

WORLD CONFERENCE ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century Vision and Action

UNESCO, Paris, 5-9 October 1998

VOLUME IV

Thematic Debate:

Higher Education Staff Development: A Continuing Mission

Note of the UNESCO Secretariat

The present volume is part of the Proceedings of the World Conference on Higher Education (Paris 5-9 October 1998).

Volume I :	Final Report
Volume II :	Speeches and Lectures
Volume III :	Reports of the Commissions
Volume IV :	Thematic Debates
Volume V :	Plenary Speeches
Volume VI :	Listing of Titles of Individual Documents.

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Note du Secrétariat de l'UNESCO

Le présent volume fait partie des Actes de la Conférence mondiale sur l'enseignement supérieur (Paris, 5-9 octobre 1998).

Volume I :	Rapport final
Volume II :	Discours et exposés spéciaux
Volume III :	Rapports des commissions
Volume IV :	Débats thématiques
Volume V :	Discours en séances plénières
Volume VI :	Liste des titres des documents individuels.

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Nota de la Secretaría de la UNESCO

El presente volumen forma parte de las Actas de la Conferencia Mundial sobre la Educación Superior (París 5-9 de octubre de 1998).

Volumen I :	Informe Final
Volumen II :	Discursos y Ponencias Especiales
Volumen III :	Informes de las Comisiones
Volumen IV :	Debates Temáticos
Volumen V :	Discursos de la Plenaria
Volumen VI :	Lista de Títulos de los Documentos Individuales

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Introduction

In organizing the World Conference on Higher Education, UNESCO's goal was to create favourable conditions for a sweeping debate and to increase awareness of the principal issues in this important field.

The Thematic Debates were organized in parallel with the Commissions and the Plenary sessions and so constituted one of the selected frameworks for reflection and for deepening discussions.

Planning the Thematic Debates included the participation of some fifty representatives of NGOs and IGOs, as well as a number of resource persons and UNESCO staff members.

Each working document was prepared under the coordination of a leader with the contribution of partners chosen by the Secretariat from organizations already cooperating with UNESCO.

Working documents of the Thematic Debates were taken into account in preparing the Conference's principal working documents and in elaborating drafts of the Declaration Framework for Priority Action. This synergy marked the entire preparation phase.

The 12 Thematic Debates were regrouped into three large themes:

Higher Education and Development

- *The Requirements of the World of Work*
- *Higher Education and Sustainable Human Development*
- *Contributing to National and Regional Development*
- *Higher Education Staff Development: A Continuing Mission*

New Trends and Innovations in Higher Education

- *Higher Education for a New Society: A Student Vision*
- *From Traditional to Virtual: The New Information Technologies*
- *Higher Education and Research: Challenges and Opportunities*
- *The Contribution of Higher Education to the Education System as a Whole*

Higher Education, Culture and Society

- *Women and Higher Education: Issues and Perspectives*
- *Promoting a Culture of Peace*
- *Mobilizing the Power of Culture*
- *Autonomy, Social Responsibility and Academic Freedom*

The introduction to each Debate was given by the author of the working document. This was then completed by input from the panel members.

Each Debate produced a synthesis report representing the results of the discussions and the recommendations made.

The general coordination of the preparation and organization of the Debates was undertaken by the Division of Higher Education, UNESCO.

Volume IV of the Proceedings of the World Conference on Higher Education regroups for each of the 12 Debates:

- The Working Document;
- The Synthetic Report for each Debate;
- The interventions of the panel members.

With regard to the thematic debates on students and women, contributions which were addressed to the Organizing committee and judged relevant were also taken into account.

Thematic Debate

Higher Education Staff Development: A Continuing Mission

Leader: Commonwealth Secretariat

Working Document drafted by: Mr John Fielden
Director
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Management Service (CHEMS)

in collaboration with

- . Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU)
- . World Confederation of Teachers/or Confederation Syndicale Mondiale de l'enseignement (CSME)
- . European Association for Research and Development in Higher Education (EARDHE)
- . Education Internationale (EI)
- . International Council for Engineering and Technology (ICET)
- . International Federation of University Women (IFUW)
- . International Labour Organisation (ILO)

and

the UNESCO SECRETARIAT

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Abstract

This paper discusses a key activity in the higher education institutions of the future. Staff development, it will be argued, is central to the quality of higher education. The way it is considered and delivered at present owes a lot to the general employment framework and conditions of service for university staff. In this paper it is discussed as a discrete function and thought is given to how it can be encouraged and promoted by institutions, governments and independent agencies. Although policies on staff development may be made at national, provincial or institutional levels, there is an emerging trend of granting more autonomy to institutions and thus, in considering future change, the main focus is on what institutional managers should do.

The paper looks at all the challenges facing higher educational institutions and then suggests the competencies which will be needed by those managing their institutions and by academic and administrative staff. It finds a major shortfall in the effort and funding now being devoted to staff development of all kinds, despite the efforts of many providers and networks of concerned practitioners.

The paper suggests that there is significant scope for collaborating in meeting this challenge, through the sharing of experiences, workshops and exchanges of materials and ideas. Institutions are asked to make clear their policies on staff development and then to implement them with enthusiastic support from the leadership. It concludes with recommendations for similar action by governments and agencies such as UNESCO.

Finally, the paper poses ten questions for the participants at the World Conference to discuss.

PANEL

Chair: Dr Cream Wright, Director, Education, Commonwealth Secretariat, United Kingdom

Rapporteur: Mrs Alison Girdwood , Chief Programme Officer, Commonwealth Secretariat, United Kingdom

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Synthetic Report

Staff development was considered as a way of coping with change, with the increasing range of demands now placed on staff working in higher education institutions. These included a diverse student population with different expectations and needs from the traditional school leaving population; the need to undertake high quality and socially relevant research, while assuming also managerial responsibilities such as fundraising.

The debate focussed fairly narrowly on universities, but there was a recognition of the importance of a diverse tertiary education sector with provisions at all levels and widely differentiated universities.

A number of contributors stressed the need for well articulated policy frameworks both at the institutional and the national level. These would have to be both broad-ranging, inclusive and clearly prioritized. These policies should be backed up by strong institutional commitment and form a key part of national and institutional human resource development policies.

Gender emerged clearly as a significant issue. Several speakers stressed the importance of further increasing the participation of women in higher education, in particular within leadership positions in both academic and administrative spheres. Staff development policies should be gender sensitive, and staff development provision should serve to accommodate the differing needs of women and men.

The participants in the Debate were strongly aware that staff development should contribute to a culture of professionalism, but it was felt that there is still a need to define the relevant elements and the differential weighting between teaching, research and service. This would include academic managers, administrative and support staff as well as teachers. There should be clear links between professionalism, staff development and job satisfaction. Staff appraisal and staff development should have clear links to the academic reward structure.

Staff development can also be seen as a strategy to retain high quality staff in higher education institutions. In some countries, there is a trend to abolish tenure and make use of short term contracts. As a consequence, there may be a paradox with investing substantial resources in developing staff employed on a casual or short-term basis. However, staff development is needed as good employment practice.

Participants emphasized very strongly the need for the development of national or international networks as a means to share scarce resources and expertise. As the pace of change increased and developed, staff development provision would have to evolve to include the raising of awareness of ethical dimensions of research and other academic activities.

There was an agreement that staff development should be conceived in such a way that it would not impinge on academic freedom.

The meeting agreed with a recommendation that education should be a top priority for the 21st, century if there is a sustainable future and **adequate resources allocated** to it. Accordingly, staff development needs to be funded appropriately.

Recommendations

Participants suggested that there should be a network of existing networks to be created under the auspices of an international organisation.

UNESCO should continue their efforts to establish, maintain or provide continuous efforts to networks for academic staff development in Africa, Europe, Latin America and the Arab countries. UNESCO should also continue to support exchanges of members and representatives between different networks and the exchange of materials. This necessarily includes the provision of financial support for the networks and their activities.

There should be regional co-operation in designing staff development activities, but experience suggests that these should be designed to include follow up at a national or local level.

Participants stressed the need to provide adequate training to staff trainers, to assure an institutionalisation of staff development programmes.

Where national systems of higher education are rather small, regional initiatives should encourage academic staff and student mobility to maximize international exposure.

National intermediary bodies such as buffers or associations of institutional heads should play a facilitating role in setting up structures and initiatives for staff development.

Working Document

Introduction

This paper discusses a key activity in the higher education institutions of the future. Staff Development, it will be argued, is central to the quality of higher education. The way it is considered and delivered at present owes a lot to the general employment framework and conditions of service for university staff. Yet in this paper it is discussed as a discrete function. Although policies on staff development may be made at national, provincial or institutional levels, there is an emerging trend of granting more autonomy to institutions and thus, in considering future change, there is a focus on what institutional managers should do.

1. Why Bother About Staff Development?

Higher education institutions, such as universities, colleges and polytechnics, are labour intensive organisations; they depend on people for the delivery of their services. The quality of the staff in institutions of tertiary education is thus central to their effectiveness, in the same way that it is to all people-centred organisations. A recent World Bank paper commented that “a high quality and well motivated teaching staff and a supportive professional culture are essential in building excellence” (World Bank, 1994). UNESCO has itself recognised the important role of staff in higher education by passing a Recommendation on the topic at its General Conference in Paris in November 1997.

In business and the professions there is a wide recognition that the skills of their staff need to be continually strengthened and enhanced. In the face of challenges from national and international competitors the better companies are investing more resources in the continual training and re-training of employees **at all levels**. They focus not only on the competence of their staff, but also give time to stressing the need for commitment to the organisation’s goals and to promoting a capacity to change. Should not the same be true of our institutions of higher education? They are crucial to national aspirations for economic development and, if such capacity building aims are to be achieved, the institutions will have to make the most effective use of all their human resources.

In some academic fields it is said that the total of human knowledge is doubling every five or ten years. It is thus almost impossible for an individual staff member to remain in touch with the subject without a conscious investment in scholarship and self-tuition. When these knowledge advances are allied to similar changes in pedagogy, learning materials development and the use of technology, the scale of self improvement required becomes massive. For administrative and support staff there are equally rapid changes in management processes, techniques and technology. Surely the institution should recognise this and have a strategy for enabling each individual to confront this task? Or can it afford to sit back and ignore the fact that its teachers are providing out of date information in an inefficient way? If this happens, how long will it be before employers, government and the students themselves complain about the relevance of the courses and the skills and understandings they have failed to acquire?

In considering any strategy for developing human resources an institution must consider all its staff; administrative and support personnel can play crucial roles in helping students to learn, and in enabling and facilitating an environment that favours learning. If non-academic staff are committed to the goals of an institution, they can be valuable partners in working with academic colleagues. The boundaries between categories of staff are blurring, as graduates assume jobs that would previously have been taken by non-graduates. In libraries, computer centres and laboratories those jobs once labelled “non-professional” are being filled by people who will expect to be challenged and to have careers which allow them to continue learning. To deny them staff development would miss a massive opportunity for the institution.

In developing countries one of the biggest problems is that of obtaining and then retaining staff. A recent study shows that 22 out of 45 African universities still rely on foreigners to fill 20% or more of their faculty positions (Saint, 1992). Higher salaries in the private and para-statal sectors often tempt away the best brains from higher education. One of the few weapons in a Vice Chancellor's armoury is to offer key academics the staff development opportunities and then the subsequent linkage and international partnership arrangements which usually follow.

2. What Are the Current Challenges?

In no country are higher education institutions immune from severe pressures and challenges. Not only do governments talk to one another about funding, but the growing globalisation of higher education imposes similar burdens and threats on every institution.

Among the principal challenges which affect human resource development are the following:

- a) **the growth in demand for higher education** is a world wide phenomenon whether one approaches it from the standpoint of an age participation ratio of 35% or of 5%. UNESCO has charted the expansion in student enrolments from 13 million in 1960 to 65 million in 1991. In many countries the rate of expansion has exceeded that of the economy, while the reluctance of some countries to contemplate cost sharing (in Africa for example) has posed a major problem for their public sector financing. In institutional terms the expansion of numbers has placed pressures on facilities of all kinds.
- b) **financial constraints in all countries** mean that governments can no longer fund higher education to the same extent as previously. Apart from asking students and their parents to share the cost, their response has been to call for continued efficiency savings (or simple cuts) in institutional budgets, which has led throughout the world to more severe staff student ratios and heavier workloads for academic staff. Another government response is to expect institutions to generate more of their income from non-governmental sources such as industry or commerce. This places new demands on academic staff who are expected to master entrepreneurial skills in converting their specialist knowledge into market-oriented services. One irony of the situation is that institutional budgets for human resource development are often the first to be cut, just when they are most needed, in times of severe financial difficulty. In many countries the reduction in funding for state institutions is leading to a growth in higher education provision by the private sector.
- c) **a focus on basic education** has persuaded many developing countries to limit their support for higher education. Many bilateral donors have followed the messages from Jomtien and reduced their funding for higher education. Within many countries the reputation and public image of universities and the students in them has not helped their cause of getting more finance from either government or industry.
- d) **the government and public expectations of universities and other tertiary institutions** are that they will be able to serve wider audiences of students, at different levels, in different ways. Thus among the new expectations will be:
 - ❖ an ability to handle a growing proportion of part time students (usually meaning longer hours for staff);
 - ❖ willingness to teach a greater number of mature students;
 - ❖ the assumption that an institution can serve regional populations using links to associated colleges or providers;
 - ❖ an ability to offer distance learning and face to face tuition in "dual mode", that is using the same materials and the same staff;

- ❖ an expectation that institutions can instil a set of “general transferable skills” in all their graduates so that employers needs are more fully met;
- ❖ that faculty are all outward-looking and sensitive to the needs of their community;
- ❖ that staff have technical competencies which can offer research and consultancy services to industry and commerce in the area.

These expectations place a great onus on institutions to give much more formal consideration to the needs of their stakeholders in their strategic planning and to involve their communities in advising on their institution’s development.

- e) **A concern for quality** of the product has accompanied the expansion in numbers and the reduction in funding. There is an inevitable fear that “more means worse” and quality will suffer as mass higher education becomes a reality. Governments, parents and students are asking questions about the teaching/learning process and are expecting institutions and funding bodies to monitor the quality of the processes and their outcomes. This questioning adds new pressures to academic staff, not only through the new accountability and reporting procedures, but also through having to be more explicit about the way they conduct themselves and more formal in the way they evaluate the effectiveness of their work. They must also be alert to the different ways in which they can maintain quality with larger class or group sizes.
- f) **Technological change affects all disciplines** (but to varying extents) and expects staff members to be alert to the latest innovations in teaching method and research support. It is evident that there are at least three sets of distinguishing factors: the age factor in which younger staff members feel more at home with technology; the discipline factor in which some academic subjects are more affected than others and the developing country factor in which the gulf between “technology haves” and “technology have-nots” is widening. Even though access to the Internet will eventually enable developing country universities to remedy some of the deficiencies in their library and information services, this will only partly help to close the gap.
- g) **The importance of increasing women’s participation among staff and students** presents institutions with a clear challenge. As regards students this will affect their admissions strategies, their student support services and sometimes their teaching practices. Thus, several categories of staff may need to be involved in the solution. An even harder challenge faces those seeking to achieve a higher involvement of women in the higher ranks of teachers, researchers or institutional management. Whether the blockages to change in these two areas are in attitudes or processes, the problem requires a strategic review, followed by firm action, if it is to be resolved.
- h) **The demands of the labour market are changing dramatically** and inevitably affect those institutions which seek to be responsive to national or regional demand. Some industries in developed countries operate in a global market place and thus recruit on an international basis and compare one country’s graduates with another’s. It may be unwise to ignore global or regional perspectives in the curricula in any courses which aim to serve these industries. Patterns of employment are also changing; courses which once met national needs are now irrelevant. New offerings are required in areas such as telecommunications, tourism, health care, financial services, food technology and transportation studies. Students who fear unemployment after graduation will now be seeking the more vocational and relevant course which enhance their chances of employment. In many countries they will also need to be taught how to create their own employment opportunities, when traditional employment is not available. All these changes require increasing adaptability among academic staff, particularly those in declining disciplines.

- i) **Effective management demands new skills within institutions** which may not always be present among those who traditionally lead at either central or faculty level. There are widespread complaints within institutions about “new managerial cultures” driving out the old academic collegial spirit, yet the very complexity of the demands on senior institutional managers makes it essential for them to be fully professional. In seeking to achieve this they must learn to adapt commercial management techniques sensitively to the academic environment and never forget the mission of the institution they serve. The technical skills needed by today’s institutional managers call into question some of the traditional management structures and job specifications. If it is thought that the answer rests in greater devolution to Deans and other middle level managers, this means that a large number of people in each institution will require management development support.

3. **What Roles Will People in Higher Educational Institutions Play in Future and What Competencies Will They Need?**

These daunting challenges are likely to have a considerable impact on the work and role of each of the main participants in institutions. All will be affected by a number of common changes and trends. There are seven:

- ❖ a need to be responsive and able to change (in line with the changing policies of governments, external demands and social pressures);
- ❖ a call for greater awareness of international perspectives in the content of courses;
- ❖ the demand for relevance in the curriculum from employers, governments and students;
- ❖ the need for more inter-institutional co-operation, in some cases with the burgeoning private sector;
- ❖ awareness of the institution’s role in society and the need for it to contribute to national development or the local community;
- ❖ a growing emphasis on quality teaching as opposed to research as a worthwhile career goal for academic staff ;
- ❖ the increase in demand for postgraduate provision, particularly in those countries with relatively high participation rates in HE.

These have varying impacts on each category of person in an institution and we now review this in turn.

For **institutional leaders**, Rectors, Vice Presidents, Pro Vice Chancellors etc, the challenges are immense. They bear the brunt of decision making and strategic direction in new, very uncertain environments. Leadership skills will be essential as will communications and persuasive skills in convincing academic colleagues of the need for changes to long established habits.

The leadership role will centre on the management of change and on reconciling the essential need to adapt what are usually conservative institutions with the opposition and unease that such change will cause. Thus, the key roles for such leaders will include:

- ❖ providing strategic guidance and a vision of where the institution should be going;
- ❖ persuading external bodies such as business, donors and alumni to contribute funds to replace those which government has withdrawn;
- ❖ encouraging innovation and an entrepreneurial culture and ensuring that institutional processes support rather than hinder this;
- ❖ maintaining commitment to institutional goals in a community which is instinctively suspicious of such things.

Institutional managers such as deans and heads of departments are the Executive Head's partners in ensuring that change happens. They have a leadership role at the discipline level and a key part in implementing institutional change. They will share in the turmoils of managing institutions (and people) in transition: however, because their responsibilities are at a more detailed level they will need to have more tangible competencies. Among them will be the following:

- ❖ people management skills, such as team building and helping staff to develop themselves academically and professionally;
- ❖ numeracy and understanding of financial and cost issues;
- ❖ IT awareness;
- ❖ sensitivity to new developments in the external environment, such as competitive threats;
- ❖ customer consciousness;
- ❖ strategic awareness of the institution's position;
- ❖ understanding of how to use institutional decision making processes in a collegial environment.

Academic staff in their teaching role face probably the biggest set of challenges to their working patterns. They bear the ultimate burden of having to "do more with less", as student numbers increase without matching funding. They are being asked to teach a wider range of students (mature, disadvantaged, part time etc) in different ways involving new methods and technologies. Their accountabilities are being sharpened and made explicit, as quality reviews and assessments examine what they do.

In this harsh environment a model teaching staff member would have the following competencies:

- ❖ awareness and understanding of the different ways in which students learn;
- ❖ knowledge, skills and attitudes relating to assessment and evaluation of students, in order to help students learn;
- ❖ commitment to scholarship in the discipline, maintaining professional standards and knowledge of current developments;
- ❖ awareness of IT applications to the discipline, both as regards access to materials and resources world-wide and as regards teaching technology;
- ❖ sensitivity to external "market" signals as regards the needs of those likely to employ graduates of the discipline;
- ❖ mastery of new developments in teaching and learning, including an awareness of the requirements of "dual mode" tuition with face to face and distance learning using similar materials;
- ❖ customer awareness, as regards the views and aspirations of stakeholders, including students;
- ❖ understanding of the impact that international and multi-cultural factors would have on the curricula;
- ❖ ability to teach a diverse range of students, from different age groups, socio-economic backgrounds, races etc, throughout a longer day;
- ❖ skills in handling larger numbers of students in formal lectures, seminars or workshops than hitherto, without the loss of quality;
- ❖ development of personal and professional "coping strategies".

This formidable list of required competencies is unlikely to come together in any one person, so that there will be a tendency to encouraging staff to specialise in some of the skills and functions described.

Academic staff in their research role are also under pressure. Universities are increasingly basing their assessment of research quality on the ability of researchers to raise outside funding, as well as on the volume of research conducted and published. Funding is much more competitive than before and often open to international bidders. Research customers are becoming more demanding in the quality of the

proposals they require and the final end products they expect. Among the skills which researchers now need are:

- ❖ proposal writing;
- ❖ networking and fund raising for projects;
- ❖ managing PhD students and researchers;
- ❖ project management, particularly relating to international partnership projects.

For academic support staff in libraries, resource and computer centres there are matching demands. The new technologies require mastery of new techniques and software in searching for information and a changed role in supporting users of these support services. The boundaries are blurring between the roles of teachers and those advising students on information retrieval. Both are helping the student to access knowledge held elsewhere and both are faced with calls for help over longer hours from a wider ability range of students. The UK's Dearing Report endorsed this finding "where communications and information technology has changed the nature of learning and teaching, there is a need to review and redefine the roles of academic and support staff within institutions".

For administrative staff there are also new competencies required:

- ❖ information technology skills are now taken for granted;
- ❖ similar financial pressures mean that cost awareness and sensitivity to the need for value for money in all administrative processes have to be in the bloodstream;
- ❖ customer sensitivity is a key skill, now that budgets are so often devolved to Deans or Schools and central administrators find that they have many academic clients to serve;
- ❖ flexible working practices become essential as management costs are being continually trimmed.

Some of these are echoed for **technical and manual staff** who find themselves under equal pressures to be more cost effective, flexible in work practices, more technically alert and more sensitive to what their customers want. In addition, they are often now expected to work in a less secure environment due to threats of outsourcing or contracting out their services. As a reward for accepting this uncertainty they are sometimes being brought more into decision making and being asked to share in the corporate ethos of the institution.

In **developing countries** there are particular problems, which affect the ability of staff at all levels to acquire the skills described. When even professorial staff are paid salaries so low that they are not enough to feed their families, it is not surprising that staff should spend much of their time on second and even third jobs. Retaining good staff in such circumstances is often only possible because the institution provides a house at a negligible rent, but finding funds and time for staff development is much harder. In addition, the pressures of survival limit the time that even the most professional staff members can devote to activities other than the basic teaching load.

In **small states** there are unique staff development problems arising from the small size of higher education institutions. Limited human resource capacity in the country makes senior staff very dependent on external partnerships for advice and information. Multi-skilling within institutions is unavoidable and there are inevitable shortages of specialist staff.

4. What Types of Initial and Ongoing Training are Needed to Meet These Challenges?

It is essential that a response to the challenge is integrated and holistic. In the words of Mukherjee and Singh (1994) "there must be a total comprehensive approach where academic, management, administrative and technical support staff development are viewed as a whole within a

facilitating infrastructure”. There are two other key principles which should be borne in mind: staff at all levels should be encouraged to expect to embark on lifelong learning, in their discipline and in the skills needed for their workplace and their role in their institution; any staff development programme must adopt multiple mechanisms for its delivery offering flexibility of access.

In this model world institutions would have clear strategies covering staff development for all levels of staff at all stages of their career. These would be integrated with their human resource strategies so that selection and promotion criteria, career planning and staff appraisal processes were all influenced by the strategy.

Initial training for academic staff in institutions is not universal and after a generation of worthy campaigning by staff developers it is still unusual to find countries where it is even mandatory to have completed any training before being confirmed in an academic post. The position has been brutally summarised: “university teaching is unprofessional; there are no agreed standards, no body of knowledge and skills neophytes have to master before being allowed to practise, no peer review, no accountability as yet” (Kogan and Moses, 1993). It is time to question why this has happened; what are the barriers to the acceptance of the need for such training? Is it that the traditional culture of institutions is so resistant to change? Are the problems those of setting priorities in the allocation of financial resources? Could it be that the academic’s prime loyalty to a discipline has prevented him or her from wanting to learn how to teach and how to best serve the institution? However, even here the pedagogical pressures have rarely provided what might be called a systematic, professional approach to personal development.

There are exceptions to the dismal picture. India has 48 academic staff colleges, funded by the University Grants Committee, which offer initial training and limited mid career training to all university staff. In the United Kingdom the recommendation in the Dearing Report (1997) to create an Institute of Learning and Teaching in Higher Education for all academic staff is being energetically pursued. Formal training for higher education staff was required in the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. In West European states such as Great Britain, the Netherlands and Germany institutions have been making efforts to strengthen pedagogical training and the status of staff development programmes has increased. Some of the hopeful signs are:

- ❖ laws passed in several German Laender to the effect that applicants for a professorship have to give evidence of their pedagogical skills;
- ❖ inclusion in staff contracts, in some institutions in Germany, Norway and Great Britain, of clauses binding new academic staff to attend staff development courses;
- ❖ the creation in France of a national plan for practice-oriented pedagogical training down to postgraduate applicants for teaching posts;
- ❖ the growing number of staff development units within universities (eg: 125 in Great Britain, 16 in Germany, 11 in The Netherlands and all universities in Finland);
- ❖ even though the norm is for non-mandatory courses, the numbers participating on them are increasing.

Continuing professional development (CPD) in the academic teaching profession has had as disappointing a history as initial training. Even though some regard it “an essential rather than a desirable objective, an obligation rather than an option - both a professional expectation and duty and a responsibility that institutions have for their staff” (Gordon and Partington, 1996), this view is rarely echoed by those allocating resources within institutions or at national level. Voluntary courses offered by an underfunded central support service are the normal approach to meeting this need. When one allies this reality with the massive changes and challenges described earlier, there are more big questions to answer? Why is it, when quality of teaching is such a concern of governments, that so few resources are dedicated to helping staff to learn how to improve their teaching performance? In Germany, for example there are a mere 60 professional staff developers for a potential audience of 140,000. How can this culture be changed?

There are some positive developments; one such, based on a self-help approach to staff development is taken by Singapore Polytechnic in which all staff are asked to assess their skills and score themselves in a range of topic areas (such as financial management, Internet navigation). Those who score highly are then asked to run courses for those who score poorly. The whole activity is managed by a central staff development function.

When one reviews the position with regard to CPD for managerial and administrative staff in institutions, there are some striking international examples of activity for Executive Heads (the CRE programmes in Europe, and those of the Australian Vice Chancellor's Committee), but the general picture is of an ad hoc spasmodic response to the problem of providing adequate management development for, say, Deans or Heads of Departments. With regard to administrative and support staff the picture is the same. In Great Britain an innovative attempt to run a Certificate of Professional Staff Development for non-academic staff is being discontinued because not enough universities were willing to pay for the training.

Distance learning provision may be a solution to the larger scale problems of staff and management development in some countries. Once the material has been developed, there are significant advantages of cost and flexibility in delivery. The potential of the world wide web has not yet been tested in this context.

If the goal is to achieve a state of "systematic professionalism" for all teaching staff, the resource implications are usually the primary consideration. The key question becomes: should the financial burden be borne by government, the institution or the individual who will be benefiting?

5. What Kinds of Working Conditions and Incentive Systems Should Accompany Training Policies to Motivate Personnel and Create a Favourable Working Environment?

All over the world the basis on which staff are employed is changing. Several countries are abandoning universal tenure for academic staff in favour of term contracts and the jobs of many non-academic staff are subject to the threat of competitive tendering from external contractors. Many institutional managers find that employing part time contract staff is a cost-effective way of meeting their need for teaching skills. For teachers and researchers in particular one should ask, what is the continuing place of tenure and other forms of job security within the institution? Will increasing insecurity affect the willingness of the individual to adapt and change in line with the institution's requests?

Salaries and salary structures have in the past been based on civil service precedents. Yet now there is competition from private sector institutions of higher education with deeper pockets and differing reward systems. How realistic is it to consider relating pay to performance and what effect will this have on the demand for staff development? Can the state sector compete by stressing non-pay benefits such as the status of a professorial title? Will institutions be able to retain good people in this way? Is there not a case for devising incentive systems, as institutions' earnings from the commercial sector increase? If staff bring in extra income from non-governmental sources, what share of it should they be able to retain? If policies are generous to the individual in this respect, will it prove divisive within the institution if it favours staff in disciplines with high potential for such earning?

The implications of the changes in the age profile and study mode of students are that working hours for all teaching staff in institutions will lengthen to stretch into evenings and weekends. This can be resourced by expecting existing staff to work in a different way or by using job-sharing, part time helpers or non-academic support staff.

The culture within which academic staff operate has always favoured research excellence at the expense of teaching. It is proving very hard to remove this in-built bias to selection and promotion procedures even in those cases where institutional missions favour teaching excellence.

6. What Could Be the Role of Inter-University Co-operation Strategies in the Development of Human Resources in Higher Education?

There is a large gap between the massive need for staff development and the present small level of activity, and this should lead some governments and institutions to plan an increase in their provision. In many cases they have much to learn about how to plan, develop, promote and then deliver staff development programmes. Inter-university Co-operation can play a major role in helping those at the beginning of the learning curve benefit from the greater experience of others.

Such co-operation can be provided through national networks or professional associations of staff developers within a country (such as the Universities and Colleges Staff Development Agency), or within a region (such as the European Network on Staff Development in Higher Education (Berendt, 1994), or the Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa Network). However, few countries have such organisations and therefore most institutions will need to seek an international network. In recent years UNESCO's Networks for Staff Development have met this need, as they have brought together groups of those concerned with staff development in higher education institutions. Such networks have cost implications in the first instance, although their existence can bring operational economies by helping members to share resources and learn from each others' experience.

Areas where such network co-operation can prove valuable are:

- ❖ advice on the staffing and structure of staff development units within institutions;
- ❖ support in developing and drafting strategies for staff development;
- ❖ advice on the training that staff developers need and the personal skills and competencies they should have;
- ❖ exchanges of course content on all aspects of improving the quality of teaching (but care must be taken to amend the content for cultural differences);
- ❖ joint development of staff development programmes;
- ❖ information on good practice in operating and managing a staff development unit;
- ❖ direct exchanges of staff between members ;
- ❖ supplying names of good training providers and feedback on their performance;
- ❖ advice on how to collaborate with other providers in the private and public sectors.

Once networks of this kind are created, they allow a variety of interactions between members: exchanges of materials, easy communications with each other (via e mail discussion groups), the opportunity to meet at network workshops, staff exchanges between members, jointly run activities, formal problem solving consultancy visits by one member to another etc. The great value of networks is that they provide an easy forum for peer review and debate; if this can include people from other cultures and environments, there will be the added bonus of the diversity from a range of international perspectives.

The importance of South-South and North-South alliances should not be overlooked, as long as it does not add to the brain drain from the lesser to the more developed partner. Many developing countries regard staff development as being limited solely to the period spent achieving a doctorate outside their country and ignore all the later stages of continuing professional development in teaching.

7. The Next Steps: Some Suggestions for Action

This paper has identified the scale of the problem and has described some of the institutional responses to date. It is clear that these have not matched the need and that much more has to be done if the human resource capacity of our higher education institutions is to be fully and effectively utilised. We now consider some suggestions for action by the various participants. The organisation able to adopt these proposals will vary according to where authority lies in each country.

For all the staff in institutions the issue is one of awareness of the need for continuing development. What is often lacking is the strong push by them for the development of training and development opportunities. In the absence of this demand training providers sometimes find that the courses they offer are undersubscribed. Staff Development Units may be good at publicising their events and services, but do they take time to show staff why such development is essential to them personally? It is unusual for staff representatives and trade unions to push hard for staff development for their members in discussions and negotiations with management. Is there a case for an intervention by national and international bodies through offering advice and support to staff unions, by showing them the scale of the problem and urging them to pursue the matter within their institutions?

For institutional managers there are several areas where action is needed:

- ❖ every institution should prepare a staff development plan as part of its human resource strategy. This should state clearly what policies are as regards the level of staff development and training which each staff member is entitled to. It should define the roles that categories of staff are expected to fulfil and the staff development needs of those roles;
- ❖ institutions should review their institutional policies relating to selection and promotion criteria, confirmation of contracts after probation and award of tenure and consider whether they should be linked to the achievement of any staff development targets;
- ❖ consideration should be given to making participation in staff development a mandatory requirement before promotion or entry to certain posts. This should apply to both academic and administrative staff;
- ❖ the head of the institution should give firm backing and support to staff development as an institutional priority and should ensure that it receives adequate funding;
- ❖ each institution should establish a central staff development unit to develop and monitor institutional staff development policies, provide a programme of short courses and workshops and report to the Governing Body on overall performance of the institution in this area;
- ❖ the institution should seek to create a culture where participation in staff development activities is a regular feature of life and is welcomed;
- ❖ responsibility for promoting staff development should be clearly defined; one model is for Heads of Departments to be given managerial responsibility for helping members of their staff develop their performance and effectiveness, using central institutional or external providers as necessary;
- ❖ institutions should consider setting targets for individuals to join in CPD for particular categories of staff and should consider making some training mandatory (eg: safety, customer service) for some jobs.

For governments and national funding agencies there are several ways they can achieve effective staff development strategies. If they are in a position to control such matters centrally, they should modify the

national systems of recruitment and promotion in order to stress the importance of staff development by making it mandatory at certain stages. If institutions are responsible for such matters, governments can make it clear that staff development has their strong backing by asking to see human resource strategies as part of their reviews of institutional strategic planning. They could even consider penalising those institutions which have not given proper consideration to staff development activities in their planning and funding. They can also directly fund innovations in staff development; in Scotland in 1995, for example, the Funding Council set aside a special fund for staff development in four specialist topics and invited institutions to bid.

Governments can also promote collaboration and co-operation in staff development by providing pump priming support for institutional units or for a national association/network of professionals involved. Another approach is to establish a staff development unit at national level, preferably with the backing of the national organisation of vice chancellors/rectors, to support universities' units and act as a forum for the discussion of staff development policies and mechanisms for collaboration. Ensuring that institutions have an adequate advisory and support service is a proper national function.

For international agencies and donors there are various options for support. The idea of continuing international Staff Development Networks has already been mentioned, but this assumes that countries and institutions are already committed to the idea of staff development. There may be an opinion-forming and educational function before this, in which agencies such as UNESCO or IIEP could run workshops for national policy makers in higher education on the issue of encouraging institutional staff development. Other possible interventions would be:

- ❖ sponsoring surveys of good practice and disseminating them through networks;
- ❖ organising an informal "network of networks" in staff development;
- ❖ Promoting joint projects between new staff development units and experienced ones in different countries;
- ❖ helping staff in developing countries maintain their professional competence by funding participation at conferences and sabbaticals;
- ❖ funding a UNESCO chair in staff development in higher education;
- ❖ running workshops on specialist topics using international experts;
- ❖ providing consultancy advice to national staff development agencies in response to demand;
- ❖ sponsoring surveys of good practice outside higher education identifying ideas which might be imported;
- ❖ promoting the development of performance indicators or management statistics allowing institutions to compare their staff development activities with each other.

There are limitations to the support that can be given internationally since the key factor will always be the emphasis (and funding) which any national system wishes to give to its staff development activities. However, this should not deter agencies from encouraging international collaboration in the design and delivery of such programmes. (Davies, 1996).

Questions to be answered concerning Future Action

1. How can one encourage staff within institutions to push for staff development to be provided?
2. What kind of actions are trade union bodies taking to facilitate more staff development initiatives? Is there any way this can be enhanced by national or international support networks?
3. How much should institutions invest in staff development? How can they be helped to give it the proper priority and find funding for this?

4. What else should institutions do to promote effective staff development activities?
5. How can institutional leaders promote a culture where staff development is seen as essential and is welcomed?
6. What role can distance learning solutions play in meeting the need for staff development of all kinds?
7. Is there anything that national buffer bodies or governments should do to help or should they leave it to institutions?
8. How should international bodies and agencies help countries with small or under resourced higher education systems?
9. Can staff development networks operate effectively on the basis of member subscriptions without external funding or will they always need support?
10. What are the core competencies needed by a member of teaching staff (see section 3)? How much specialisation should be encouraged?

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Introduction

I address the issue of staff development from two perspectives: that of the developing countries and that of women in higher education. Both perspectives represent special problems of two large constituencies in higher education.

A. Developing countries

The challenges that confront staff development outlined in section 2 of the Fielden paper - the growth in demand for higher education, the financial constraints, focus on basic education, expectations from tertiary education, concern for quality, technological change, need to improve women's participation, changing demands of the labour market, demand for new management skills within institutions - manifest themselves to an acute degree in developing countries. Hence the issue of staff development acquires a dimension which is paramount to the growth and development of these institutions. Sadly, it is often in these countries that staff development is placed on the backburner while apparently more urgent problems are addressed. That "programs are only as good as the people who run them" (W. Saint: 96) is often forgotten.

There are two inter-linked facets of staff development in developing countries: the need to recruit and retain a cadre of highly qualified academic staff and at the same time ensure that they have opportunities to develop professionally. The solution to the first of the problems - the need for universities to recruit good staff and prevent attrition - may lie to a very great extent upon strategies employed by universities to address the second problem - to ensure that their staff acquire and demonstrate professional capabilities as teachers, researchers and managers.

I would like to look briefly at these two facets of staff development as they manifest themselves in developing countries.

Staffing

The first order of problem most developing countries face continues to be that of staffing their universities with appropriately qualified personnel. Professionalization of the academy can only take place if there is, to begin with, a core of well-qualified and competent staff, dedicated to generating and imparting knowledge. Over the last 15 years, since we have been monitoring staff development in the Commonwealth, the situation has not improved markedly in the developing countries. Rapid expansion of higher education combined with contracting economies in many Commonwealth countries have enabled universities and colleges to barely keep pace with the increase in demand for tertiary education.

The need to upgrade the qualifications of staff in the system necessarily continues to receive priority in developing countries. There remains a significant difference in the qualifications profile between the developed and developing countries. Data assembled in 1990 suggested that the recruitment of staff could not keep pace with expansion of the student population. The rapid growth since 1990 in the developing countries has placed further pressure on recruitment of appropriate persons. The post-graduate sector remains small, relatively, to provide a competitive base for recruitment. Considerable numbers are still recruited with a first or masters' degree. In 1991- most developing countries staff with doctoral degrees ranged from 40 to about 10 percent compared with 50-60 percent in developed countries. Recent data suggests that the situation has improved marginally but not significantly, and in some cases has in fact deteriorated. In some countries there still remains the added dimension of needing local staff to replace expatriate staff (Mukherjee and Singh: 3-5).

A number of specific examples will demonstrate the gravity of the problem:

- In Africa, gathering and maintaining good people in universities has constituted an abiding challenge over the years. The process of localising staff after independence has been slow. In 1979 expatriate staff in African universities constituted nearly a third of the teaching faculty. That the challenge remains today is graphically underlined by the fact that 22 out of 45 African universities for which data are available still relied on foreigners to fill 20 percent or more of teaching positions (Saint: 96). A 1993 study of staff loss and retention at selected African universities (Blair and Jordan) revealed that there was still large number of vacancies due to increase in the establishment. There was also, in most of the universities, a high turnover of staff which must have impacted negatively on the quality of the institutions. Conceivably, less well-qualified staff is being recruited, and less experienced staff promoted (Blair and Jordan: 83-84). In a recent correspondence to me Blair states “ as the Zimbabwe and other African economies continue to struggle structural adjustment and corruption, all universities are finding it difficult to offer the conditions which would attract and retain high calibre staff.”
- From Sierra Leone (Strasser-King) we learn that inadequate research facilities and poor conditions of service have led to an alarming rate of staff attrition. University salary conditions in general have lagged far behind other sectors in the country. In Fourah Bay College, the oldest and largest of the constituent colleges, only about 66% of the normal staff complement were in post in October 1996....Many departments engage temporary teaching assistants and part-time lecturers to relieve the teaching load of the permanent staff. There are 28 Departments in the College, but only eight Professors and five Associate Professors in post.
- The story from China is similar. Measures to increase remuneration have not been able to render teaching as a sufficiently attractive and appropriately awarding occupation. Consequently, the problem of recruitment and retention are common, most noticeably among young and middle-aged faculty in most needed, newly-established and market oriented specialities such as economics, finance, trade, foreign language, etc., and the trend looks set to continue for the next few years. An investigation into 121 universities and colleges in 22 provinces in 1993 showed a decline of 16.4 percent in the total number of faculty, with 62.4 percent of them being young and middle-aged. Findings of a study of 12 institutions in the Beijing area indicated that the number of younger faculty who had left during the period 1987 to 1992 accounted for 78.8 percent of the total number of those who were recruited during the same period. Qualifications profile shows that in China in 1993, 59.41 percent had only a bachelor's degree and 40.59 percent were with masters or doctoral degree (World Bank : 68).
- In its recently published National Economic Recovery Plan, the Government of Malaysia states that local public institutions are experiencing a shortage of teaching staff. The training of teaching staff including post-graduate courses is affected by the budget. It is suggested that local universities should develop their capacity to train their teaching staff in terms of their staff requirement by discipline and number of intake at the post-graduate level (National Economic Recovery Plan: 118, 121). Recent data from the Ministry of Education reveal that there is much to be done yet to improve the qualifications of academics especially in the newer universities. For instance the Universiti Sarawak Malaysia has only 12% Ph.D and 18% Masters among its academic staff and even an established university such as the National University (UKM) has only 27.5% academic staff with Ph.Ds.

Poor remuneration has been identified as the principal cause of attrition among academic senior staff, leading to a steady loss of university staff to non-university employment. Pursuit of other income-generating activities has also resulted in poor teaching, minimal participation in university administration and policy making and a neglect of research.

Professional Development of Staff

I began by suggesting that many of the strategies for increasing recruitment and for reducing attrition are closely linked to strategies for improving the professional skills and competencies of staff. We may ask ourselves what staff development strategies have succeeded in mitigating the situation.

We may draw some lessons from China where incentives other than salary, especially those tied to rewarding improving quality of teaching, research and publication opportunities have become increasingly important both in recruiting and retaining able faculty. Emphasis has been placed on promoting excellent faculty, eschewing traditional promotion procedures and quotas; developing graduate programs, as a source of career development, in view of raising the formal qualifications of lecturers under 40 years of age (World Bank, 68).

Support strategies for professional staff that have worked include: (a) encouraging staff to qualify for further degrees through in-service programs; (b) developing training plans for enhancing teaching and research skills; (c) giving young faculty priority for attending international conferences, and (d) organising special collections of publications including theses and research articles (World Bank: 68-69).

I am inclined to agree with William Saint who, writing about Africa, suggested that the solution may lie in a range of initiatives and incentives which will encourage staff to stay within the universities and provide committed service. There was need for a systematic staff development policy, managing local needs and priorities with the resources available within the countries and from external donors. (Saint: 97-98).

In terms of the specific skills and competencies to be communicated for higher education personnel at different levels, these are outlined in detail in the Fielden paper. Poor remuneration, working conditions, working in second and third jobs, lack of funds for training all affect their ability to acquire these skills.

Here is surely an area which needs considerable focus to enable developing country universities to benefit from the lessons of other countries/institutions. Some thought needs to be given to consideration of the models of delivery of these competencies. Delivery mechanisms need to be both efficient and cost-effective for developing countries. We have a number of models:

- India has adopted the establishment of Academic Staff Colleges; there are currently 45 in operation funded by the University Grants Commission in India. Their main aim is to upgrade knowledge and skills of teachers in Higher Education through Orientation Programmes and Refresher Courses. These are supplemented by specialist refresher courses in selected Indian universities as well as by courses organised at the initiative of teachers, colleges, universities and institutions.
- Some countries benefit from a regional network for staff development such as the University Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa network (USDESA) based at the University of Zimbabwe, established in 1991 to promote professional staff development activities among members and the sub-the region.
- In the United Kingdom, the Universities Staff Development Unit (USDU) is located at the University of Sheffield and has the responsibility to oversee a range of nationally provided courses. An Institute of Teaching and Learning has been proposed by the Dearing Report.
- Some developing countries have a national centre for staff development which co-ordinates all staff development activities.

- In other countries institutions are grappling with efforts to establish staff development units for the training and support of their own staff.

In making choices as to the best models, systematic evaluation of the unit costs and the impact on the system/ institution would be helpful. Developing countries and their institutions need guidelines on the best and most cost-effective practices.

Developing countries need to consider strategies and mechanisms which are able to affect a critical mass of staff for change to be effective. Bringing in a few staff members for training from different faculties has failed to have the desired impact. Strategies have to be evolved which enable a whole department, faculty or university to receive the training together. One such model had been tried by the Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education, University of Delhi. Research at the Centre revealed that the majority of clients attempting to vary teaching styles on completion of the centre's programmes had little support from institutions or elsewhere in the post-training period. Centre staff reviewed their efforts and have experimented with an outreach approach where a mobile team carries the programme to a college, developing its details according to the faculty's own needs analysis findings. The objective is to work with the college in partnership in the belief that change will be effected on a more permanent basis (Mukherjee and Singh: 33).

The most important lesson emerging from the literature in developing countries suggests that staff development programmes, both initial and in-service, which fail to link to the wider and crucial framework of strategic planning have tended to result in static programmes that respond to central directives, but not to specific requirements of the institution nor of its staff members (Singh and Mukherjee: 63).

Much has been written on these matters as evidenced by the publications from UNESCO, *Higher Education Staff Development Directions for the 21st Century*, and the Commonwealth Secretariat's, *Staff Development Approaches in Higher Education: Lessons from experience*. What is needed is more assistance with practical ways of implementing these lessons for the developing world. Centres of excellence, networks etc need to be developed to give a concrete meaning to staff development in those parts of the world where the need is greatest. These networks abound in the developed countries and to some extent in the newly industrialising countries but in the poorest economies, there is very little evidence of their existence or their capacity to organise them.

It is in the development of networks, staff exchanges and developing partnerships that the efforts of international agencies may be directed at. However, past experience shows that staff development schemes that brings the greatest benefits to developing country institutions needs to be managed and co-ordinated by the receiving countries themselves. To avoid ad-hoc schemes from abroad, these countries should themselves be at the helm of their own staff development, identify their own needs and seek the assistance of those donors that meet their requirements.

B. Women in Higher Education Management

Despite the great strides women have made in achieving high educational attainment, they represent a disadvantaged group in universities and colleges. Special measures and structures are called for to facilitate the full participation of women in the academy. More importantly, universities and colleges need to adopt an orientation which is gender neutral and plan all their activities and programmes with both men and women in mind.

Current Status of Women in Developing Country Universities

Women are grossly under-represented in higher education management. In spite of advances which women have made in many areas of public life in the past two decades, in the area of higher

education management they are still a long way from participating on the same footing as men. With hardly an exception the global picture is one of men outnumbering women at about five to one at middle management level and at about twenty to one at senior management level (Dines).

The following examples illustrate this well. In South Africa 68% of all teaching and research staff employed were men compared to 32% women. These disparities increase with rank, so much so that it is at the senior levels that the absence of women is most conspicuous. In 1992, across the universities, 26% of all senior lecturers, 15% of associate professors and only 6% of professors were women. Data from India indicate that of the university level institutions about 6 percent have women Vice-Chancellors, 21 percent senior administrative officers, and 10 percent heads of departments and principals of constituent colleges. In Sri Lanka, despite a 47 percent enrolment of women in universities in 1995, there was only one woman Vice-Chancellor, 5 women Deans out of a total of 43, and there were only 46 out of 190 or about 20% heads of department. Of the administrative staff of the universities, there are no women registrars and women comprise 25% bursars, 14% deputy registrars, 20% assistant registrars, and 22% assistant bursars. In Malaysia, despite a high level of access to tertiary education, women are very poorly represented in university management: there is no woman chancellor, pro-chancellor, vice-chancellor or deputy vice-chancellor or bursar. There are, however 33.3% registrars, 66.7% librarians, 7.5% deans and 17.2% deputy-deans. In Latin America, while women account for 50% or even more of the undergraduate students in some disciplines, only 20% full-time, tenured staff are women and women make up less than 10% of those appointed to senior administrative posts. Such simple numerical data make it apparent that the domain of administrative leadership remains the domain of men.

Representation in the committee system follows a similar pattern, with women more likely to be members of department and faculty committees than on governing boards and councils. Furthermore the career advancement of women is much slower than the career advancement of men. (Smulders: 2)

Current research and writing on women's participation in higher education looks at the problem from two commonly held perspectives:

- That women do not possess the skills or behavioural characteristics that are required to perform competently in managerial and leadership roles, that is, the problem is seen to reside within the women themselves, and their lack of competencies, or the problem lies in the choices women have made in education and employment.
- That organisational structure and processes contribute significantly to women's poor participation in high level positions. In this instance the problem is seen to reside in the management practices of organisations which do not take into account the differences between men and women and consequently overlook the specific interests of female staff. The underlying proposition of this view is that there is a systematic relationship between the gender blindness in organisational and management practices and the differences in career progress between men and women in an organisation. (Bond; Smulders) The emphasis here is on the organisation's structural elements such as job recruitment, job assignment etc.

Some efforts have been made to address the problem of women in higher education from these two perspectives. Targeted scholarships and fellowships for women, training programmes for women, leadership and mentoring schemes, women's networks have all worked towards preparing women to be better equipped to compete for and participate in top management levels of institutions. There has been considerably less work directed at changing the structures of universities, and making them more oriented to accommodating the needs of women. A number of institutions have moved towards mainstreaming women into the organisations.

Perhaps where attention most needs to be focused is to consider a third explanation which links gender-centred and organisational-structure perspectives. This "gendered" perspective is concerned with

the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations to women and to men. These gender-based roles, that are usually irrelevant or inappropriate to the work setting, are often carried over to the work-place. From this perspective higher education institutions reproduce gender differences via their internal structures. Cultural perceptions which determine the attitudes and behaviours of individual men and women, form barriers to the equal participation of women in senior management. The status quo is maintained because the actors involved, both dominant (male) and subordinate (female) subscribe to social and organisational reality.

These perspectives suggest a broad framed plan of action for women's enhanced participation in the higher education institutions. It is not sufficient to provide training for potential women managers, though that has its place, or to appoint token women. Structural changes within organisations are necessary to "create space for women" to use a term from Anne Smulders. The need is to recognise the incompatibility between masculine organisations and female responsibilities, and move to changing the organisational structures and culture which will be women-friendly.

Gender Management System for Higher Education

I should make reference to the Commonwealth Secretariat's efforts to promote the development of a total gender management system for the higher education sector. Studies of education and development plans have revealed the absence of the awareness of the gender impact of policies, plans, programmes and projects. Policy makers and those who plan and develop educational programmes and projects would be greatly helped if they had an easily applied tool to assist them ensure that the outcomes of these plans/programmes/projects did not impact negatively on the achievement of gender equity.

The development of gender management strategies for the higher education sector represents a major contribution to the development of women and higher education. The GMS takes into consideration:

- Policy Environment which, in particular, examines the policy statements with regard to gender; nature of management and decision making.
- Institutional Environment, which takes account of representation in decision-making, staff composition, working conditions.
- Critical Policy Indicators pertaining to nature of the higher education provision, access participation, resources and achievement.

Conclusion

My plea is that in planning for staff development there are special considerations that affect developing countries and women in higher education.

All aspects of staff development, whether they relate to teaching and learning or to the advancement of women, need to be integrated into the university's mainstream strategic planning, given visibility and support by the highest level of management. Otherwise staff development activities will continue to remain on the fringe of academic activities and pursued by a few dedicated staff developers. They need to be institutionalised as core activities of universities.

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Academic Staff Development in Europe - Relevance, types of programmes and theses for discussion

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Abstract

The thematic debate "Staff Development: A continuing Mission " was carefully prepared by a working paper (Fielden 1998). Detailed papers and discussion preceded the final version, including contributions by the author B. Berendt, also a panelist of the debate.

Section 1 includes a survey on relevant data in the context of UNESCO discussions and activities. The increasing relevance of academic staff development in European countries and types of training programmes as examples of good practice are summarized in sections 2 and 3. In the background of the author's research and practical experience as a staff developer in European, African and Asian universities on one hand, publications in the context of the World Conference and two selected national examples on the other, theses are formulated as examples for further discussion in section 4.

In spite of the increasing relevance of academic staff development and a lot of examples of good practice for programmes and networks, decisions about other priorities for the 21st century could hinder adequate funding

1. Introduction: Survey on data in the context of UNESCO discussions and activities

In the context of the discussions during the past years about effectiveness and efficiency of universities, academic staff development for maintaining or improving the quality of teaching and learning was identified as a **key aspect of quality** during the 4th NGO-Meeting (1994) "Higher Education Capacity Building for the 21st Century"(1). The necessity of **preparing** higher-education teaching personnel for *the profession*, and the development and maintenance of teaching skills, knowledge and attitudes, were stressed in the 1996 draft for the General Conference of UNESCO's "Recommendation Concerning the Status of Higher Education Personnel"(2). The 1997 Palermo Conference: "A European Agenda for Change of Higher Education in the XXIst Century" summarized as a first priority of required actions: "A crucial lever for change is a creative and well-defined personnel policy which opens up **teaching as a career, supported by appropriate staff development programmes**".(3)

A UNESCO working paper on "Development of Human Resources in Higher Education" (22-8-1997) identified key questions, among them: **Which types of initial and ongoing training** are necessary to adequately prepare and support personnel in their current and future tasks? In particular, what should be the place of *systematic professionalisation* in the pedagogical domain? In addition: What could be the role of **inter-university co-operation strategies** in the development of human resources?(4)

Within the scope of the UNESCO project "European Network Staff Development in Higher Education/ENSDHE", UNESCO-CEPES have published national reports, plans of actions, bibliographies annually since 1993. Reports on the biannual meetings of national co-ordinators and observers (organized 1985-1991) include 5 editions. UNESCO-CEPES also published newsletters and other materials. (5)

In the context of ENSDHE, and a project on "The Quality of Training in Higher Education Management and Institutional Development", I was asked to carry out research. My research started in 1994, focusing, in particular, on relevance (status), main aims, contents and activities of academic staff development programmes for initial and ongoing training for higher-education teaching personnel in

Western and Eastern European countries. More detailed research on current developments and programmes for initial and ongoing training in selected countries, includes so far Germany and Great Britain, where programmes already started in the sixties(6). Additional data shall be published on the basis of detailed questionnaires already sent to national co-ordinators/representatives. Some of the results are included in my papers on "How to re-launch ENSDHE", and "How to support the shift from teaching to learning through academic staff development programmes - examples and perspectives(7). Other results are part of the database for J.L. Davies' publication on "Higher Education Management Training and Development - Quality Indicators"(8). In the context of the organizational base for the delivery of international programmes (pos. 90), Davies regards the Free University Berlin (through its Unit for Staff Development and Research into Higher Education) as playing the role of a centre of international excellence for ENSDHE: "This centre idea is important as a focus for higher education research, accessing relevant literature, providing the necessary learning resources, case notes, etc., providing and training tutors, etc."

This article is mainly based on my research. It includes parts of 2 papers I prepared for the World Conference in November/December 97.

2. Increasing relevance of academic staff development programmes

2.1 Western Europe

Academic staff development programmes started in the sixties in Great Britain, The Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany in. There were also single initiatives in Scandinavian countries, Switzerland and Ireland, which started a little later. In the context of the discussions about the quality of higher education and effective/efficient teaching, the relevance of academic staff development programmes increased particularly during the last years.

Great Britain: In 1989, CVCP formed a national unit USDTU, now UCoSDA (9). Since 1993/94, a national accreditation scheme exists, developed and carried out by SEDA for teachers, staff developers and programmes. In 1997, 125 higher education institutions have staff development units. They offer short courses, many of them award-bearing courses (Certificate, Diploma, Master's). Some universities require participation in academic staff development courses during probation in their **contracts with new staff**. The "Dearing report" 1997 could be the starting point for new initiatives.

The Netherlands: In 1996, 11 out of 13 universities have offered staff development programmes. Current tendencies: - higher education teachers new in their career, or wishing continuation of contracts, have to visit training programmes. Accreditation of programmes is discussed.

France: In 1989, the so-called "monitoriat" was introduced by law. Postgraduate students can apply as assistants. As part of their training for becoming university teachers, they are related to a mentor. A national plan provides "practice-orientated pedagogical training", performed by 14 academic staff development units, or the national association ADMES.

Germany: In 1993, a common declaration of the Standing Conference of Ministers of Culture and Education and Rectors and Presidents (KMK and HRK), initiated activities of the Länder. Applicants for a professorship have to give evidence of their pedagogical skills (e.g. by participation in academic staff development courses.) Newly appointed professors have to take part in academic staff development courses (e.g. Polytechnics in Baden-Württemberg and Bavaria). The participation in such courses is necessary for the "habilitation" in some universities (e.g. Mainz//Medicine). The framework law for higher education so far provided that, practical experience in teaching is a sufficient evidence for pedagogical qualification of professors. In 1997, para 44 1, no. 2 was cancelled in order to motivate the Länder for new regulations and policies in the recruitment of academic staff concerning the evidence: excellence in teaching is regarded as important as excellence in research(10).

The national association AHD prepares a national curriculum "Qualification for teaching", and discusses the accreditation of staff developers and programmes. There is an increasing motivation for participation in courses and activities at the 16 units (e.g. 230 - 300 applicants at Free University Berlin per semester). About 50 additional initiatives have been started at different universities during the past years. However, the number of units and the number of staff within existing units is too small, in relation to the number of teaching personnel; the increasing demand for courses cannot be met adequately (e.g. 16 units for more than 140.000 potential participants).

Switzerland: For a long period, Lausanne had been the only university offering a programme for academic staff development (including 12 modules for "new" members. In 1996, 4 additional universities offer programmes including up to 15 workshops per semester.

Austria: A 1994 law stresses the necessity of pedagogical competence in the context of the "habilitation" for a professorship. 9 universities offer courses. In 1998, all teaching staff members of Polytechnics have to attend courses.

Finland: Since 1995, there have been Committees for Staff Development in many universities. All universities offer courses. A national staff development unit is being discussed.

Norway: A national committee for staff development co-ordinates courses. In Bergen: "New" teachers have to visit courses during their first two years.

There are promising programmes in different universities of *Spain* and *Ireland*.

2.2 Eastern Europe

In 1981, the University of Ljubljana (now Slovenia) started a non-mandatory academic staff development programme in co-operation with Western European staff development units. In a lot of Eastern European countries, the traditional programmes were abolished after 1989/1990. Ljubljana continued in co-operation with West European units (sponsored e.g. by EC-TEMPUS).

Eastern European universities often regard academic staff development programmes carried out in Western European countries as an important tool to "democratize" universities and the society. But many of them stress that there are other priorities, and necessary funds are not available. There are, however, considerable efforts in some countries:

Slovenia: A new university law states that pedagogical competence has to be relevant in the context of the habilitation. Both universities (Ljubljana and Maribor) offer courses.

Slovak Republic: On the basis of a curriculum, 5 institutes of higher education offer courses.

Czech Republic: 8 institutions offer courses.

Belarus: The ministry is responsible for courses offered by a national institute.

3. Types of training programmes

Programmes are carried out on the institutional, national and international level. There are a variety of activities and foci. Differences in political systems, universities and their traditions, the status of academic staff development as well as the overall financial situation are vital factors.

Successful academic staff development concepts can be summarized as follows:

- ❖ the need of the institutions and their members are the basis for the choice of activities, topics, methods;
- ❖ workshops of 1 - 3 days aiming at gaining knowledge, improving skills and changing attitudes are the best way of addressing teaching staff. These workshops are foci of such programmes. They use a problem-orientated approach, based on the participants' practice and problems, and aim at developing tailor-made solutions.
- ❖ workshops are linked to other activities such as consultancies, self-study materials, research, classroom assessment and audio-visual media.
- ❖ university teachers are in the focus, but other persons relevant for teaching and learning are involved in special training events - for example, students and industrial employers.

Most universities offer *short courses* of 1 - 3 days in the form of a "menu": participants have the choice between up to 15 topics (e.g. "Introduction into designing, performing, evaluation of courses", "How students learn", "Lecturing", "Small group teaching", "Forms of active learning", "Students' assessment and examinations", "Counseling students", "Research supervision", "The use of media", "Individualized, independent and open learning", "Communication", "Rhetoric").

In *Great Britain*, there is a long tradition for offering *post graduate long-term courses* based on a curriculum with the possibility of a Certificate, Diploma or Master's degree. E.g. the University of Surrey developed a distance-learning course, also Oxford Polytechnic (now Brookes University) and London University started such programmes about 20 years ago.

During the last years, a lot of universities followed the tradition: In 1996/97, 33 institutions offer award-bearing courses. Differences concern a) Target group (new teachers or new and experienced teachers), b) Obligatory vs. voluntary, c) Topics of obligatory parts, d) Level of award (Certificate, Diploma, Master's).

Examples are the universities of East London, Northumbria at Newcastle and Sunderland as well as Oxford Brookes University: All of them published detailed handbooks for participants. They include details on aims and expected outcomes, the course structure, activities, forms and criteria of evaluation. These handbooks also contain details of the modules, reading lists, schedules. (Details can be sent on request.)

Obviously the main aim is the reflective practitioner. Activities are different. They include for instance:

- Introductory courses for "new" teachers.
- Workshops about pedagogic topics to relate participants' practice to theory and results of empirical research. Mini-lectures, in particular microteaching, simulations, case studies and forms of active learning are in the focus. Individual work is combined with small groups and plenary sessions).
- Observation (by peers, tutors, mentors or self-observation). Supervised and evaluated teaching experience.
- Consultancy by a mentor (an experienced colleague).
- Learning contracts, i.e. individual contracts concerning what teachers would like to learn for their practice. Partly the individual profile and expected outcomes as a basis for planning single steps are included.
- Portfolios, i.e. a collection of evidence on individual teaching practice and innovations. As a rule, a plan of action and comments are included.

- Self-study materials.
- Projects (as a form of self-managed learning, e.g. exploration of aspects of teaching or implementation of practice-orientated innovations).

One university also, includes:

- a professional development record
- interactive learning with texts
- production of materials and their evaluation.

On the national level, particularly the activities of UCoSDA and SEDA should be mentioned. UCoSDA offers workshops, consultancy, publications, materials and the organization of conferences. SEDA's focus is on the "Teacher Accreditation Scheme" with the aim of a common standard of those who went through programmes accredited by SEDA. In 1996/1997, 30 programmes and 260 teachers were accredited. In addition 17 staff developers were accredited by the 'Fellowship scheme'. In addition 35 accreditation procedures for programmes could be finished.

A detailed catalogue summarizes 8 aims and outcomes as well as 6 principles for the practical work of teachers.

4. Theses for discussion

4.1 Introductory remarks

An analysis and comparison of the "European Agenda for Change", the UNESCO "Recommendations concerning Higher Education Personnel", John Fielden's paper quoted above and selected national examples on different levels (from Great Britain and Germany) (11) show that there are a lot of common ideas. I tried to include them in the formulation of theses and additional details in order to contribute to the ongoing discussions and - perhaps - to agreements on some crucial aspects.

In the forthcoming debate during the World Conference, I should also like to argue that there is enough evidence of growing relevance and acceptance of academic staff development in European countries on one hand. There are a lot of examples of good practice at successful programmes and networking and a lot of realistic ideas to promote academic staff development on the institutional and national level. On the other hand, the funding is closely linked to priorities. Crucial questions are not yet answered:

- ❖ What *priority* do UNESCO, international and national bodies, trade unions and governments provide for higher education in the 21st century?
- ❖ What priority do they and the institutions of higher education provide for funding of academic staff development and programmes?

In a time of continuing budget cuts and shortage of financial means, which also includes disciplines as computer science and medicine, it seems difficult to give faculty development the high priority, which is regarded as necessary.

4.2 Theses for further discussion

Necessity of Appropriate Academic Staff Development Programmes in the Context of a Changed Personnel Policy.

Thesis 1: The results of the Palermo Conference 1997 "A European Agenda for Change for Higher Education in the XXIst Century", of the NGO-Meeting 1994, the "Recommendation Concerning the

Status of Higher Educational Personnel” 1997, and data on current developments in higher education, have shown that academic staff development programmes (in the sense of educational/pedagogical development and training for faculty members and teaching personnel in universities and higher education institutions) need particular attention.

A vigorous and clear personnel policy related to recruitment, selection, promotion and tenure is necessarily supported by appropriate training programmes.

Details:

1.1 During the discussions of the last years, academic staff development programmes for higher - education teaching personnel have been identified to be **essential means** particularly

- ❖ to contribute to efficiency and effectiveness of universities in order to maintain and improve the quality of teaching and learning, particularly under conditions of massification.
- ❖ to qualify higher-education teaching personnel for their teaching tasks (also considering the unity of teaching and research) in the sense of professionalisation of teaching.
- ❖ to support the aims of higher education, which are not only to transmit knowledge needed for developing analytical and critical thinking, but also to enable students to solve problems in a creative way also in non-standard situations in the sense of acquiring transferable skills.
- ❖ to support the aim of higher education, i.e. to educate students to act responsibly and responsibly within the society.
- ❖ to relate research results on how students learn with a coaching role of the teacher, who knows and applies methods and media for active learning and acts as a moderator of learning processes.
- ❖ to support the paradigmatic shift from teaching to learning by developing teachers' knowledge, skills and attitudes, how to motivate students for self-managed learning and life-long learning, in order to meet the challenges of future developments.

1.2 Over the years, academic staff development programmes have proved successful in enabling teaching staff to achieve or improve teaching qualifications by gaining **knowledge**, developing skills and changing **attitudes**.

It has, however, to be stressed that these programmes alone cannot solve the complex problems of higher education. Still they are the most **promising approach** in that direction: Quality in higher education can neither be maintained nor be improved unless the teaching/learning process - i.e. the direct interaction between university teachers and learners on the level of a course and its sessions - is the main focus. Only academic staff development via its analysis of good teaching and innovative methods gives direct access to the crucial improvement of the teaching/learning situation. In particular different ways of assessing quality and evaluation cannot replace this direct access.

Change of Personnel Policy on the National and Institutional Level

Thesis 2: A **change of personnel policy** on the national and institutional level includes **rules and regulations** in the sense that excellence in teaching is a prerequisite for academic staff as well as excellence in research. In both areas, applicants have to give evidence.

Practical experience in teaching is not sufficient as evidence of the crucial pedagogical qualification (12), as a rule evidence of participation in appropriate academic staff development programmes is required.

Promotion and Funding of Appropriate Programmes

Thesis 3: *Academic Staff development programmes should be promoted and funded* by specific financial means on the local, national and international level using data on and experiences with “successful” programmes, networks and different forms of international co-operation. However, cultural differences as well as differences of the political and financial situations should be taken into consideration.

Details:

3.1 Areas and topics of academic staff development programmes should cover:

- * the levels of curricula, of courses, of teaching/learning situations.
- * the choice of aims, contents, methods, media and forms of evaluation at all levels of teaching.

The context (e.g. the role of universities' laws and regulations, equipment, finances) and the pre-conditions of students (e.g. learning styles, previous experiences) as well play important roles.

3.2 The main characteristics of academic staff development concepts should be:

- * the need of the institutions and their members are the basis for the choice of activities, topics and methods;
- * the focus of programmes is workshops of 1 - 3 days aiming at acquiring knowledge, improving skills and changing attitudes. These workshops use a problem-orientated approach, based on participants' practice and problems, and aim at developing tailor-made solutions;
- * workshops are linked to other activities such as consultancy, self-study materials, research, supervision and evaluation of teaching, audio-visual media, portfolios and projects.

3.3. According to the experience (particularly from Great Britain, Germany and The Netherlands during the past 30 years), ***types and duration*** of programmes should be flexible, particularly during the development of new programmes. For example, offers can consist of a menu of different short training workshops (1 - 3 days), or they can be organized as long-term postgraduate courses (1 - 2 years). Offers should include, as a core, basic pedagogical ***topics*** as: "How students learn", "Introduction into designing, performing and evaluating of courses", "Improvement of lectures", "Small group teaching", "Forms of active learning", "Students' assessment and examination", "Counselling students", "The use of media", "Individualized and open learning", "Communication", "Rhetoric". Additional topics could include, for example, aspects of staff mobility, different university systems, forms of inter-university co-operation.

Programmes should also provide training modules for the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for management competence and competence in communication and information technology.

A certificate, diploma or master's degree should certify participation in an academic staff development programme.

3.4. It seems necessary to make the successful participation in academic staff development programmes a ***prerequisite for university professors and teachers in higher education institutions***, particularly for tenure positions. Corresponding changes of laws and regulations are necessary unless they have already been made.

Participation in programmes with a focus on training workshops should be ***compulsory during probation***. Participation in programmes should be ***part of the working contract*** during probation, in order to prepare for teaching as profession.

Experienced university teachers who can prove teaching competence and qualifications should have the possibility to replace the participation in programmes. The proofs should be the basis for the teachers' accreditation by the university's staff development unit or the unit or institute in charge of academic staff development programmes.

3.5. Assistants and persons with teaching duties without a ***long-term contract*** should have equal opportunities to participate in academic staff development programmes, particularly in post-graduate courses for obtaining a certificate, diploma or master's degree.

3.6. Academic staff development programmes should also include offers for ***experienced university*** teaching personnel advanced in their career to maintain and improve professional teaching standards.

Responsibility for Academic Staff Development Programmes

Thesis 4: A specific unit for staff development and research into higher education teaching and learning should offer Academic staff development programmes. The unit should be integrated into a faculty or have a status similar to other institutes which carry out teaching, research and consultancy in specific disciplinary areas (e.g. faculty of education or an interdisciplinary centre or centre of excellence). In any case, the unit should have the possibilities to develop and maintain programmes on a research-orientated basis and to carry out research and projects. A staff development unit as part of the administration with no possibility of its own research would hinder professors and other teaching personnel from accepting programmes as serious and respectable offers. There would be no acceptance of staff developers as colleagues and experts in another field.

Details:

4.1 The unit within a university or another institution of higher education could also be responsible for teaching personnel from other universities or institutions of higher education, thereby becoming a unit on the ***local level***.

4.2 A staff development unit on the national level, preferably founded and sponsored by the national conference of rectors and presidents, should support existing or developing units and act as a forum for the discussion of relevant issues. (e.g. status of staff development units, requirements for the accreditation of academic staff development programmes, necessary laws and regulations).

Inter-university co-operation

Thesis 5: Inter-university co-operation strategies on the European and international level concerning the promotion of academic staff development programmes are necessary with respect to the global importance in the development of human resources. The exchange of data and experience about successful academic staff development programmes (***examples of good practice***) are necessary between institutions already running such programmes, in order to guarantee a specific standard of "good teaching", comparable to a specific standard of "good research". They are particularly necessary in order

to support those institutions with little or no experience by institutions and staff developers with a long experience and expertise documented for instance in publications and project reports about concepts and programmes.

UNESCO should continue their efforts to establish networks for academic staff development in Africa, Europe, Latin America and the Arab countries. UNESCO should also continue to support exchanges of members and representatives between different **networks** and the exchange of materials. This necessarily includes the provision of financial support for the networks and their activities.

European Network

Thesis 6: UNESCO should in particular continue their project **"European Network Staff Development in Higher Education/ENSDHE"**. UNESCO-CEPES should be asked to continue to act as a stable organizational basis and secretariat; UNESCO-CEPES should organize or co-organize biannual seminars with national co-ordinators and observers, should collect and disseminate, in particular, annual national reports, selected bibliographies and plans of actions. The Free University Berlin/Unit for Staff Development and Research into Higher Education would continue to be available and act as a centre of international excellence for ENSDHE.

Details

6.1. Discussions on **"How to re-launch ENSDHE"** (started in 1994) should be continued. Issues to be discussed, in particular, include current relevance of academic staff development in Eastern and Western European countries, aims of ENSDHE, financial framework provided by UNESCO, organization, activities, ENSDHE and the UNITWIN/UNESCO CHAIRS Programme. (details are included in a working paper prepared for UNESCO; the paper could be a starting point for further discussion). (13)

6.2. Forms of co-operation and common projects between universities with "successful" academic staff development programmes and a long experience, and universities with little or no experience need special attention.

Thesis 7: If UNESCO-CEPES is not available for ENSDHE, the establishment of a European Centre for Academic Staff Development should be envisaged. The issue should be discussed by a working group of active national co-ordinators/representatives within ENSDHE, and experts with proofs of practical experience as staff developers through publications about projects and research in the field during several years, preferably in an international context. The staff development unit Free University Berlin would act as a nucleus to co-ordinate such a working group. The working group should start with discussions about aims and possible activities and develop ideas concerning status, organization and the necessary financial framework of such a centre.

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 - 2) **UNESCO General Conference (1997):** Item 6 of the provisional agenda: "Adoption of a Recommendation Concerning the Status of Higher-Education Teaching Personnel". In: Doc. 29c/12 - 18 July 1997 Paris (particularly pos. **VIII; 111,4; VII** 33,34; IX 42)
 - 3) **CRE/CEPES (1997):** "A European Agenda for Change for Higher Education in the XXIst Century". Paris, Geneva, Bucharest
The preparatory paper by **J.L. Davies:** "Comparative Analysis of 20 Institutional Case Studies" already identified systematic staff development to be focus No. 1 among strategies for organizational change and development (para 58). Paras 20 - 30 contain details on teaching and learning
 - 4) **UNESCO (1997):** "The Development of Human Resources in Higher Education". 22 August 1997, Paris
 - 5) **UNESCO-CEPES (Ed.):** Reports (1985) Prague, (1987) Aveiro, (1989) Bucharest, (1991) Paris. Bucharest
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UNESCO-CEPES (Ed.) (1991, 1994, 1995, 1996, and 1997): Bibliographies on staff development, Bucharest
 - 6) Comprehensive publications about the latest developments of staff development in Germany, Western and Eastern European countries and Great Britain are available:
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- Summaries are included in this paper.
A former publication by the author is:
- Berendt, B. (1994):** "Higher Education Teaching Development Networks with Regard to the European Network on Staff Development in Higher Education (ENSDHE)". In: UNESCO (Ed.) Higher Education Staff Development: Directions for the 21st Century, Paris (p. 77 - 92)
 - 7) **Berendt, B. (1994):** "How to Re-launch the European Network Staff Development in Higher Education: Focus Aspects for future developments and for a Plan of Action. Internal paper for further discussion" Berlin-Paris
Berendt, B. (1998): "How to Support the Shift from Teaching to Learning through Academic Staff Development Programmes - Examples and Perspectives". In: UNESCO-CEPES (Ed.) Higher Education in Europe. Bucharest (forthcoming, a pre-print can be sent on request).
 - 8) **Davies, J.L. (1996):** Higher Education Management Training and Development. Quality Indicators". In: UNESCO (Ed.) New Papers on Higher Education Studies and Research. No.18, Paris
 - 9) Abbreviations are explained in the annex.
 - 10) 4 Gesetz zur Änderung des Hochschulrahmengesetzes mit Begründung (Information by: Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft, Forschung und Technologie/Federal Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 10-8-98)
 - 11) **Dearing, Sir Ron (1997):** Higher Education in the Learning Society. Report of the National Committee of Enquiry into Higher Education. HMSO, London
AHD/Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Hochschuldidaktik (1994): "Qualifizierung für die Lehre -Braunschweiger Erklärung des AHD Vorstandes". Bielefeld.
 - 12) This corresponds to the change of the German framework law for higher education HRG (see footnote 10).
 - 13) See footnote 7.

ANNEX - Abbreviations

ADMES	= Association des Méthodes d'Éducation Supérieure
AHD	= Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Hochschuldidaktik
CVCP	= Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals
HRK	= Hochschulrektorenkonferenz
KMK	= Kultusministerkonferenz
SEDA	= Staff and Educational Development Association
UCoSDA	= The Universities' and Colleges' Staff Development Agency
USDTU	= Universities' Staff development and Training Unit

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A. The Challenges

1. Experience has shown that no country can achieve sustainable economic and social development without the support of a minimum core of indigenous, highly skilled and innovative scientists, technologists and other professionals, who can undertake basic and applied research essential to national development.

This view is currently shared by a number of leading economists in the world (see article published last month in *The Economist* by Prof. Sacks of Harvard University on Global Capitalism).

2. In the majority of developing countries, especially the Least Developed Countries (LDCs), there is an acute shortage of world-class professionals. This is largely due to the failure of the institutions of higher education to attract, properly train and retain these professionals. The reasons are well-known. They are mainly attributed to the deteriorating infrastructure in universities and the acute shortage of leadership due to declining budgets and the brain drain. In addition, there has been a substantial increase in the student body, resulting in the over-production of poorly qualified graduates.

3. Basic sciences are the worst hit by this crisis. TWAS and ISP are currently conducting a survey on the status of basic sciences (physics, chemistry, mathematics and biology) in Eastern and Southern Africa to be presented at a conference on basic sciences in the region to be held in Arusha, Tanzania, in March 1999. From what we have seen so far, it seems that the majority of countries in the region have an average of 5-8 PhD holders in any of the four fields of basic sciences.

4. The challenge, therefore, is how to reverse this situation and create opportunities to attract and train young talents and sustain them to conduct problem-solving research.

In many developing countries there is a strong political will to change and invest more in education and research but they are crippled by debt and globalisation problems.

B. Regional and International Cooperation Strategies

1. Networks of Centres of Excellence in the South

- * Centres of excellence in education and research in developing countries can jointly play a significant role in uplifting the status of higher education in developing countries, especially in the LDCs.
- * First, we need to identify these centres (TWNSO/TWAS/South Centre project).
- * Second, we need to form thematic networks of these centres working in similar fields and provide them with modern communication technologies to facilitate their interaction.
- * Third, we need to establish comprehensive graduate and postgraduate training programmes at these centres and offer attractive fellowships to talented students to pursue their studies at these centres. The demand for such programmes is very high (example: TWOWS postgraduate training programme)

- * Fourth, we need to link these networks of centres of excellence in the South with their counterparts in the North and facilitate joint research programmes and exchanges of professionals.

2. Regional Foundations for Higher Education

- * Joint international action co-sponsored by governments and major development aid organizations, including the World Bank, the regional Banks and UNDP, to establish regional foundations to provide funds to improve the quality of higher education in the developing world.
- * A foundation for the African region is most needed. It should have a capital fund of about 1 billion US dollars, the income of which could be utilized to:
 - a) improve the infrastructure for research and training in institutions of higher education;
 - b) provide competitive fellowships to talented students to pursue postgraduate research and training at centres of excellence in the South;
 - c) counteract the brain drain by providing attractive conditions and incentives to leading indigenous scientists and other professionals;
 - d) facilitate the flow of world-class scientists and other professionals from the North to the South to assist in building local capacities in higher education.

Higher Education Staff Development: Where are the Women?

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The Problem

Discussion on higher education staff development readily overlooks an important group of staff: women. There is a risk they are not considered at all. Alternatively they are linked with other so called "minority" groups! Women may be a minority amongst staff in many higher education institutes but they are a majority of the population of any nation. So it is for this very reason that they need special attention if their position is to be made more equitable.

Data on the position of women in higher education institutions are many. Over recent decades such data show scenes that are changing with definite trends towards increases in the previously very small numbers of women at most levels of staffing in most countries. Can we expect the positive trends towards gender equity to continue? Is development of women in higher education institutions sustainable? Will it continue until there is equality for women amongst higher education staff, at all levels and in all disciplines?

A recent CHEMS (Commonwealth Higher Education Management Services) document on "Female Staff Numbers in Commonwealth Universities" states that "women are still seriously under-represented amongst full time staff in both administrative and academic hierarchies of Commonwealth Universities. Only at the level of lecturer do academic staff numbers begin to be equal: this may be a reflection as much of female drop-out and stagnation as of progression - only time will tell." (1)

The CHEMS statistics show - and they are repeated elsewhere - wide ranges from country to country but in virtually no field and no country are women the majority of leadership positions in universities. Women are around 10% of Professors, 34% of Lecturers; rarely Vice-Chancellors or Deans but more commonly Registrars and Chief Librarians. Institutions with a majority of women leaders are often those with small numbers overall. Even so, they form interesting and encouraging contrasts which deserve study. (1)

The position of women is particularly low - as we have come to expect - in institutions with strong foci on science, technology and agriculture. In engineering institutions, women are barely present at the higher professional levels.

Does the shortage of women in leadership in higher education matter?

It might be argued that stressing the need for more women in higher education leadership is no more than the action of a minority (!) group trying to improve its employment prospects. But, and too often this needs stressing, women are **NOT** a minority group to be considered along with racial minorities, handicapped and refugees who all deserve special considerations. Women are over 50% of all nationalities and a significant part of any nation's workforce. "Any country serious about fully utilising all its human resources potential cannot leave the task to the very small number of women in leadership positions." (2). Without equal access and opportunities for women with higher education, a major section of the workforce is under-utilised and the achievements of the next generation underdeveloped. The enormous gain to a country of women with higher education in the workforce should be acknowledged and made visible. This applies to women with higher education working within higher education institutions as much as to those working outside such institutions.

The contribution of educated women to society is not just for today. They have an important impact on the achievements of the next generation. A study of a cohort of British children born in 1958 showed that mothers' educational levels were positively related to the educational achievements of children, especially the girls. (3) Since the more highly educated mothers were more likely to be in full time employment, despite family commitments, it seems likely that job satisfaction and personal achievement for those women enhance the role model of a highly educated mother. It is important that in whatever sphere women choose to work, their potential is developed equally with that of all the workforce.

Women can also bring particular skills and attitudes to the work place. The World Conference on Higher Education is considering the radical changes needed to make higher education and its institutions more relevant to the 21st century. Effecting change must include changing directions in leadership and leadership attitudes in these institutions. The discussion seems to resolve around making the institutions more sensitive to the needs of future societies in a world of rapid and accelerating change; greater internationalism; concerning erosion of cultural values by overwhelming globalisation; and a widening gap between institutions in North and South. The position of both students and the local community as important stakeholders in all higher educational institutions needs greater recognition.

Whilst it is difficult to generalise about attributes that women bring to employment it seems generally accepted that women's work may be characterised by broader, more personnel related leadership styles, strong commitment to teaching, and commitment to the needs of their job rather than to their own career enhancement. The younger generation of women may be rejecting these skills as they learn to compete in the masculine market place. This may be undesirable since feminine values seem particularly suitable to further change in higher education management and the academic profession. As has been commented, "we need a sustainable management if we are to combat many years of wringing the utmost out of organisations with ever-increasing demand for increased productivity in the face of ever-decreasing resources. It is time to put something back into the soil in terms of better staff management practices. The qualities which characterise women managers are precisely what is needed!" (2)

Why are there so few women in leadership positions in most higher education institutions?

In the past, discrimination against women and shortage of suitably qualified women have undoubtedly contributed to gender inequity in higher education institutions. Legislation against sexual discrimination is now in place in many countries where there is still unequal distribution of women in leadership positions. Yet greater opportunities for women to access higher education have meant that there are more women now qualified to take senior academic and management positions. So why is there still a problem?

Subtle, unrecognised discrimination may remain. Success in the academic field is largely determined by research output in terms of acquisition of large research grants from major funding agencies and papers published in highly prestigious journals. Are these skills really the most appropriate for managing academic departments in higher education institutions? It is now being recognised that research assessment exercises are very narrow ways of judging achievement in higher education institutions. Management attitudes that staff are more productive if under constant threat and intellectual and financial pressure are demonstrably invalid. Moreover, such attitudes can militate against the promotion of women, with their broader, less self-centered, approach to jobs and commitment to teaching. Time spent teaching so easily detracts from research time in busy institutions. Perhaps women also lack the support networks equivalent to the bar and the golf club?

If women do still suffer some unacknowledged discrimination in higher education appointments, this is certainly not the only reason for lack of women at the top.

Appointment boards regularly complain of lack of applications for top posts from suitably qualified women. Why is this? Are the posts unattractive to women and, if so, why? Or are women just electing to give more time to their families?

No one is obliged to struggle to reach the top of their profession and it seems likely that some women, as do some men, decide the quality of life outside work is more important than leadership at work. But family commitment is not the only explanation for lack of women applying for chairs, departmental headships, and other senior higher education posts. In Britain, and probably elsewhere, women with higher education are more likely to be in full time employment when their children are at school. Sadly too, more highly educated women decide not to have children. (3) Yet top positions in higher education do not appear attractive to women.

A Wellcome Trust Policy Research in Science and Medicine (PRISM) study of university students' attitude to careers in research showed that young women were more likely than men to perceive the working hours in research excessive and to find the culture of academic research unattractive. Women prefer to work in areas where they have contact with people and where their jobs have clear, practical applications. (4) If these different attitudes and perceptions persist as women move into employment, it is not surprising that there are shortages of women applying for more senior positions in academic institutions. Such failure to attract one half of a country's potential leaders can only be seen as brain wastage so far as staff development in higher education is concerned. The qualities women may bring to leadership are lost.

What is to be done?

There seem some fairly simple steps which may help recruitment of women into leadership positions in higher education institutions. These could form the basis for development of priorities to enable **all** staff to reach their full potential:

1. Ensure enforcement of equal opportunities legislation.
2. Educate all grades of staff and students, of the advantages and importance of reaching equitable distribution of women throughout the workforce.
3. Make staff and students aware of gender issues in curricula and training and implement policies which encourage gender equality throughout the institution. (A recent study of the position of women in Canadian universities showed over 50% of selected universities had gender-neutral language policies, but those policies were largely ignored in the classroom. (5)
4. Develop and maintain gender disaggregated statistical records of applications, admissions, appointments, achievements etc. and make sure the records are analysed, trends reviewed and action implemented when indicated.
5. Review job descriptions, career environment and opportunities for staff development and training, so as to create more humane structures within higher education institutions. Jobs should be suitable for people, rather than people turned into automatons to fit jobs.
6. Develop family friendly policies within higher education institutions: flexible hours; crèches; allowances for maternity leave for graduate students, etc. Employment in higher education provides many opportunities for flexibility. Many staff work long well beyond traditional working hours either in the workplace or at home because of commitment to their work. Such work should be facilitated and made more acceptable by creating a more socially conscious employment environment.

7. Study the potential for a “woman friendly university” in each higher education institution. This can be described as “a place where every woman feels comfortable living, studying, working and playing - a place where she can reach her full academic and personal potential.” (5)

To create a “woman friendly university” will not discriminate against men. The ambience of such a university or higher education institution would enable all to reach their full academic and personal potential for the betterment of society. That must surely be the aim of higher education staff development everywhere.

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Relevance of Staff Development for Africa

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In the early stages of independence, African universities contributed decisively to the replacement of colonial administration by governments and key national institutions manned by cadres of African origin. Through their research and dissemination they contributed to the reassessment and better knowledge of the history and traditions of the African peoples and their contribution to the development of mankind. They contributed to the redefinition of the systems and content of education, as well as to the extension to community of health and other social services. Universities have been both a symbol of status and sovereignty of the new nations, and important players in the development efforts.

By the mid seventies and throughout the eighties, socio-economic development in Sub-Saharan Africa, had, stagnated, and the process of neglect and deterioration settled in and affected all spheres of life. Universities, which once enjoyed recognition and respect from society, were at the same time agents and victims of the process. They failed to create a cadre of personnel able to engender, influence and contribute to models of long term and sustained development. And they saw their once privileged status change into widespread discredit in their ability to usefully contribute to solving the problems of society. Their relationship with government evolved from collaboration to that of confrontation.

Economic stringency and the perceived lack of relevance and quality of universities prompted decreasing budget allocations from government, and this in turn, provoked the deterioration of physical facilities, the inability of universities to maintain and update the stocks of libraries, laboratories and other academic facilities, the deterioration of conditions of study and life for students (a situation particularly aggravated by most African universities administering directly student and staff hostels and support schemes for students), as well as the deterioration of conditions of service.

University personnel, and in particular most academic staff and technicians with computer, accountancy and other highly demanded skills, started to move to the new emerging private sector in countries undergoing structural adjustment programmes or other economic policies generating economic growth and better employment opportunities. University personnel became also more and more engaged in second and third jobs to complement salaries. Other personnel started to leave the countries and to join [the contingent of those searching better opportunities elsewhere.

Poor conditions of work, student demonstrations and frequent disruption of academic activities, under-financing, and interference by governments, low self-esteem and regard by society, made unattractive to pursue careers in academia and the replacement of the first generation of university cadres, now reaching retirement age, at best became very difficult.

Universities in Africa face therefore a double challenge: at the one end the challenge of revitalizing their activities and make themselves relevant and important agents of development, and of contributing to the revival of national economies and uplifting the standards of life of the communities. At the other end universities have to cope with the accelerating path of knowledge creation and application and flow of information, and contribute to the creation in their nations of knowledge based societies.

More than ever before Africa and her higher education institutions need well-trained and motivated human resources, probably the single most important asset of any nation today.

Staff Development Policies in Higher Education in Africa

Like the African nations, one of the priorities of higher education institutions was to create their own cadre of national academic staff, technicians, administrators and other personnel needed for them to adequately perform their duties. The creation of a national cadre of experts was pursued mainly with the support of universities in developed countries, where most masters and doctoral studies were conducted. Though significant achievements in this regard can be registered, the task remains to be completed and not few university staff members are still trained outside the continent.

Training in developed countries is not without problems, particularly when the period of training is too long, or when the subject of training can hardly be applied in the university of origin of the graduates, or when the facilities, equipment and other necessary conditions for applying the skills acquired are not available. Brain drain is one of the side effects of training overseas, though not the only, and also not the primary cause of this serious problem facing African countries and institutions. The development of research capacity and of conditions for graduate training at home offer an alternate and complementary avenue for training of university staff.

In some cases institutions developed staff development policies, designed regulations and strategies, and created staff development units aimed at fostering and coordinating the training of staff at the highest possible level. They combined opportunities for training in country and abroad. Some staff development units provide also training in teaching and research skills and technics (including didactic, pedagogic and psychology of teaching in higher education).

Some of the limitations in this front are associated with the poor attractiveness of the academic careers resulting from the reasons mentioned earlier. Due to rapid increase in student enrolments, teaching loads are usually very high, a situation not always taken into account in academic staff regulations which base recognition and promotion on numbers of scientific publications, and not on quality and load of teaching, even when teaching is almost the only possible function staff can discharge as time and resources for research, contacts with peers and conditions for publication are often not available. Financial resources at the disposal of staff development units and for that matter for staff development in general are limited, well below and unrelated to the development plans adopted by the institutions.

The importance of technical, administrative and other university staff is never disputed. Nevertheless, plans and resources devoted to development of these sectors leave much to be desired, and they are often neglected. They have fewer opportunities for training and contacts with peers regionally and internationally, or for visits to more advanced centres. The situation is compounded by the fact that the education level of most non-academic staff is often very low, thus making professional development more difficult.

Most recently, higher education institutions are adopting measures to encourage stronger participation of women in academic careers. Special research and training funds are being put in place, research networks for special support to female scientists, care being established, measures against sexual harassment, and exclusion provoked by old boy networks are being taken, and girls already at secondary school level are being encouraged to pursue university training, including and specially in science and technology, and other areas once considered male domains. Universities are experimenting with policies of positive discrimination such as the highly controversial quota system.

Development of staff is associated with, and facilitated by, the existence of institutional systems of quality assessment and assurance. These systems provide information about the performance of internal academic and management structures, and establish the framework for assessment and improvement of the quality of staff. In Africa, comprehensive quality assurance systems exist only in few exceptional cases, and this is a problem still to be addressed.

Staff Development and Information and Communication Systems

The importance of New Information and Communication Technologies for academic activity can never be overemphasized. For developing countries and universities in Africa it's even more important to be connected electronically and benefit from contacts with developed centres and to have access to information which is otherwise not available in the institution or in the country.

Unfortunately, the availability and reliability of infrastructures, like telephone lines and energy nets, and the provision of computers and other related tools, as well as the knowledge to operate and make good use of the systems, are limited. As a matter of fact the problem starts at primary and secondary school level, where access to computers is still a rare and very exceptional privilege for few students in very few schools. At university level, though a growing number of institutions have access to e-mail, very few have full internet connectivity, and even fewer use the possibilities offered by the new information and communication technologies for teaching, research and management.

The use of new information and communication technologies in university administration and libraries, and in general the existence of institution-wide computer based management information systems, is very limited. This of course aggravates the isolation of staff from international networks and limits their possibility to widen their knowledge and to contribute to the world pool of knowledge and information. It also narrows the possibilities for staff training and to attaining attractive conditions of work.

It comes as no surprise that university computer experts and professionals in related areas are amongst the most difficult groups to retain, and constitute the major contingents of brain loss.

Regional Co-operation in Staff Development

Higher Education Institutions in the continent have been combining their human and material resources, as well as using their particular strengths to co-operate within, the framework. of regional and sub-regional networks. The advantage of networks is that they allow a more cost effective use of resources, and greater impact of programmes; they allow participating members to learn from the experience of other institutions, a fact particularly useful for small national university systems found in most of Africa, with the few exceptions of Nigeria, North Africa, Egypt, Sudan and S. Africa. Networks can be combined with and serve programmes such as academic exchange for graduate training and research, assessment and enhancement of quality, staff exchange for teaching and external examination.

The Association of African Universities has over the years gained experience with regional programmes such the Research Programme on Higher Education and Management of University Institutions in Africa (best known as Study Programme on Higher Education Management and Research in Africa), and the Management Training Workshops (SUMA Workshops), directed to senior university leaders. These programmes address issues such as university financing, cost sharing, strategic planing, gender equity, etc., and they represent both regional approaches to staff development and the extension of staff development to aspects of management of academic institutions.

Though judged by participants as valuable instruments for self assessment and as tools for improvement of the individual performance of university leaders, these programmes reveal also the necessity to extend staff development activities to deans of faculties, heads of departments, librarians and to other university administrators. They also reveal the need to establish continued programmes instead of sporadic mid one-off types of training opportunities. The case can also he made here for an African institute devoted to providing academic leaders W1th modern management and leadership skills.

Closing remarks

Staff development is today as vital for the revival of African Higher Education and Research Institutions as is the provision of adequate financial resources. For, financial resources alone would not bring about an improvement of the relevance and quality of the education system, unless the human resource dimension of the challenge is correctly addressed. Universities will then embrace successful and sustainable development plans when strategies for staff development form an integral and fundamental part of strategic plans for their revitalization. Particular attention will have to be devoted to professional training of technical, administrative and support staff. By the efforts to train human resources, national and institutional staff development initiatives will benefit from regional co-operation and the combination of resources that this allows.