculum. Higher education has a high duty to address the specific needs of a time, while also serving the timeless needs of humans and humanity. This is the unique calling of the university, and provides a distinct advantage against the more limited for-profit position in the competitive marketplace. As a highly esteemed part of society, the university has an indispensable mission to maintain and nurture its essential functions in the appreciation, development, protection, transmission, and application of knowledge (Levine, 2003). "With regard to all of these activities combined, we need to recognize that their unbundling would be a disaster not only for the university, but for society" (p. 39).

Another challenge facing curriculum reforms is to ensure that greater portions of society not only have access to higher education – a proposition threatened by the increasing reliance on market forces – but that more students are successful in achieving and applying

their learning in the world at large. Access to higher education is simply not enough (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). “For a strikingly large share of students, particularly low-income students of color, access has led to disappointment, dropping out, and failure to gain the needed education and degree” (p. 155).

> We can no longer afford to allow public policy to stop at questions of access. We must now broaden our goal to include *academic success* for an ever-expanding share of the population, which includes adequately preparing students and then retaining them once enrolled. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 128)

It is thus necessary to ensure that the higher education curriculum worldwide engages and nurtures all students ever more successfully. Research has found that given the demands of the new economy, “providing low-income and students of color with access and ensuring their degree completion is the best way – arguably the only way – to decrease this disparity” in who fully benefits from an accomplished education, and who does not (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 160). Social and economic sources outside of higher education are driving all of academia toward broader access (Trow, 2001). Technological developments and international competition is swelling the demand for life-long learning and “the value and importance of a well-educated citizenry and workforce to every country. Advanced economies now live and die by the educated labor forces and how they are employed” (p. 115).

Infusing a curriculum with a broader, integrated perspective ultimately succeeds or fails with the level of cooperation from teachers and their pedagogical foundations. University presidents might issue decrees or sign international agreements for global learning strategies, but the final responsibility for academic change resides with the faculty (Engberg & Green, 2002).

The Changing Role of Faculty

The role of faculty in traditional higher education goes beyond simply teaching in the classroom. The organization of American colleges and universities is based on the concept of shared governance among the community of scholars, where all members of the department within a discipline are considered equal (Altbach, 2001). This form of governance, however, has problems when considering issues of greater social and even institutional affairs beyond the department. The views of faculty towards such affairs may "often mirror those of the president's about these issues, but they are generally focused on their own work. They often have little patience with the issues of policy, funding, and public debate," and often respond to issues such as greater efficiency in a market environment "as an annoyance at best and more often as an inappropriate intrusion" (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 80). As market terms such as *outsourcing, privatizing, reengineering, strategizing,* and *branding* become more prevalent in academic management, many faculty "are simply concerned with letting business ideology get too embedded in higher education" and that the coveted distance between the marketplace and academia is diminishing too fast (p. 89).

The imposition of market forces on academia through tighter resources, higher student-to-staff rations, and demands for greater productivity has indeed led to pressures for increased efficiency within departments (Trow, 2001), much to the increasing concern of department faculty and the threats to the "economy of the university and the capacity of its scholars and scientists to pursue long-term studies that do not promise short-term results" (p. 112). Faculty has found that academic control is shifting from shared governance, more

to “increasingly powerful university administrators and state authorities and to the market through the commercialization of research and teaching” (p. 114).

> It is not a matter of administrators seizing power from academics; rather the size and complexity of universities, the variety of specialized problems that confront them, and above all the speed of change increase the necessity for central administration to act decisively and rapidly. Academic committees have many virtues: among them is the capacity to give legitimacy to decisions and policies and sometimes even to add wisdom to decisions and quality to policy. But decisiveness and speed are not among these virtues, and they are more and more required of academic administrators. (Trow, 2001, p. 114)

Academic administrators, in order to deal with the greater market pressures, have been shifting away from the historic governance model of full-time, permanent, and tenured faculty. The new pattern has been to hire more part-time and non-tenure track teachers, creating fears that “the academic community, which was built on the basis of a full-time tenure-eligible faculty, may be seriously eroded by these changes” (Altbach, 2001, p. 23).

The schism between faculty and governance is widened further with an increasing institutional reliance on revenues from extension divisions and distance learning programs, following policies that would never be allowed in regular degree programs (Bok, 2003). Administrators have granted little financial aid to their extension and distance programs, “while keeping faculty compensation well below the normal scale for the rest of the university. As a result, access to these programs has suffered, along with the quality of instruction” (P. 202). Many faculty members are expressing concern in particular about administrators’ growing reliance on the Internet to provide competitive and profitable distance learning opportunities, with some calling the “new technology is just another way by which university officials can exploit the faculty” (p. 94).

Faculty instructors who have been requested to offer online courses may express concerns over the substantial time demands along with their regular classroom work (Spicer, 2003). With regular classroom instruction, the typical faculty interaction directly with students may typically run some 150 minutes per week, with about five hours a week of office time; yet online teaching "makes the faculty member potentially on-call 24 hours a day, seven days a week" (p. 153) – a prospect many instructors are finding objectionable. Some faculty members have also expressed fear over being replaced by a website (Wilson, 2001). Given the technological advances in content delivery and artificial intelligence programming, it may be a fear with some merit.

There are numerous areas where faculty and administrators alike are confronted with profound changes throughout academia. Duderstadt (2000) observed that change in higher education rarely happens by way of presidential proclamations or committee recommendations, but rather through grassroots efforts of the faculty, students, and staff. Given the diverse interests and frequently narrow focus of those groupings, it may be difficult to mobilize a unified impetus toward the changes necessary in the new environment. Administrators may find that within the historically deliberative, inclusive, and frequently glacial processes of traditional governance models, "rarely is major change motivated by excitement, opportunity, and hope; it more frequently is in response to some perceived crisis" (p. 64). Some may find that the current challenges and crises facing academe's administrators and faculty provide indeed a valuable motivator. "Might not competition and the lure of profit be the only forces powerful enough to break through the thick crust of faculty inertia and bring about some real progress in university teaching and learning?" (Bok, 2003, p. 98).

The Tactics

Frequently, clearly identifying a problem area is a large step towards its solution. Much of this paper has been spent in identifying problems and challenges facing higher educators. This final section of the Breadth component will attempt a thumbnail overview of some tactics suitable to help address some of the objectives, goals, and strategies detailed above, particularly in specific action areas such as leadership, pedagogy, and applied technologies.

Leadership

The transformational changes needed throughout higher education to adapt to the new market forces will require institutional leaders articulating a clear vision and applying a focused allocation of resources (Hitt & Hartman, 2002). True lasting transformation will occur "when change is so pervasive that it redefines individuals, institutions, or processes, and when the result of this change yields such significant benefits that the individuals, institutions, or processes do not voluntarily revert to the old ways" (p. 1). To survive and thrive in the new environment, institutions will need to be flexible and responsive to the market pressures (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). If leaders in higher education do not take it upon themselves to bring about the necessary changes, they could ultimately find their institutions "in a position similar to elementary and secondary education, where policymakers have currently defined the modes of setting standards and assessing performance" (p. 146). The definition of higher education is best left to the educators, providing they rise to the demands of the challenge.

Society has a right to expect that higher education is accountable for fulfilling its purpose, especially through its expenditures of public funds (Altbach, 2001). On the other hand, academic leaders need to protect the prime directives of its mission, where faculty are free to teach without political fetters; where the university is free to push the frontiers of knowledge; where knowledge is valued as more than a marketable commodity; where "universities flourish intellectually and financially when they have links with society but at the same time have freedom to pursue new ideas in the classroom and laboratory" (p. 28). The guardians of higher education may best serve its higher calling by being wary of straying too far from the purposes the public has come to expect and respect. If higher education is to become fragmented and misdirected in its mission, the loss of public support could well cost all academic institutions, for-profit or not. Some of those fundamental purposes, many of them touched on elsewhere in this paper, may be:

- Improve the quality of learning so as to ensure the skills and knowledge that will be required for the workforce.
- Improve the quality of learning so as to reflect the skills, knowledge, and commitment required for active participation in the civic and social life of the community.
- Provide access and academic attainment for a steadily broadening share of the population of all races, ages, ethnicities, and socioeconomic backgrounds, focusing particularly on access and attainment for those currently underserved.
- Serve as an avenue of social mobility for lower-income and minority citizens.
- Serve as the location (virtual or physical) of open debate and discussion of critical, and often controversial, issues of importance to the community.
- Support development of high-quality elementary and secondary education through improved education of teachers and school leaders, alignment of curriculum and purpose with the schools, assistance with local reform, and improved research about education.
- Undertake research and scholarship in a manner that is trustworthy and open, in a widening array of fields that serve to advance society.
- Bring the benefit of the knowledge and skills accumulated in colleges and universities to the benefit of the community through outreach and service. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, pp. 83-84)

All of these purposes should be continued and expanded, even as enrollment demands are rising, funds are dropping, and market forces require competitive pricing. Institutional leaders may be increasingly faced with tighter budgets while called upon to produce more. Twigg (2003) proposed three basic approaches to reducing costs. First, an organization could seek to maintain a consistent level of service while reducing the amount of expended resources. Second, it could seek to increase services and enrollments while maintaining the same level of expenditures. Third, it could reduce costs by reducing course repetitions. "At many community colleges, for example, it takes a student about two and a half times to pass introductory math courses" (pp. 129-130).

As institutions seek additional revenues through expanded services such as extension programs and distance learning, old-school leaders may need to adopt new models of governance with a "level of dynamism and flexibility dramatically different from traditional faculty governance models. It is highly unlikely that 'bolting on' a distributed learning model to our existing structures will achieve the needed flexibility, nimbleness, and responsiveness" (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001, p. 13). There are a number of issues higher-education leaders should consider as they evolve their institutions into the new learning environment including development of competitive distance learning programs:

- *Speed*: How quickly can the organization respond to change?
- *Money*: How much funding is available for new projects? Who controls the money?
- *Talent*: Do we have the best people to get the job done?
- *Alignment*: How well aligned is e-learning with the rest of the institution? (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001, p. 13)

Few sectors of society benefit from the prestige of high public respect as much as the institutions of higher learning. Perhaps most importantly, especially in the age when cynicism is rampant and bad news is instantly disseminated, institutional leaders may best serve academia by ensuring that the rhetoric of higher education is a credible match with its reality.

> The rhetoric describes devotion to student learning, while in reality the student bears principal responsibility for learning and for any failure. The rhetoric describes devotion to teaching, while in reality the overwhelming time, energy, and creativity of the faculty at four-year institutions are devoted to research, publishing, and outside consulting. The rhetoric calls for broader access to higher education, while merit-based financial aid programs are increasing at a greater rate than need-based financial aid, and institutions are focusing more and more on recruiting the best and wealthiest students. The rhetoric calls for service to the community while attention is focused on improving rankings such as those in *U.S. News & World Report*. The rhetoric proclaims the importance of fundamental and trustworthy scholarship that serve society, while in fact its partiality is undercut by growing corporate control of research and faculty conflicts of interest. The list of such fissures between higher education's rhetoric and its performance is long, and it is growing. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, pp. 66-67)

Pedagogy

The radical change in higher education calls for a new pedagogy – one that is interactive, inclusive, suitable for and competitive in a global marketplace. Keller (2001) suggested that higher education is moving away from a teacher-led pedagogy, to one more learner centered. This pedagogical shift is a match with the other pressures in the academic marketplace toward better planning and decision making, financial management, and changes in strategy – a shift that "tends to pull professors toward a professional serving role and away from a commanding governing role where they design what the students should learn and how and when they can learn it" (p. 319). The focus becomes what the students

have actually learned, rather than what they were taught. With this change in emphasis from the "institutional process to educational outcomes, degrees will become far less meaningful. A transcript of each student's competencies, including the specific information that the student knows or the skills that he or she can perform, will be far more desirable" (Levine, 2003, p. 23).

This shift in pedagogical foundations is more profound than it may seem. For centuries, the primary form of competition between universities and colleges was in levels of prestige. This has grown even more intense over the last decades with the greater prominence of published rankings (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). However, the measurement of institutional prestige as a criterion for educational quality "does not serve the public need for quality in terms of student learning. It will take carefully structured interventions to overcome the current form of competition" (p. 87). Once again, the difficulties in changing patterns of a belief system are onerous for academic leaders. The guardians of higher education might be served to consider that the "way to chart a course for the future is to understand that embracing a legacy does not necessarily mean staying the same; nor does becoming more market-savvy mean pulling up anchor and letting loose in the currents" (Gumport, 2001, p. 106).

One of the most important pedagogical changes in higher education may need to take place before the students leave the earlier levels of education behind. Many Americans believe that a major problem in better access to higher education is hindered by the perception that graduates of elementary and secondary schools are unprepared and inadequately motivated for

the challenges of higher education and lacking in necessary support systems (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004).

> Everyone needs support, like the boost more affluent students get from years of music lessons; test preparation programs; rigorous high school curricula; and high expectations from their parents, teachers, and community. Research has shown the culture of low expectations of and for low-income students and students of color, along with a lack of access to rigorous high school curricula, undermines their chances to enter higher education prepared and ready for college-level work. (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 161)

Once students are within the systems of higher education, an operational pedagogy should see they are more than simply passing through the conveyor belt of courses toward the end product of a degree, but are rather integrated members of a lifelong educational process (Duderstadt, 2000). "In this model, the university would commit itself to a lifetime of interaction with its students – once a university student/graduate, always a member of the university family – providing them throughout their lives with the education necessary to respond to changing goals and needs" (p. 284). The concept of a traditional self-contained degree may be of limited use in a changing world "where information and skills become quickly obsolete" and new educational tools such as the cyberspace university make it possible to provide people with the learning they need, when they need it, wherever they happen to be (p. 284).

Such new models of curricula and pedagogy should see student work as more than a collection of independent courses, but as "pathways for learning … graduating intentional learners – empowered, informed, and responsible" (AACU, 2002, p. 30). To achieve this end, our policies and pedagogies should reflect the diversity of participants and needs served by higher education, where it is "no longer an effort to educate a small segment of

the population for leading positions in society, but something close to a continuing education for the whole population for life in the twenty-first century" (Trow, 2001, p. 132).

The classroom dynamics of the student-centered education are a flip from the more traditional model. "Rather than having teachers work hard while students listen, the student-centered environment expects the students to work hard while the faculty member listens" (Wilson, 2001, p. 205). In the student-centered class, the teachers may be found sitting in the back of the room, observing, commenting when necessary, and even resting a bit since most of their energy was invested in the design (Twigg, 2003).

> If you walk past a traditional classroom, the faculty member is standing in the front, waving his or her hands, presenting his or her slides or writing on the board, while the students sit quietly taking notes. In these new classrooms, when you walk past and look in, the students are doing all the work. They are waving their hands. They are showing their fellow students examples of projects. (p. 139)

Some have accused the old-school style teacher-centric educators of entering an "unspoken, comfortable conspiracy between faculty and students not to bother each other too much," where mediocrity reigns (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004, p. 136). That type of teacher in particular may argue or fear that a student-centric model panders to the wishes and whims of its students. "A student-centered environment, however, does not do this. It is designed to provide for the needs of its students, not simply to gratify their desires. The student-centered environment requires more of the student, not less" (Wilson, 2001, p. 205).

Especially challenging for higher educators – given the new environment of student-centric education of lifelong learners mixed with those just starting out, the increasingly diverse classroom mixtures of age, income, professional standing, compounded with the

countless American subcultures as well as the myriad of world cultures engaged in a global virtual university – given all this, just how does the instructor find common classroom ground? The benefits of access, inclusion, responsiveness to student needs and market demands are "bought, in part, at the price of intellectual incoherence in the curriculum" (Trow, 2001, p. 119). Teachers in the new educational environment cannot assume "a common body of knowledge, or even of interests," and may only find cultural commonalities in such superficial areas as "popular entertainment or sports or the shared fascination with their search for friends and mates and identity" (p. 119). Using common reference points in a high-diversity classroom may make it "easier to work past the inevitable misunderstandings that arise from differing cultural expectations, the nuances of different languages, and the implications of different historical experiences" (Keohane, 2001, p. 187).

Especially in settings with increasing numbers of international students as institutions seek to expand their enrollments beyond national borders, curricula and pedagogies may need to be adapted to a wider array of cultural and linguistic differences (OECD, 2003). Wilson (2001) proposed there is simply not enough time in the highly diverse classroom "to bring forward examples that appeal to everyone's interest and draw on everyone's experiences" (p. 206). The instructor may have to rely on a limited set of options to illustrate a concept, based upon a limited knowledge of student interests, experiences, learning styles, abilities, and so on. This limitation may be mitigated through the use of a technology-enhanced environment, where "one need not restrict the number of examples or make often-unwarranted assumptions about the characteristics of the students" (p. 206).

While higher educators may devote an enormous amount of pedagogical effort to teaching the precise methods of science and rational thought, education may be served by expending efforts to address the narrative realities of students' diverse perspectives and ways of living that occupy the bulk of their hours (Bruner, 1996).The benefits from advancing such cross-cultural fluency in the classroom may translate into valuable skills beyond the academic degree. The ability to find common terms and reference points, even in an attenuate form, is a "valuable asset in an increasingly global world. Corporate, nonprofit, and governmental leaders increasingly have no choice but to engage in multinational cooperative endeavors" (Keohane, 2001, p. 187). This is an especially important skill to develop in American students, where the perceived supremacy of the United States in scientific, economic, and military circles – along with the use of English as the global language and the international prestige of American universities and colleges – have "fueled the American tendency to believe that our own history, language, and culture are all that matter" (Engberg & Green, 2002, p. 7). To counter this, broad-visionary instructors should develop a multicultural perspective, continually striving to find common ground between diverse individuals, especially in the classroom.

> A multicultural perspective permits disagreement without anyone necessarily being wrong. If culture in all its complexity is understood as an individual's attempt to navigate the river of life, then cultural differences can be understood simply as pragmatic acts of navigation and can be judged accordingly. (Cushner, McClelland, & Safford, 2000, p. 68)

The American models of learning may set a pattern for the rest of the world to follow, and we may retain prominence as the nation of choice for international students. However, "we cannot claim to have the best system of higher education in the world unless

graduates can free themselves of ethnocentrism bred of ignorance and can navigate the difficult terrain of cultural complexity" (Engberg & Green, 2002, p. 7)**.**

Applied Technology

The new higher educational environment is being challenged on numerous fronts, from larger and more diverse classrooms full of students, to the market pressures pushing through the inertia of traditional academics. Perhaps one of the largest challenges to the classroom paradigm today is the revolutionary introduction of new technologies. These newfound tools and techniques may integrate themselves in academic settings such as the traditional classroom with PowerPoint lectures punctuated by multimedia clips of audio and video; distributed learning opportunities where the students can access additional course materials, exercises, discussion boards, and so on over computers either in a campus lab or at home; and fully online courses through one of the growing number of distance learning institutions and companies. Some prefer the term *distributed learning* to the term *distance learning*, to provide a better distinction between the concepts, though both share a common use of new technologies (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001). Distance learning may be seen as a limited subset of distributed learning, "focusing on students who may be separated in time and space from their peers and the instructor"; while distributed learning can "occur either on or off campus, providing students with greater flexibility and eliminating time as a barrier to learning" (p. 1).

Academic leaders are feeling the market pressures to expand the effective application of new technologies. The drivers behind these pressures are not so much the faculty – "who

have by and large optimized to their teaching effort and their time commitments to a lecture format" – but the contemporary students who are citizens of a digital age:

> They have spent the early live surrounded by robust, visual, interactive media – not the passive broadcast media, radio and television, of our youth, but rather Nintendo, home computers, the Internet, and MUDs and MOOs, and virtual reality. They learn by experimentation and participation, not by listening or reading passively. They take no one's word for anything. Rather they embrace interactivity, the right to shaped and participate in their learning. They are comfortable with the uncertainty that characterizes their change-driven world. (Duderstadt, 2000, p. 82)

A survey of college freshman found that some 40 percent of them report they are bored in class – a 65 percent increase in the boredom rate since 1985 (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). Increasingly the students believe that "better pedagogy can make learning exciting" and they are also increasingly willing to look outside their university or college for transferable courses that may provide more effective and interesting learning (pp. 100-101). Duderstadt (2000) found that though students may tolerate for a time the "linear, sequential lecture paradigm of the traditional college curricula," it is not the way they learn best; instead, they "learn in a highly nonlinear fashion, by skipping from beginning to end and then back again, and by building peer groups of learners, by developing sophisticated learning networks." (p. 83). This is a learning style well suited for the computer age.

The application of new learning media poses many pedagogical issues to address. For example, how to teach online without the use of visual clues essential to effective human communication, how to design manageable class materials so students might efficiently find and navigate them on a course website, "how to convey complex ideas that have subtle nuances without direct interaction," and so forth (Spicer, 2003, p. 152). Furthermore, given faculty concerns over increased workloads and a 24/7 work environment as institutions seek to

maximize student enrollments with low incremental costs, there is an impetus to determine how can the online learning environment be made appealing and effective with "as little feedback and personal attention" as an instructor might get away with; a calculation that "could result in courses presented in superficially attractive formats but with little of the active learning that educators consider most valuable for the student" (Bok, 2003, p. 96).

Traditional institutions may balk at the high cost of developing online courses, especially given the number of challengers who have spent years of experimentation with pedagogy, content delivery, technical infrastructure, and support systems that may require investments sometimes exceeding $1 million per course (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001, p. 11). Faculty may be concerned that the new technologies are beyond them, and that they may be replaced by others more advanced or by the technology itself. Distance education innovator Matthew Pittinksy (2003) offered consolation in that "although the experience of education will certainly be different, the technology inevitably will be driven by the pedagogy, and ensuring that our core values remain the same" (p. 11). Furthermore, ongoing research into cognitive science has demonstrated the fundamentals remain true:

> Students learn more from doing than from watching. Students learn better when engaged in group activities instead of solo activities. Students learn as much from one another as from the professor. Students learn more when more is expected of them. Students have a diversity of learning styles, interests, and experiences. None of these insights has anything to do with technology. (Wilson, 2001, p. 214)

What the new technologies do allow, coupled with tried and true pedagogical processes, is the ability to develop "highly interactive classes that make good use of simulations, case-method discussions, games, and other means of provoking discussion among students and instructors," however initially expensive those types of courses might

be (Bok, 2003, p. 170). Much of the technology applied to higher education to date has been little more than new gadgets bolted on to existing educational tools (Twigg, 2003). However, with the rapid hardware and software innovations, before long newer information technology will provide human interaction in a high-definition and three-dimensional telepresence, allowing for distance education to seem comparable to a face-to-face experience (Duderstadt, 2000). Already the current experience with the asynchronous distance learning process can be just as effective as the classroom experience, in terms of learning and costs (p. 229). Bok (2003) suggested, "In some respects, the Internet may actually be superior to a regular seminar":

> It can elicit more considered responses and wider participation, especially by students reluctant to express themselves in a classroom before their peers. In certain classes, such as those involving complex lab experiments, the new technology can allow students to familiarize themselves with equipment in advance or observe the manipulate simulated material in ways more effective than normal teaching methods allow. In courses assigning problems with exact answers, students can receive instant feedback for homework submitted on-line. (Bok, 2003, p. 88)

Twigg (2003) has identified a number of interactive materials that instructors may provide, and some of the benefits that come from them, including interactive tutorials and exercises that provide self-paced student practice; computerized low-stakes quizzes which provide feedback, repetition, and reinforcement; interactive experience with abstract concepts, where the students employ hands-on experience analyzing and collecting data; and numerous linked examples from various disciplines where students can follow their own paths of interest and learning styles (p. 126).

Higher education administrators and faculty have numerous resources to turn to as they develop their distance learning programs, including case studies, how-to books, and

countless journal articles. They may also be served by following the best-practice examples discovered so far by leaders in the global e-education industry:

- Education offerings must be demand-driven and serve marketplace needs.
- Technology and business models must be scalable.
- Education providers must exploit the 24/7/365 ubiquitous, on-demand learning environment of the Internet.
- Education providers must work toward standardization of credentials and transnational marketplace acceptance.
- There must be dependable infrastructure and user access.
- Education providers must find strategic partners to add competencies that solve marketplace problems. (Irvine, 2003, pp. 103-104)

Levine (2003) observed that there is no need for all American institutions of higher learning "to morph into click or brick-and-click entities" providing 3,600 different online programs, and that only a small number of online educators will ultimately dominate the market (p. 29). Indeed, many students are still going to prefer the traditional campus experience, though some educators fear that this traditional experience "will be available to only the most affluent, best, and brightest in the nation. Others will be forced into cheaper click education" (p. 26).

Beyond the United States, many nations are hoping that distance learning may provide expanded access to higher education, especially for those who may be precluded from other options. International analysts have determined that distance learning will play a "decisive role in the creation of the global knowledge-based society," and that the *global classrooms* have already been proven successful through emerging global communication networks (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 10). While the international use of open and distance learning is "predominantly represented within higher education, it is also beginning to be used in schools" (p. 11). However, this transcultural nature of distance learning may create

problems concerning local governments and publics, in the fear that their local cultures "can be threatened by the international culture of developed countries" (p. 11).

Open and distance learning of a lower-tech sort such as correspondence courses has been around for about 100 years in developed nations, and developing nations have one or two generations of experience with distance learning (Moore & Tait, 2002). Especially in the low-income but high-population countries of the world, the new technologies are seen to promise significant learning opportunities even though lack of Internet connectivity, regional bandwidth, local access and professional competence pose barriers (Irivne, 2003; Moore & Tait, 2002). The regional disparities are great, as "some of the regions with the largest populations (i.e., India, China) also have the lowest concentration of telecom infrastructure and computers" (Irvine, 2003, p. 89). In some countries, the demand for higher education is "actually driving the adoption of computers and the Internet, a move that will create economic growth and a new business environment," though the earliest markets will be in areas with high *teledensity* – concentrated telecom systems (p. 80). Nevertheless, the new technologies "of educational delivery have come to stay, and many countries are looking at open and distance learning as a major strategy for expanding access, raising quality and ensuring cost-effectiveness" (Moore & Tait, 2002, p. 10).

To accommodate the increasing demand for language and cultural diversity in the globalization of distance learning, there will be a huge market demand for appropriate course materials, and numerous education companies and universities are now creating content and programs in multiple languages (Irvine, 2003). Trow (2001) predicted that all of Europe might come to provide universal access to lifelong learning "by way of work-based

instruction over the web for upgrading the skills and knowledge needed by an educated labor force and the global economy … The most profound effects of IT will be to weaken the distinction between life and learning" (pp. 138-139).

> Many of us who have been involved with the Internet and education for 10 years or more were motivated early on by the great potential to use technology to change education paradigms: to build environments for learner-centered knowledge and information exchange and to provide greater access to knowledge around the world, especially to people who may never see a university campus. These motivations remain, and a new industry is emerging that has the potential to make global access to learning and knowledge a reality. There will be no greater economic force for the long term than education, and the emerging global education industry will be a major world force for many years to come. (Irvine, 2003, p. 105)

The preceding pages only provide a brief survey of some of the broad issues in international higher education, and the directions it may take in the new marketplace. The Depth component ahead will provide a more specific look at how institutions of higher learning may adapt to changes within the evolving academic environment, as well as some of the promise and peril that may be found along the way.

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Knowledge Area Module 6

International Learning Institutions: Organization, Purpose, Goals, and Missions

Depth Component

EDUC 8620: New Models in Transcultural Learning Institutions and Curricula

Depth Introduction

As the Breadth component considered the implications for expanded learning opportunities worldwide, it laid a foundation for the Depth examination of contemporary methods and problems in international learning. For the Depth component, I considered how international learning institutions might be impacted by global, cultural, social, technological, and fiscal influences, as they adapt to the challenges and opportunities of distance learning and the internationalization of education.

The Depth sections examine driving issues forcing change in international higher education, changes institutions might adopt to adapt to those drivers, new academic policies, and concludes with consideration of the promise and peril the future might hold. As with the Breadth component, the interrelated issues of governance, funding, faculty, technologies, curriculum, and so forth are frequently interwoven throughout section headings, rather than treated as distinct and isolated issues. The analysis starts by considering some of the social and economic forces mandating adaptation in higher education.

Adapting to and Adopting Change

Adaptation to change may be considered a response to realities imposed by outside environmental forces. Very little choice is involved in adaptation itself; we either adapt, or we cease to be players. We may have freedom of choice in how we adapt (what we choose to adopt), but we are not free from choice itself.

Global Conditions

A World Bank study determined that the ability to generate quality knowledge within institutions of higher education is increasingly critical to national competitiveness in the global marketplace, which poses a serious challenge to nations in the developing world (Task force, 2000). For the last quarter of a century, many governments and donor organizations have assigned a relatively low priority to developing higher education opportunities through international assistance program, likely grounded in a "narrow" and "misleading analysis" that "public investment in universities and colleges brings meager returns compared to investment in primary and secondary schools, and that higher education magnifies income inequality" (p. 1).

> As a result, developing countries' higher education systems are under great strain. They are chronically underfunded, but face escalating demand. Faculties are often under-qualified, poorly motivated, and poorly rewarded. Students are badly taught and curricula under-developed. Developed countries, meanwhile, are constantly raising the stakes. Quite simply, many developing countries will need to work much harder just to maintain their position, let alone to catch up. (Task force, 2000, p. 1)

More recent thinking on the values of tertiary education has determined that higher learning is vital in developing national productivity and the ability to compete globally (The World Bank, 2002). Higher education can support economic growth and poverty reduction through such contributions as (a) training a qualified work force including scientists, teachers, capable business and government leaders; (b) conducting research and generating new knowledge; and (c) adapting stores of global knowledge for local use. "Tertiary education institutions are unique in their ability to integrate and create synergy among these three dimensions" (pp. 4-5).

Altbach (2004c) observed that higher education is now in a new era of power and influence, where the push for market-driven profits has surpassed politics and ideologies in the realms of international relations. Rather than governments and armies, it is multinational corporations, media conglomerates, and even universities that serve as the neocolonists seeking to dominate in the global marketplace (p. 6). About 2 million students are attracted to the lure of universities outside of their own countries, and that number is projected to increase to 8 million by 2025, and national governments are taking a greater interest both in attracting international students as well as sending their own students abroad to make them more competitive in the global economy (Altbach, 2004b, p. 1). Millions of international students will continue to enroll in American institutions as the size and diversity of the United States makes it especially attractive, even though other nations are becoming more competitive in attracting cross-border enrollments (p. 4). In the academic year 1999-2000, it was estimated that more than 500,000 international students and their dependents in the United States contributed some $12 billion to the U.S. economy (ACE, 2002, p. 28). The United States attracts more foreign students to its universities and colleges than its three largest competitors of the U.K., Germany, and France combined; other competitive nations vigorously recruiting international students include Australia and New Zealand (Altbach, 2004b, p. 2).

Among the top priorities for American and other academic leaders around the world will be to meet the increasing local demand for higher education, as well as compete in the globally competitive marketplace for a greater share of international students (ACE, 2002). In many countries, the capacity to meet the demand for postsecondary education falls far short of the need (Altbach, 2004b). More than half of

the world's postsecondary students live in the poorer southern nations of the developing are, and are increasingly looking to the richer countries of the north for educational opportunity (p. 1). The proportion of students studying outside of their home countries will likely expand as "academic systems become more similar and academic degrees more widely accepted internationally, as immigration rules are tailored to people with high skill levels, and as universities themselves are more open to hiring the best talent worldwide" (Altbach, 2004c, p. 9).

The United States, however, has become less appealing to international students, even as the demand for international education is climbing. According to a 2004 survey conducted by the Council of Graduate Schools, the number of international students applying to study in the United States has dropped dramatically, in large part due to delays in processing visa applications, which has prompted warnings of a reverse brain drain where gifted scientists and researchers may select more welcoming countries (Foreign students decline, 2004, p. 4). International students from developing nations, especially from Islamic countries, have reported disrespectful treatment from U.S. officials, and the word has spread worldwide (Altbach, 2004b). "Coming to study in the United States has become an obstacle course, and prospective students abroad are increasingly leery of stringent, changing, arbitrary, and sometimes inconsistent government regulations regarding visas, reporting to government agencies, and the like" (p. 5).

American institutions may find themselves at a further disadvantage as "expanding needs, rising costs, and declining investments in international and foreign language training have led the United States to a dangerous shortfall of individuals with

global competence" – a necessity not only for appealing educational programs, but to produce a knowledge of languages and cultures for a "sufficient and diverse pool of American students to meet the needs of government agencies, the private sector, and education itself" in a globalized environment (ACE, 2002, p. 7). American students have also been attracted to studies abroad, providing at least a nominal recognition of the need for a global awareness; however, the tiny proportion of American undergraduates studying abroad is only at .02 percent (Altbach, 2004b, p. 6).

The American Council on Education has warned that the success of Americans involved in international endeavors including education and business will depend on the global competence of our people (ACE, 2002). "Global competence is a broad term the ranges from the in-depth knowledge required for interpreting information affecting national security, to the skills and understanding that foster improved relations with all regions of the world" (p. 7). Global competence is demonstrated by such abilities as proficiency in a foreign language, and the ability to function effectively when relating to other cultural environments and value systems (p. 7). Undeveloped global competency is a shortcoming analysts have found in many American students and institutions. Though Americans may be well grounded in the principles of free-markets and the dynamics international competition, if American academic leaders and students are not prepared to improve their understanding of other cultures and develop the "skills to live in a global economy, they are going to have a hard time" (Adam, 2003, p. 4).

The World Bank (2002) has called on all nations to find ways to meet the needs of higher education as a means not only to promote the sciences, but to develop worldwide social benefits as well. "Tertiary education facilitates nation building by

promoting greater social cohesion, trust in social institutions, democratic participation and open debate, and appreciation of diversity and gender, ethnicity, religion, and social class" (p. xxi).

Fading Funding

Accompanying the increased global pressures on American higher education is the rise of market forces pushing institutions to compete at a time when academia is suffering from drastically reduced funding, with little hope for better times in the near future (Smith, 2004). Over a two-year period, California cut funds for higher education by 9.6 percent with more cuts to come, while Colorado's funds were cut by 21.8 percent and Massachusetts's by 23 percent (p. 33).

To compensate for the cuts, many colleges and universities are raising their tuition rate, which has predictably imposed further hardships on lower-income students (Reed & Szymanksi, 2004). Over a period of decades, the funding of higher education has continued to shift from state governments to students and their families (Smith, 2004). Such a rise in costs may not only prevent needy students from gaining access to higher learning, but may also further a transfer of money to already wealthy families:

> As tuition rises, colleges are offering more merit-based aid, which tends to benefit wealthier families. As tuition rises, students and their families are taking on huge loan debt, which transfers money to financial and credit-card companies. As tuition rises, more pressure is put on financially strapped states and public colleges to fulfill the push to privatize public services, including higher education. (Reed & Szymanksi, 2004, p. 40)

Lower-income students are finding themselves increasingly reliant on debt rather than grants to finance their education, which presents further problems for lower income families. Over the course of 20 years starting in 1982, the percentage of federal financial

aid in the form of grants dropped from over 50 percent, to only 40 percent in 2002-03. "Most federal financial aid now comes in the form of loans, and research suggests that students from lower-income families are less willing than other students to take on large loan burdens to finance their higher education" (Bradley, 2004, p. 30). Heller (2004) warned that a growing consideration of merit over need in awarding financial aid poses further complications for college access.

> Research on tuition prices and financial aid over the past three decades has consistently found that, short of keeping tuition prices as low as possible, financial aid targeted at needy students is the best policy for increasing college access among underrepresented students. Merit scholarships, whether provided by states or institutions, are awarded disproportionately to students from groups that already have the highest college participation rates in the nation – white, Asian-American, and upper-income students. (Heller, 2004, p. 38)

Faculty Affairs

Another fundamental change in the new academic environment, and also directly related to current financial circumstances, is the rapidly declining proportion of faculty who are appointed to tenured positions (AAUP, 2003). This decrease in the protections of tenure may threaten the academic freedom so fundamental to the mission of higher education, since "faculty tenure is the only secure protection for academic freedom in teaching, research, and service" (p. 1).

Some organizations – in particular those who represent full-time and tenured educators – argue that as tenured faculty are replaced, the quality and credibility of higher education may suffer. The American Federation of Teachers has assumed the position that while non-tenured part-time and adjunct instructors may "teach with distinction and make major contributions to the institutions they serve," what creates the problem is their "exploited status, which requires them to rise above

adverse and unreasonable circumstances in order to deliver quality education" (AFT, 2002, p. 8).

The American Association of University Professors has cited a number of ways where the increase in adjunct or "contingent" faculty over the last decade has created "systemic problems for higher education," including how student learning has been diminished by less opportunity for contact with tenured faculty "whose expertise in their field in effectiveness as teachers have been validated by peer review"; a weakened faculty governance caused by higher turnover and frequent exclusion of contingent faculty from governance; and inequities among colleagues which undermine the "collegial atmosphere of academic institutions and hamper the effectiveness of academic decision making" (AAUP, 2003, p. 4). The over-reliance on adjunct faculty might pose additional threats, as parts of the academic whole are "divided and assigned piecemeal to instructors, lecturers, graduate students, specialists, researchers, and even administrators" (p. 4).

AAUP president Jane Buck recently referred to the "exploitation of contingent faculty and the continuing attacks on tenure" as a challenge to the quality of American education (Buck wins, 2004, p. 17). The theme of worker exploitation has been advanced as well by the American Federation of teachers, in that the "compensation, benefits and professional support accorded to part-time/adjunct faculty are woefully inadequate," with average pay so low that universities and colleges are reasonably called "academic sweatshops" (AFT, 2002, p. 7). Other analysts have found that "to be an adjunct teacher means to struggle with feelings of resentment, abjection, anger, and failure brought on by one's job" (Teeuwen & Hantke, 2003, p. 2).

Other analysts, including an adjunct instructor and columnist for *The Chronicle of Higher Education,* have suggested that the market forces of the new academic environment require that faculty in higher education need to adjust their thinking for the times:

> Many in the adjunct community are calling for "change" when, in fact, they are calling for things to go back to the way they were. They want to return to an earlier era when most everyone in academics had a fulltime job, retirement and health insurance benefits, and an opportunity to earn tenure. Granted, that would be nice. But it's not likely to happen. …Only those who can adapt to the new situation and work within its new reality will flourish, while those who nostalgically operate within the past will fail. (Carroll, 2004, p. 22)

Hess (2004) concluded that an entrepreneurial outlook on the new marketplace of higher education logically sees contingent faculty as players in the free market purchase of academic labor. This attitude may lead to a "trivialization of contingent academic labor and the dismissal of any collective approaches to changing its conditions" (p. 38). Given the heated rhetoric, the threats to academic quality, the involvement of representative unions, the fiscal realities, and the administrative pressures to balance all the forces, the reforms of faculty status within the academy is sure to be a hot issue into the years to come.

Evolving Policies

To cope with the adaptive pressures and forces in academia, committed leaders and guardians will need to consider new policies to ensure a continued successful evolution of the practices and purposes of higher education. Some of the

possible policy considerations below include new modes of governance, faculty relations, and fiscal management.

New Modes of Governance

As considered above in the Breadth component, one of the largest problems facing effective management in the new academic environment is finding new ways of engaging faculty in governance, while keeping the greater interests of the organization moving ahead in a highly charged and competitive marketplace (page 19). The transformational changes needed throughout higher education to adapt to the new market forces will require institutional leaders articulating a clear vision and applying a focused allocation of resources (page 36). A new governance model will need to employ effective methods of coping with the mundane realities of the marketplace, while not neglecting the invaluable greater calling of higher education.

The World Bank has concluded that, on its own, the market will not likely devise such a system that considers many academic issues beyond bottom-line costs and benefits (Task force, 2000). It is a given that "markets require profit and this can crowd out important educational duties and opportunities"; and to counter this governments will need to develop a new protective role serving as benevolent "supervisors of higher education, rather than directors … establishing the parameters within which success can be achieved, while allowing specific solutions to emerge from the creativity of higher education professionals" (p. 2). Tertiary education governors and guardians cannot allow the tried and respected functions of academia to fail, along with some of the best hopes for educating "low-income and minority students, thereby increasing their employability, income prospects, and social mobility and decreasing

income inequality" around the world (The World Bank, 2002, p. 5). Beyond serving the individual needs of students, higher education at its best may also serve by contributing to the "social capital necessary for constructing healthy civil societies and socially cohesive cultures, achieving good governance, and building democratic political systems" (p. 5).

New modes of governance will need to ensure that postsecondary education fulfills one of its most important missions of the day, which is providing students with a greater global understanding (Cooper, 2003). Those involved in guiding the curricula and pedagogy of academic institutions will also need to have greater appreciation and accommodation of cultural differences, as higher education becomes a global agent for change – while considering that other nations may not necessarily share the American perspective on mixing profit motives with academic aspirations (Guri-Rosenblit, 2001).

The World Bank recommended a number of purposes and responsibilities that governors of higher education should consider as they lead the academy through its transformational change. Some of the main messages include:

- Social and economic progress is achieved principally through the advancement and application of knowledge.
- Tertiary education is responsible for the creation, dissemination, and application of knowledge and for building technical and professional capacity.
- Developing and transition countries are at risk of being further marginalized in a highly competitive world economy because their tertiary education systems are not adequately prepared to capitalize on the creation and use of knowledge.
- The state has a responsibility to put in place an enabling framework that encourages tertiary education institutions to be more innovative and responsive to the needs of a globally competitive knowledge economy and the changing labor market requirements for advanced human capital.
(World Bank, 2002, p. 6)

New Faculty Policies

Despite catastrophic predictions and territorial warfare, it is a given that throughout American higher education institutions have come to rely increasingly on part-time and fulltime non-tenure track faculty (Ehrenberg & Rizzo, 2004). In the academic year 2001-02, more than 50 percent of newly hired fulltime faculty was off the tenure track (p. 31). As critics observe, fewer tenured faculty may mean "fewer people to design, guide, and implement inspired, inventive, thought-provoking liberal arts curricula," which could then fall to the duty of administrators "whose primary concern is increasingly profitability" (Glaros, 2004, p. 44). Furthermore, by relying on an "exploited class of contingent and under-supported faculty" (Smith, 2004, p. 35), it may well be that "the new university also teaches its students about the benefits and logic of inequality" (Hess, 2004, p. 41). The problems of equity are likely to deepen, as online courses become mainstream and "just another part of a faculty member's workload" at reduced levels of compensation (Carnevale, 2004a, p. 1).

The American Association of University Professors, and the American Federation of Teachers have staked out their positions, with recommendations including that the appointment of faculty to contingent positions should resemble the hiring and evaluation process for tenure track faculty; adjunct faculty should be paid at a rate and benefit compensation prorated to be comparable to a fulltime position; and no more than 15 percent of an institution's total instruction should be provided by non-tenure faculty (AAUP, 2003, pp. 6-8; AFT, 2002, p. 5). In other words, any economic benefit and competitive advantage in hiring adjuncts should be denied to administrators, a position hardly apt to win administration's favor in the new educational marketplace.

These unfortunate financial circumstances may be falling at the worst possible time, when higher education is called upon to serve greater and more urgent demands than ever. Yet higher education as a sector is hardly alone in the coping with challenges of adjusting to a global environment, and a sympathetic public outcry over the injustices in academia is unlikely. Rather than wage war between each other, administrators and faculty will need to achieve a common understanding in the face of environmental realities, and seek solutions with an aim of fairness and mutual consideration.

New Financial Policies

Since many of the drivers in the new educational environment are directly tied to financially based market forces, the standard fiscal foundations of the traditional model may well need revision. Some old-school financial decisions have proven problematic. For example, many institution administrators attempted to compete for students through a major investment in offerings such as recreational facilities, remodeled dormitories, and state-of-the-art computer technology (AAUP, 2003). However, these student inducements required cuts in other areas of the instructional budget, which was accomplished by hiring fewer tenure-track faculty and more contingent faculty. “While this choice may have improved the infrastructure on many campuses, it has undoubtedly imposed the cost on the quality of instruction” (pp. 3-4).

Blaney (2004) suggested that the time might be right to consider two major changes in the support structure for colleges – potentially saving hundred millions of dollars as well as increasing access for students – through a shift in the allocation of government funds and a tiered tuition rate.

> First, a greater proportion of state money for higher education should go directly to students, allowing them to choose where they want to enroll. Right now, only a relatively small percentage of public funds goes to individuals directly, rather than to institutions. Secondly, tuition at state institutions should be indexed to income, similar to a graduated income tax, so that wealthy families would cover more of the cost directly. (Blaney, 2004, p. 1)

Administrators may also find it worthwhile to allocate greater sums to attracting international students and providing better programs to serve them. International education is a big business, with foreign students contributing more than $12 billion each year to the U.S. economy (Altbach, 2004b). Not only are international students a financial asset to the host country, they are valuable contributors to the host's "global competitiveness by swelling the numbers of highly trained people in key disciplines. In some graduate specialties such as engineering, computer sciences, and a few others, foreign students constitute a majority of students at the doctoral level" (Altbach, 2004b, p. 2). There are some negative repercussions to an increase in international studies, however, since there is frequently a net drain of revenue from the home countries as the students spend their tuition funds in the host country – a fact especially detrimental to developing nations (Altbach, 2004c). In addition, the returning students carry back home elements of a foreign academic culture, which may have little relevance to their own national needs (p. 9).

Given the global benefits and demand for increased access to higher education, richer nations and donor organizations may need to ensure that funds are available in poorer nations to support educational opportunities. The World Bank (2002) found that very few nations have financial programs reaching more than 10% of the student population, and the handful of exceptions are richer nations including Australia, Canada, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Promise and Peril

The future of higher education around the world has much riding on it, both in terms of peril in a critical mission unfilled, as well as the potential promise of a job done right. Success or failure may be determined by how well the guardians of academia meet the looming challenges of applying new technologies and providing access to universal learning. Following are some examples of the best and worst case scenarios of what may lie ahead in the immediate years to come.

The Peril

Ironically – in this age of instant rich media communications with exponentially multiplying bandwidth and dimensions, when nearly the entire knowledge base of human experience is digitalized and accessible – the dangers of isolation and division between peoples are perhaps higher than ever. Furthermore, if the global network connections that do form simply serve a purpose of homogenization, at a cultural cost of diversity and the survival protections that diversity provides, society may be the worse for it.

The World Bank (2002) found it a favorable development as new types of tertiary institutions take advantage of new education delivery opportunities provided by evolving technologies, but warns however that the dangers of digital divides within and between nations could counter the benefits. Most of the academic databases on the Internet are dominated by major universities in the northern countries, with content largely in English, which affects access and usage from other countries, particularly the poorer southern nations (Altbach, 2004c). “Academic institutions and countries unable to pay for

access to these information sources find it difficult to participate fully in the networks," a problem compounded by copyright and ownership restrictions that further limit access (p. 15). The transnational initiatives in higher education typically involve a south-to-north dynamic, "almost without exception dominated by the partner institution in the north – in terms of curriculum, orientation, and sometimes the teaching staff" (Altbach, 2004b, p. 8). Typically, the language of instruction is in English, even if that is not the language of the instructed country, and there is "often little effort to adapt offshore programs to the needs or traditions of the country in which the programs are offered – they are simply exported impact" (p. 8).

Academic institutions offering education to other nations may frequently be insensitive to the characteristics of a local culture and the students' particular needs (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). Some analysts are criticizing that universities may offer abroad lower quality programs than are found on the home campus, and that the program content does not focus on local concerns, while the primary use of English as the language of instruction raises further questions "about cultural imperialism and homogenization. Developing countries would surely be ill-served if universities from the outside replaced local universities rather than supplemented them" (p. 28).

Though the United States may dominate the rest of the world in attracting international students, it has often failed to offer in return much interest in the rest of the world. The United States withdrew from UNESCO in 1984, depriving scientific communities and higher educators of "important opportunities to participate in potentially beneficial cultural, scientific, and educational reforms" (ACE, 2002, p. 20). American academia has never developed a national approach to international higher education, and

the federal government has provided little support for it. “Whatever national policies do exist are negative – significant barriers have been erected in the name of national security that make it more difficult for foreign students and scholars to come to the United States,” while other countries are expanding their international outreach with policies encouraging foreign students to attend their academic institutions (Altbach, 2004b, p. 11). Inexplicably, state governments which have traditionally been responsible for developing American higher education policy, have frequently been “uninterested in and even hostile to international students, despite the fact that those students bring significant amounts of money into local economies and provide needed help as low-paid teaching and research assistance in public universities” (p. 11).

Another counter-juxtaposition of circumstance is that the demand for international education is so high while at the same time teachers skilled with global competence are so few (ACE, 2002). Universities and colleges lack sufficient foreign language and international studies faculty – especially in less common languages and nations – and faculty in professional disciplines such as “business, public health, law, and the environment, need greater international expertise. Lack of priority, rising costs, and dwindling funds from all sources have eroded higher education’s capacity to produce the numbers and variety of experts needed” (p. 12).

> Global transformations has made it imperative that the United States have citizens with a broad set of international skills and crosscultural understanding, and far more international experts on a greater variety of world regions and issues. Meeting these needs will take a generation of education and reform. The federal government must act now. The administration and the Congress must take a leadership role in declaring a national policy on international education, raise the level of awareness as to the importance of global competence to U.S. national interest, and stimulate concerted nationwide efforts to address these challenges. (ACE, 2002, p. 23)

Higher educators also must do more to assure that new pedagogical technologies are effectively applied and fairly distributed, or the promising tools may be discarded and further innovation discouraged. Zemsky and Massy (2004) found that in general, instructors are only using technology to simplify tasks, not to change how they fundamentally teach their subjects. “They readily translate lecture notes into PowerPoint presentations. They use course-management tools like Blackboard and WebCT to distribute class materials, grades, and assignments. But the materials are simply scanned, and the assignments neither look nor feel different” (p. 3). Even when textbook publishers make applied technologies available for faculty, such as interactive CDs or course websites, the instructors typically do not assign them (p. 3).

Lorensten (2001) observed that the successful implementation of new communication technologies is a complex process, and universities need to carefully study and share successful experiences. When this responsibility goes unfulfilled, the gap between those who effectively use the technologies and those who do not will “grow even greater. The international community cannot live with this type of situation,” when a global balance requires common access to the resources of knowledge and technology (p. 521).

The Promise

The promise of the new educational environment was stated simply and eloquently more than 20 years ago in the *A Nation At Risk* report prepared by the National Commission on Excellence in Education: “All, regardless of race or class or economic status, are entitled to a fair chance and to the tools for developing their

individual powers of mind and spirit to the utmost" (NCEE, 1983, p. 1). The world now has the ability to fulfill that prescient vision through efficient and effective technological tools, provided world leaders find the will and the means to make it so.

In the United States, most Americans have come to believe that a college education is now as important as a high school diploma used to be for finding professional success (Reed & Szymanksi, 2004). As high school is seen to be a worthwhile investment deserving of public support and free access, the time may come when a free college education providing full access to all qualified aspirants is also seen as a social good.

> Current tuition and fees for all students now enrolled – full and part time – in public two- and four-year colleges and universities total a little more than $30 billion. Even if expanded access doubled enrollments, only $60 billion of public money would be required. This expense could easily be covered by closing some corporate tax loopholes, eliminating some tax cuts to the very wealthy, or taking a slice from the $400 billion defense budget. Making public education free is not only the right, rational, and just thing to do. It is also a goal that can be won in the foreseeable future. (Reed & Szymanksi, 2004, p. 43)

Distance learning technologies are also expanding higher educational opportunities to many previously excluded groups of people, both domestically and globally. Aspiring college students around the world may benefit from a new era of "transnational higher education, in which academic institutions from one country operate in another, academic programs are jointly offered by universities from different countries, and higher education is delivered through distance technologies" (Altbach, 2004b, p. 7). Though the initial pace may be slow and there are many administrative challenges to overcome, "on most campuses, money is being spent, smart classrooms are being built, and faculty members are experimenting with new ways of bringing electronically

mediated learning into the classroom. Ultimately, the lure of learning anytime anywhere will prove irresistible" (Zemsky & Massy, 2004, p. 4).

Already majorities of academic leaders are expressing a belief that online education may prove equal or superior to face-to-face instruction, and will become even more so in the near years ahead (Allen & Seaman, 2003). Studies are finding that online communications in important ways may serve as a superior forum for scholarly and inclusive interaction.

> On the Internet, there is no race, no gender, no age, no infirmities—only minds: people talking to people. …Other people want more time to consider an idea and formulate their responses. Rather than speaking extemporaneously, they are often minimal contributors to real-time conversations. … When given a chance to think and then speak, as is the case with several forms of online conversation, these people experience a new freedom and level of participation. They can be heard clearly, and the power of their responses is often impressive. (Jonassen, Howland, Moore, & Marra, 2003, pp. 74-76)

Teachers at all levels of experience, especially newer instructors already comfortable with 21st century technologies, are effectively employing electronic teaching aids, both online and in traditional classrooms. Thoms (2001) found the tools and techniques of online learning may be employed to effectively engage and motivate adult learners by creating a climate of exploration and offering diverse options for accessing information. Woodbridge (2003) advised that instructors might apply new technologies in numerous ways to increase teaching and learning efficacy with integrated and engaging communication tools.

Along with the international expansion of distance learning programs, traditional universities and colleges are also finding the global marketplace is supporting the operation of satellite campuses in foreign nations. For example, Australian universities are joining with partners in Malaysia, South Africa, and Vietnam to offer offshore

Australian degrees (Altbach, 2004b). “Governments see transnational education, like attracting foreign students, as a way to increase higher education’s revenues” (p. 8).

It may well be that profit incentives rather than social visions are what ultimately motivate governments and people to transcend their differences and strive for cooperative and peaceful interaction. Researchers are devoting studies to identify effective methods to ensure that international cross-cultural harmony may be better realized. Bruffee (2002) suggested three such principles: 1.) Recognize that “most cultural communities are nearly identical in many of the most rudimentary elements of social structure, needs, and desires.” 2.) Further recognize that “culturally diverse communities nested together in heterogeneous societies do share solid common ground.” And 3.) Find that “taking the common ground requires learning the intricacies and tact of re-negotiating membership on one’s own cultures and of finding new occasions to negotiate across the boundaries that divide cultural communities” (pp. 14-15).

Conceicao (2002) advised that social and culturally relevant adult education in cyberspace should include “self-awareness and knowledge of the learner’s background, interests, and level of experience” (p. 44). Jongewaard (2001) identified six citizenship characteristics of transcultural universalism: cross-cultural adaptability, geographical global awareness, contextual global awareness, empathetic activism, shared values, and trans-cultural awareness. “Effective global citizens will have a working knowledge of these categories … Further, teachers trained in these areas will have the knowledge and skills to teach their own students about the universals that unite us all, despite our many differences” (p. 6). Macia (1999) found international instructors might increase their

effectiveness by seeking out transcultural experiences and literary themes that resonate with students from diverse nations.

Perhaps among the most valuable aspects of the new potential in global higher education are the benefits to be gained from learning about world problems that transcend national boundaries (Tye, 2003). By such better understanding, humanity may best discover solutions that tap the "interconnectedness of systems – cultural, ecological, economic, political, and technological" (p. 1).

> Global education also involves learning to understand and appreciate our neighbors who have different cultural backgrounds from ours; to see the world through the eyes and minds of others; and to realize that other peoples of the world need and want much the same things. (p. 1)

Returning to the statement of promise earlier in this Depth analysis, we are truly living in a time when no child need live in ignorance; no inquiring soul need go uninformed. The calling of our age is to engage the will to make it so. We must first advance through many challenging social, political, and economic spheres. Each of these challenges may prove terminally problematic. The fiscal tyrannies of a competitive market may well deny the commodity of knowledge to those people living beyond the margins of a profitable business plan. Despotic governments may inhibit information flow to their peoples under the guise of national security. Though the greatest hurdle could well be within the social sphere: do we truly believe that universal education for its own sake is a worthy aim and a fundamental right, and are we willing to pay the costs?

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AAUP. (2003). Policy statement: Contingent appointments and the academic profession. Washington, DC: American Association of University Professors. Retrieved April 5, 2004 from http://www.aaup.org/statements/SpchState/contingent.htm

The American Association of University Professors issued this policy statement in response to the "alarming" decline in the proportion of faculty members appointed to tenure-line positions. This decline in the percentage of tenured faculty poses a threat to the integrity of higher education; since "faculty tenure is the only secure protection for academic freedom in teaching, research, and service" (p. 1). The AAUP argued that academic freedom is a "fundamental characteristic of higher education, necessary to preserve an independent forum for free inquiry and expression, and essential to the mission of higher education to serve the common good" (p. 1).

To counter the trend undermining tenured appointments, the AAUP proposed that all faculty work, whether tenured or not, should be compensated fairly. Specifically, "positions that require comparable work, responsibilities, and qualifications should be comparably compensated, taking into account variations by discipline, seniority, and departmental priorities. ... compensation for part-time appointments, including those in which faculty are currently paid on a per-course or per-hour basis, should be the applicable fraction of the compensation (including benefits) for a comparable full-time position" (p. 8). In other words, the AAUP position suggests that any institutional financial savings through the use of contingent faculty should be minimized, if not eliminated.

Furthermore, the AAUP proposed that no more than 15 percent of the total instruction within an institution – and no more than 25 percent of the total instruction within a department – should be provided by non-tenure-track faculty (p. 8). This does not bode well for the number of adjunct faculty who may be cut due to the financial limitations this would impose on institutions. While this policy statement expresses the partisan position of the professor's association, it does help to expand a greater understanding of the difficult issues facing all sides in the operations of higher education.

ACE. (2002). *Beyond September 11: A comprehensive national policy on international education.* Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

This paper is an analysis of international education, as based on data collected by the American Council on Education. ACE proposed that the future success of the nation relies "almost entirely on the global competence of our people." (p. 7) The paper defines global competence in broad terms ranging from knowledge necessary for assessing national security issues, to the skills required for interrelating with all nations of the world. To demonstrate global competence, a person should have developed foreign language proficiency and an ability to "function effectively in other cultural environments and value systems, whether conducting business, implementing international development projects, or carrying out diplomatic missions" (p. 7).

ACE proposed that producing a citizenry skilled in global competencies is the responsibility of educators throughout the educational system. A current-day problem, however, is that education institutions suffer a shortage of teachers with the skills comprising global competence. Furthermore, faculty involved with professional disciplines need greater international expertise, especially in professional subject areas such as business, public health, law, and the environment, need greater international expertise. The problem is exacerbated through a "lack of priority, rising costs, and dwindling funds from all sources have eroded higher education's capacity to produce the numbers and variety of experts needed today and prepared globally competence citizens" (p. 12).

This paper fortifies the argument that cross-cultural abilities are required for effective teaching, as well as an important subject area to be taught. This is valuable support for the current KAM, as well as my dissertation research.

AFT. (2002). *Standards of good practice in the employment of part-time/adjunct faculty: A blueprint for raising standards and ensuring financial and professional equity.* Washington, DC: The American Federation of Teachers.

The American Federation of Teachers raised some of the alarms echoed in the ACE policy statement above, and identified numerous problems and solutions that may related to the issue of part-time non-tenure-track faculty assuming a larger percentage of the teaching load. The AFT posed the issue as a question of exploitation: because financial considerations drive the employment process, it comes as no surprise that the compensation, benefits and professional support a corded to part-time/adjunct faculty are woefully inadequate … the average pay is so low that pay equity advocates have reason to call today's colleges and universities 'academic sweatshops'" (p. 7).

The AFT paper part-time/adjunct may be attractive to some faculty, "allowing them the time and energy to pursue other professional, personal and family interests while simultaneously providing income" (p. 8). Another consideration, not stressed in the AFT paper, is that for many new instructors, part-time/adjunct work is frequently the only option available given the current employment offerings in higher education. Still, by choosing this adjunct employment tract, even in the face of limited options, it may ultimately harm the career development of educators. "For many part-time/adjunct faculty, the years of poor salaries, low status and shoddy treatment instead to can result in a serious loss of professional stature. In fact, part-time/adjunct faculty members may be negatively, and wrongfully, judged by other faculty members based solely on their part-time status" (pp. 8-9).

Among the solutions suggested by the AFT, is the proposal that "part-time/adjunct faculty members should be initially hired with the same care and subjected

to the same interview process as any other applicant to the department" (p. 2). While the AFT's concern for the plight of adjunct instructors seemed sincere, it may have rung truer if the AFT's proposals to address the issue focused more on equity issues, rather than seeking to reduce the numbers of positions available for adjuncts through such processes as an increased level of screening and scrutiny and the bureaucratic bottlenecks that could entail.

Allen, I.E., & Seaman, J. (2003). *Sizing the opportunity: The quality and extent of online education in the United States, 2002 and 2003.* Needham, MA: Sloan Center for Online Education.

This study provided some valuable data on the developments in online education in the United States. Some of the findings include:

- Over 1.6 million students to at least one online course during Fall 2002.
- Over one-third of these students (578,000) took all of their courses online.
- Among all U.S. higher education students in Fall 2002, 11 percent took at least one online course.
- Among those students at institutions were online courses were offered, 13 percent took at least one online course.
- Eighty-one percent of all institutions of higher education offer at least one fully online or blended course.
- Complete online degree programs are offered by 34 percent of the institutions.
- Among public institutions, the numbers are even more compelling, with 97 percent offering at least one online or blended course and 49% offering an online degree program (pp. 1-2).

The study also examines the reaction of higher education's academic leaders, among who a majority (57 percent) "already believe that the learning outcomes for online education are equal to or superior to those of face-to-face instruction. Even more compelling, nearly one-third of the same academic leaders expect that learning outcomes for law online education will be superior to face-to-face instruction in three years, and nearly three-quarters of them expect learning outcomes for online education to be equal to or better than face-to-face instruction" (p. 3).

These data not only support the increased reliance on online learning in the United States, but also give some idea of what may be found worldwide as the distance-learning model expands globally. This research is valuable for the breadth and depth components of my KAM, as well as the article to be written for the application component.

Altbach, P. (2004a, January-February).The costs and benefits of world-class universities. *Academe. 90(1),* 20-23.

In this article, Altbach considered the criteria and benefits of world-class universities, as well as some of the funding issues surrounding their support. He noted that academic institutions everywhere are expected to cover an "increasing part of their budget through tuition and student fees, funds raised by consulting and selling research-based products, and other revenue-generating activities" (p. 2). However, without public support, world-class research universities will not be able to function; "without it, developing and sustaining world-class universities is impossible" (p. 2).

Altbach noted that universities operate in both national and global contexts, where the concept of the world-class university falls into the global sphere. "It assumes that the university is competing with the best academic institutions in the world and is aspiring to the pinnacle of excellence and recognition" (p. 3). Since a world-class university is operating in a global rather than local sphere, there may be conflicts as national and regional realities may differ from the global focus. These differences "relate to the need of the immediate society and economy and imply responsiveness to local communities. In these contexts, the nature of academic performance and roles may differ from what is expected at institutions competing in the global realm" (p. 3).

This article is a valuable insight into some of the challenges faced in providing universal access to learning, especially as it may involve international and global institutions seeking to mesh with localized realities. It also provided a useful analysis of some of critical funding issues.

Bruffee, K. (2002, January-February). Taking the common ground: Beyond cultural identity. *Change*. 34 (1), 10-17.

This paper starts with the posed question, “How do we live with and learn from people who think, believe, and behave differently from us?” The author precedes the answer with a focus on the urgency of the matter, “Today, increasingly, our survival depends less on distinguishing ‘us’ from ‘them’ than on discovering and cultivating the common ground that lies beyond our carefully tended gardens”; those gardens frequently guarded by well-tended walls and gates (p. 13).

The core of the solution, Bruffee proposes, is in “teaching the craft of mutual dependence and civil compatibility among diverse cultural communities,” and by people becoming more aware that “many of the cultural assumptions and practices of their peers … are deeply similar to their own and serve similar social, political, emotional, and spiritual ends” (p. 13).

Bruffee suggests three principles which might help achieve a more culturally-harmonious end: 1) Recognize that “most cultural communities are nearly identical in many of the most rudimentary elements of social structure, needs, and desires.” 2) Further recognize that “culturally diverse communities nested together in heterogeneous societies do share solid common ground.” And 3) Find that “taking the common ground requires learning the intricacies and tact of re-negotiating membership on one’s own cultures and of finding new occasions to negotiate across the boundaries that divide cultural communities” (pp. 14-15).

The article is a little heavy on conclusions and weak on supporting data. Fortunately the deficit is covered in other selected references.

Conceicao, S. (2002, Winter). The sociocultural implications of learning and teaching in cyberspace. *New directions for adult & continuing education,* 96, 37-46.

This paper considered the sociocultural implications of learning and teaching in cyberspace. The author in particular examined the social and cultural contexts of gender and national origin in adult learning, as well as the influence of perception and personality on interpersonal behavior.

Among the author's conclusions: "Because learners represent a variety of backgrounds, gender experiences, and learning styles, it is important to consider differences across diverse groups of learners in designing and delivering online courses effectively" (p. 44). She added that "accommodating more ethnic minority members as learners might well prepare us for using the Internet to reach an even more diverse learner population successfully."

Conceicao advised that social and culturally relevant adult education in cyberspace should include "self-awareness and knowledge of the learner's background, interests, and level of experience" (p. 44). Course designers, faculty and staff providing learner support will be empowered through awareness of different learning styles, and through improved understanding of how the educational context can shape the learner and the learning experience.

Much of the article is based on the writer's personal experience as an online learner in Brazil, which prohibits sweeping generalities attributable to a more diverse audience (e.g., Asian and European students). Yet the anecdotal evidence is a valuable contribution to the insights necessary for programming online education for an international student body.

Cooper, L. (2003, April). Interdisciplinary, intercultural online courses provide a global education experience. *T.H.E. Journal, 30(9),* 24-25.

Cooper's paper examined some of the steps schools are taking to improve their students' understanding of global issues, in particular ways their curriculum may expand opportunities in international education. Cooper assessed a joint program between the University System of Georgia (USG) and the University of Munich in Germany, which "have developed and implemented a unique collaborative approach the provide students with a global education experience, while giving them the opportunity to participate in a 'virtual' foreign exchange program" (p. 1). Cooper described the study setting of the fall 2001 semester, where the target institutions jointly offered nine intercultural online courses over a period of 18 months, each course team-taught in English by faculty from both institutions, focusing on some aspect of the European Union.

Among some of the more useful findings for the purpose of my KAM, is that German students tend to be more familiar and proficient at written assignments and assessments, and less familiar with objective-style testing formats – often just the opposite with American students. To address this difference, the study included both types of student evaluation in the courses (p. 3).

Cooper concluded that participation in a virtual student exchange program may help students obtain a valuable global education experience without the expense and time commitment of a study abroad program, though the interdisciplinary, intercultural courses require a considerable amount of planning and coordination, especially on the parts of involved faculty. "However, if well organized and facilitated, the courses can offer students a convenient an effective method of access for international education" (p.3).

Guri-Rosenblit, S. (2001). Virtual universities: Current models and future trends. *Higher Education in Europe, 26(4),* 487-499.

This study considered how models of distance and conventional higher education are merging in countries around the world, as well as some of the issues international educators must consider as they work with colleagues around the world. This is particularly critical in distance learning institutions where instructors and students must interact well, despite stark cultural differences.

The author predicts that the next decade will observe a continued blurring of the boundaries between traditional and distance higher education. This is attributed to the democratization of higher education, as well as emerging information and communication technologies (ICTs). “The ICT’s have prompted nearly all higher education institutions to enter the ‘distance education business’ and various levels of experimentation and application” (p. 487). Many, if not most, of these organizations may be operating in an international and global academic environment.

The study noted national and cultural variations in the perception of academic freedom, which has affected the policies and practices of various distance-model universities. For example, in German, Spanish, and Israeli cultures, academic freedom is highly prized and valued, and many academics shy away from teamwork and compulsory quality control mechanisms (p. 488). On the other hand, British and Canadian academics readily implemented collaborative work and quality control measures, where long-standing collegiate traditions eased the instances of collaborative work and quality control, including a system of external examiners (p. 488). This data further contributed to this KAM and my dissertation examining cross-cultural issues in global education.

Jongewaard, S. (2001, April). *Beyond multiculturalism: Towards a unification theory for the improvement of cross-cultural communication.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for Social Studies Great Lakes Regional Conference, Bloomington, MN. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED453119)

The author proposed a unification theory of multiculturalism and global education called "transcultural universalism," which considers a "universal citizenship profile," what it consists of, and how it might be developed. Jongewaard identified six citizenship characteristics of transcultural universalism: cross-cultural adaptability, geographical global awareness, contextual global awareness, empathetic activism, shared values, and trans-cultural awareness. "Effective global citizens will have a working knowledge of these categories … Further, teachers trained in these areas will have the knowledge and skills to teach their own students about the universals that unite us all, despite our many differences" (p. 5).

A drive toward transcultural competence might be approached in three developmental stages: an intracultural "*I* stage," or "cultural understanding in personal and micro-cultural-terms"; an intercultural "*we* stage," or "cultural comparisons in local and macrocultural terms"; and a transcultural "everybody stage" where "notions of cultural relativism and interdependence develop, along with membership in the human family and world citizenship (p. 6).

The article provides a useful list of characteristics that might be encouraged in an international classroom setting, as well as identification of the stages of awareness of transcultural perspectives, as well as provides one of the few articles in the academic journals which include the term "transcultural."

Macia, J. J. (1999). *Transcultural experiences: A literature bridge to English for ESOL students from Cuba.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida International University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED446445)

This qualitative dissertation explored the transcultural experiences of ESOL students from Cuba, and sought to connect their lived experiences to literature in the classroom. The purpose of the study was to describe and explain the transcultural perspectives of six high school and community college students – four Cuban-born and two American-born but raised in the Cuban-American culture. It investigates their lived transcultural experiences. The data were collected through student interviews, a researcher's journal, and document reviews.

Among the exploratory questions which guided the study: What are the underlying themes that account for the Cuban NNS students' transcultural experiences? What are the universal structures found among Cuban NNS students' transcultural experiences and the Cuban-American, native English/Spanish speaking (NESS) students' experiences? These questions are especially relevant to my own research into themes and images that may transcend a specific cultural foundation.

Macia observed that the study's survey provided a better understanding of the participating students' transcultural experiences, and showed the potential of connecting their perspectives to literature in the classroom. Macia concluded that secondary and higher educators, administrators, and curriculum specialists should use "more qualitative research to investigate the transcultural experiences of ESOL students from different cultures, emphasizing the cultural needs of each school and/or college," as this might lead to a better understanding of students' needs (p. 178).

Task Force on Higher Education and Society. (2000, March 1). *Peril and promise: Higher education in developing countries [Summary findings]*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

This World Bank report has been widely cited as an important examination of issues facing higher education worldwide, in particular how institutions in developing countries may best meet the educational demands in a globalizing economy. “The quality of knowledge generated within higher education institutions, and its accessibility to the wider economy, is becoming increasingly critical to national competitiveness this poses an especially serious challenge to the developing world” (p. 1). While much attention by donor organizations has been focused on primary and secondary education in the belief that provided higher returns, the Task Force report concluded that such misleading analysis has created “great strain” in developing nations’ higher education systems, at a time when those systems are facing escalating demand. The shortfall has resulted in under-qualified, poorly motivated and poorly rewarded faculty, while developed countries are constantly raising the stakes and the necessity of higher education.

Educations systems new and old will need to develop core qualities, including sufficient economies, with governments providing clear supervision while allowing institutions flexibility in day-to-day management; a stratification allowing institutions to serve different needs while competing among themselves for funding, faculty, and students; and “cooperation as well as competition, with human and physical capital, as well as knowledge and ideas, profitably shared within the system, creating, for example, a ‘learning commons’ where facilities, computers, libraries, laboratories are open to any and all students, increased openness, encouraging higher education institutions to develop

knowledge- (and revenue-) sharing links with business, and to deepen the dialogue with society that will lead to stronger democracy and more resilient nation states" (p. 2).

This report provides important insight into the disparity and necessities for higher educational opportunities in developing countries. Its findings are especially credible, given the bottom-line economic perspective of the World Bank, as well as its international experience and perspective transcending nationalistic biases.

The World Bank. *Constructing knowledge societies: New challenges for tertiary education.* (2002). Washington, DC.

This report helps to establish further the problems facing international higher education, and the need for expanding educational opportunities on a global scale. The report emphasized the vital contribution of tertiary education, since it "exercises a direct influence on national productivity, which largely determines living standards and the countries ability to compete and participate fully in the globalization process" (p 4).

The main findings of the report include:

- Social and economic progress is achieved principally through the advancement and application of knowledge.
- Tertiary education is responsible for the creation, dissemination, and application of knowledge and for building technical and professional capacity.
- Developing and transition countries are at risk of being further marginalized in a highly competitive world economy because their tertiary education systems are not adequately prepared to capitalize on the creation and use of knowledge.
- The state has a responsibility to put in place and enabling framework that encourages tertiary education institutions to be more innovative and responsive to the needs of a globally competitive knowledge economy and the changing labor market requirements for advanced human capital.
- The World Bank Group can assist its client countries in drawing on international experience and mobilizing the resources needed to improve the effectiveness and responsiveness of their tertiary education systems (p. 6).

In brief, the report concludes that tertiary education can offer better life opportunities and options for low-income students. Furthermore, tertiary education can impart to students norms, values, attitudes, and ethics "necessary for constructing healthy civil societies and socially cohesive cultures, achieving good governance, and building democratic political systems" (p. 5). While this may seem an obvious conclusion, it is nonetheless useful to have a source to references such findings.

Thoms, K. J. (2001, April). They're not just big kids: Motivating adult learners. *Proceedings of the Annual Mid-South Instructional Technology Conference, Murfreesboro, TN*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED463720)

This paper discusses motivation of adult learners, with the interesting contrast that while adults may be motivated by learning goals, they have a performance aspiration for the knowledge, where the course and instructor are judged by the students on performance: practices must be meaningful and practical: "If the leaner sees no connection between the job/course and the activities, that person will likely lose interest and not succeed in the class" (p. 4).

Among some of the characteristics of adult learners: they have first hand experience, set habits and strong tastes, preoccupations outside the learning environment, established a rational framework by which they make decisions, strong feeling about the learning situation, and a strong need to apply what is learned (pp. 5-6).

The paper detailed strategies to help motivate adult learners, including: put materials into bite-size chunks; use the whole-part-whole concept (which puts the specific learning within a greater context before and after the lesson); make the material relevant; provide efficacious documentation; add options and flexibility in assignments; create a climate of exploration; keep requirements in perspective to the amount of time for the course; make certain the student is equipped with enough knowledge to complete the assignment; and bend the rules if necessary and appropriate (pp. 7-8).

The author also describes some of the characteristics and skills of a motivating instructor, which include offering expertise, having empathy, showing enthusiasm, and demonstrating clarity. The paper provides a useful catalogue and summary of andragogical principles, yet supplies little in the way of new information.

Udoh, B. O. (2000). *Cultural adjustment of foreign students in an institution of higher education.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED464560)

Udoh based this dissertation on the premise that foreign students frequently encounter problems adjusting to new social environments while attending institutions of higher education. The purpose of this study was to describe the level of social difficulty experienced by foreign students from different regions of the world while studying in the United States, specifically at Louisiana State University.

The target population for this study consisted of 748 undergraduate foreign students enrolled at Louisiana State University (LSU) in the spring of 2000. The sample consisted of 178 of such students enrolled in English classes during the spring 2000 semester. The number of actual participants was 105, which represented 59% of the sample. The instrument used in this study was a Social Situation Questionnaire.

The study concluded that undergraduate foreign students at LSU experience low levels of social difficulty. The areas witnessing the largest levels of social distress included “making friends your own age” and “appearing in front of an audience” (p. 83). To address this finding, the author recommended that the university international center should provide more opportunities for cross-cultural interactions.

The dissertation provided an interesting look at research methodology, and was remarkably candid in the conclusions that contradicted the foundational premise described above. As the local institutional culture at LSU is not necessarily reflective of other campuses in the United States, it would be risky to extrapolate to great of significance to the conclusions.

Woodbridge, J. (2003). *Technology integration as a teaching strategy.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Walden University.

Woodbridge prepared her dissertation with the premise that technology is an "instructional tool for delivering, presenting, exploring, analyzing, and synthesizing curriculum content." The exploratory case study included classroom observations, interviews, and a survey. Teachers participating in the case study had a common background in integrated learning through technology, had all graduated from Jacksonville University's program in Integrated Learning with Education Technology. (p. 226).

As part of the dissertation study, teachers were asked, "How should technology be used in the classroom?" Some of the responses included:

1. Enhance, emphasize, and expand learning and teaching strategies.
2. Inform, begin research, reinforce skills and content, allow investigation, and be used as a presentation tool.
3. Teach technology skills within the context of content the students are studying.
4. Provide enrichment and give teachers survival skills to deal with the clerical work they must do while teaching.
5. Improve communication for development of the learning community with parents and students.
6. Participants agreed to the teacher should not use technology just for technologies sake. Instruction should reflect research-based teaching strategies that are considered the best teaching practices. Technology should be integrated, engaging, and encourage student exploration to learn independently (pp. 235-236).

Instructor interviews conducted as part of the study found common agreement in that teachers should not use technology for the sake of using technology, but "should be integrated, engaging, and encourage student exploration to learn independently" (p. 236). While it was interesting and useful to see how a designated and related group of instructors employed technology in education, there was little in the dissertation that has not been covered extensively elsewhere.

Zemsky, R., & Massy, W.F. (2004, July 9). Why the e-learning boom went bust. *Chronicle of Higher Education.*

This article, despite its gloomy title, actually portrays an optimistic future for the promise of e-learning, and the realistic expectations that may be held, rather than the rosy optimism of early days. By addressing some of the shortcomings in the application of e-learning, instructors may be better prepared to adjust to the inevitable changes ahead.

Some of the problems in current adaptations of e-learning is that faculty members have used electronics to simplify tasks, rather than fundamentally change their teaching methods. “They readily translate lecture notes into PowerPoint presentations. They use course-management tools like Blackboard and WebCT to distribute class materials … (but) the assignments neither look nor feel different” (p. 3). So far, the author observed the greatest breakthroughs in e-learning have primarily occurred in using e-mail to communicate efficiently with students, and in the application of computerized testing materials (p. 3).

However, in spite of the plodding start and slow development over the next decade, the authors predict that electronically mediated instruction will eventually become a standard mode of instruction. “On most campuses, money is being spent, smart classrooms are being built, and faculty members are experimenting with new ways of bringing electronically mediated learning into the classroom. Ultimately, the lure of learning anytime anywhere will prove irresistible” (p. 4).

This article supports the proposition that in spite of any systemic shortcomings and pessimism, the lure and development of distance education will continue. As the ways and means of e-learning advance propelled by social and economic drivers around the world, higher education may yet find fulfillment of global learning opportunities. This is the theme of the article prepared for the application component of this KAM.

Knowledge Area Module 6

International Learning Institutions: Organization, Purpose, Goals, and Missions

Application Component

EDUC 8630: Creating and Implementing Global Learning Opportunities

Preface

For Application, I integrated the research and findings from the Breadth and Depth components, as well as additional relevant materials to prepare an article regarding challenges and opportunities toward expanding international higher education. The draft article (see addendum), is to be submitted to *The Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, and covers recent developments in international education, including organizational challenges, emerging technologies, funding, cultural issues, and other related issues. The article draft will continue with revisions up through the submission date.

Article Format and Submission

Original articles submitted to *The Journal of Distance Learning Administration* and are normally somewhere between 2,000 and 6,000 words, and should not exceed 6,500 words (JDLA, 2004). The articles may cover practical management ideas in distance education, as well as more theoretical works. Articles are subjected to a blind review by two or three persons with expertise in the article's subject area. The article submission deadline for the Spring Edition is February 15, 2005 with a target publishing date of March 15, 2005. Articles are to be either submitted as an email attachment, or submitted as hard copy to the journal's mailing address:

The Journal of Distance Learning Administration
Stacey Rowland, Managing Editor
Distance Learning/Honors House
State University of West Georgia
Carrollton, Georgia 30118

The journal's website address is http://www.westga.edu/~distance/jsubm.html

Writing for Publication

As I prepared the addendum article for submission to a journal, I found there were many questions I needed to answer, ranging from the validity and suitability of the article, the format writing style I should employ, to how I might go about selecting a suitable outlet. I found several useful references to address these concerns.

The publishing process begins well before the work of writing begins. Among the primary reasons for rejection of academic manuscripts is poorly designed and managed research upfront, as well as studies that provide little that is important to a field (APA, 2001). Before preparing an article, a writer may consider a checklist of items to consider in deciding whether an article might merit creation and publication:

- Is the research question significant, and is the work original and important?
- Have the instruments been demonstrated to have satisfactory reliability and validity?
- Are the outcome measures clearly related to the variables with which the investigation is concerned?
- Does the research design fully and unambiguously test the hypothesis?
- Are the participants representative of the population to which generalizations are made?
- Did the researcher observe ethical standards in the treatment of participants -- for example, if deception was used for humans?
- Is the research at an advanced an onstage to make the publication of results meaningful? (APA, 2001, pp. 5-6)

Germano (2001) warned that it is not easy to find a topic that offers an original contribution to the body of knowledge. “The good news is that editors aren’t really looking for what’s radically original”:

> Even the most experimental works of fiction are experimental within a recognized context in history. What editors do look for is the new angle, the new combination, the fresh, the deeply felt or deeply thought. Of course, an editor won’t mind opening her mail and finding the magisterial, the last-word-on-the-subject history, the summa. This doesn’t happen very often, though. (Germano, 2001, p. 70)

Thyer (1994) identified four primary reasons a writer should seek to publish a piece of work in professional and academic journals: "(a) to advance one's field of knowledge, (b) to promote one's academic department or school, (c) to benefit oneself academically, and (d) to gain financial benefits" (p. 11). Thyer admitted the omission of a fifth reason in the list: the joys that may be found in having an article published. "There is the warm glow of seeing a one's work appear in the very best journals, responding to requests for reprints, an engaging in some subsequent stimulating correspondence with one's colleagues" (p. 11).

Trimble (1974) advised that a writer should assume a mindset – or style of thought – that needs to be mastered to successfully complete a literary undertaking. A writer has a certain way of thinking about the nature of a project, just as those who master other fields – architects, lawyers, accountants, carpenters; "you name it, they all have a style of thought related to the nature of the profession" (p. 13). This mindset may include an attitude of objectivity and precision, a concern for the well-being of the reader, and perhaps a little passion or humor as appropriate. Zinnser (1998) suggested that the secret of good writing is to strip every sentence clean, to ensure that every word serves a function, every long word that can be is cut short, that no adverb is added to a verb that already carries its meaning, and passive constructions are avoided which leave the reader unsure of who is doing what. "These are the thousand and one adulterants that weaken the strength of a sentence. And they usually occur in proportion" to the writer's education and rank (pp. 7-8).

One of the most important aspects of the publishing process comes when the writer is ready to pick a publisher. Thyer (1994) prepared a list of questions the

scholarly author should ask when the time comes to select a journal to receive the submitted article:

1. Is the journal subject matter, methodological preferences, and theoretical orientation appropriate?
2. Does the journal employee blind peer-reviewing practices?
3. Does it levy submission fee, page charges, or reprint charges?
4. Is the journal covered by the abstracting services relevant to your discipline?
5. Is the journal covered by the citation indices relevant to your discipline?
6. Do articles appearing in the journal get cited much?
7. Does the journal have a credible rejection rate?
8. Does the journal process manuscripts in a reasonable amount of time?
9. Are there a large number of subscribers?
10. Does the journal permit concurrent submissions?
11. Is there a long time lag from acceptance to publication?
12. Do you have any inside information about the journal that bears on your decision to submit an article to it? (p. 38)

These are some of the questions I considered as I selected *The Journal of Distance Learning Administration* as the outlet to submit my article. Other issues I considered included if were they were likely to accept my submission, and also how valuable would the reference be as I prepared my resume and credentials. I believe this journal and my interests are a good match.

Application Preface References

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Addendum

Universal Learning at a Distance: Can We Plug It In?

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November 24, 2004

> *All, regardless of race or class or economic status, are entitled to a fair chance and to the tools for developing their individual powers of mind and spirit to the utmost.* – A Nation at Risk (NCEE, 1983)

Hardly could the framers of the quote above – serving for the National Commission on Excellence in Education and writing from a rather nationalistic perspective – have imagined more than two decades ago the global applications of this marvelous sentiment that would be possible come the new millennium. Through online and other distance education models, a fair chance at education for all is no longer a visionary's dream, but a visible reality within our peripheral sight.

The term *distance education* can convey different meanings, especially across international boundaries. Related terms are bandied about as interchangeable (distance education, online learning, distance learning, virtual learning), but semantic differences do exist. One difference might relate to whether one *learns* or one is *taught*; a question of increasing complexity as instructors become more literally and figuratively distant from their students. Distance education is not necessarily conducted online. The correspondence courses of decades past are also a form of distance education. Now, well into the revolutionary digital age, we have the technological means to provide unparalleled access to knowledge for every remote village on each rise, crevice and plain of Earth.

The Digital Divide

The World Bank (2002) has determined that higher learning is vital in developing national productivity and the ability to compete globally. However, with only 17 percent of the world's adults able to obtain some form of higher education, distance education and e-learning are often enthusiastically embraced as a means to efficiently scale education to fulfill the need (Irvine, 2003). Aspiring college students around the world may benefit from a new era of transnational higher education delivered through distance technologies offered by joint multinational university ventures (Altbach, 2004a).

Technological innovations are coming so fast that scholars are unable to keep up with the developments in books and reports, and only the daily updated output of journalists can keep up with it all (Trow, 2001). However, with the rapid hardware and software breakthroughs, before long newer information technology will provide human interaction in a high-definition and three-dimensional telepresence, allowing for distance education to seem comparable to a face-to-face experience (Duderstadt, 2000). Already the current experience with the asynchronous distance learning process can be just as effective as the classroom experience, in terms of learning and costs, and in some technical ways may already be superior to regular courses (Bok, 2003). Majorities of academic leaders are expressing a belief that online education on the whole may prove equal or superior to face-to-face instruction, and will become even more so in the near years ahead (Allen & Seaman, 2003).

Unfortunately, there is the paradoxical problem where students who might benefit the most from distance learning may not have access to the technologies and tools necessary to participate fully in the *knowledge society*, furthering a digital divide that

might actually lead to greater disparities in educational opportunity (Moore & Tait, 2002). As we began the 21st century, at the heart of the digital divide was the technological divide. Only one in 20 people around the world were online, and most of those (about 60 percent) lived in North America, home to just five percent of the world's population. In all of Africa, there were a mere 14 million phone lines – fewer than in Manhattan or Tokyo (Billions, 2000).

No one agency or nation could afford the incalculable costs of providing universal Internet access. However, many organizations, companies, and individuals have been working to bridge the gap one connection at a time through targeted and cost-effective efforts. Bernard Krisher, a 69-year-old former *Newsweek* journalist, brought online education opportunities to one of the poorest villages in Cambodia devoid of electricity and phone lines. A satellite dish provided a continuous 64,000-bits-a-second connection to a small group of computers in the village, powered by a simple solar power system. The eventual goal: to construct 200 rural schools in Cambodian villages, under a program in which donors contribute $14,000 to build small school houses, with matching funds from the World Bank (Markoff, 2000).

In 1996, operating under a $400,000 grant from USAID, the Network for Democracy launched the National Telecottage Program in Hungary. By 1997, the program had established 14 telecottages across the rural regions of Hungary, providing "equal (access) opportunity for all" (Telecottages, 1998). The telecottage centers provided public Internet access to local low-income residents for information services including education and training, job hunting, and local development assistance.

Leaders representing the *Group of 8* nations established a *Dot Force* at a summit in Okinawa to help developing countries reap the educational and other benefits offered by new information technologies, helping to bridge the "technological gap that separates the world's haves from the have-nots" (Simms, 2000). Organizations including the United Nations, the United States Agency for International Development, as well as numerous other government and private organizations worldwide have advocated and devoted resources to enhancing global access to communication technologies. The problem remains in how to transfer all this good intent into educational content delivered to the huddled masses yearning to learn free.

The World Economic Forum, comprised of business leaders from major multinational corporations, prepared a 35-page recommendation on how the world's leaders might bridge the digital divide through public-private sector initiatives (Drake, 2000; Yamada, 2000). WEF member Richard Li said, "It's really not a digital divide, it is an education divide, and information technology is only a conduit to promote education." Among the WEF recommendations:

- Provide high-level political engagement needed to give real momentum and public visibility to the digital opportunity as a broad-scale initiative.
- Establish a high-level working group on the global digital economy.
- Establish through the G-8 governments a special financial assistance program to fund technology infrastructure development.
- Create a Peace Corps-style volunteer group, and establish local technology community centers.

Finessing the Financials

Education analysts forecast that the worldwide market for education could reach as high as $2 trillion in revenues with the growth of for-profit education, along with universities opening transnational satellite campuses, and education content providers tapping communication technologies for international e-learning opportunities (Irvine, 2003). The numbers also demonstrate a precipitous worldwide climb in higher education enrollments. From 1950 to 1997, global postsecondary education enrollments increased from 6.5 million in 1950 to 88.2 million in 1997, and are forecasted to reach 160 million by 2025. However, even though global demand for higher education is growing at double-digit proportions, the resources for paying the tuition bill are low or nonexistent in large parts of the world, with insufficient government funds to meet the full educational needs even in richer nations. Given this stark imbalance, higher education must seek new avenues of delivery tapping new technologies able to transcend national boundaries, such as those provided through distance learning programs.

Traditional institutions may balk at the high cost of developing online courses, especially when going up against challengers who have made investments exceeding $1 million per course; costs which must be recouped through student tuitions and fees (Oblinger, Barone, & Hawkins, 2001). Some business analysts have predicted that through fundamental changes in the economics of information wrought by the Internet age, the forces of competition will drive the cost of information down to the marginal cost of its reproduction – to the point that tuition for online courses will eventually be free, paid for through donations, advertising, and other marketing strategies targeted at a

captive audience (Weigel, 2000). One example of such free learning is the Fathom online learning website, operated by Columbia University. The University of Chicago, RAND, the American Film Institute, and the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, and others have provided content for the Fathom site available free to the public at http://www.fathom.com

Barnes & Noble University at http://university.barnesandnoble.com has offered a free assortment of classes ranging from a one-day seminar to 12-week programs in subjects ranging from astronomy, to literature, to yoga exercises. Many of the courses are based on books in the field, taught by the books' authors. It is "highly recommended" but not required to purchase a book for participation in the courses. Other online content providers – distance education fitting within that less-than-glamorous heading – will be battling for market share, each scrambling to find the right business model as Darwinian forces clear the ground and define the turf.

Higher education is now in a new era of power and influence, where the push for market-driven profits has surpassed politics and ideologies in the realms of international relations. Rather than governments and armies, it is multinational corporations, media conglomerates, and even universities that serve as the neocolonists seeking to dominate in the global marketplace (Altbach, 2004b). However, commercial for-profit interests alone will not meet the world's needs.

To ensure distance education opportunities reach across economic borders, we need to compile, mobilize, and coordinate international donor efforts: government support through transnational agencies such as the United Nations, the Group of 8, the U.S. Agency for International Development, the World Bank, the British Know-How

Fund; private persons and programs such as the United Way International, the Soros Foundation, C.S. Mott Foundation, Bill Gates, Steve Case; university and foundation scholarships; telecommunications industry investment in infrastructure development. With a long-term vision and social perspective, the financials for global distance education may well fall into place. Yes, it will be costly. But as former Harvard President Derek Bok advised, if you think education is expensive, try ignorance.

Overcoming the Peril

The future of higher education around the world has much riding on it, in terms of peril for a critical mission unfilled, as well as the promising potential of a job done right. Success or failure may be determined by how well the guardians of academia meet the looming challenges of applying new technologies and providing access to universal learning. There are a number of threats to the successful development of access to global distance education, calamitous hazards if we fail, and still even new dangers that may be created if universal access is indeed successful.

Globalization may a prominent buzzword in the new millennium, but the concept of national isolationism is already rendered defunct by last century's nuclear age. Certain transnational phenomena respect no borders: disease, political instability, radioactive fallout, poverty, refugee migration. It has become cliché that the solution to many of the world's woes is education. Now we have the means to make that theory a practice, if not for humanitarian reasons, than for global self-preservation.

The World Bank (2002) reported it found promise in the new technologies supporting higher education, however warned that the dangers of digital divides within and between nations could counter the benefits. The worry is that poor nations lack the

education, infrastructure and political policies to support the spread of a phenomenon that is boosting trade, productivity, employment and private-sector wealth elsewhere. “This is all about self-interest,” said Vernon J. Ellis, a member of the World Economic Forum task force proposing means to bridge the global technology gap. “There is nothing wrong with self-interest, as long as it is enlightened, long-term self-interest” (Markoff, 2000).

If it is true that knowledge is power, then certain totalitarian regimes are bound to feel threatened by an educated and empowered public. According to the human rights organization Freedom House, at least 20 countries – such as Myanmar, Cuba, North Korea and China – have restricted their citizens’ access to the Internet. Foreign educational efforts – whether online or onground – may be especially suspect. Education in particular has been jealously guarded in many nations and is carefully protected as a matter of nationalism and a solidifier of cultural differences (Irivne, 2003).

Providing isolated peoples online access to worldwide communications is not necessarily a clear-cut end in itself, as witnessed by some of the pitfalls found by introducing technology to village life. Cotopoxi men remote in Ecuador used their aid-provided computer equipment to access online pornography rather than crop information, much to the dismay of Cotopoxi women. And when impoverished women of the Wapishana and Macushi tribes in Guyana began making “big” money by marketing their hand-woven hammocks over the Web, the threatened male hierarchy drove them from their homes (Romero, 2000). Strategies for providing Internet access must coincide with developing content schemata suitable for and beneficial to global needs.

Others are concerned that instructors will lose control over the courses they teach, and their lessons will be modified or prepackaged into a one-size-fits-all lecture by

someone at an online institution (Ellin, 2000). Educational content innovation may be impeded over issues of intellectual property, such as who owns and who should control content that appears online. Online education may take a technocratic rather than Socratic turn: instructors, students, and content reduced to modular components, installed, formatted, and executed. Ultimately, the threat of distance education might be to education itself – will we sacrifice academic quality for the sake of quantity?

Ironically – in this age of instant rich media communications with exponentially multiplying bandwidth and dimensions, when nearly the entire knowledge base of human experience is digitalized and accessible – the dangers of isolation and division between peoples are perhaps higher than ever. Further, if the global network connections that do form simply serve a purpose of homogenization, at a cultural cost of diversity and the survival protections that diversity provides, society may be the worse for it.

The Culture Divide

Another counter-juxtaposition of circumstance is that the demand for international education is so high, while at the same time teachers skilled with global competence are so few. Universities and college lack sufficient foreign language and international studies faculty – particularly in less common languages and nations – and faculty in professional disciplines needing greater international expertise such as business, public health, law, and the environment (ACE, 2002).

Curricula and pedagogies may need to be adapted to a wider array of cultural and linguistic differences, especially in settings with increasing numbers of international students as institutions seek to expand their enrollments beyond national borders (OECD, 2003).

Simply providing educational content is not necessarily a worthy goal, unless the content is viable, valid, credible, and appropriate.

Some are concerned that the act of internationalizing education may actually mean Americanizing it, since the United States is the dominant online-education purveyor (Statland de Lopez, 2000). Academic institutions offering education to other nations may frequently be insensitive to the characteristics of a local culture and the students' particular needs. Some analysts are criticizing that universities may offer lower quality programs abroad than are found on the home campus, and that the program content does not focus on local concerns, while the primary use of English as the language of instruction raises questions of cultural imperialism (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004).

To accommodate the increasing demand for language and cultural diversity in the globalization of distance learning, there will be a huge market demand for appropriate course materials, and numerous education companies and universities are now creating content and programs in multiple languages (Irvine, 2003). Researchers are devoting studies to identify effective methods to ensure that international cross-cultural harmony may be better realized (e.g., Bruffee, 2002; Conceicao, 2002). It may well be that profit incentives rather than social visions are what ultimately motivate governments and people to transcend their differences and strive for cooperative and peaceful interaction.

Achieving the Promise

Governments and individuals around the world are increasingly turning to higher education to provide students with new horizons through a deeper understanding of the world at large (OECD, 2003). Several countries, such as India

and South Africa, are already heavy importers of distance learning programs through top exporting countries including the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom; while China, Thailand, and Japan are developing their own distance learning technologies and programs (Eaton, 2002). Distance education and training will also likely play an important role in expanding access to education opportunities throughout Central and Eastern Europe, provided there is sufficient funding and regional collaboration to develop the necessary communication infrastructure (Moore & Tait, 2002).

Especially in the low-income but high-population countries of the world, the new technologies are seen to promise significant learning opportunities, even though lack of Internet connectivity, regional bandwidth, local access and professional competence pose barriers (Irivne, 2003; Moore & Tait, 2002). The regional disparities are great, as some of largest populated regions (e.g., India and China) also have the lowest concentration of telecommunication services. In many countries, the demand for higher education is actually driving the development and expansion of new technologies, along with new business opportunities and economic growth (Irvine, 2003).

The gap between the need and the supply for higher education has driven the emergence of a global business network. Among the participants in this market-guided network are traditional and digital publishers, media companies, software and hardware producers, consultants, communication services, as well as for-profit and nonprofit education providers (Irvine, 2003). Such players as these may help to address the social and economic divides caused by “devastating consequences of ignorance and exclusion from the world marketplace” (p. 104).

Returning to the opening quote, we are truly living in a time when no child need live an entire life in ignorance; no inquiring soul need go uninformed. The calling of our age is to engage the will to make it so. We must first advance through many challenging social, political, and economic spheres. Each of these challenges may prove terminally problematic. The fiscal tyrannies of a competitive market may well deny the commodity of knowledge to those people living beyond the margins of a profitable business plan. Despotic governments may inhibit information flow to their peoples under the guise of national security. Though the greatest hurdle could well be within the social sphere: do we truly believe that universal education for its own sake is a worthy aim and a fundamental right, and are we willing to pay the costs?

Perhaps among the most valuable aspects of the new potential in global higher education are the benefits to be gained from learning about world problems that transcend national boundaries. By such better understanding, humanity may best discover solutions that tap the "interconnectedness of systems – cultural, ecological, economic, political, and technological" (Tye, 2003).

Some antiglobalists have protested against support for providing online education to impoverished nations, rightly observing the obvious: "Poor people can't eat a laptop" (Thomas, 2000). This is true. Poor people can neither eat a hammer nor a textbook, but these are recognized as valuable tools in reducing poverty. Globally accessible distance education should not be an either/or proposition, but a this/that solution. Bread *and* modems. Health care *and* computers. Shoes *and* wireless access. Once the general intention is unleashed, the specific means may inexorably come in small bits and bytes. As it has been simply put: now that we can, we must.

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