THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH IN EUROPE

Higher Education Research in the 21st Century Series

Volume 5

This new series provides overviews about state of the art research in the field of higher education studies. It documents a selection of papers from the annual conferences of the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER), the world organisation of researchers in the field of higher education. This object and problem related field of studies is by nature interdisciplinary and theoretically as well as methodologically informed by disciplines such as sociology, political science, economics, history, philosophy, law and education. Each book includes an introduction by the editors explaining the thematic approach and criteria for selection as well as how the book can be used by its possible audience which might include graduate students, policy makers, researchers in the field, and practitioners in higher education administration, leadership and management.

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The Development of Higher Education Research in Europe

25 Years of CHER

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CHRISTINE MUSSELIN AND BARBARA M. KEHM

1. INTRODUCTION

Twenty five years ago, in November 1988, a Conference was organized in Kassel, Germany, among scholars doing research on higher education. The group was hosted at the University of Kassel by Ulrich Teichler, then Director of the *Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Berufs und Hochschulforschung* (International Centre for Higher Education Research - INCHER today). The Centre was among the first in Europe dedicated to higher education studies. Frans van Vught, who became the Director of the newly created Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) at the University of Twente in the Netherlands in 1984 was also there, as well as Maurice Kogan, a British political scientist, Roberto Moscati an Italian scholar, Guy Neave a Scottish-born historian.

One of the editors of this volume, Christine Musselin, had just finished writing her PhD a few days before the Conference and was there too but did not realize at that time how important this meeting would be in the future. Convinced by the fantastic interest of such events and the rich exchanges they allowed, Ulrich Teichler, Frans van Vught, Maurice Kogan, Guy Neave and Roberto Moscati came to the same conclusion: In order to promote higher education as a research field and create a community of scholars working on higher education issues, it was necessary first of all to identify and bring together those feeling that they were members of this community and to provide them with the opportunity to meet regularly.

Altogether 50 scholars from 17 European countries met at the Conference to discuss the current state and future avenues in the field of higher education research. The name of the network which later became a formal organisation was invented on the spot: Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER).

It was clear from the beginning that CHER would have two main activities. First, it should be a place for higher education researchers to get to know each other and feel like a community. To be a member of CHER one should therefore be an academic interested in research on higher education and not a practitioner. In order to become a member support was needed from one of the CHER members already accepted into the organisation. CHER was not supposed to be an organisation to identify best practices or to promote exchanges and recipes about day to day problems, but an organisation to increase knowledge about higher education and discuss research issues. Therefore, a second major activity of CHER has been to bring together active researchers in the field of higher education at its annual Conferences. The CHER Conferences became a traditional September event – with a few exceptions, in June mostly, when the Conference was hosted in Nordic countries. Soon scholars from all over the world met at these Conferences, presented their work and exchanged ideas.

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A common characteristic of CHER Conferences is that they are organized in Europe but at the same time open to active higher education researchers from all countries. Thus, Europeans are typically more strongly represented than others, but scholars from Japan, like Prof. Arimoto, from Australia like the late Grant Hartman or Simon Marginson, from South Africa like Niko Kloete, but also from the US like David Dill and Roger Geiger, or Canada like Don Fisher became regular "usual suspects" of the CHER Conferences.

What makes these Conferences special is not only their international character but also their academic though not formal atmosphere. They are a place to present recent research results, new research programmes, starting projects, discuss innovative methodologies, exchange about emerging perspectives. The rather limited size of CHER – always less than 200 people – allows for both intellectual discussions and informal interactions. The aim of CHER is not only to present well achieved research but also to create opportunities for exchange on work on progress and its improvement. At the same time, CHER functions like a traditional professional academic association and papers are required to be submitted in advance by the contributors. Proposals are selected in the form of peer review by a scientific committee about six months before the Conference.

Furthermore, CHER is not only a place for experienced scholars but also and increasingly the annual Conferences have been opened for young researchers and doctoral students. Many of the young colleagues who attended their first CHER Conference some years ago are now well established scholars and were in a way socialized and trained by their first participation in a CHER Conference. The idea has often been discussed about whether to organize specific sessions for doctoral students; we even tried once, but always came back to sessions where seniors and juniors had the same possibility to present and exchange, were judged the same way and considered as peers. This was also very important for the creation of a community of scholars sharing the same values and high standards and norms, welcoming senior as well as junior members.

It is finally important to notice that CHER Conferences have always been multi-disciplinary. The disciplinary backgrounds of higher education scholars are very diverse. While sociologists, historians, economists and political scientists form the majority, others were trained as hard scientists, took over academic responsibilities and through this arrived at higher education studies. This variety is at the same time richness and strength. While research based, the contributions presented at CHER Conferences are very rarely purely theoretical or methodological contributions: They are articulated to issues relevant to students but also to decision-makers, stakeholders, and other actors involved in higher education and research.

This is reflected by the variety, relevance, and scope of the issues which were addressed at the CHER Conferences in recent years. Some clearly aimed at looking at higher education from inside (Decision Making in Higher Education; The Institutional Dimension: Organizational Aspects in Higher Education Research; Higher Education Finance), at their missions (The Research Function in Higher Education; Higher Education Research – Achievements; Evaluation and Higher

Education Research; Governance and Management in Higher Education Institutions; Graduate Education), and their logics and their evolutions (Public Vices, Private Benefits? Assessing the Role of Markets in Higher Education; Excellence and Diversity in Higher Education; Higher Education: The Cultural Dimension; Public-Private Dynamics in Higher Education). Others focused on higher education reforms (Effects of Higher Education Reforms; Reform and Change in Higher Education; a Changing Europe: Challenges for Higher Education Research), interactions between higher education and its environment (Higher Education and Its Clients: Institutional Responses to Changes in Demand and in Environment; Higher Education and the World of Work; Higher Education in the Global Age), and comparisons between higher education systems (Systems Convergence and Institutional Diversity?; Cross-National Studies in Higher Education). Increasingly, the focus shifted towards the relationships between higher education and societal issues at large (The Roles of Higher Education and Research in the Fabric of Societies; Higher Education and Social Dynamics). Finally, some conferences developed reflexive insights (Prospects for Higher Education in the 21st Century, Research, Ideas and Policy).

With the creation of a CHER website in early 2000s and the spread of new technologies, it became more and more easy to share information. This holds true for the directory as well which is now accessible to all CHER members electronically. In addition, the papers of each conference are easily available through the website or distributed on a USB memory stick. In the beginning, CHER did not organise a regular publication of selected Conference papers but left it the local organisers of the respective Conference to undertake initiatives for publication. Thus, some papers of some of the Cher Conferences were published in special issues or edited books (cf. Appendix 2) but it is only since 2007 (20th CHER Conference in Dublin) that a contract was made with Sense Publishers to have a CHER series in which selected CHER Conference papers were published each year.

A quarter of century later, CHER is larger, more institutionalised, better known and visible (through the CHER series published by Sense), but the spirit remains the same: being welcoming but at the same time rather limited in scope to keep it friendly and rather informal. This smooth atmosphere of the CHER Conferences should nevertheless not overlook the important role of its board members and among them the more important ones, i.e. the CHER secretaries who, with the help of a secretariat are running the budget, dealing with operational issues and make the directory and the conferences possible. Frans van Vught, Peter Maassen, Jürgen Enders and Barbara M. Kehm successively plaid this role and should be deeply thanked for the crucial role they played.

CHER is and has always been an academic professional association and an ever larger family of scholars is getting together once a year to share their analyses of the transformations of higher education systems, improve their knowledge on these issues and thus provide decision-makers and higher education stakeholders with informed and solid conclusions they might be able to transform into public policies.

This small book has been written on the occasion of the 25th CHER anniversary. As a whole it presents the history of CHER from its beginnings until now. However, it also takes a look at the environment and context factors of CHER, it presents a look at CHER from outside Europe and it provides an outlook into the future. A number of issues concerning CHER's organisational development will have to be discussed in the years to come. Standing out, in particular, are two questions. First of all the development of the institutional basis for higher education researchers in Europe (and possibly beyond) because we note that the number of young researchers doing their PhD theses in the field of higher education studies is increasing on the one hand while currently a number of higher education research centres and institutes are looking instable and having an unclear future on the other hand. Second the observation that all over Europe a number of courses, study and degree programmes in higher education management and leadership have emerged, often taught by scholars who are members of the CHER community, but that these courses and programmes are clearly practice, policy and professionally oriented and even if research-based not providing research oriented training. If such courses and programmes constitute another element of the institutional basis of higher education research and researchers, the question is whether CHER should open up to new types of members. Of course, another question closely related to this one would then be how CHER is going to distinguish itself as an organisation from other European based organisations and associations which have the bringing together of researchers, policy-makers and practitioners as an explicit part of their mission. Thus organisational development of CHER seems to be clearly on the agenda in the years to come.

The contributors to this book are all members of CHER. After the introduction by Barbara M. Kehm (Secretary of CHER from Germany) and Christine Musselin (Chairperson of the Board from France), the second chapter is written by Ulrich Teichler (Germany), the initiator and one of the founding fathers of CHER. In his contribution he provides an overview of the beginnings of CHER and its development over the first decade. The third chapter, written by Barbara M. Kehm and Ulrich Teichler, focuses on an account of the organisational strategy of CHER and how it changed over the years as well an analysis of CHER membership. The fourth chapter by Barbara M. Kehm takes a look at the topics of CHER Conferences over the year, how these have changed and what this might indicate with regard to changes in the foci of research. The following chapter was written by Alberto Amaral, a former Chairperson of the CHER Board and António Magalhaes (both from Portugal). It provides an overview and discussion of one of the most important issues for CHER as an organisation: How is CHER related to higher education policy and practice but also, how does CHER distinguish itself from policy and practice. The chapter indicates that CHER is embedded in an environment which has to be taken into account when discussing vision and mission.

The sixth chapter by Don F. Westerheijden (Netherlands), a member of the current CHER Board of Governors and Anna Kozinska (Poland), a former member of CHER and no longer active in higher education research, gives an account of the

only training course CHER ever organised and carried out for young researchers in the field. The *European Higher Education Advanced Training Course* (EHEATC) as it was called, was an attempt to train and recruit promising young researchers into a field that was not a discipline and accordingly could not be studied at that time (i.e. 1992/93). This is followed by chapter reflecting the study programmes in this field which have emerged in the meantime. The authors, Peter Maassen (Norway), a former CHER Secretary, and Attila Pausits (Austria), a CHER member, rightly point out that a number of programmes and courses in the field of higher education have emerged in Europe since the 2000s but that these courses and programmes predominantly are in the field of higher education leadership and management and that purely research oriented courses and programmes only constitute a small minority. They present the view that CHER should open up to policy and practice in contrast, for example, to Teichler, Amaral and Magalhaes who tend to opt for continuing an exclusive focus on active researchers in the field when it comes to CHER membership.

The eighth chapter by Simon Marginson (Australia) presents a look a higher education research outside Europe. It provides an overview of higher education research and its development in Australia and works out some of the main similarities and differences to European developments in the field.

The last chapter is written by Pedro Nuno Teixeira (Portugal), the designated CHER Secretary from 2014 onwards. Teixeira carries out an analysis of articles in four of the most important journals in the field of higher education research in order to demonstrate what the central topics are in the field and to what extent it is international and interdisciplinary. From this analysis he does not only derive an insight into the current trends of research but also attempts to take a look into the future.

The book ends with four appendices documenting the CHER Constitution (1), the sequence of CHER Conferences including an indication where a selection of papers has been published (2), the CHER Membership Form (3), and last but not least the list of CHER Chairpersons and Secretaries with their terms of office (4).

We hope that this volume, despite its particular focus on CHER, might be of interest to a wider audience than just members of CHER. We wish all those who start reading it an interesting read.

ULRICH TEICHLER

2. THE INITIAL OBJECTIVES OF CHER TO FORM A PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCHERS

THE INITIAL OBJECTIVES OF CHER: THE INVITATION TO THE INAUGURAL CONFERENCE

The initiative to found CHER was not just the intention of a few scholars knowing each other to form a club, but it was highly strategic. Actually, about 50 scholars from about 20 countries attended the conference "Research on Higher Education in Europe – Approaches, Results and Future Perspective" in November 1988. The conference was arranged in Kassel (Germany) to celebrate the 10th anniversary of the Centre for Research on Higher Education and Work (Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung, since 2006 named Internationales Zentrum für Hochschulforschung or in English International Centre for Higher Education Research – INCHER-Kassel) of the Gesamthochschule Kassel (Comprehensive University of Kassel, later named Universität Kassel/University of Kassel). The conference was supported by the Volkswagen Foundation as an international workshop for exploring the state of research in the respective area. After the presentation and discussion of trend reports on various thematic areas of higher education research (see Neave & Teichler, 1989) the participants met on 26 November 1988 and agreed to form a loose, provisional association with the name – created at that meeting – "Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER") (see Teichler, 2013).

Actually, the foundation of CHER had many spontaneous and informal elements. Various participants of the first meetings knew each other – personally in many instances from policy dominated meetings such as those arranged by OECD or UNESCO or academic conferences.

It was easy to get together keynote speakers for an inaugural conference – among them Ladislav Cerych and Ludwig Huber. The initiator suggested forming a network without putting forward a name, but Maurice Kogan spontaneously invented it. Scholars from different countries readily agreed to form a steering group: Jean-Claude Eicher (Dijon), Maurice Kogan (London), Roberto Moscati (Milano), Guy Neave (Paris), Ulrich Teichler (Kassel), Frans van Vught (Enschede) and Björn Wittrock (Uppsala). Other well-established scholars present agreed to help consolidate CHER, e.g. Tony Becher, Ladislav Cerych, Simon Schwartzman und Gareth Williams. And some other participants easily "joined the family" and subsequently took over important functions of communication and

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collaboration, e.g. John Brennan, Patrick Clancy, Egbert de Weert, Oliver Fulton and Christine Musselin.

However, the start of CHER was not a spontaneous decision. Rather, Ulrich Teichler – at that time director of the Centre in Kassel (Germany) – began about one year earlier to prepare the conference aimed at mapping the state of higher education research in Europe, and applied for respective financial support. He discussed the idea of creating such an association with two scholars who were respected among colleagues and who might signal as well that a new generation of higher education researchers would be willing to invest time and energy into international cooperation of higher education researchers: Guy Neave, at that time professor at London University, Institute of Education (United Kingdom), and Frans van Vught, at that time director of the Centrum voor Studies van het Hoger Onderwijs Beleid (CSHOB, in English Center for Higher Education Policy Studies, CHEPS) of the Universiteit Twente (Twente University) in Enschede (the Netherlands). They agreed to send out an invitation some months in advance of the conference to be held in Kassel suggesting to create regular cooperation among higher education researchers in Europe. The title of the letter of invitation was: "Research on Higher Education in Europe: Future Cooperation between Scholars and Research Units."

The first paragraph of this letter of invitation is a compact implicit formulation of rationales by means of a critique of the status quo: "In Western Europe, research into higher education has advanced to the point at which fundamental theories are constructed. The approach between the different scholarly communities in Europe tends often to be a tenuous affair. The field is fragmented and the possibility to exchange ideas through which the area may advance further are sparse. Existing forums where such discussions have taken place tend to be linked with governmental or inter-governmental agencies. Associations of researchers, active though they are, appear to address only parts of the overall constituency."
This means – translated into objectives:

1. There is a substantial qualitative potential of higher education to form cooperation with more ambitious aims.
2. Cooperation should cover all the thematic and disciplinary areas of higher education research.
3. Cooperation should bring together the higher education researchers from different countries.
4. There should be a specific forum for higher education research instead of, as it was previously the case, only platforms with a mix of higher education experts of different origins and different professional loyalties.

One certainly could argue that this invitation was implicitly a call for joint international comparative work. Further, it was obvious that the invitation did not strive for worldwide cooperation among higher education researchers, but rather referred to Western Europe. Finally, it should be pointed out that the subsequent paragraphs of the invitation pondered various possible modes of cooperation.

In fact, these four or five objectives were the strategic core at the foundation and remained so over the years. In the official report on the first year of CHER, only one additional rationale was named: CHER should ensure a certain viable size of the community of higher education researchers.

CONSOLIDATING THE QUALITATIVE FUNDAMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH

Higher education researchers in Europe often are quite self-critical in characterizing the state of their field. As regards various issues of quality, we often note the arguments that higher education research tends to

1. be very descriptive,
2. be very much driven by acute policy discourses,
3. be undertaken by scholars who embark on too broad fields and have insufficient in-depth knowledge of their areas of research,
4. be so much shaped by national views and experiences that national peculiarities are interpreted as universal phenomena of higher education,
5. borrow concepts from disciplines rather than building up a genuine conceptual basis of higher education research, and to
6. be driven too much by the narrow perspectives of individual disciplines rather than combining a breadth of disciplinary perspectives necessary to understand the multi-faceted phenomena under consideration.

Moreover, there was a widespread notion among higher education researchers at the time CHER was founded that research in this area was very much at the beginning and still had to mature. This was reinforced by a transatlantic comparison: the situation of both academically based higher education research as well as that of applied higher education research in the United States was viewed by European scholars as vastly superior in quantity and quality.

The European higher education researchers who formulated the invitation for the foundation of CHER certainly did not disregard these critical views. Rather, they named various of these issues, as the quotation above shows. In the invitation to the founding conference in 1988, the second point and the fourth named above were underscored: “Much of the research as well as the diffusion of findings is, to a major degree, policy driven, focussing on specific national interests or brought to the notice of the scholarly community via such forums as the major government and international agencies – UNESCO, OECD, Council of Europe, or the European Communities.” However, they spread the optimism that a certain threshold of potential was reached and that the potentials could be developed further through cooperation among higher education researchers in Europe. Thereby, they argued that the success of reaching a certain theoretical level of higher education research fuelled this optimism.

The strong emphasis on quality of research and the improvement of the theoretical basis of higher education research is visible in the choice of annual

conference themes. In the first ten years, half of the first ten CHER meetings were arranged as reflections of the state of higher education research:

- The state of higher education research (achievements, conditions and challenges) in various thematic areas (Kassel 1988),
- Comparative higher education research (Enschede 1994 and Rome 1995),
- The relationships between higher education research and higher education policy (Alicante 1997), and
- The institutional basis of higher education research (Kassel 1998).

The emphasis on quality and theoretical improvements had an impact of the format of the annual conferences as well. Most of the time was devoted in the majority of the annual conferences during the first decade to plenary presentations or panels of key figures in the respective area, while little time remained for small working groups and for presentations of young scholars reporting some findings for the first time at an international conference. This made the major part of the conference a memorable experience for the participants, but was not conducive for the visible support of the young researchers' careers.

In the various official CHER documents of the first few years, emphasis was placed on quality and theoretical improvement, but this did not mean that CHER wanted to welcome only specific brands of higher education researchers. There were any formulations dividing researchers to theory-oriented versus applied researchers, academically based versus policy based researchers, etc. It was made clear only that CHER wants to bring together those active in higher education research, i.e. not including those who are not active in this area but are merely interested in the results of higher education research.

COOPERATION ACROSS THEMATIC AND DISCIPLINARY AREAS OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH

Higher education research – though being a small field in terms of the number of scholars involved, as will be discussed below – is characterized by a bewildering thematic breadth as well as by a multitude of contributing disciplines. This was underscored in a presentation by the author of this article at the 1994 CHER conference that focussed on the theme "Cross-National Studies in Higher Education."

As regards disciplines: "The disciplines frequently named as contributing to higher education as a field of knowledge are history, law, economics and business studies, sociology, psychology, political science and education. Experts from other disciplines might be involved in higher education research as well, but their disciplinary contribution tends to be that of their field of knowledge not that of constituting the theories and methods of higher education research" (Teichler, 1996, p. 439).

The *Encyclopedia of Higher Education* edited by Clark and Neave (1992) presents a much longer list of disciplines dealing with higher education (see Becher, 1992) whereby some of these "disciplines" could be viewed as sub-

disciplines and some as theme-based areas of higher education research. The names of the respective articles in the Encyclopedia are as follows: anthropology, comparative education, economics, higher education studies, history, law, linguistics and rhetorical studies, literature, macro-sociology, organization theory, philosophy, policy analysis, political economy, political science, public administration, science studies, social psychology, women studies.
As regards thematic areas, often long lists are named. At the inaugural conference of CHER, higher education researchers were invited to address six broad thematic areas:

- Quantitative, structural and institutional developments of higher education,
- Higher education policy and administration,
- Teaching and learning, students and teachers,
- Science, research and the university,
- Higher education and industry, and
- Higher education and work.

In the 1994 presentation named above, a breadth of themes was clustered into four "spheres of knowledge in higher education": "Typical *quantitative-structural aspects* are access, admission, elite and mass higher education, diversification, types of higher education institutions, duration of study programmes, graduation, educational and employment opportunities, job prospects, income and status, returns for educational investment, appropriate employment, mobility … Major *knowledge and subject-related aspects* are disciplinarity versus interdisciplinarity, studium generale, academic versus professional emphasis, quality, skills and competences, utilization of competences, overqualification … Some *person and process-related aspects* …: motivation, communication, counselling and guidance, didactics, learning style, assessment and examinations … Examples for *organisation and governance-related* aspects might be planning, administration, management, power and consensus, decision-making, efficiency and effectiveness, funding, resource allocation" (Teichler, 1996, pp. 441-442).

The first ten CHER conferences with a thematic emphasis actually addressed the following themes:

- Decision making in higher education (Enschede 1989),
- A changing Europe (Brussels 1990),
- Higher education finance (Dijon 1991),
- Higher education and the world of work (London 1992),
- Graduate education (Stockholm 1993),
- Governance and management (Turku 1996),
- The research function in higher education (Oslo 1999),
- The institutional dimension: Organisational aspects (Lancaster 2000),
- Higher education and its clients (Dijon 2001), and
- Higher education in the global age (Vienna 2002).

It was hoped in the late 1980s that CHER could succeed in bringing together the full breadth of disciplines and thematic areas of higher education. And the

expectation was expressed that this would increase mutual understanding across disciplines, stimulate interdisciplinary research and lead to thematically more complex research designs. After 25 years, CHER certainly can claim to have contributed to a more complex discourse of higher education researchers across disciplinary and thematic areas, but still remained a lively and creative home for select fields and areas. Concepts deriving from sociology, political science, macro economics are well covered among members and the respective themes addressed, while those from education, psychology, business studies, law and history play a clearly lesser role. Disciplinary and thematic breadth and cross-fertilisation remain a challenge for the future.

AN INTERNATIONAL AND COMPARATIVE THRUST

In the initial documents of CHER, the situation of higher education in Western European countries is addressed in various respects in the call for a supra-national new network of higher education researchers.

- The national constituencies of higher education researchers in the various European countries were viewed as too small – overall or as consequence of thematic and disciplinary divides – to form the basis for national research associations.
- There were obvious language barriers. Most higher education researchers at that time published predominantly in their mother tongue. What was known about higher education across countries was published in the English language whereby information on higher education in English-speaking countries was dramatically overrepresented.
- There was a widespread view that research on higher education in the U.S. is strong and research on higher education in the various European countries is in its infancy. In the invitation to the founding conference of CHER in 1988, the following formulation was chosen: "Research exchange between Europe and the US in the higher education area has been especially fruitful. However, it concentrates only rarely on those issues or approaches that are emerging in Europe." Obviously, the foundation of CHER was strongly shaped by observations of Western European higher education researchers about the scene of higher education research and by their views on the needs for future improvements. Two objectives of CHER frequently voiced in the initial years indicate the desire to overcome these problems in Western Europe.
- First, CHER was deliberately founded as a network apart from the U.S. that should strengthen the self-esteem of higher education researchers outside the U.S.
- Second, themes of the annual conferences were tackling the relationships between higher education and its societal environment ("social dynamics," "renewed expectations," "higher education and its clients," etc.), thus reinforcing the strong interest in Europe in the macro-societal dimensions of higher education in contrast to – according to the Europeans' perceptions – the

dominance of meso approaches and micro approaches in higher education research.

– Third, the European researchers underscored the relevance of comparative research and, thus implicitly, the belief in a broad variety of options of higher education that ought to be explored. This was seen as being in contrast to the U.S., where higher education researchers often seem to believe in universal elements and internationally (best) solutions. A prototypical example of the strength and weakness of the dominant reasoning of the U.S. researchers – in the eyes of Europeans – was Martin Trow's model of "elite higher education," "mass higher education" and "universal higher education"; the expected development was universal in nature, and it did not become true all over the world, because national governments resisted the universal wisdom (see the critique in Teichler, 2010).

There was an intensive debate within CHER in 1988 and 1989 whether CHER should be an exclusively European or world-wide network. Actually, the majority of persons involved in the process of foundation and consolidation of CHER were not in favour of the establishment of a European club. But they wanted CHER to help strengthening the identity of higher education researchers in Europe on the way to a genuine world-wide community of higher education researchers. The report on the first year of CHER formulates the spatial self-understanding of CHER as follows: "CHER brings together researchers from Western European countries. This allows cooperation based on a certain degree of common interests, similar socio-economic contexts and some common conditions under which research into higher education is undertaken. However, CHER establishes contacts and invites scholars from other regions to its activities as well." The minutes of the CHER business meeting of 1989 report that an official decision was made regarding this issue according to which "… CHER is primarily a European research group …." The report of the business meeting of 1991 states as regards membership: "Members from outside Europe are eligible provided they have research interests on Europe."

Practically, the discussion about a European focus lost momentum soon as far as institutional arrangements were concerned. It was taken for granted that themes interesting for European scholars played a substantial role, but that scholars from all over the world would be welcome. In the official CHER constitution enacted in 1993, the objectives were formulated without any spatial reference. The only significant reference to Europe is the aim to hold the regular conferences in Europe ("organization and holding of international forum in Europe").

The author of this article asked Burton Clark – the U.S. higher education researcher widely accepted in Europe as the nestor of higher education research – in 1998 whether CHER should move now, a decade after its establishment from a Europe-based to a genuinely world-wide association of higher education researchers. Burton Clark responded: The strength of CHER is that it is Europe-based and international. It would loose its strength if the strong embedment in Europe fades away.

Actually, CHER remained Europe-based and open beyond. The institutional basis was European all the time, while the membership and theoretical and thematic discourse was open beyond territorial limits.

The European institutional basis is visible in the locations of the annual conferences. All 25 conferences from 1988 to 2012 were held in Europe: Three each in Germany and the Netherlands, two each in Finland, France, Italy, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom, and one each in Austria, Belgium, Iceland, Ireland, Serbia, Spain and Sweden. All six chairpersons in the history of CHER were Europeans: Ulrich Teichler (Germany), Guy Neave (United Kingdom), Jean-Claude Eicher (France), Oliver Fulton (United Kingdom), Alberto Amaral (Portugal) and Christine Musselin (France). The CHER secretariat was located either at the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) of the Twente University (the Netherlands) or at the above named centre in Kassel (Germany), whereby Frans van Vught (the Netherlands), Peter Maassen (ther Netherlands), Jürgen Enders (initially Germany, subsequently the Netherlands und now United Kingdom) and Barbara Kehm (Germany) served as secretaries. Among the seven elected members of the board, always five or six were from Europe and one or two from beyond, mostly from the U.S. and Australia.

More precisely, CHER started off as a Western Europe-based association. Most key documents of the founding phase of CHER refer to "Europe," but the initial invitation to form CHER quoted above talks about "Western Europe." At that time, Western European scholars hardly took note of the development of higher education research in the Eastern regions of Europe except through the joint activities of the European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES) in Bucharest and its publications, notably the Journal "Higher Education in Europe" published since 1976 in English, French and Russian.

There were three participants from Central and Eastern Europe at the founding meeting of CHER. However, attention to issues of interest beyond Western Europe was paid for the first time in 1990: The third CHER conference focussed on the transition of higher education in Central and Eastern Europe. Some scholars from Eastern Europe became active in CHER thereafter. But only in 2012, the CHER-meeting in Belgrade (Serbia) and the post-CHER conference in Ljubljana (Slovenia) indicated that a real Europe-wide networking of higher education researchers is almost realized.

The openness of CHER beyond Europe is visible in the membership and the involvement in the various activities. The themes of the meetings, as a rule, were not geographically confined. The strong emphasis on comparative analysis contributed to an interest beyond the locations of the majority of members.

One has to point out, however, that CHER aimed at being a network in economically advanced countries. Issues of higher education in developing or middle-income countries never played a visible role.

THE PRIOR SCENE OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH

The substantive objectives of CHER in the initial phase reflected the state of higher education research, its potentials and limitations of that time. A short glance at higher education research from the 1960s to the 1990s might help to understand the strategic options pursued in the first decade of CHER.

Research on higher education had some visibility here and there already in the 1960s. The economists of education became known around 1960, when OECD activities put an emphasis on higher education and the economy. In the U.S., already sizeable activities of higher education research developed at that time. The Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE), a UK-based association with substantial international activities, was already founded in 1964. The UNESCO commissioned the first world-wide trend report on higher education research at that time which showed enormous activities in some countries and also that higher education research altogether worldwide had remained a marginal and scattered field (Nitsch & Weller, 1970-1973).

Around 1970, both, the rapid expansion of student enrolment as well as world-wide student protests triggered off debates about the needs to reform higher education. The most visible effect as regards research on higher education was the establishment of many centres for teaching and learning, higher education didactics, staff development, etc., often both in charge of service and research, in various European countries. Moreover, many individual scholars in related disciplines – education, psychology, sociology, political science, law, economics and business studies, history, etc. – embarked in analysis of higher education issues. Some countries established separate state-supported higher education research institutes. However, the establishment of sizeable units for higher education research at universities remained an exception within Europe.

During the 1970s, two European associations were formed bringing together persons both interested in higher education research and in higher education policy and practice: The European Association for Research and Development in Higher Education (EARDHE) with an emphasis on teaching and learning (see for example Ritter 1985) and the European Association for Institutional Research (EAIR) with an emphasis on management and institutional development (see Begg, 2003).

When Burton R. Clark invited leading scholars in the early 1980s to provide an account of the state of higher education research worldwide, he certainly presented the worldwide notion of the state of higher education research well in inviting a majority of persons from the United States of America. Additionally, he choose five speakers from Europe, among them four from the United Kingdom – Tony Becher, Maurice Kogan, Harold Perkin and Gareth Williams – and a single one from continental Europe – Ladislav Cerych (see Clark, 1984).

Thereafter, higher education researchers began to be aware of the fact that the world scene of higher education research was not just comprised by the U.S. and a few Anglo-Saxon countries, but widely spread across the world, with substantial numbers notably in China and in the former Soviet Union, but small numbers at least in many economically advanced countries (see Sadlak & Altbach, 1997;

Teichler & Sadlak, 2000; Altbach & Engberg, 2000; Altbach, Bozeman, Janashia, & Rumbley, 2006).

According to the name index of the Encyclopedia of Higher Education published in 1992 (Clark & Neave, 1992), eight European scholars were among the 18 most frequently cited ones: Guy Neave, Maurice Kogan, Ulrich Teichler (Germany), Tony Becher, Gareth Williams, George Psacharopoulos (Greece), Mark Blaug and Frans van Vught (the Netherlands) – i.e. five from the United Kingdom and three from other European countries.

In the 1960s, no international academic journals existed at all that were specialized on higher education. In 1972, Higher Education was established – a research journal covering the whole range of higher education research that continues to be the most visible journal of higher education research. For many years, more than half of the authors were from the United States, United Kingdom and Australia in this journal published in the Netherlands – the names of the publishers changed due to various acquisitions and mergers, currently it is published by Springer. The increasing visibility of researchers from a broad range of European countries can be demonstrated by the following facts: The proportion of authors from the United Kingdom decreased from 21% in 1993-1997 to 12% in 2001-2004 – there was an increase of the absolute number though, because the number of articles published annually increased even more substantially. It is striking to note that proportion of authors from other European countries even increased during that period from 13% to 29% – among them about one third each from the Netherlands, the Nordic countries and other European countries (see Teichler, 2005, p. 464).

The number of additional major international journals on higher education published in Europe grew since the 1970s: Studies in Higher Education (since 1976), established by the UK-based Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE); Higher Education in Europe (1976-2009), published by the European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES/UNESCO); Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management (1978-2012), established by the OECD; Higher Education Policy (since 1988), established by the International Association of Universities (IAU); Tertiary Education and Management (since 1995), established by EAIR; and eventually European Journal of Higher Education (since 2010), a journal newly established when Higher Education in Europe ceased to exist. Only about half of these journals were already in place, when CHER was founded. It is indicative for the situation of higher education research that only two of these journals can be viewed as explicit research journals, i.e. Higher Education and Studies in Higher Education, while all the others are journals that publish both research and other expert studies and reflections.

THE INSTITUTIONAL SETTING AND MEMBERSHIP ENVISAGED

Prior to the foundation of CHER, those envisaging a regular cooperation for the purpose of enhancing higher education research in Europe and possibly beyond formulated very moderate institutional objectives. In the letter of invitation for

what eventually became CHER, the three authors referred to the institutional basis only by formulating questions? "Should a working group of scholars and research units currently active in the higher education field be set up? Can we agree on establishing a series of symposia and, eventually, publications on current issues, research approaches and findings in specific areas? Could we envisage the possibility of creating a small group – say two or three persons whose task it would be to prepare a conference on a given topic?"

The organizers of the 1988 conference suggested in the invitation for the conference to consider future collaboration, but refrained from hinting any concrete means of collaboration: "… the symposium will provide an excellent opportunity to discuss future collaboration between European scholars in this area. With the latter consideration in mind, an invitation will be made to … individuals who, it is felt, might contribute constructively to laying down the bases for significant collaboration in the future. It is hoped that by the end of the meeting it will have proved possible to move in an operational manner towards a more precise form of working together that is research based, as well as the means by which it may be realized."

While CHER seems to have been very strategic and targeted from the beginning substantially in aiming for improved collaboration and enhanced professional identity of higher education researchers with ambitions as regards academic quality and comparative understanding, CHER was not committed at the outset to any institutional setting and to clear profiles of members. This was due to the fact that the initiators of CHER preferred the establishment of a loose and open network and "organization light." This reflected the fact that the institutional basis of higher education research was very feeble in most countries and that the scholars interested in higher education as a field of research were very heterogeneous (see Teichler, 1996; Schwarz & Teichler, 2000).

Actually, the discussions and decisions regarding the institutional setting focussed over the first years on the following issues:

1. Should there be both institutional and individual memberships of CHER?
2. Should CHER be just a loose network or should it develop formal structures, if the latter was opted for, what kind of formal structures?
3. What should be the regular joint activities of CHER beyond holding an annual conference?

In the report on the first year (1988/1989), CHER was called "a network of both research groups and also individuals." A steering group of seven persons and a secretary (actually, the respective organizer of the preceding annual conference) were named as the only organizational features. The report of the second year (1989/90) stated that CHER had 142 members, but that "membership procedures" still have to be established. According to the report of the third year (1990/91) a "registry of the adherents of CHER" was made following the decisions made at the CHER 1990 business meeting. In the report of the fourth year (1991/92), it was stated that "CHER has shifted from institutional membership to individual membership"; this indicates the informal institutional character of CHER at that

time, as it contradicts the earlier statement of a network of "both research groups and also individuals" and as the system of membership fees and the annual CHER directories available since 1991 only took individual membership for granted.

Finally, a constitution of CHER was deliberated at the business meeting in 1992. It was agreed that CHER should be established officially under Dutch law, i.e. in the country of the location of the secretariat at that time. There were two models under discussion: Whether CHER would become a "society" or a "foundation." Between 1992 and 1993, the majority of members opted for the foundation model, and CHER was institutionalized formally as "Foundation CHER" as a "continuation of the organization existing since …" (26 November 1988). The foundation model officially concentrated all formal powers into a "board of governors" consisting of seven persons while the members officially were named "participants"; for example, change of memberships of the board officially was not decided by members present at business meetings, but rather "the board of governors shall fill its vacancies among themselves," whereby candidates could be named in the business meeting. Practically, however, the members' votes made in business meetings were treated as binding.

Actually, CHER became – not legally, but de facto – a membership organisation where all the key decisions are made in the annual business meetings by the members (legally called "participants" since 1993). Chairpersons and secretaries often played a strong role. This was taken for granted, for example, when Ulrich Teichler was chosen as the chairperson for the period from 1992 to 1998, when a pluri-annual election system of the chairperson substituted the initial custom that the coordinator of the annual meeting would be the chair for the subsequent year. The group of seven members of the "steering group" (initially) and "governors" (since 1993) continued to be elected in the business meetings for a few years and deliberated all CHER issues occasionally and prior to business meetings.

And CHER continued to remain a relatively loose network of persons. The annual meetings emphasized more a style of a group of friends or a club than an association. The local organisers of the annual conferences had enormous leeway in shaping the organisation and the substance; they were expected to be organisationally efficient and to be financially generous – conference fees were kept low.

Actually, CHER did not pursue a policy of winning as many members as possible and raising the participation of annual conferences as high as possible. Rather, CHER wanted to be a network of scholars with a similar sense of identity, i.e. a sense of being higher education researchers, and wanted to reinforce such a sense of identity. It certainly encouraged persons to be members and to be active in such a network who address higher education in their research activities as the prime thematic area, who have an interest in theory-enhancement of higher education research and who are interested in international comparison. CHER published in its directory an "admission form" in which it was pointed out that active researchers and students were welcome and in which possible members were asked to provide information about their research interest. In fact, persons who

could not be considered as researchers even according to wide criteria were denied membership.

The membership directories published annually in the early years and later every few years comprised a profile of institutional background, research interests and recent activities, other functions, and a list of recent major publications. On the basis of the directory for 2004/2005, the author of this article estimates that about half of the CHER members had a professorial rank (full professor, associate professors, etc.). Half of them were officially assigned to higher education as their field of research, while the other half of the CHER members in a professor rank had a broader definition of their academic area and undertook higher education research as part of their research work. The latter type of profile was more widely spread among European members than among those from other regions.

Most of the non-professorial members of CHER were scholars in advanced ranks of academic careers. Only few members were doctoral candidates or otherwise early career researchers. The composition of members was reinforced by the style of the annual conferences in the early years of CHER: ample room was given to plenary presentations where senior scholars covered a broad range of the theoretical and the thematic spectrum. This was helpful for ensuring impulses to the overall quality of the research field, but provided few opportunities for young researchers to present their initial or early career academic achievements to a broader audience. In the meantime, however, CHER conferences have become more similar to the mainstream of academic conferences with a few keynotes and a few roundtables along a multitude of presentations on small slices of the field of knowledge, thus providing more chances for young researchers to be visible. In addition, the Early Career Higher Education Researchers Network (ECHER) was formed in 2012 aiming at taking care of the needs of these scholars.

After some debates about the possibility of both institutional and individual memberships, CHER became an association of individual members. Thus, it was natural not to address explicitly the situation of research institutes of higher education. However, research units actually were instrumental in the history of CHER to provide backbone for an association with a "light" organisational approach. Actually, sizeable research units on higher education have been rare in Europe when CHER was founded and remained rare up to the present. CHER as a network notably was supported by four units where a dozen or more scholars concentrate on higher education as a field of research: The International Centre for Higher Education Research of the University of Kassel (INCHER-Kassel) (Germany), the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies of the Twente University (CHEPS) in Enschede (the Netherlands), the Nordic Institute for Studies in Innovation, Research and Education (NIFU) in Oslo (Norway), and the Centre for Research in Higher Education Policies of the University of Porto (CIPES) (Portugal). Otherwise, membership was widely dispersed institutionally.

ACTIVITIES BEYOND THE ANNUAL CONFERENCES

Similarly as regards institutional setting and membership, CHER was not highly strategic from the outset as regards activities to be undertaken jointly beyond the annual conferences. In the letter of invitation to found a network of higher education sent out in 1988 prior to the first conference, only the idea was named of possibly preparing "publication on current issues, research approaches and findings in specific areas."

In a text formulated at the end of 1988 which served to make CHER known, the annual symposium was named as the key activity. Beyond that, only possible options were named: "It is possible that at its annual meeting which would be linked to the symposium it might be decided to extend the range of its activities. Among such ventures for example might be joint collaborative and comparative studies undertaken by its members. The sponsoring of publications of state of the art reviews and on research findings in various fields, etc. are also envisaged."

In addition, the CHER members agreed in the first meeting to establish contacts both with other associations promoting the discourse on higher education as well as international organisations active in Europe in the domain of higher education. This was reinforced in the second meeting. Actually, CHER addressed a number of associations and bodies and received friendly reactions expressing interest of cooperation from the International Association of Universities (IAU), the European Rectors Conference (CRE), the Council of Europe and UNESCO/CEPES as well as by the European Association for Institutional Research (EAIR) and the Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE). The foundation of CHER and its programme was made public by the European Journal of Education in its 1/1989 issue as well as by the CRE journal. Actually, CHER did not pursue these activities further. The more CHER became a well-established network, the more functioning informal communication with all these associations and policy bodies was taken for granted; no need was felt to pursue formal contacts anymore. For example, a mix of rivalry and sense of good mutual cooperation prevailed in the relationships between CHER and EAIR; the latter was expressed by EAIR in inviting two of the founders of CHER to be presidents of EAIR from 1998-2002 (Ulrich Teichler) and 2002-2004 (Guy Neave).

Actually, the official publication activities of CHER remained confined to the major contributions of the annual conferences. These were published in special issues of journals (European Journal of Education, Higher Education in Europe, Higher Education and Higher Education Policy) in the early years, in occasional books (Brennan, Kogan, & Teichler, 1995; Schwarz & Teichler, 2000) and recently in the book series "Higher Education Research in the 21st Century Series" at Sense Publishers (see Clancy & Dill, 2009; Rostan & Vaira, 2001; Dill & Texeira, 2011; Vukasovic et al., 2012). CHER, however, did not embark on any other publication activities.

Various proposals were made initially to set up collaborative research projects. Actually, communication among CHER members turned out to be a fruitful basis

for collaborative research projects, but CHER itself never took officially the lead for such projects.

There was only a single major activity beyond the annual conferences and related publications for which CHER became the official actor. CHER agreed in 1990 to promote the training of young higher education researchers. Coordinated by CHEPS, the European Higher Education Advanced Training Course (EHEATC) was offered in 1992 and 1993 for about 12-15 participants with 8 weekly modules in different European countries (see Kehm, 2000). This course was seen as a success in quality and impact on the subsequent careers of participants, but a continuation of this model did not work out because it was not financially viable without substantial support as received in 1992 and 1993 in the framework of TEMPUS (cf. the respective chapter in this book).

The small range of official CHER activities beyond annual meetings and related publications cannot be viewed to be a failure of grand intentions. It became clear in the respective discussions in the early years that CHER was very successful in stimulating ties and activities informally. But when official CHER activities were discussed, this created a sense of rivalry and conflict about who would be visible and included and who would not be included. Eventually, CHER confined itself to be an informal basis, but not the official carrier of collaborative work among higher education researchers. CHER, thus, only facilitated the establishment of such projects through its networking approach.

In retrospect, scholars involved in CHER are convinced that the quantitative expansion and the improvement of quality of higher education research in many countries have been assisted by CHER. Major research projects, for example those funded by the European Union on higher education and employment and on internationalisation policies in higher education, certainly were facilitated by the close communication of higher education researchers within CHER. Or another example: When the European Science Foundation (ESF) in 2009 selected five out of 23 research consortia applying for research funds in the framework of the support programme "Higher Education and Social Change in Europe (EuroHESC)," four consortia were included who had been made up by scholars active in CHER.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

The Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER) was founded with the intention of improving communication among higher education research across borders in order to improve the quality of higher education research, to stimulate comparative analyses, to facilitate research collaboration and to strengthen the sense of identity of higher education researchers. This intention was never lost and proved to be successful to a substantial extent.

The aim from the outset was to form a European-based network of scholars, first, in terms of strengthening the ties between scholars from countries where higher education research was felt to be in its infancy, was institutionally weak and dispersed, and had only small communities within each country. Second, CHER

intended also to address themes and concepts that were of major interests for higher education research, e.g. the macro-social context of higher education and the development of higher education systems in relationship to governments.

From the beginning emphasis was placed on informality, "organization light" and communication among friends. Various institutional options were discussed, whereby CHER became de facto – widely ignoring official regulations – an individual membership organisation of mostly senior academics either focussing on higher education or having higher education as one of their main areas of research. Annual conferences and publications of its major contributions became the formally visible component of CHER. CHER officially gave up ideas of taking official responsibility for research projects, training courses and other publications. CHER members were convinced that they could have wider impact informally if they were not in charge of such activities formally.

In the framework of these intentions, CHER can be considered as having reached many of its aims. Higher education research has expanded in Europe and in some other regions of the world, and its theoretical and methodological quality seems to have improved. International visibility of higher education researchers from a multitude of countries has been enhanced. Comparative higher education research plays a substantially more important role now. However, we note that higher education policy and practice has become much more interesting during the recent two decades in some kind of systematic knowledge as a basis of practical decision-making. In this process, we note a by far more impressive spread of "evaluation," "indicators," "expertises," "white papers," commissioning of studies with detailed conditions, etc. than support of what really could be called higher education research. The pressure on higher education researchers seems to be enormous to acquire financial resources and to be visible by doing activities close to the main stream of such policy-dominated modes of information gathering and discourse as well as by concentrating on current policy paradigms. So, higher education research – certainly in Europe – in the way it is understood in CHER, remained a relatively small area of persons and institutions, and even they are very much under pressure to be visible as applied researchers, evaluators and consultants and often do not concentrate on making higher education research a respective academic profession in its own rights.

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BARBARA M. KEHM AND ULRICH TEICHLER

3. ORGANISATIONAL STRATEGY AND THE PROFILE OF CHER MEMBERS

ORGANISATIONAL STRATEGY

As described in some detail in Chapter 2 of this book, the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER) was initiated in November 1988 by Ulrich Teichler (Germany) in cooperation with Guy Neave (then UK) and Frans van Vught (The Netherlands) in the framework of a first conference held in Kassel, Germany. The conference brought together about 40 scholars in the field of higher education from various Western European countries to form a network as a basis to facilitate closer cooperation among higher education researchers in Europe, to serve as a platform for the exchange of ideas and to advance theoretically and methodologically a rather young and very interdisciplinary field of studies and research in Europe.

When CHER was formally established as an organisation in 1992 it became registered as a foundation under public law in the Netherlands where at that point in time a Secretariat was formed at the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) at the University of Twente. The Secretariat was responsible to administer membership and finances and help prepare the meetings of the Board of Governors and of the CHER members (the CHER Business Meeting) which usually took place in the framework of the annual conferences. In 2001, the CHER Secretariat moved to the International Centre of Higher Education Research (INCHER) at Kassel University and it will be moved to the Centre for Research in Higher Education Policies (CIPES) in Matosinhos, Portugal (associated to the University of Porto) from 2014 on.

With the establishment of CHER as an organisation a Constitution was formulated to guide election and decision-making processes (see Appendix 1). The Constitution has not changed substantially over the years, though an overhaul will be necessary in the coming years. In it the purposes of CHER as an organisation are laid down as follows:

- The promotion of the exchange of ideas and views in the field of (research of) higher education.
- The improvement of the theoretical knowledge and quality of research in the field of higher education.
- The organization and holding of an international forum in Europe on developments in the aforementioned field.
- The organization and holding of training courses for researchers, policy-makers and managers in higher education in Europe.

B.M. Kehm and C. Musselin (eds.), The Development of Higher Education Research in Europe, 25–33.

– The establishments of contacts with international organizations that are involved in higher education and policy.

CHER explicitly aimed to provide a communication platform for active higher education researchers with an academic identity (thus excluding policy-makers and practitioners) and it was focused on a clientele based in Western Europe, although open to higher education researchers outside this geographical region. However, this did not exclude occasional cooperation with (mainly supra-national) organisations which were more active in the field of policy-making (e.g. UNESCO-CEPES) or collaboration of individual CHER members with such policy-driven organisations. Nevertheless, it was decided early on that CHER as such was not going to apply for research funding and carry out research projects itself. The self-understanding of CHER was much rather to provide a platform for network activities of higher education researchers from various countries who might or might not decide to form research consortia in European or international settings.

It was the intention of the "founding fathers" to keep the organisational structure as lean as possible and to rely more strongly on informal than on formal procedures. CHER understood itself as a "family" of friends and colleagues because in any given country the group of higher education researchers at that time was too small to make national organisations feasible, with the exception of the United Kingdom. In the meantime, the field of higher education research has grown considerably so that three national organisations have emerged as well: The British Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) established already in 1965, the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers in Finland (CHERIF) established in 2000, and the German Association of Higher Education Researchers (GfHf) established in 2004. CHER itself has grown from originally about 40 members from mainly Western European countries to currently 171 members from 29 countries around the world (among them seven non-European countries) Also young researchers in the process of getting their doctoral degree in the field of higher education studies play a much more important role than in beginning (for a more detailed analysis of membership see below).

Accordingly, the first representative from non-European countries was elected into the Board of Governors in 1998. This was Elaine El-Khawas from the United States of America. In 2013, a second member from outside Europe will join the Board of Governors. In addition, the young researchers in the process of getting their doctoral degree have formed a network of junior researchers in the field of higher education which was officially launched as the Early Career Higher Education Researchers' Network (ECHER Network) during the annual CHER Conference in 2012. It is planned to also offer them a representation in the Board of Governors in the near future.

But CHER as an organisation has evolved in more ways than this. Three aspects should be pointed out in this respect:

– First, since 2007 there is a CHER book series called "Higher Education Research in the 21st Century" in which the local hosts of the annual CHER

Conferences publish a selected number of presentations from the respective Conference. The series is published by Sense Publishers from Rotterdam and Taipei. In addition, in February 2013 the first CHER Newsletter was launched to keep members informed about on-going CHER issues and the upcoming CHER Conference. The Newsletter is published online and can be accessed through the CHER website.

– Over the years a differentiation of the roles of Chairperson of the CHER Board of Governors and Secretary can be noted. The Chairperson of the Board is responsible for officially representing CHER while the Secretary is responsible for the administrative and organisational issues. A list of Chairpersons and Secretaries over the years is provided in Appendix 4. Furthermore, a formal rotation of membership in the Board of Governors was introduced with a four-year term of office and one re-election possible.
– The format of the annual CHER Conferences has gradually changed due to the fact that under increasing financial constraints universities did no longer allow their academic staff to participate in conferences unless they were presenting a paper. Originally CHER Conferences invited two or three renowned researchers to provide an overview of the state of the art on a selected topic which was then discussed also in terms of its potential for future research undertakings in plenary sessions. Nowadays and with increasing numbers of participants in CHER Conferences two or three keynote speakers are invited, the overall theme is divided into sub-themes to which parallel sessions with paper presentations are taking place. Also young researchers are given the opportunity to present papers.

Finally the membership question has to be clarified. Active researchers in the field of higher education (studies) can become members of CHER. The website offers a membership form (see Appendix 3) which needs to be filled out and submitted to the Secretariat. If the application comes for a member of one of the higher education research institutes or university departments known in the field membership is granted immediately. If the applicant is unknown one or two further steps are undertaken. One is to ask a CHER member from the country of the applicant whether the applicant is an active researcher known in the country and field; the second is to ask the applicant about his or her particular research focus and possibly publications. Then a decision will be taken by the Secretary to accept (or reject) the application for membership. Upon acceptance an invoice is sent to the applicant to provide bank details to cover the membership fee and a form has to be filled in containing information about the new member for the CHER Directory.

PROFILE OF CHER MEMBERS

The Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER) was not founded as just another academic association. Rather, various strategic objectives were pursued from the outset, which were likely to have an impact on the composition of its membership. Notably,

– CHER wanted to encourage the well-established scholars in the field to be active in CHER and thereby contribute to a leap forward in quality and visibility of higher education research. More attention was paid to win the senior academics as members than to provide an arena for junior academics.
– CHER wanted to focus on academics, because for a dialogue between higher education researchers and higher education policy makers and practitioners existed already, while a platform just for the higher education researchers was seen as important to strengthen higher education research. CHER often denied membership applied for if no active involvement in higher education research was visible,
– Altogether, CHER was not eager to become a large association. Thus, substantial growth in membership was not to be expected.
– CHER pursued a rather informal style in order to foster close communication among its members. It was expected that this could lead to long-lasting membership.
– CHER wanted to improve communication among higher education researchers of different areas of expertise. As a consequence, the members should cover a broad spectrum of thematic areas.
– CHER wanted to be a European-based association open to members from all over the world with common research interests, notably comparative research as well as macro issues of higher education.

In order to stimulate communication and collaboration among members and beyond, CHER started to compile a directory of its members from 1991 onwards, i.e. three years after its foundation. Every two years the directory was updated and the updated version produced in print and sent to all members. Since 2007/8 the directory is available only online and is updated on a continuous basis. The directories provided information on

– the name, institutional basis, position and address as well as
– the research interests

of the CHER members from the beginning. Subsequently, more detailed information about their institutions as well as a selection of the members' publications were added.

The following overview on the CHER membership is aimed to indicate changes within intervals of a decade each. Actually, the directories of 1992, 2003 and 2012 form the basis.

At the end of the foundation period of CHER, the CHER Directory of 1992 provided information on 89 members. This figure almost doubled within a decade and reached 160 in 1993. Hardly any further growth happened in the subsequent decade: The current CHER Directory provides information about 172 members.

Certainly, CHER reaches a larger number of higher education researchers than listed in the Directory. For example, 23 of the CHER members of the 2012 directory are staff the four research institutes in Europe that have supported CHER most strongly, i.e. INCHER, CHEPS, NIFU and CIPES; the overall staff of these institutes, however, clearly surpasses 100. Also, CHER encourages persons

wishing to speak at CHER conferences and to attend its conferences to become members, but does not make it a precondition.

The CHER directory does not expect the CHER members to provide detailed information about their titles, positions and functions. Therefore, the following information can only be presented with caution. As regards titles, we note that

- 45 percent indicated a professor title (professor or possibly associate professor) in 1992, 51 percent in 2003 and 48 percent in 2012.
- 21 percent of those not indicating a professor title listed a doctorate in 1992; the respective figures were 27 percent in 2003 and 22 percent in 2012.
- No academic titles were provided by 34 percent in 1992 and 22 percent each in 2003 and 2012.

Based on personal information, we have reasons to believe that more than one third – in 1992 even more – of those CHER members not providing any titles are actually holders of a doctoral degree.

The overall information provided suggests that almost half of the members in 1992 and 2012 and even more than 60 percent in 2003 were holders of a professor position or a similarly leading position in another institution. Obviously, CHER was all over the years an association successfully addressing the senior ranks of higher education researchers.

It is difficult to establish how many CHER members were just doctoral candidates or in an early career position in their respective institution: The Directories indicate that these were clearly 4 percent in 1992, 7 percent in 2003 and 16 percent in 2012. In spite of the given uncertainties, the figures show that an increased number of junior researchers in the field opted for membership in recent years.

The CHER directories provided consistently information about the institutional affiliation of CHER members through the respective addresses. In most cases, information was provided as well on the university department. In some cases, further information was provided on the member's function or position. No information was asked for in the respective CHER form sheet (see Appendix 3) with regard to providing information for the directory about the disciplinary identity of the CHER members.

Accordingly, 69 percent of CHER members in 1992 were active as academics at institutions of higher education. The respective figure was only 61 percent in 2003, but it increased to 74 percent in 2012. 17 percent in 1992, 22 percent in 2003 and 16 percent in 2012 were active in research institutes, mostly institutes with a thematic focus on higher education research and/or on science research.

Seven percent of CHER members in 1992, 9 percent in 2003 and 6 percent in 2012 were active at institutions of higher education, but clearly with a function outside academia, i.e. university presidents or full-time deans, as well as in service and management of institutions with no explicit research functions. Most of these persons, however, were previously active in higher education research or were still active in this field alongside their main function. More or less all of them can be

viewed as higher education researchers by identity rather than dialogue partners from other areas.

Similarly, 8 percent of CHER members each in 1992 and 2003 and 4 percent in 2012 were or are employed in other institutions (government, umbrella organisation, consulting firms, etc.). Again, most of them are involved or have close ties to higher education research.

Less than half of the CHER members name an institute, department or individual function that identifies them as higher education researchers (or science researchers), for example a higher education chair, or department of higher education management, a centre for teaching and learning in higher education, etc. Actually, the respective figure was constantly 45 percent in all three directories examined. Over the years, almost one fifth of CHER members were accommodated in an academic department or unit of education (including those for sub-disciplines, e.g. economics of education or sociology of education): 23 percent in 1992, 17 percent in 2003, and 18 percent in 2012. The proportion of members of academic units other than these (e.g. social sciences, economics, management, humanities, etc.) was 12 percent in 1992, 19 percent in 2003, and 17 percent in 2012. A similar proportion (about one fifth) each is not included here because they were either not active in academic units or did not provide any respective information.

The CHER members provided open information about their areas of interests and activities for the CHER directories. The authors of this article coded this information. Thereby they took into consideration only the areas of research activity, if the CHER members presented very long lists of activities.

There is no agreed upon lists of thematic areas of higher education research. The authors of this article took into consideration notably the classifications developed by Tight (2003) as well as that employed in the journal Research into Higher Education Abstracts published by the Society for Research into Higher Education. Both lists were modified slightly into the list presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Thematic Interests of CHER Members 1992, 2003 and 2012 (in percent)

	1992	**2003**	**2012**
Higher education system	28	28	38
Access, students and graduates	18	22	23
Study progr., teaching and learning	13	25	20
Knowledge, research, transfer	16	12	13
Quality, evaluation, accreditation, etc.	25	33	25
Academic profession and work	11	18	17
Internationalisation, mobility, etc.	4	14	24
Higher education policy, reforms	35	30	28
Governance, management, org.	27	46	48
Funding, resources, etc.	13	16	9
HE research, theories, methods, etc.	13	14	15
Total (n)	203	258	260

A few explanations of the coding might be in place. “Higher education system” also includes higher education and society, diversification of higher education, rankings, comparative studies on higher education and historical studies on higher education. “Access, students and graduates” also comprises students flows as well as student life and study (the entries on student life and study were too few to justify a separate category). “Higher education research” was coded if interest in a research category rather than in themes were named, e.g. economics of education, neo-institutionalism, gender theories, survey research methods.

Obviously, CHER members are involved in a very broad range of thematic areas. This confirms that CHER was quite successful in attracting higher education researchers of a broad spectrum. However, in comparison to Tight’s analysis of journals as well as in comparison to the articles referred to in Research into Higher Education Abstracts, CHER might have a limited coverage of higher education researchers interested in students, curricula, teaching and learning on the one hand and an overrepresentation of members interested in higher education policy as well as governance, management, organisation, etc.

Table 1 shows that CHER members named about two thematic areas – according the classification chosen – on average in 1992 and about two and a half each in 2003 and 2012. The most striking differences were the increase of interests in governance and management from 1992 (27%) to 2003 (48%) as well as the steady increase in internationalisation from 4 percent in 1992 to 14 percent in 2003 and eventually 24 percent in 2012.

The CHER directory provided information about the country of the CHER member’s address, i.e. the country where the CHER members are professionally active. Information available to the authors of the article allows us to estimate that somewhat more than 10 percent of the CHER members are professionally active in a country different from their nationality.

CHER has its focus on Europe. In 1992, 13 percent were active outside European countries. The respective figures increased to 24 percent in 2003 and 22 percent in 2013. Many of these were from the United States and Australia. CHER has not intended and actually has not reached a sizeable membership from developing countries.

The following countries were most frequently represented among CHER members (average of the three directories analysed):

– 17 from the United Kingdom,
– 15 from Germany,
– 10 from France,
– 9 from Norway, Portugal and the United States,
– 8 from Australia and Italy ,
– 6 from Finland and the Netherlands, and
– 5 from Austria.

14 each were from other Western European countries and 10 each altogether from Central and Eastern European countries.

The figures of membership are not necessarily identical with those active. Actually, the speakers, discussants, etc. at the CHER Annual Conferences of the first ten years (1988-1997) came from the following countries: The Netherlands and the UK (more than 30 each), Finland, Germany and Italy (more than 20 each), Australia, France, Norway, Sweden und the U.S. (more than 10 each), Spain (more than 5) and finally 10 other European countries and two countries outside Europe with fewer than five.

The more than 600 participants of the first ten annual meetings of CHER came from altogether 24 European countries and from 9 countries outside Europe. Many participants were from the Netherlands (more than 100), the United Kingdom, Germany and France (more than 50 each), Finland, Sweden and the U.S. (more than 40 each) as well as Norway and Italy (more than 10 each). More than 10 each finally were from Australia, Belgium, the Czech Republic and Spain. In addition, one has to take into consideration on the one hand that two of the annual CHER meetings were held in the Netherlands. On the other hand, higher education researchers from Portugal became a sizeable component of CHER only after the first decade.

This tradition is still adhered to today. Active higher education researchers not being members of CHER are free to submit a proposal for a paper presentation at the Annual CHER Conference and are treated the same as members in the review and selection process. Furthermore, interested policy-makers and practitioners are free to register as participants in the Conferences. The only difference is that non-members have to pay a somewhat higher participation fee than members. Therefore, in any given year there is a proportion of about 20 percent participants in the CHER Conferences who are not CHER members. However, despite the growth in membership and the higher degree of member diversity, the basic familiarity is still there. Many participants in the Annual CHER Conferences know each other, have cooperated in projects or publications, have seen each other at other (European) conferences or have been involved in other joint and collaborative activities.

The familiarity which might give the impression of CHER being more of a "club" than a professional organisation has sometimes been criticised. In particular, some members wanted the Secretariat to become more professional and involved more deeply into a variety of tasks, in particular when preparing the Annual Conference. However, the familiarity also has its advantages. It has always been easy to form networks and project consortia among CHER members. CHER is probably the organisation with the lowest conference and membership fees if compared to other European organisations in the field (e.g. EAIR or EAIE). And CHER members tend to get invited by CHER members from other countries for bringing in external expertise and advice where necessary and appropriate or for acting as foreign evaluators and peer reviewers.

CONCLUSIONS

To conclude three aspects of the further development of CHER as an organisation might be worthwhile mentioning.

The first aspect is an update of the CHER Constitution which is needed quite urgently. The CHER Constitution has been adjusted to new circumstances only a couple of times in the last 25 years. But before initiating a comprehensive overhaul it is necessary to engage all members in a debate about the vision and mission of CHER as an organisation. Only then will it be possible with some confidence to adapt and re-formulate the Constitution that was basically developed so many years ago.

The second aspect has already been taken up by the Board in its discussions at the meeting in 2012. First of all it was decided to enlarge the Board by a second member from beyond Europe in order to signal the openness of CHER for membership of higher education researchers from outside Europe. This will not change CHER's identity as a European-based organisation, but higher education researchers from beyond have increasingly shown an interest to become CHER members and the fact remains that in most countries the communities of higher education researchers continue to be too small to merit a national organisation. Furthermore, research on higher education has always profited from international comparison – a new international encyclopaedia is currently in the making as well – and international increasingly means global in today's times.

The third and final aspect concerns the request of at least part of the CHER membership to upgrade and professionalise the Secretariat in order to provide more support to Conference hosts and more services to members. This would certainly require an increase in membership fees which are currently at 75 Euros per year. Until now both the offices of the Chairperson of the Board and of the Secretary were filled on an honorary basis without any remuneration. Neither was there a reduction in membership fees nor a reduction in Conference participation fees. The Secretary has been supported by a paid administrator being responsible to collect membership fees once a year, continuously update the database of members (the directory) and deal with routine requests. This kind of work has not required more than about four to five hours per week. If CHER members wish to have more extended services from the Secretariat it is necessary to define these services and also pay for them, i.e. an increase in membership fees would be unavoidable. This too is a discussion where there is no unified view among CHER members so it should be put on the agenda in the near future.

BARBARA M. KEHM

4. CHER ANNUAL CONFERENCES AND CHANGING TOPICS

INTRODUCTION

As Teichler has pointed out on various occasions as well as in the second chapter of this book, higher education research is distinguished from though closely related to higher education policy and practice (Teichler, 1996, 2013). It never aimed at establishing itself as a discipline in its own right but constituted itself as a genuinely interdisciplinary field of knowledge and research. However, due to the fact that in Europe higher education studies are not established as a discipline they cannot be found as a department in universities. At the most higher education studies and research might be a central unit outside the department structure or a sub-unit of a department, e.g. of Education, of Sociology, of Economics, or of Political Science. In many cases research centres for higher education studies have been established outside though frequently related to universities.

This particular character of the institutional basis of higher education research has contributed to the fact that the financing of research in this field is very much dependent on third party funded projects. This situation in turn leads to a certain closeness to policy and practice. Money for research activities in the field of higher education studies is available then, when political or public discourses are becoming aware of issues turning into problems. And in many cases it has been the ambition of higher education researchers to anticipate such problems well beforehand so that they are able to offer solutions once the problems become virulent or manifest.

THE FIRST TEN YEARS

In the first ten years when the national communities of higher education scholars in Europe were still rather small and fragmented, CHER sought to constitute higher education research as a serious scholarly field of academic research and tended to be somewhat inward looking. Apart from the very first CHER Conference (1988 in Kassel) which took a bird's eye view of the landscape of higher education research in Europe in order to determine what actually constituted the field, the following Conference themes depicted the dominant research foci of the centres or units hosting the Conference. Thus, a gradual picture emerged of the main topics of higher education research in Europe:

– Decision-making in higher education (Twente 1989)

B.M. Kehm and C. Musselin (eds.), The Development of Higher Education Research in Europe, 35–41.

– European developments (Brussels 1990)
– Higher education financing (Dijon 1991)
– Higher education and the world of work (London 1992)
– Graduate education (Stockholm 1993)
– Governance and management (Turku 1996).

In between there were two Conferences in a row (1994 in Twente and 1995 in Rome) approaching higher education research from a more methodological angle, namely cross-national studies and international comparisons. The first of these two Conferences provided an overview from the perspective of higher education research; the second one looked at the contributions of the disciplines from which higher education research was drawing its methodological and theoretical approaches to international comparisons. This was strongly related to the fact that after the Treaty of Maastricht (1992) the European Commission had gained a stronger influence on higher education policy making in Europe and was funding a number of comparative European studies (e.g. on mobility, on internationalisation in higher education, on the implementation of its education and higher education programmes in the Member States, etc.). These studies were frequently carried out by consortia consisting of CHER members from various countries. In addition, national governments were obliged to report regularly about the state of implementation of European supported programmes in their countries and tended to ask higher education researchers to carry out related evaluative studies or compile respective reports and data. This development resulted in a new area for higher education research, namely evaluative studies. It was consequently discussed in its relationship to higher education research at 1997 CHER Conference in Alicante.

In 1998, CHER celebrated its 10th anniversary, again in Kassel. It was time to take stock. The Conference discussed achievements, conditions and new challenges for higher education research in Europe. One of the important topics was to clarify the relationship of higher education research to policy and practice in the face of a growing proportion of policy analyses, consultancies and evaluative studies. However, the need for higher education research to demonstrate its relevance to stakeholders outside the scholarly community but interested in the results could not be neglected and two conclusions were drawn from that. The first one was to include more strongly the political and societal context in which higher education was embedded into future research. The second one was to pay more attention to the need for methodologically and theoretically ambitious and sound research and international comparison.

THE SECOND DECADE

In the decade from 1999 until 2008 a higher proportion of CHER Conferences focused on the relationships between higher education and society or higher education and its environment:

– Higher education and its clients (Dijon 2001)
– Higher education in the global age (Vienna 2002)
– Public-private dynamics in higher education (Twente 2004).

However, Conference themes and presentations in other years continued to focus on various aspects of higher education as such. The research mission of universities was a Conference theme twice (1999 in Oslo and 2007 in Dublin), and the Conference in 2000 in Lancaster focused on organizational aspects, i.e. the institutional dimension of higher education research. The 2006 CHER Conference which took place in Kassel focused on a topic strongly influenced by the implementation of the European Bologna reforms which had triggered fears of European converge. This was seen a counter-intuitive in the face of demands for more institutional diversity to cater for the ever growing heterogeneity of the student body. This theme was picked up by the 2008 CHER Conference in Pavia, though cast in a different way by looking at the isomorphic effects of rankings and excellence competitions on the diversity of national and European higher education landscapes. A somewhat unusual topic, namely the cultural dimension of higher education including its norms and values, was chosen for the 2005 Conference in Jyväskylä.

The 2003 CHER Conference (in Porto) was more strongly policy oriented but picked up on the theme of a widely recognised publication by Ladislav Cerych and Paul Sabatier which appeared in 1986 and analysed the implications of higher education reforms in Europe. The main title of that book was "Great Expectations and Mixed Performance" (Cerych & Sabatier, 1986) which was reflected in the 2003 CHER Conference theme: "Reform and Change in Higher Education: Renewed Expectations and Improved Performance?" Cerych and Sabatier had pointed out in their book that many of the higher education reforms initiated in different European countries were connected to high expectations as to their outcomes by their advocates who at the same time tended to be blind to the "mixed performance" becoming manifest in the implementation process. Teichler (2003, p. 178) has characterised this phenomenon as the overwhelming force of "the prevailing values of a certain *zeitgeist*" in the face of which it is the task of higher education researchers to formulate "critical counter-hypotheses," identify "hidden and disguised rationales for reforms" and "examine the actual situation on the basis of a conceptual framework based on competing hypotheses of the virtues and problems of reform agendas" (ibid.). This certainly is reflected in a debate which is currently virulent in CHER again. Or maybe it has always been virulent but never quite out in the open. The debate is about the question whether CHER should be an organisation exclusively for (academic) higher education researchers or whether CHER should open up to other actors more involved in policy-making, consultancy, leadership and management of higher education institutions. Many higher education researchers today as well as the units and centres that are housing them have taken on mixed roles and are active in research, consultancy, management training and providing advice to policy-makers at national and European level. This is not least related to the necessity of the centres and units for

higher education research to diversify their funding base in order to continue to exist.

THE RECENT YEARS

The last five years have seen a broadening of CHER Conference topics as well as a stronger attention to the relationships between higher education and society, in particular the economy. For example:

- The role of markets in higher education (Porto 2009)
- The effects of higher education reforms (Oslo 2010)
- Prospects for higher education in the 21st century (Reykjavik 2011)
- Higher education and social dynamics (Belgrade 2012)
- The roles of higher education and research in the fabric of societies (Lausanne 2013).

In addition, the occasion of the 25th CHER Conference (24th "birthday" of CHER) in 2012 was taken to organise a post-conference workshop in Ljubljana to discuss the past, present and future of higher education research, in particular in view of its position between scholarship on the one hand and policy-making on the other. After almost 15 years this was a much needed stocktaking exercise which might possibly be featured more regularly at CHER Conferences.

Two reasons can be assumed for this development. The first reason is the increased attention in public and policy discourses to the relevance of higher education in and for the knowledge societies. These are not only characterised by a marketization of sectors previously not or only little subjected to market forces (especially various sectors of public services) but also by a growing global competition for national or regional leadership in innovation and new technologies. With the European Commission's Lisbon Strategy (2000) a claim was made to become a global leader in this competition and possibly surpass the USA. Basically, the Lisbon Strategy failed not least due to what was identified as the "European paradox," i.e. the failure of European countries to translate scientific advances into marketable and economic, wealth-generating innovations. In this respect Europe has neither been able to surpass the United States of America nor Japan. Nevertheless, universities were challenged to play their role in this competition.

The second reason is a more pragmatic one. Increasingly universities had become short of basic funding and had to rely on their researchers to bring in third party funding. This money, however, did not allow the coverage of costs not related to the projects. As one measure among many to save costs universities were cutting down on their travel budgets. It is almost normal nowadays that simple participation in a conference is no longer covered through the university. Instead, the requirement is that researchers have to be accepted with a presentation or a poster in order to be able to participate. In order to enable as many CHER members as possible to participate in the annual Conferences topics had to be less specific so that a broad variety of research topics could be accommodated. In addition, there

was an increasing number of young researchers in the process of getting their PhD in the field of higher education studies who were interested to participate. This is related to the fact that the collection of international conference experiences has become an important part of research training and related soft skills acquisition. And as the annual CHER Conference was and still is the major event CHER as an organisation is offering to its members, CHER Conferences had to be prepared and organised in such a way that as many members as possible could participate.

This has also led to a different format in the organisation of the annual Conference which will be discussed in the next section of this chapter. The broadening of the themes for the annual CHER Conference reflects the broadening challenges and demands with which universities are confronted in recent years and which equally result in a broadening of themes in research about higher education. Still, as all research also higher education research should not neglect its critical function. This is becoming more urgent, in particular, as higher education policy-makers and practitioners are becoming interested in the results of such research to guide them in their decision-making and strategy development. This trend also contributes to a certain blurring of boundaries between researchers, policy-makers and practitioners in the field of higher education that has always existed to extent but is becoming more pronounced. It might be a worthwhile task for CHER in the future to discuss the implications of these developments and find a clearer vision and mission of its own role.

CHANGING FORMATS

CHER Conferences started out in the late 1980s and beginning of the 1990s as meeting of colleagues who knew each other reasonably well and had or were cooperating to some extent in European research projects. Thus, CHER Conferences had something of a "family gathering." The groups of researchers meeting at the Conferences were small, everybody could get to know or knew everybody else and the typical format was to arrange for plenary sessions, invite two or three renowned researchers to provide an overview of the state of the art of research on a given topic and then discuss the implications for further research in the plenary as well.

However, the "family" became larger gradually, not least due to the growing institutional basis of higher education research in a variety of European countries. In addition, higher education researchers from Central and Eastern Europe became interested in joining CHER and in participating in the annual Conferences. Membership also increased by a somewhat growing number of higher education researchers from outside Europe who joined the annual Conferences on a more or less regular basis.

This led to the fact that the original format could no longer be upheld. People who participated wanted and needed to present their research and their requests could no longer be ignored. In addition, the number of presentations started to exceed the time frame of one and a half to two days for each Conference. Thus, from the mid- to late 1990s the hosts of the CHER Conferences – typically a centre

or departmental unit of a university engaging in higher education research – began to experiment with the format for the Conferences. Conference themes were split up into sub-themes for which parallel tracks were established. An "open track" was created for those who wanted to present but whose research focus did not fit the main theme. A peer review process had to be established to select the best proposals for a presentation; and keynote speakers were invited to introduce the Conference theme and sub-themes to the plenary.

In the first few years with this new format the selection of proposals was still oriented to the "big names" of well-established and renowned higher education researchers. But as was already pointed out above, researchers were increasingly no longer allowed to participate in Conferences without an accepted proposal. So the difficult task for the local hosts and the peer reviewers was to select proposals according to criteria of quality while at the same time allowing for as many CHER members as possible to participate.

With the growing numbers of participants it also was no longer possible to provide printed out copies of the full papers for each and every one during the Conference. The costs became too high. Therefore, electronic versions were provided either on a USB stick or through downloads.

In addition, new formats were introduced, for example, panel sessions and round tables, book launches were celebrated by organising a panel review, and larger European research consortia were provided an opportunity to present their research to a larger audience.

For the last couple of years there has also been more networking of the junior researchers who have started to participate in the annual CHER Conferences in increasing numbers. In 2012, ECHER was launched as an international network of master level students, doctoral candidates and post-doctoral researchers in the field of higher education who are members of CHER. So far the Board has decided to treat them in the same way as the other CHER members, i.e. subjecting their proposals for presentation to the same quality check before accepting them and not herding them together in parallel but separate sessions. The future will show whether this should be changed or not.

In addition, the duration of the annual Conferences has been extended from one and half or two days to two and half or three days in order to cater for the wishes of the growing number of CHER members to give a presentation. This has also led to more opportunities for socializing. Nowadays a typical CHER Conference starts with a reception of the host institution on the first evening, continues with an informal social dinner on the second, and ends with a more formal Conference dinner on the third evening. After the Conference a social programme is often organised with guided city tours or outings into the surrounding nature. Conference participants interested in extending their stay can sign up for these offers.

CONCLUSIONS

In coming to the conclusions, one aspect can be pointed out that might merit further consideration not only by the CHER Board of Governors but by all CHER members.

The aspect is a thematic one. Discussing the various CHER Conference themes over the years in this section two things can be noted. There was never a CHER Conference focusing on students and issues of teaching and learning. This might be related to the fact that in most European countries this particular aspect of higher education research is organised in separate associations, e.g. of staff developers and student counsellors. And CHER has always taken care to have its own specific profile and not overlap with a target clientele which is already addressed by other organisations and associations. The second issue is that in recent years no attempts were made to focus on theories and methodologies of higher education research. In the first decade this was still the case, e.g. in 1994 and 1995 as well as in 1998. In addition, the post-conference workshop in Ljubljana in 2012 was an attempt to take stock of the positioning of higher education research between scholarship and policy-making. But it might be worthwhile to think about having reflections on the theoretical and methodological development of higher education research as a more regular feature of CHER Conferences.

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ALBERTO AMARAL AND ANTÓNIO MAGALHÃES

5. HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH BETWEEN POLICY AND PRACTICE

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH

Higher education research as an area of study is quite recent and it developed first in the U.S. and only later in Europe (Amaral & Magalhães, 2007). Massification of higher education and concerns about the quality of its provision has certainly contributed to this expansion, as higher education became a major financial and political issue (Tight, 2007; Scott, 1995; Teichler, 2007; Clark, 1973). Guy Neave considered "the mass university both generates and consumes information" (Neave, 2000, p. 72) while for Malcolm Tight "the study of higher education is, unsurprisingly, closely linked to the growth of higher education itself" (Tight, 2007, p. 235).

Burton Clark (1973, p. 4) argued that in the period before World War II the literature on higher education research consisted, mainly, of very important but isolated works. The literature included "broad statements in sociology and anthropology [and] offered an undifferentiated view of education of all levels and types as a means of cultural transmission, socialization, social control or social progress (Durkheim, 1922; Cooley, 1956; Ross, 1928; Ward, 1906)." Other works became also established as classics, although remaining equally quite isolated for decades. An example are Max Weber's statements on "*Science as a Vocation*" and "*The Rationalization of Education and Training*," in which he portrayed "the struggle of the 'specialist' type of man against the older type of cultivated man (Weber, 1936, p. 243), as basic to many educational problems" (Clark, 1973, p. 4).

Another example was 1918 Thorstein Veblen's work, where he argued the application of business standards to measure the success or failure of academic inquiry was spoiling higher education by turning universities into little more than advanced technical schools (Veblen, 1954). Ten years later, George Counts published *The Social Composition of Boards of Education: A Study in the Social Control of Public Education* (Counts, 1927) dealing primarily with boards of primary and secondary schools, although he briefly compared them with college and university boards, confirming earlier findings that boards were dominated by business people. It was only almost twenty years later that Hubert Beck published *Men Who Control Our Universities* (Beck, 1947).

Another example presented by Burton Clark was Logan Wilson's work on academics, published in 1942 as *The Academic Man: A Study in the Sociology of a Profession* (Wilson, 1942; Clark, 1973, p. 4). This work was also left in isolation

B.M. Kehm and C. Musselin (eds.), The Development of Higher Education Research in Europe, 43–59.

for almost a decade and a half, until the publication of *The Academic Marketplace* by Theodore Caplow and Reece McGee (1958).

Using Patricia Gumport's terminology (2002), as suggested by Bruce Macfarlane and Barbara Grant, such early theorists can in many ways be classified as the '*forerunners of higher education research*' (2012, p. 621). They were followed by a new and more recent generation of researchers – to name just a few examples, it includes Burton Clark, Martin Trow, Roger Geiger, Maurice Kogan, Tony Becher, Guy Neave, Ulrich Teichler, Mary Henkel, Ronald Barnett. Using again Patricia Gumport's terminology, they may be classified as '*pathfinders of higher education research*,' "They directly seek to create knowledge about the new field and seek its legitimization. Pathfinders help to establish a research field as a worthy subject of academic scrutiny" (Macfarlane & Grant, 2012, p. 621).

However, more recently, several masters programmes in the field of higher education were established in the UK, Germany, Norway and Portugal, either in isolation or as sub-areas of master's programmes in education, public policy or other areas (Brennan et al., 2008, p. 7), and doctoral programmes were established in Finland and Portugal. This development allowed the emergence of a new and somewhat different generation, the 'pathtakers':

> They are able to select intellectual interests from the territory of higher education studies legitimized by the pathfinders and extend them into new areas. This new generation is more professionalized due to the growth of masters' and doctoral degrees in higher education. It includes a growing number of researchers based in academic or educational development centres, of higher education specialists more often located across social science faculties and women. (Macfarlane & Grant, 2012, p. 621)

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE U.S. AND EUROPE

The earlier development of higher education research occurred in U.S. Burton Clark (1973) reported that "a sociology of education has emerged in the quarter-century after World War II" (1973: 2) addressing two major themes – inequality beyond secondary education and social-psychological impacts of colleges on students – and two minor themes – the academic profession and governance and organisation of higher education systems and their institutions. The first research centres were established in the late 1950s. The Center for Studies in Higher Education (CSHE) at the University of California, Berkeley and the Center for the Study of Higher and Postsecondary Education (CSHPE) at the University of Michigan (Ann Harbor) were both funded in 1957. The Institute of Higher Education was funded in 1964 at the University of Georgia (Amaral and Magalhães 2007).

In Europe, this development occurred later. It was in the late 1960s that some social science researchers in the UK and Sweden initiated work in the area of higher education, and in 1964 the Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) was established in London. The SRHE aims to advance understanding of

higher education, especially through the insights, perspectives and knowledge offered by systematic research and scholarship, becoming the leading international society in the field, as to both the support and the dissemination of research (SHRE, 2013).

Brennan et al. (2008, p. 7) identified several steps in the development of European higher education research, such as, starting in the 1970s, "the growing public awareness of the interrelationships between education and economic growth, social mobility, student unrest and subsequent reform" and, more recently, the implementation of the Bologna and Lisbon processes.

Ulrich Teichler (1992) characterised research on higher education in Western European countries as being decentralised; very heterogeneous in its institutional basis, disciplines and links to the practice; paying stronger emphasis to macro approaches, rather than to institutional problems; and being performed in small size and fragile institutional locations (ibid., pp. 39-40).

Assuming the quantitative expansion of higher education was the main propulsion force promoting the strengthening of higher education research we can say this research field echoed the problems raised by the growth paths of the higher education systems, at least in Western European countries. After the middle of the XXth century, the expansion has become essentially quantitative and the political management of resources appeared as the main issue. A macro research drive was added, focusing on the problems raised by the mass assault to the ivory tower, i.e., research on the systems' organization and its political steering, institutional reconfiguration and, last but not least, on equality of opportunities.

In Europe, the research on political, institutional and philosophical dimensions involved in the mass configuration of higher education, ranging from the decline of the donnish dominion (Halsey, 1995) to the meanings of mass higher education (Scott, 1995) and to the idea of higher education (Barnett, 1994), via research on processes and structures in higher education (Becher & Kogan, 1992; Becher, 1989) flourished in the United Kingdom.

The differences in the development of higher education research between the U.S. and Europe were not only temporal. In Europe there is a strict divide between micro-level research on teaching and learning and research on organisational, political and economic aspects of higher education, the latter being the core of higher education research in Europe, while in the U.S. research is apparently "more focused on studies of the student experience, and less on system-policy" (Tight, 2007, p. 245). This is consistent with Malcolm Tight' findings, who analysing co-citations between higher education researchers identified two clusters when the categorisation of the key themes or issues in higher education research are considered. One centred around quality, system policy, institutional management, academic work and knowledge, the other around teaching and learning, course design, the student experience (Tight, 2008, p. 604).

Guy Neave (2008) added an additional difference considering "the incorporation of the comparative dimension into the study of higher education that sets the European version of higher education studies very much apart from its counterparts

in the United States, Latin America and Asia where long established single system perspectives tend still to dominate."

Another important difference resides in the institutional setting of research. In the U.S. the development of higher education research has been closely integrated with graduate programmes on higher education addressing areas such as administration, leadership, organizational change, student services, etc. On the contrary, in Europe there is a tradition of organising higher education research based predominantly on research centres not linked to graduate programmes, therefore lacking the stabilisation given by a teaching function of the field (Teichler 2000). It was only recently that some post-graduate programmes on higher education emerged (Brennan et al., 2008, p. 7). This has the disadvantage that research might be:

> … tempted to polarize between disciplinary research that lacks field knowledge and practical relevance on the one hand and applied research which is unconsciously embedded in the prevailing norms of the other. (Teichler, 2000, p. 23)

THE BASIS OF RESEARCH ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education research is frequently defined by its theme of analysis rather than by the disciplines that focus on it (Brenann et al., 2011). In spite of the fact that research on higher education has been developed by disciplines such as sociology, psychology, economics, history and law, and interdisciplinary fields such as public administration or organizational studies, neighbouring not only educational research, but also science and labour market research to mention only these, they did not achieve a stable place in the framework of the established knowledge and within the disciplinary bounds. This is probably the reason why research on higher education has a hybrid and flexible institutional basis, ranging from department based research to applied research units or institutes. As Altbach et al. recognised, "in part because higher education has no disciplinary base, it has never had a clear academic home" (2006, p. 2). Those disciplines feed higher education research in terms of concepts and methodologies. However, higher education research must "keep in touch with its varied disciplinary feeding grounds in order both to enhance its quality and to avoid being driven too much by thematic concerns and policy agendas" (Brennan et al., 2011, p. 7).

Ulrich Teichler defined higher education research as "a field of knowledge, study and research" (1992, p. 37). Later he added that higher education research is "closely intertwined with policy and practice" (2003, p. 171) and can be defined as a small field, as a theme-based and relatively fragmented field and as a field with an enormously varied institutional basis (Teichler, 2006).

Bruce Macfarlane and Barbara Grant consider "the study of higher education may be understood as a series of intersecting cognate fields rather than one that is discrete. The theoretical constructs on which higher education research relies tend to derive largely from scholars of sociology, psychology or philosophy" (2012, p.

621). And they added that the field has presented a bifurcation: "scholars have largely coalesced around policy-based studies or learning and teaching research. The lack of communication between these research communities may partly explain the challenge in establishing higher education as a coherent field" (2012, p. 622).

Sue Clegg (2012) argued research on higher education is a series of related research fields, not a single field as proposed by several authors (Wenger, 2011; Becher & Trowler, 2001; Bernstein, 2000; Bourdieu, 1988; Archer, 2000). Malcolm Tight, similarly, considered higher education research not a single community of practice but, rather, a series of, somewhat overlapping, communities of practice (2004, p. 409), "each with, in Wenger's terms (Wenger, 2000), their own senses of joint enterprise, mutuality and shared repertoire" (Tight, 2004, p. 398).

In a later paper Malcolm Tight made a co-citation analysis based on the concept of tribes (academic cultures) and the territories they occupy (disciplinary knowledge) developed by Becher (1989) and Becher and Trowler (2001). However, while Becher argued that faculty members of academic units "have relatively little mutuality of research interest" (1989, pp. 163-164), the concept of communities of practice implies joint enterprise, mutuality and a shared repertoire of communal resources (Tight, 2008). Using the alternative metaphor of tribes and territories Tight suggested:

> … higher education research, as a developing field of study, could be conceived as a partially explored territory through which a variety of tribes transverse. Some of these tribes are discipline-based (e.g. economics, psychology, sociology), some are based within education or higher education departments or centres, and some are from academic development or teaching and learning units. However, few tribes or individuals appear to live full-time within the territory. (Tight, 2008, p. 596)

The sociologist of education Roger Dale (1986) identified three 'projects' in the study of education policy: the 'social administration project,' the ´policy analysis project' and the 'social science project.' The 'social administration project' aimed at improving the living conditions of the population, at social amelioration. Consequently, this approach was frequently focused on national policies and issues; it assumed an interventionist and prescriptive perspective and, by concentrating on 'facts' rather than on theories and interpretation of the welfare, it intended to delimit a 'field' and not adopting a disciplinary view. The 'policy analysis project' aimed "not in trying to change the content of the social policy in a particular direction, but in the search for ways of ensuring the efficient and effective delivery and implementation of social policies, irrespective of their content" (ibid., p. 58). Finally, there was the 'social science project' whose scope is not functional, i.e., "Social scientists are concerned with finding out how things work rather than putting them to work" (ibid., p. 61). Therefore, the goal of this project was to produce better explanatory theories rather than more efficient decision-making processes or more welfare. And, as Martin Trow has emphasised,

researchers, usually performing at universities and not in government agencies and/or business organisations, "operate at a high level of training and specialisation, which means that they tend to isolate a 'slice' of a problem area that can be more readily handled than more complicated global problems" (Trow, 1984, p. 5). In the same vein, against the isolation of higher education areas both with regard to social sciences and with regard to other political social areas, Roger Dale (2007) goes even further by critically referring as 'higher educationism' the research approaches that take higher education itself as an isolated field of study inducing it as a reified or fixed object of study.

We may also argue (Amaral & Magalhães, 2007) that research on higher education reflects three different rationales: the managerial, the consulting and the social sciences approaches. The first rationale, very present in international research organizations, has assumed management issues and goals, such as institutional performance, effectiveness, efficiency, etc., as privileged focus for research. The consulting approach was developed mainly in the framework of political advisors of Ministries of Education and presently also the European Commission, being the research goals mainly connected to implementation issues. The third approach, developed by social scientists, does not aim at 'solving' problems or 'advising' policy-makers and public officials responsible for policy implementation, but rather to find regularities, critical trends, let alone, contradictory perspectives observed when studying social objects. And when the research focus moved to the institutional level, these three approaches tended to mix.

Elaine El-Khawas (2000), following John Kingdon's description (1984) of the policy process as composed of three mainly unrelated "streams" – problem, policy and political – identified three bases of higher education research by "regarding research, policy and practice as separated functional spheres" (El-Khawas, 2000, p. 46). The first basis (research) referred to higher education research with an institutional academic base, such as a chair, a department, a centre or institute; the second basis (policy) included policy research or information units linked to supra-institutional agencies, namely governments; the third basis (practice) included institutional research in the U.S., performed by some higher education units and linked to the management of higher education.

Ulrich Teichler (2000) considered that this type of classification was not restricted to the U.S. and mentioned the use in Western Europe of a classification proposed by Frackman (1997) based on the same three functional types although using a different terminology: "the national and system wide decision support, institutional research and institutional decision support, and research on higher education as reflexion" (Teichler, 2000, p. 18).

Ulrich Teichler (2000, p. 17) proposed that the institutional settings of higher education research can be described using five dimensions: the functional setting describing whether research takes place in a research unit, a research and teaching unit or a unit with a mixture of diverse functions (research, administration, services, etc.); the thematic setting describing if higher education is the only research theme or if other themes are considered or if research addresses the

relationship of higher education with other areas (higher education and the labour market for instance); the application setting, i.e., pure research, applied research, etc.; the stakeholders: governments, university administration, students, employers, international organisations, etc.; and the modes of control, i.e., academic self-regulation, national agency, control by a board, etc.

HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH AND POLICY

Maurice Kogan and Mary Henkel (2000) referred to the 'research – policy making – practice relationship. Policy is one of the bases of higher education research (Teichler, 2000) and aims mainly to enrich policy process through information, policy-driven interpretations and scenarios on higher education. Les Bell and Howard Stevenson (2006, p. 14) presented several definitions of policy such as "… aims or goals, or statements of what ought to happen" (Blakemore, 2003, p. 10), "which echoes a similar distinction identified by Harman (1984) between policies as statements of intent, and those that represent plans or programmes of work" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 14). Both Blakemore and Harman address policy as a product, a result while "Taylor et al. (1997) see policy as both product and process" (Bell & Stevenson, ibid.). Kogan, in his study of policy making in education, refers to policies as 'operational statements of values' or the 'authoritative allocation of values' (Kogan, 1975, p. 55), "placing values at the centre of understanding policy" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 15).

Ulrich Teichler (2000) explained that higher education research is in general based on a teaching and research unit at a university and should have a strong theoretical and methodological basis and, to some extent, should pursue knowledge for its own sake. In the case of policy, there are frequently, policy research or information units associated with supra-institutional agencies, such as governments and aiming at improving policy processes through information, reports, policy scenarios, etc.

Les Bell and Howard Stevenson listed three forms of policy studies in education:

1. The development of broad analytical models through which the policy process can be understood and interpreted.
2. Analysis of a range of policy issues.
3. Critiques of specific policies. (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 2)

Ian Gordon et al. (1997) identified several forms of policy analysis in a continuum from *Analysis for Policy* to *Analysis of Policy,* including policy advocacy – where a particular conclusion is advocated, being offered as a recommendation; Information for policy – providing policy makers with information and advice, policy monitoring and evaluation – with emphasis on the impact of policy; analysis of policy determination – with emphasis on how policy developed as it did; and analysis of policy content – emphasis on understanding the origins, intentions and operation of specific policies and has more research interest than public impact (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, pp. 10-11).

Philip Altbach et al. (2006) emphasised the relevance of higher education research for policy makers:

> Policy makers outside academic institutions, in government and in the private sector, who increasingly wield power over the future of academe, need knowledge and analysis in order to effectively coordinate complex institutions and systems. (Altbach et al., 2006, p. 2)

However, as Kogan informed, researchers and policy makers have very different tasks:

> Social scientists are right to detect the ambiguities and the multiplicity of contests, impacts, values and structures … Administrators cannot ignore those ambiguities but have to make a constructive use of them … Whilst the social scientist has license to engage in the study of phenomena for its own sake, the creed of the administrator has to be 'I must act,' therefore I must think.' It is not the other way round (Kogan 1979, p. 8)

and Kogan and Henkel referred that "British policy-makers complained that they lacked the time and other resources to act as efficient receptors of commissioned research" (2000, p. 35), alerting that:

> If research is bounded by criteria of demonstrated method and openness, policy-making and practice are related to criteria of relevance and in that pursuit will take account of Ordinary Knowledge. (Cohen & Lindbolm, 1979, as cited by Kogan & Henkel, 2000, p. 27)

Elaine El-Khawas (2000) discussed in detail the patterns of communication and mis-communication between research, policy and practice recognising that these worlds operated with "different purposes and modes of communication" (2000, p. 51), which frequently resulted in a "major disjunction" between them.

The field of higher education research has an important drive in the pressure for relevance, and its object-driven and interdisciplinary features are apparently enhanced by the need to act, to use Maurice Kogan's words (1979). Both the pressure for relevance and the other features relate to weaknesses and strengths of the field. The interdisciplinary approach to methodology, on the one hand, hinders the creation of a more consistent research community and, on the other hand, creates conditions for innovative and inventive research perspectives. Similarly, the pressure of relevance is linked to the increasing visibility of the field as its relevance is stressed, the weaknesses being linked to the increasing tendency to focus on micro issues and on "how to do?" questions. In comparative studies on higher education, it is also possible to identify at their root the need to respond to demands for providing policy makers with a basis for international comparisons, benchmarking, etc. This comparative trend in higher education research is visible not only in the activities of the research centres and their publications, but also in the reviews led by the World Bank (e.g. 1994, 2000, 2007, 2012) and Unesco (e.g. 1993, 2009).

John Brennan listed problems resulting from the relationship between higher education research, power and interests (2011, p. 10). He reported a discussion with a senior officer where he presented different forms of policy research – development of policy, implementation of policy and evaluation of policy – and the senior officer ominously added a new category, that of questions that are too dangerous to ask. And in the discussion of the typology of research questions with other higher education researchers a fifth category was added, that of "those questions which are best asked towards the end of an academic career" (ibid.). For John Brennan "Where links to policy processes are involved, the researchers are likely to be affected by the policy outcomes. Thus, the potential for openly critical research may be limited" (ibid.) and he adds that "one of the contentions of the ESF Forward Look was that higher education research tended to be too much influenced by policy processes and too close to 'power,' whether in an institutional or a national policy context." And Ulrich Teichler, in one of the CHER Conferences, with his very typical humour, argued that seeing academics debating the problems of higher education reminded him of a group of cows discussing the problems of the mad cow disease.

Neave also referred to problems of scholarly independence due to the expanding 'consultancy nexus,' "… part of that broader phenomenon which some are pleased to identify with the 'post modern' university, namely the blurring of operational and definitional boundaries around functions and fields of study once clearly demarcated" (Neave, 2000, p. 73). Guy Neave argued "the degree of scholarly independence which is the central, salient and identifying quality of a field of study as opposed to being one of the many commissioned functions and services that the Prince draws upon for his own ends" (2008, p. 267) For Guy Neave:

> … consultants as the occasional servants of the Prince … surf on well-established existing knowledge, sometimes even drawing on personal experiences as a tenuous Ersatz for the latest findings from the world of research. They do not deliberately set out to create new knowledge. Still less is their avowed purpose to inspire others to join together to form a sustainable and mutually sustaining community of discourse, discovery and mutual learning. (Neave, 2008, p. 267)

Higher education researchers, as researchers in general, need a sustainable financial situation. Due to lack of direct pubic funding support, they are frequently attracted to perform commissioned work, not only to governments and their agencies but also for the European Commission, which might condition their capacity to research new knowledge for its own sake.

HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Practice is one of the bases of higher education research (Teichler, 2000) and corresponds mainly to research linked to the administration and management of higher educational institutions, as is the case with 'institutional research' in the U.S. (Teichler, 2006). There are also a number of organisations at international

level producing research with close links to practice, such as the European University Association (EUA), the Association of Institutions of Higher Education (EURASHE), the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) and, at national level, we may count Rectors Conferences, universities and their faculties and departments.

Harland (2012) argued that higher education research is an open access area, with fluid cognitive borders, and identified seven different groups contributing to research in this field – education department researchers, research institute professionals, part-timers, disciplinary education researchers, disciplinary specialists, academic developers and administrators – to conclude:

> … it appears that virtually anyone can do this work, perhaps needing only some prior research or writing skills. A background in the subject may be desirable but it is not required (Tight 2003), and so it is inevitable that higher education research sits at the bottom of the knowledge hierarchy of our institutions and society (Becher 1989). (Harland, 2012, p. 705)

Brennan et al. expressed a similar opinion, arguing:

> the borderline between researchers and practitioners has become increasingly fluid through the involvement of various kinds of higher education professionals and administrators, of organisations such as rectors' associations, of scholars and students involved in higher education policy, of evaluation experts, and of management consultants. (Brennan et al., 2011, p. 8)

Bruce Macfarlane and Barbara Grant designated as 'amateurs' the part-timers identified by Harland. They are "those who are motivated to undertake higher education research by their love for the subject rather than by their training or profession" (2012, p. 623). However, there are other 'research amateurs,' such as international experts and consultants, undertaking higher education research by their professional work, rather than by their love for the subject. In general, the literature produced as result of research directly associated with practice very seldom contains explicit engagement with theory.

Another problem is the difficult communication between researchers and practitioners. Elaine El-Khawas (2000) argued there are frequent communication problems between the three spheres of higher education research (research, policy and practice), which are separate functional spheres. Indeed, the relationship of researchers with policy-makers and practitioners, representing two different cultures with different needs, different purposes and different communication styles, is not in general easy, being frequently afflicted with miscommunication problems.

In 2001 the American Council on Education organised a meeting between education policy analysts, education scholars, college and university presidents and foundation executives to explore the possibility of defining a common research agenda, "rewarding and exciting for researchers, sustainable and mission-driven for foundations, and applicable and relevant to practitioners" (American Council on

Education, 2001, p. 2). It was meaningful that institutional leaders complained that research was not relevant, while researchers complained that good research results were not fully utilised. Therefore, it was no surprise that one of the conclusions of the meeting was:

> Researchers tend to develop questions that come from historic strands of research based on existing conceptual models. Practitioners tend to ask questions that come from real life problems and contexts that do not fit into research models. Foundations tend to ask questions that reflect their values and missions. (American Council on Education, 2001, pp. 2-3)

The participants identified a number of barriers impeding better linkages between research and action/practice: firstly, a mismatch between academic (research) time and policy-maker time, with researchers needing longer time to develop their work and to conduct analysis and debates, and policy-makers and practitioners needing faster responses to meet their needs. Secondly, the reward systems of "promotion and tenure policies at colleges and universities" (ibid, p. 4) did not encourage higher education policy research. Thirdly, communication strategies of the results of research addressing practitioners and policy-makers were not effective.

THE ROLE OF RELEVANCE

An increasing demand for relevance of higher education was mentioned by Guy Neave, *a propos* of increasing pressures that higher education institutions deal with 'matters that are the concern of the ordinary citizen,' including "the duty of the university not merely to be 'relevant; – and relevance, like treason, is largely a matter of dates – but to be seen to be relevant" (1995, p. 9). This quest for relevance had probably negative influence over the development of this new research area. Pressures for application and consultancy, although providing opportunities for higher education research, are not without danger and might promote 'an application and consultancy drift' of research (Teichler, 2000).

Maurice Kogan and Mary Henkel (2000) considered that research in higher education was still in a pre-paradigmatic phase, which allowed for inputs of functional research to the field. Ulrich Teichler recognised "the shaky institutional and financial basis for higher education research, due to the pressures of application and practical problem solving, leads the key researchers in the field to take over applied research and consultancy roles" (Teichler, 2000, p. 21).

For Ulrich Teichler dangers might include lowering theoretical and methodological standards to offer useful paradigmatic knowledge, following political fads or allowing the quest for relevance leading to subordination to the prevailing norms such as a tendency to "preach the gospel of managerialism and evaluative steering" (Teichler, 2000, p. 22). Policy makers are looking for 'useful knowledge,' meaning knowledge that provides solutions for actual problems, which is more compatible with positivist modes of research (Kogan & Henkel, 2000). However, "the research most highly prized by academics assumes that all questions are open and are likely to remain so after the research is completed"

(ibid, p. 39), which might explain that policy makers "may favour knowledge created by inspectors, auditors and consultants who start with the premises of policy makers" (ibid., p. 39).

One of the major weaknesses brought by the relevance hegemony and the practical drift in higher education research is that it can become an obstacle to the construction of broad and explanatory theory or theories. Although higher education research has managed to build up a sizable literature and important research networks,

> Yet, the field has no widely accepted theories. Policy makers and administrators often say that they do not find research produced by the research community directly applicable to 'practical' problems of higher education management. (Altbach et al., 2006, p. 5)

CONCLUSIONS

Malcolm Tight (2003, 2004, 2007, 2008, 2011, 2012a, 2012b) has dedicated considerable attention to the analysis of higher education research articles. In 2004, Malcolm Tight analysed a database with 406 articles published in 2000 in 17 specialist higher education journals (2004: 395), concluding:

> Higher education researchers, for the most part, do not appear to feel the need to make their theoretical perspectives explicit, or to engage in a broader sense in theoretical debate. (Tight, 2004, p. 409)

And he added that when they do so, their theoretical perspectives "tend to be based more often in social science disciplines or academic development units, rather than education departments or higher education research centres" (2004: 409). Later, Malcolm Tight, after comparing the articles published in 15 specialist academic journals in the years 2000 and 2012 concluded:

> … the increase in the volume of high quality higher education research being published in journals based outside of North America is striking. Second, the increasing international orientation of the leading higher education journals, outside North America and, to a lesser extent, Australasia, is suggestive of a body of researchers increasingly talking to each other across frontiers. (Tight, 2012b, pp. 739-740)

However, in spite of this growth, the field is far from being stable, or clearly defined as a knowledge field and probably it never will. Due to its late development, research on higher education is probably still in the first phase of discipline development (Van den Daele, Krohn, & Weingart, 1977). For Maurice Kogan and Mary Henkel "higher education research may generally be assumed to be at a pre-paradigmatic stage if, indeed, it is ever likely to create paradigms" (Kogan & Henkel, 2000, pp. 29-30).

While some considered that "higher education has legitimised itself as a research area within educational studies, gaining acceptance among those who are

responsible for the leadership of higher education" (Altbach et al., 2006, p. 20), others argued "… there is a need for more theoretical engagement so that the field (or community of practice) can develop further, and gain more credibility and respect" (Tight, 2004, p. 409). And Marcia Devlin considered higher education is "a field of professional practice and a field of enquiry, not a discipline" (2008, p. 1), at least not a mature discipline, as following Tim May's arguments, higher education research still lacks "The idea of theory, or the ability to explain and understand the findings of research within a conceptual framework that makes 'sense' of the data, is the mark of a mature discipline whose aim is the systematic study of particular phenomena" (May, 1997, p. 28).

Indeed, the combined effects of the pressure for increased research relevance, the likely increase of the application and consultancy drift and the strong dependence on commissioned research to ensure financial sustainability are strong barriers to the development of the area of higher education research. John Brennan argued the agenda of higher education research is very much influenced by policy agendas, in general short term and context bound and he adds that "currently, a lot of higher education research tends to be a mixture of some 'grand narratives' (for example, 'knowledge society,' globalisation') and what Ball has described as 'empirical analysis' or 'political arithmetic,' i.e., largely quantitative studies shaped by pressing policy concerns (Ball, 2004)" (Brennan 2011, p. 11).

The presence in the field of 'amateurs,' practitioners, policy makers, consultants, in general publishing articles without strong theoretical or methodological support and the very open access nature of higher education research, with fluid cognitive borders (Harland, 2012) are additional barriers to moving beyond a pre-paradigmatic phase. Malcolm Tight argued further that higher education is a series of somewhat overlapping communities of practice, some communities of engaging explicitly with theory while other communities fail to do so, or they do so only implicitly. "So some higher education research communities are relatively a-theoretical, while others (the minority, but a significant minority) are highly theorised" (2004, p. 409).

Any effort to give a unified and complete general view of the research in higher education from an international perspective is doomed to failure. Not only because the field is object-driven and multi and trans-disciplinary, but also due to its youth and institutional location. Its youth makes difficult the availability of this type of studies to policy-makers and practitioners, and even more so to the general public, as literature search systems lack categories for the field (Teichler, 1994). Its institutional location, ranging from departments to newly created centres, let alone the language divide in the European context, is far from being well established. Curiously enough, what seems to be consolidating is a diversified pattern with regard to disciplinary bases and institutional location.

Ulrich Teichler (2000) presented several recommendations to overcome the problem of counterbalancing the drifts, pressures and biases impinging on higher education research. Ulrich Teichler (2000) recommended that higher education researchers should engage in "meta-research and continuous reflection on its conditions" and to "embark more systematically on a critique of research" might

help challenging "the national idiosyncrasies of public debates and research traditions" (2000, p. 23). And Malcolm Tight has proposed:

> … for higher education research to so develop, it needs to recognise itself, and be recognised, as an interdisciplinary field in which multiple communities of practice operate… [it requires] for those with a major involvement in higher education research to engage with different disciplinary perspectives, and for the field as a whole to find more effective means of bringing researchers from these perspectives together (Tight 2004: 410).

Elaine El-Khawas (2000) and the American Council on Education (2001) reflected on barriers between higher education researchers, policy makers and practitioners. El-Khawas recommended that researchers should contribute to improved communication by paying attention to the best modes of delivery, paying attention to the audience by taking the time "to hear the concerns of policy makers and to learn about the constraints they face" (ibid., p. 55) and by accepting the random aspects of policy formulation. And in the U.S. we listed the efforts of the American Council on Education to increase communication between researchers, policy-makers and practitioners while Stanford's National Center for Postsecondary Improvement (NPCI, 2002) proposed a research agenda for American higher education. In Europe, the new governance being implemented at the level of the European Union, with its extensive use of pools of experts, may well contribute to an increasing demand for consultancy, while the European Science Foundation Project, *Higher Education Looking Forward: An agenda for Future Research* (Brennan et al., 2011) will give a contribution for further developing higher education research in Europe.

Therefore we might expect a further development of the field. However, despite this foreseeable development, it is unlikely, at least in the near future, that higher education research will cross the boundaries of the pre-paradigm phase into the phase of paradigm articulation. The combined efforts of the pressure for increased research relevance, the likely increase of the application and consultancy drift and the strong dependence on commissioned research to ensure financial sustainability are strong barriers to the development of the field.

The 'sacrificial offering' to relevance is also reflected in the institutional profile of higher education research centres and institutes. It is not that the social science project is homogeneous; it is not that it should pursue identical perspectives and issues, but that the field and the research agenda have been strongly pressured by both ideological and pragmatic forces. The pressures are organised around the increasing individualisation of citizens and educational opportunities – see, for instance, the relevance that 'choice' issues have assumed in the literature – and the urgent need to provide quality mass higher education in the name of economic development.

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DON F. WESTERHEIJDEN AND ANNA KOZINSKA

6. THE EUROPEAN HIGHER EDUCATION ADVANCED TRAINING COURSE

Rise and Fall of CHER's Collective Establishment of a Higher Education Studies Field

INTRODUCTION: HOW DID CHER RESPOND TO THE SITUATION AROUND 1990?

CHER had been established only for a few years, and its initiators were looking for options to engage in common activities. One of the needs felt in a number of the partially newly established research centres in the field, was to train a next generation of higher education researchers in the changing higher education landscape of Western Europe, where higher education institutions were becoming larger, were forced to be more autonomous due to governmental funding cuts and as a result needed more professional administration. A common training for early career researchers was one of the options on the table. But all discussions gave way for the historic events in 1989-1990, when the Iron Curtain crumbled, the Berlin Wall fell, and with it fell the communist regimes in Central and Eastern Europe. A massive task of rapid transformation awaited societies in a large number of countries. Higher education was one of the foci of change: curricula were suddenly out-dated, ideologically out of tune (Marx and Hegel had to be replaced by Friedman and Hayek) and with the wrong foreign language (Russian had to be replaced with English). In these countries, higher education had been elite in Trow's (1974) terms and rapid expansion of the higher education system to accommodate a large amount of unmet demand further complicated the challenges for higher education institutions (Westerheijden & Sorensen, 1999). Moreover, the higher education institutions were faced with the immense challenge to enter the international playing field in which their Western European partners were beginning to find their way.

When the European Union already in 1990, responded to the new geo-political situation by instigating the Trans-European Mobility scheme for University Studies (Tempus) programme, to aid transformation in – originally, though other countries were added soon after – Poland, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia (from 1993 as Czech and Slovak Republics), the pieces of the puzzle started to come together: here was a funding opportunity around which CHER researchers could coalesce to fulfil both a useful and desired role in the transformation of Central and Eastern Europe and establish a common training opportunity for their Western European junior researchers, and for professionalization of higher education administration and policy in East and West. Obviously, different CHER researchers had different

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priorities among this mix of aims, but it seemed that Tempus funding would be the stone to kill a lot of birds at a single throw. Frans van Vught pulled the initiative towards CHEPS, and began to coordinate the efforts from his centre; Don Westerheijden became the executive coordinator.

In April 1991, a planning meeting took place in Prague, where even the Tyn cathedral and the square Staromestske Namesti in their dirty greyness, with grass in the gutters, showed the urgent need for reform and had not yet turned into the tourist attractors that they soon would become. A number of active members of the CHER network from Western Europe met colleagues from Central and Eastern Europe; they all came together to prepare a project proposal for the Tempus programme. The coordination of the project proposal was taken up by CHEPS, at the University of Twente, by professor Frans van Vught and his team, where in particular one of the authors of this chapter became involved in writing and coordinating the proposal. The proposal was given the accurate but dull name of European Higher Education Advanced Training Course, abbreviated to EHEATC.

The proposal was successful, a grant was awarded and the course was planned for 1992-1993.

By coincidence, around the same time, early 1992, education researchers met at the University of Twente to discuss setting up a European 'Bureau of Education Research.' The higher education researchers at the University of Twente – and other CHER leaders – being deeply involved in the successful Tempus project, did not see this emerging initiative as more promising than where they were going at the time (personal communication Van Vught, 2013). Educational researchers concluded about this failed meeting: 'Apparently, there was a difference of opinion … about the value of having a European educational research association' (Lawn & Grek, 2012, p. 58). The chance to integrate education research at a European level across different sectors of the educational column never reappeared. The success of the EHEATC proposal had set CHER on the path of remaining an independent, specialised group.

WHAT WAS THE EHEATC?

Modules and Locations

The course's name 'European Higher Education Advanced Training Course' was accurate also in the sense of using Tempus buzz words 'advanced' and 'training'. The form that was given tot the EHEATC consisted of eight one-week thematic modules, each coordinated by an international tandem (sometimes a trio) of senior members of CHER, in the hometown of one of the module coordinators' higher education institution (see Table 1).

Organising modules in different places had many reasons. For one, there were educational-cultural reasons: to give participants a quick glimpse of higher education research centres and/or higher education institutions in different countries, with different languages, different (academic) structures and cultures, different levels of resources. At the same time, there were capacity-building

reasons within CHER pleading for such a model: to give different research centres' teams the opportunity to build up experience in organising international events – with the associated benefit that the burden of such work was spread over many participating centres as well.

Table 1. EHEATC modules

	Theme	Module Coordinators	Location	Date
I	Processes and structures in higher education	Maurice Kogan (Brunel University) & Ian McNay (Anglia Business School)	Chelmsford (UK)	March, 1992
II	Steering of higher education systems	Guy Neave (International Association of Universities), Frans van Vught (CHEPS) & Támas Kozma (Hungarian Institute of Educational Research)	Budapest (HU)	May, 1992
III	Economic aspects of higher education	Jean-Claude Eicher (Université de Bourgogne) & Gareth Williams (Institute of Education)	Dijon (FR)	September, 1992
IV	Higher education and work in Europe	Ulrich Teichler (Comprehensive University Kassel) & Maurice Kogan (Brunel University)	Kassel (DE)	November, 1992
V	Institutional decision-making and research	Frans van Vught (CHEPS) & Ulrich Teichler (Comprehensive University of Kassel)	Enschede (NL)	March, 1993
VI	Fields of knowledge, teaching and learning	Tony Becher (University of Sussex), Ludwig Huber (University of Bielefeld) & Helena Sebková (Centre for Higher Education Studies, Prague)	Prague (CZ)	May, 1993
VII	Management of higher education institutions	Ian McNay (Anglia Business School) & Kari Hypponen (University of Turku)	Turku (FI)	August, 1993
VIII	Higher education and developments in Europe	Claudius Gellert (European University Institute) & Guy Neave (International Association of Universities)	Florence (IT)	May, 1993

Two modules took place in Central Europe. Reintegrating Central Europe in broader European events was of course a major motivation in all of Tempus, and it was also a major motivation of the initiators. In the preparatory phase, two teams from Central Europe were willing and able to take part in the organisation of modules; had more partners come forward, then more modules might have taken place in Central Europe. It was not surprising, at the time, that Hungarian and Czech higher education research teams were among the foremost: Hungary had a history of being more open to contacts with Western Europe from late communist

times already, and the (then still unified) Czechoslovak Republic was among the fastest transformers.

What was the educational model of the modules?

The themes of the eight modules were mentioned above (see Table 1). The syllabuses of each thematic module were reproduced extensively by Kehm (2000). The curricular structure was built on *capita selecta* themes that should be quasi-independent. With the exception of the first and probably the second one, which could be seen as preliminary required knowledge for all subsequent modules, there was no intention of a linear build-up of knowledge and skills from one module to the other. On the contrary, the idea among the designers was that learners ought to be able to attend selected modules, depending on their individual learning needs and desires.

Whether through long-term insight in the field, or through smart abstract name-giving – and probably a bit of both – the themes do not seem outdated, twenty years afterwards. A current advanced course on higher education might still largely have the same themes: process and structure, governance, economic aspects, labour market connections, institutional decision-making and management, higher education research, the role of the disciplines, and the European dimension. Obviously, the content would have to be updated. For instance, new public management is not new anymore and has come under strong criticism; neoliberalism perhaps even more so. Insights have developed in the roles and structures of disciplines. The labour market for higher education has expanded still further. The European dimension changed radically through the Sorbonne Declaration and the subsequent Bologna Process. Yet some themes we now think indispensable were missing: internationalisation beyond Europe has become much more important – globalisation will not go away anymore – and the impact of ICT on education has expanded as well.

In fact, ICT has become so pervasive that one might ask if the model of face-to-face, weeklong modules would be retained. Convinced as we are of the benefits of peer learning and of the rich communication in out-of-class exchanges, we do not think that online teaching ever could wholly replace face-to-face education. But even more at that historical moment in time, when people from Central Europe had hardly had a chance to travel to Western countries, and most Westerners had not travelled East of the Iron Curtain either, the model of intensive modules was a good choice.

During the weeks, teaching forms ranged from small-scale lectures – small-scale, because there were no more than about 25 to 30 participants per module – to intensive group work in different teams, sometimes made up of compatriots, sometimes deliberately mixed internationally but also mixed concerning student background (national policy-makers with institutional researchers, etc.). Teachers were not only the module coordinators but also the academic staff members of the local higher education research centre organising the module.

Who participated?

From the motivation of the course's initiators, there were two main dimensions to typify participants of the EHEATC's modules. Geographically, the East–West divide was of major importance; there were practically equal numbers of participants from both regions. From the perspective of learning goals, the division was between researchers on the one hand and policy-makers and institutional managers on the other. In Western Europe, emphasis was put on the training argument, on providing education for junior researchers. In Central and Eastern Europe, emphasis lay with training the policy-makers and institutional managers for the new, unified Europe. Nevertheless, the other cells of the table were filled as well (see Table 2). In total, there were 30 junior researchers out of the 51 participants. National decision-makers were the rarest kind of participants (4), while there were 17 (current or intended future) institutional managers, most from Central and Eastern Europe.

Participants were partly put forward by the CHER initiators of the EHEATC, partly through reactions on advertisements made in higher education newsletters and professional journals. Especially in Central and Eastern Europe, it was largely left to the initiators to find promising candidates for participation in the course: networking was expected to be the most efficient method to reach the target group in those largely unorganised times and societies.

Table 1. EHEATC participants by background

	Researchers	**Decision-makers**		**Total**
		National	Institutional	
Central/East	13	2	11	26
West	17	2	6	25
Sub-total		4	17	
Total	30	21		51

Source: EHEATC administration

The course coordinators at CHEPS collected all candidates' applications to distribute all available slots equitably. Tempus funds were deployed to enable participants from Central and Eastern Europe to attend the course events. To each module, 31 to 36 participants were admitted. On average, participants were admitted to 5.2 of the 8 modules; 24 attended 7 or even all 8 modules. Especially the Central and Eastern European participants were composed as a stable group; one of the Western European research centres, the group in Kassel, had such a large number of junior researchers, that most of them only were given the chance to participate in one module.

What happened with the participants afterwards?

In the early 1990s, thoughts of establishing alumni clubs had not taken root sufficiently to establish such a club especially for EHEATC alumni. Besides, it was

intended that CHER should function as the platform for the alumni—simultaneously assuring their integration in the higher education research community. As a consequence, detailed information on all alumni's careers and whether the EHEATC made any impact on their careers, is not available, being especially scarce for the alumni following non-research careers and who for that reason are not well-represented among the CHER membership.

Anecdotal evidence shows that a number of the junior researchers have indeed pursued careers in higher education research, and at least four of the EHEATC alumni became professors in the field (in Western Europe). More of the junior researchers achieved their Ph.D. afterwards, partly continuing a research career afterwards, partly moving out of higher education institutions.

Others fulfilled the expectation of becoming the next generation of higher education decision-makers; for instance, there were at least two university leaders (in Central and Western Europe) among the alumni, and several faculty deans (in Central and Western Europe). Also there were alumni following career paths in national (and international) higher education policy-making.

Still others pursued careers in the higher education field, partly unforeseen and unforeseeable at the time, because the development of the increasingly internationalising higher education landscape of Europe created new career possibilities.

By and large then, the EHEATC fulfilled its intended role of preparing a next generation of researchers and decision-makers in European higher education.

THE AFTERMATH

When the EHEATC ended with its internationalisation module in Florence, in 1993, hopes were high of repeating and expanding the success. Further EU money was not gained; Tempus moved on and so should successful initiatives supported once. However, other (mostly informal) searches for funding sources were not successful either.

A new higher education research centre, Cipes in Portugal, being in the same need as its somewhat older colleagues a few years before to recruit and educate a group of junior researchers – and also seeing the need for reform in the Portuguese (and other) higher education systems, championed the initiative of a second EHEATC. In cooperation with CHEPS, a second instalment was launched. Participants would have to pay full-cost fees, given the lack of large-scale institutional support. The minimum amount of students for a break-even situation was almost reached, again recruited from all over Europe, and the first module was organised in Porto in 1996. But when student numbers did not increase for subsequent modules, the initiative had to be aborted.

Cipes and CHEPS both independently and in cooperation continued pursuing the idea of Europe-wide higher education training for research and reform, leading to co-organising a summer school in 2006. This was a continuation of a series of summer schools initiated by especially Marijk van der Wende of CHEPS since

around 2000. Again these initiatives thrived briefly, were evaluated very positively by participants, but withered soon due to lack of sustained funding.

In a different guise, international cooperation for education in the higher education field revived in the Erasmus Mundus supported master programme organised by Oslo, Aveiro and Tampere universities. But that was much after the EHEATC, in the turbulent years of post-communist transformation and the Europhoria of the Maastricht Treaty of 1992, before the advent of the Bologna Process and other forms of institutionalisation of the European higher education field.

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PETER MAASSEN AND ATTILA PAUSITS

7. HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PROGRAMMES IN EUROPE: FROM GRASSROOTS TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENTS AND IMPACT

INTRODUCTION

Higher education studies have over the last four to five decades emerged in Europe as a field of its own, with specialised academic journals and book series, an increasing number of academic and popular-scientific publications and reports, specialised units inside and outside higher education institutions, a number of specialised Master programmes, a growing number of PhD projects focusing on higher education, and a flourishing professional association (CHER) that is celebrating its 25th anniversary in 2013.

The field has emerged mainly out of research units that have been established since the 1960s in many European countries. In this development there is a difference with the emergence of the field in the USA where it has its roots in the large number of graduate programmes introduced since the 1950s. In a simplified way one could argue that the field of higher education studies in Europe has an underdeveloped graduate programme component, while in the USA the academic research focus of the field is relatively marginal. At least in the European context this situation is getting more attention as a result of the growing professionalisation of the institutional management.

CHER has been established as an association of higher education researchers. In contrast, the majority of the programmes that emerged in the last decade are more practice oriented preparing for management, leadership and decision-making positions and less for research. Members of CHER are in many cases key promoters, providers and lecturers of these newly established professional programmes. However the scientific linkage between research, researchers and the field represented by (post-)graduate programmes need further improvements. The interaction between academics doing research in the field and professionals attending the trainings will be more crucial in the future also for CHER. Integration of state of the art research results into education as well as identification of relevant research aspects and topics when working with professionals in those training programmes are only some aspects of this knowledge exchange potential. This is an opportunity and a challenge for both sides.

One reason is that European higher education is in an important transition phase. Traditional ways of governing and funding higher education institutions are regarded as being no longer effective, and in most European countries reform initiatives have been taken during the last 25 years to change the conditions under

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which higher education institutions operate. However, it has been doubted whether these reforms are effective enough. It is claimed that while Europe aspires to become "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world", the connections between the education and research activities of its higher education institutions and the private sector are inefficient. This contributes to Europe's low levels of economic growth and competitiveness, as well as to brain-drain. It is argued in this that European higher education institutions are not globally competitive. They have not learned to operate effectively in world markets and most universities and colleges lack a competitive mindset (Commission, 2006, 2011).

How are higher education institutions expected to become more responsive and relevant in their core activities? Drastic reforms are needed, and national and European reform agendas have recently focused on a number of measures that are expected to improve the performance of higher education institutions. In essence the reforms promote a combination of increased institutional autonomy, the professionalisation of institutional leadership and management, and the increase of private investments in higher education. While many reform initiatives are implemented, the results are not in all respects in line with the expectations until now. The reasons for this are not totally clear, but part of the explanation is that it is not enough to change the leadership and management structure of the institutions per se. What is also needed is a cultural change, allowing for an effective cooperation between professional institutional leaders and managers (L&Ms), and academic staff. This has not been achieved yet in all respects in European higher education institutions. As a number of studies (see, for example, Reed, 2002) show, there is a relatively high level of mistrust between L&Ms and academics in universities and colleges. In addition, in many European countries the continuing governmental control orientation in the national public sector in general has driven the institutional L&Ms in higher education to become 'rule-hunters' and bureaucrats, instead of strategic actors.

The changes in the institutional L&M structures and practices in Europe have not been accompanied by an emerging training and support structure for institutional L&M functions (Pausits & Pellert, 2009). There are very few graduate programmes in Europe focusing on the professional development of institutional L&Ms in higher education. Attempts to set up an equivalent of US graduate programmes and executive training courses for professionalising institutional L&Ms in higher education have not been very successful until now, and all over the continent, including the UK, the number of applicants and participants in these programmes and courses is low compared to the USA.

In this chapter we will present and discuss the current situation with respect to L&M graduate programmes and training courses in European higher education. The empirical basis for discussing this situation is relatively weak. Neither CHER nor any other agency or actor in European higher education has developed a comprehensive overview of the current provision of L&M programmes and courses. The main foundation for this chapter is formed by a needs assessment and a provision survey conducted in 2011 in the framework of a European project

called MODERN, coordinated by ESMU. The MODERN project addressed the demand for and provision of education and training activities in the area of higher education management and leadership in Europe. While the MODERN project as a whole, as well as the surveys offer insight into the state of the art of advanced education and training provisions in the area in question, the data and conclusions have to be interpreted carefully. Nevertheless, they do give an indication of especially the gaps between the education and training needs, and the programme and course provision. This should be of interest to all academically involved as well as practically interested in higher education studies.

We will start with presenting some of the results of the MODERN surveys, followed by some more general reflections on degree programmes and training courses on higher education management in Europe. Furthermore a new European network initiative will be highlighted as the newest development of the providers' professionalization movement. At the end we will give an outlook regarding future challenges and developments of the provision.

"MAPPING THE FIELD": A EUROPEAN INITIATIVE

Since the 1980s, many academic publications and policy papers have been produced about the importance of strengthening the L&M structures in European higher education institutions. In line with this, in many countries the government has attempted to stimulate the professionalisation of institutional L&M through specific and more general reforms. In addition, a growing number of higher education institutions in Europe has introduced measures themselves to improve the competences and skills of their L&Ms. In this chapter we interpret institutional leadership in higher education as being about strategic direction giving and setting, while institutional management is about outcomes achievement and the monitoring of institutional effectiveness and efficiency in the distribution of resources. In addition, institutional administration can be identified which concerns the implementation of procedures (Reed et al., 2002; Maassen, 2003). In the remainder of the chapter the term 'management' refers to functions and activities that are covered by the institutional management or the institutional administration definitions presented above.

The general picture that emerges from the reforms and institutional measures in European higher education is one of fragmentation and a lack of coordination. This picture is also confirmed in the overall MODERN project referred to above, and the surveys that were part of the project. The first survey was designed to examine the demand for higher education L&M training and education, in the sense of the need for education and training programmes aimed at strengthening general L&M competences and skills in higher education. We realize that L&Ms in higher education have a strong personal, institutional as well as cultural quality and there is no set of standardised characteristics based on behaviour, style or action and reaction in a given situation that can be said to typify a successful leader or manager and that can be replicated to produce another. Proven L&M approaches in one organisation may fail in another. So when we talk about higher education

institutions, it is important to consider that they differ from each other in type, size, strategy and culture, while higher education as a sector differs in many respects from other public sectors, as well as private sector organisations and firms, and that there can be no one-size-fits-all solution to L&M expectations and challenges.

The second survey was focused on the supply side and looked for existing higher education L&M programmes and courses. Obviously, the results and information are limited to the number of programmes and providers that completed the questionnaire. In total 34 training and study programmes across Europe are included. We are aware that this is not covering the whole landscape and that it does not represent a comprehensive overview of the field. But the 34 different programmes from different parts of Europe and located in various higher education systems give a reasonably representative overview of the current programme offerings in higher education L&M in Europe. As a consequence, the data allow us to identify certain patterns and basic characteristics at the supply side.

Needs assessment: Main findings and challenges

Overall, there is broad agreement among the respondents that more needs to be done in their institution with respect to higher education L&M education and training. At the same time, a number of factors influence the actual participation of institutional L&M programmes. The most important of these are: the available time institutional L&Ms have for participation in L&M programmes, the institutional funding for the participation of L&Ms in L&M programmes, and the level of resistance among institutional L&Ms towards the participation in L&M programmes. These factors can be argued to have a greater influence on the participation level than the availability of L&M programmes (Figure 1).

The respondents indicated that in practically all areas there are needs for strengthening the competences and skills of the institutional L&Ms. Most important training needs for institutional leaders are in the area of strategic tasks, while for managers there is an emphasis on the training needs with respect to their operational tasks.

Most respondents feel that currently not enough is being done to satisfy training needs with respect to institutional L&M functions, and that new activities should be developed in this area. When it comes to the question which new L&M training activities could and should be developed most effectively, only between 25% and 30% of the respondents indicate that more L&M training activities should be undertaken at the European/EU level. Overall, between 50% and 60% of the respondents believe that more should be done at the national and institutional level to satisfy the L&M training needs in higher education. These figures suggest that in general the development of L&M training activities in higher education is first and foremost seen as a national/institutional responsibility, with a relatively limited explicit interest in a European level dimension in these activities.

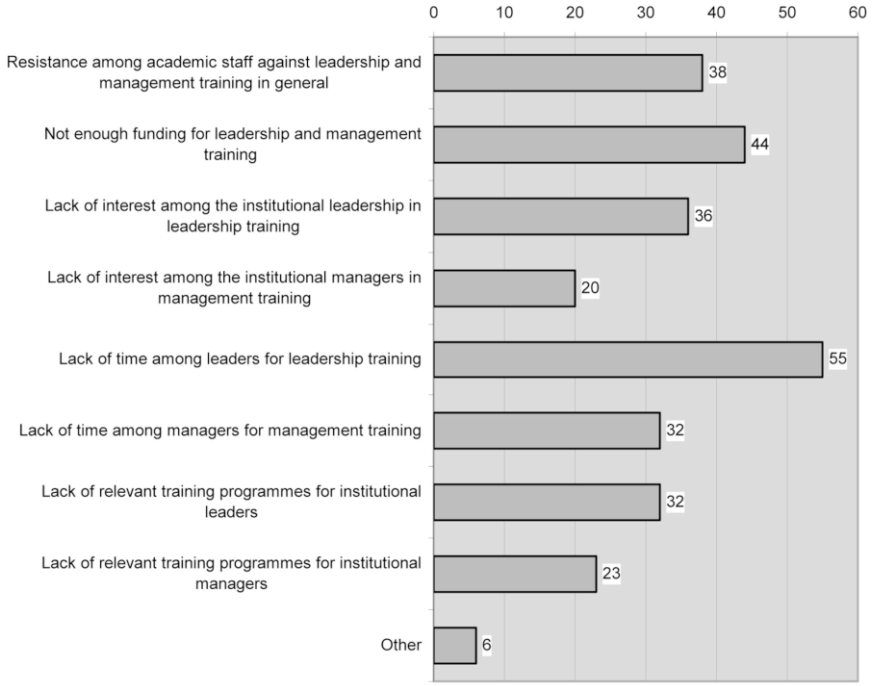

Figure 1. Most important challenges with respect to the further professionalisation of institutional L&M

Concerning the development of formal L&M degree programmes, the majority of the respondents state that they want their institution to support the development of such programmes. But at the same time, the majority of the respondents do not want to have a degree from an L&M study programme becoming a condition for getting a management job in their institution.

Priorities and urgency

Around 50% of the respondents indicate that their institution does not have specific criteria for assessing professional skills and competences of applicants for management positions. In addition, around 25% of the respondents do not know whether their institution has such criteria. When indicating which criteria are used (by the remaining 25% of the respondents) having management experience in higher education is the most important criterion. Having an academic degree in the area of higher education management is less important (see Figure 2). Around one third of the respondents believe that a formal HE management degree will become a requirement for a management job in their institution in the future. However, more than 50% do not feel that this is a likely development.

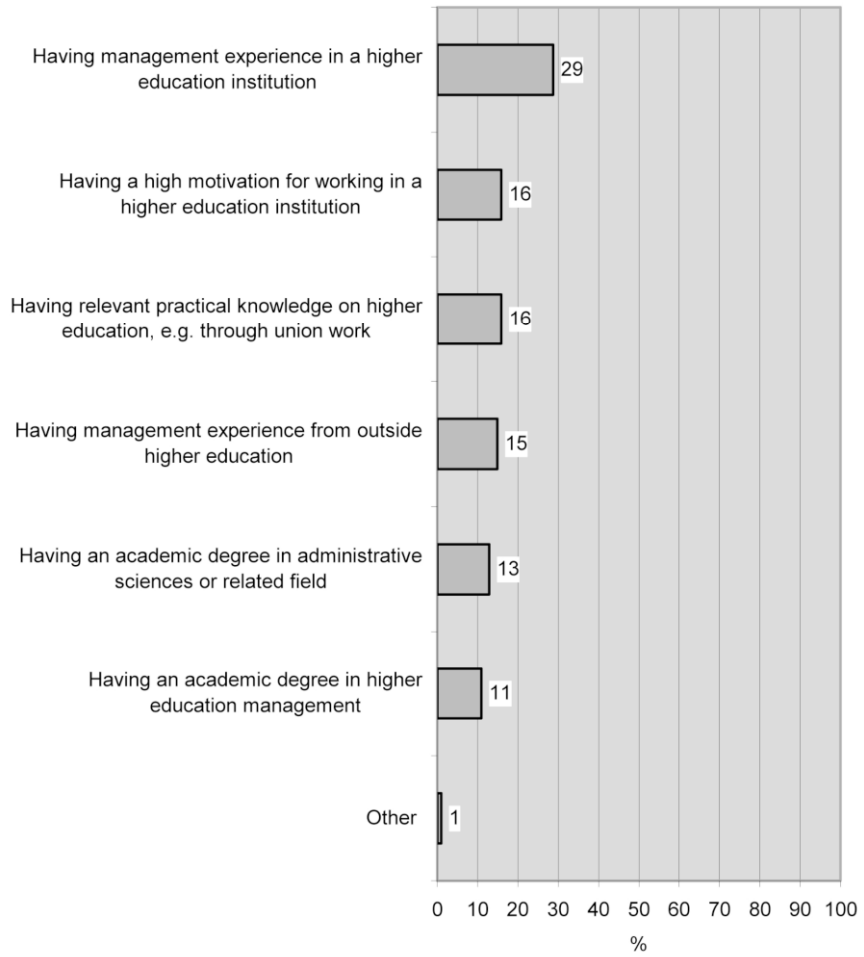

Figure 2. Currently the most important assessment criteria for applicants for management positions within higher education institutions

At a few European universities a specific in-house training programme has been developed for strengthening the research management skills of senior research staff in areas such as leading and managing research groups or centres, applying for external funds for basic research, and supervising talented junior researchers. Most respondents' institutions do not have such programmes, but a majority of the respondents (68%) would appreciate it if their institutions would introduce such programmes.

PROVISION ASSESSMENT

As indicated, the growing importance of formal, professional L&M functions in higher education institutions is accompanied by a growing awareness that a specific training for these functions is needed (Pellert. 2000). The acquisition of 'professional' skills and competences by academic staff in L&M functions takes place mainly through activities organised by agencies such as rectors' conferences and in the form of information events; formal "skills and competences" training occurs only in very rare cases. When institutional L&Ms try to improve their L&M skills and competences, they usually do so on a private basis rather than via strategic personnel development service of the university.

Nonetheless, some degree programmes exist in Europe for the further professionalisation of institutional L&Ms and for the trainee manager who can imagine a full-time career in institutional (middle) management. As indicated by the supply survey, over the last ten years a number of graduate and basic courses or seminars have been introduced, many of them designed to be completed in parallel with a (full-time) job. However, only a minority of the institutional managers who enrol in these programmes are sponsored by their employer, one of the reasons being that there is still no real career track in institutional middle management in most European countries (Pausits & Pellert, 2009).

Providers' profiles

In total 18 providers responsible for 29 programmes and courses responded to the survey. Of these 18 providers, 8 are 'traditional' public higher education institutions, 1 is a private higher education institution, and 1 is a higher education institution specialised in public management. The remaining providers include a European Association, a national buffer organisation for HEIs, a European network, a further education center, and a number of other mainly private agencies. The providers are located in 10 different countries (Figure 3). All in all 6 are from Germany, 2 from Norway, 2 from Belgium, 2 from Denmark, and 1 from Finland, 1 located in the Netherlands, 1 in Portugal, 1 in Russia, 1 in Serbia, and 1 in Austria. Unfortunately, the UK as a country with the longest tradition in L&M programmes wasn't represented in the survey.

Concerning the programmes and courses they offer, 12 of these are formal degree programmes, while 17 are non-formal degree programmes. Of the 12 degree programmes, 10 are at the Masters level, one programme is at the Bachelor level, while one programme is a PhD programme. The non-degree activities consist mainly of courses and seminars of various lengths. Only three of these programmes and courses originate from before 2000; all other 26 were introduced after 2000, and 8 after 2006. Most of them depend on study fees and need a relatively high number of students to be sustainable. The size of the classes differs also. While the Italian provider has 45 students in one cohort, the Austrian provider set its class size to 25 participants as a maximum. The programmes have also different didactical approaches from in class participation to blended learning approaches.

Figure 3. Providers in the MODERN survey

Characterisation of relevant degree programmes

In general, the providers of higher education L&M programmes and courses are pioneers, in the sense that they had to discover the needs for such activities themselves, while they also had to link themselves to a market for their programmes, courses or seminars. There are no systematic national support and incentive structures available for the development of L&M education and training activities in Europe, with the exception of the UK.

However, the potential target group for higher education L&M programmes and courses is increasing in Europe. This is first and foremost a consequence of the professionalisation of institutional L&M functions. This has led to the introduction of staff development activities in many European universities. Currently there is a large heterogeneity in higher education L&M training activities. This concerns the titles or names of these activities, the required access qualifications and requirements, the expected preparation, the linkage to the current working place or professional experience of students, the costs (in the form of tuition fees), and the length of the training activities.

As indicated, important differences can be observed when it comes to the pricing of the programmes and courses. For some the students are expected not only to cover all the costs but also to provide the programme or course with a

profit, while in other cases all costs are in essence subsidised by the national tax payers, or another external actor.

Most degree programmes in the area in question are located at UK universities. However, during the last 5 to 10 years a growing number of national higher education L&M programmes have been set up at continental European universities, including Central and Eastern European countries. As a common rule these are offered in the national language. This limits access to these programmes to students who do not speak the language, implying that at best Flemish students can enroll in a Dutch programme, and the other way around, Austrian students can enroll in a German programme, etc. An important point here is that most of these programmes are nationally oriented, taking national funding, regulatory/legal, policy and political frameworks as the basis for programme. As a consequence, they will be of limited relevance to institutional L&M staff from other countries.

The providers of the degree programmes consist of a small group of institutions and academics, who are well-connected, and usually include also practitioners in their networks and teaching staff.

Most of the programmes, seminars and courses included are professionally oriented without a clear, transparent explanation which specific professional training (in the area of L&M) they provide. In general, when it comes to the mission of the activities, no clear distinction is made between professional training aimed at specific higher education L&M functions, and lifelong learning or further education programmes, courses and seminars. In addition, also degree programmes in higher education studies that are research oriented indicate to be of relevance for practitioners, without it being clear why that is the case, what this means, or how it is achieved.

A relatively new development in Europe is the offering of joint degree programmes in higher education. Most of these have been developed in the framework of the Erasmus Mundus programme. Consequently, these programmes have a majority of non-European students. The providers of these programmes use their student and alumni network to introduce "European trainings" to other parts of the world. Here we can see an educational export for example to Africa or Asia. These Erasmus Mundus programmes, such as the HEEM programme offered by the consortium of the universities of Aveiro, Tampere and Oslo, or the newly established one with Krems, Osnabrück, Tampere and Beijing are "global ambassadors" of a European training and have established besides the joint degrees also worldwide cooperation and deliver trainings outside Europe.

In line with the variety of programmes there is a great diversity of enrolment requirements for potential students. Almost all master level degree programmes require a Bachelor degree as a minimum enrolment condition. Practical experience and practice based learning outcomes are appreciated by few programmes and recognized as entrance qualifications.

The profiles of the higher education L&M programmes, seminars and courses show a wide variety. These range from a broad, general higher education focus to specific administrative topics, such as internationalisation and science marketing. When it comes to the content of the L&M programme and course activities, a

minority of these include explicitly strategic management as a core issue of training. Also from this perspective a better, i.e. more effective connection between the training needs of institutional leaders and managers and the provided programmes and courses needs to be developed. There are no examples in our sample of tailor-made programmes for institutional leaders or senior managers that cover the needs indicated in our needs assessment survey.

The target groups of the non-degree courses and seminars are more clearly defined than the target groups for the degree programmes. This has to do with the career path of L&M staff in universities and colleges, as well as the lack of a structured link between demand for L&M competences and skills training and the provision of courses and programmes. As indicated above, the providers of higher education L&M programmes and courses in Europe still have to operate in at best a weakly developed marketplace.

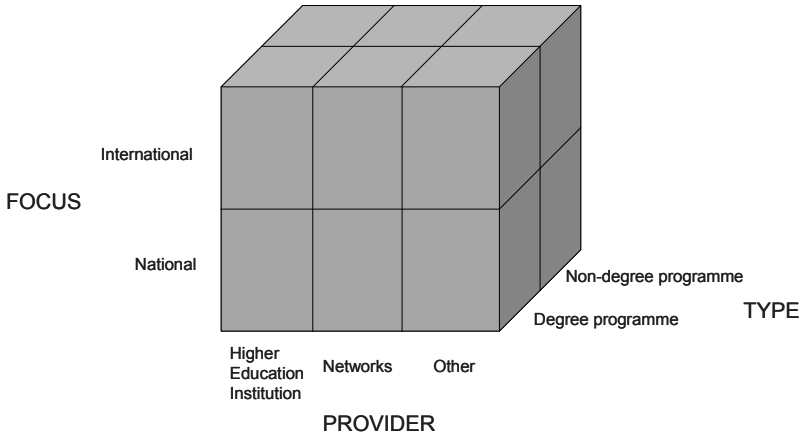

Figure 4. Classification framework for higher education programmes

Figure 4 provides a classification framework for the supply side. We distinguish between providers, focus and type of the programmes. Most of the degree programmes are provided by individual higher education institutions. Many master level degree programmes in Higher Education have a strong international focus, while degree programmes in professional development and continuing education are related more to national issues. This again underlines that the national differentiation of higher education at the system level requires a strong focus on the national context in L&M training. Even though professionals are interested to learn more about international developments and trends, at the same time they are looking for solutions to specific L&M challenges in their own context.

Other providers, such as professional associations, are offering non-degree, mainly short term programmes and seminars. The short term activities can have an international (= European) as well as a national focus. Short term programmes are

usually related to emerging topics and state of the art developments in higher education management and less focused on an introduction or further training in basic L&M knowledge, competences and skills.

Some of the teaching staff involved in such programmes are university researchers specialized in the international comparison of university systems, the organizational dynamics of universities and colleges and the major topics of education policy "inspired by Europe." Others are teachers with classical business management knowledge that can be integrated as a new kind of expertise in the new logic of the higher education institution as an entrepreneurial organisation.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

It can be argued that the characteristics of the providers (and their programmes, courses and seminars) that completed the survey are indicative of the state of the art of the higher education L&M education and training field in Europe. The group of providers is relatively small and varied, degree programmes are offered mainly at the Masters level, and most of the providers have started their activities after 2000. In addition, as presented on the websites of the providers, most of the programmes and training activities have no clear description of their mission, target groups and intended learning outcomes. When compared to US graduate programmes in higher education, the descriptions of the mission and target groups of the L&M programmes in Europe are rather general, suggesting in many cases a broad set of activities and a comprehensive target group, not entirely in line with the contents of the curriculum, course or seminar. Also the intended learning outcomes are not presented in terms of the specific skills, competences and knowledge levels the students are expected to have achieved at the end of the activity.

In line with the increasing importance of professional management skills more and more higher education institutions establish in-house training activities and programmes as part of the institutional personnel development strategies. We see here a huge variety of different types, target audiences for such programmes as well as topics. However, only in rare cases are these programmes open to participants from other institutions.

The call for institutional L&M reforms is a relatively new phenomenon in higher education. The term 'institutional management' and an explicit management function are recent phenomena in the long history of the university. Until the 1980s, institutional administration was seen by many inside and outside higher education as a 'necessary evil' (see, for example, Clark, 1983), and the terms leadership and management were hardly ever used in higher education. Since then 'management' has become in many respects a self-justified activity in higher education institutions (Maassen, 2003, pp. 45-47), and this development has been referred to as a 'management revolution' in higher education (see, for example, Keller, 1983). National, and in the European case supranational, white papers and other policy documents have contributed in many respects to this development by clearly setting the mark: universities are expected to be more responsive, more

effective, and more efficient. It is argued that a more direct and dynamic interaction between universities and their environments is necessary and an important condition for this to be realized is the professionalization of institutional leadership and management as well as the intra-institutional governance structures (Clark, 1998; Olsen & Maassen, 2007).

As discussed in the introduction to this chapter, empirical studies on the effects of the changes in institutional L&M reveal rather ambiguous results of reform initiatives. In many countries, it is difficult to conclude that higher education institutions have become more effective and efficient, new decision-making structures do not always lead to the desired behavioural changes, and the outcomes of the new L&M arrangements seem to have a number of unintended consequences (Reed, 2002; Maassen & Stensaker, 2003; Kezar & Eckel, 2004; Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2006; Meister-Scheytt, 2007; Larsen et al., 2009).

Reform failures in higher education are usually explained by the mismatch between reform design and the cultural and historical characteristics of higher education institutions, where different institutional logics collide and create turmoil, inertia, and contestation (Maassen & Olsen, 2007). Less attention has been given to the option that reform packages may be poorly designed, and that various reform intentions also could be contradicting. For understanding the current poor state of affairs in this area in Europe we want to briefly discuss the weak links between demand and supply in higher education L&M training.

First, specific management tasks are more strongly concentrated in full-time institutional administration positions, i.e. the traditional institutional administration must progress at all levels in the direction of management rather than administration (Enders et al., 2005; Nullmeier, 2000). Second, the academic staff must also become more involved in administrative work because more fund-raising and acquisition of third party funding is required from the individual organisational units. Meanwhile, more intensive communication with the public is also becoming increasingly necessary in more and more fields of science (Cordes et al., 2001; Hansen, 1999; Müller-Böling, 2000). The trend towards more interdisciplinary work in teams also requires a high L&M input. Thus, management represents a new or intensified task in the field of academia while "managerialism" also implies professionalisation of the classical university administration. This is accompanied by new, different kinds of responsibilities, such as intensified PR work, relationships with alumni, international relations, career development, e-learning, fund-raising, and internal and external communication, all of which require special know-how as well as the involvement of experts. Although persons with the appropriate special expertise have been increasingly attracted to working with universities in recent years, this group is not yet large enough to transform the traditional university administration as a whole in the direction of management orientation (Clark, 1998). The newly arrived specialists are therefore confronted with the important task of defining processes of change in their immediate environment in order to be able to bring their expertise into the university organisation in an appropriate and adequate way.

As confirmed by our surveys, on the one hand there is a growing awareness of the special skills, competences and knowledge needed for the new L&M functions and roles in higher education institutions. However, this awareness is currently not focused and interpreted around a number of core aspects, but very diversified. It is also not expressed and organised in a focused and recognisable demand for specific training activities. Unlike the situation in the USA where from the 1960s onwards, the massification of higher education has led to a professionalization of L&M positions in the universities and colleges for which a formal qualification is required, in Europe higher education institutions have not taken similar kinds of initiatives to professionalise their L&M functions until now. Very rarely formal competences, skills and knowledge on higher education management are required for applying for a leadership or management position in a European higher education institution. Consequently, European higher education institutions, with to some extent the exception of the UK higher education institutions, have not created a market for specific higher education administrators and managers. A general administrative training or experience background, or specific experience in a higher education management area is regarded as sufficient for entering a management position in a higher education institution in Europe. As a consequence, there have been few incentives for the development of specific higher education L&M programmes and courses, and many initiatives have either experienced limited success, in the sense of few enrolled students, or have had such a general mission and such broad intended learning outcomes, that one can hardly speak of professionally oriented higher education management (and leadership) training programmes.

THE EUROPEAN NETWORK OF DEGREE PROGRAMME PROVIDERS

The fact that most of the programmes investigated are conducted within a network of partner organisations, or at least with guest lecturers, shows that cooperation is necessary. It can be assumed that most of the universities deal with the same problems, such as reaching the target audience, setting up alumni networks, convincing national ministries to support and promote the programmes, etc. The providers are looking for efficient solutions to establish and run higher education management programmes, so they search for (and find) partners who can help them solve the problems that arise. This shows that the field of higher education management cannot be covered by stand-alone approaches but by cooperative, coordinated further education offers and solutions – which seems to be a good basis for a common European method of resolution and guarantees.

Based on the results conducted for this overview, it would appear that the target audiences (the participants of the higher education management programmes) have clear ideas which topics and which forms are important for their work. In the development of new programme solutions, it is essential to analyse customer needs.

It is evident that the participants in most of the programmes enrol with prior work experience. Their experience makes workgroups manageable, but at the same

time the different kinds of experience need to be made compatible before the beginning of the programme. The participants' expertise and prior knowledge has to be built into the higher education management programmes' curricula.

The process of improving programmes has to have a strong international quality orientation, as does the process of implementing new programmes. If European higher education systems should adopt a more common approach, the management of the higher education institutions should be more internationally comprehensive. A newly established European network of higher education management programme providers helps to identify common problems and to develop new solutions in a wider context. The future of these programmes is highly determined by customer needs, relationship management between the participants and the higher education institutions at which they enrol, as well as further programme developments and cooperation between the providers. At the moment ten programme providers joined this initiative and many others showed interests to join this international network.

One of the elements of the working plan of the new European Network is to set up within the partnership a European alumni survey. This is a good example of a shift from product (programme) and single university orientation to relationship orientation and to a European exchange. The network will improve educational outcomes and encourage universities to develop a life cycle and process orientation, which leads to a permanent future direction and continuous development process. Such an orientation entails strategic alumni work as well as programme development.

Furthermore traditional ways of cooperation are also part of the networks mission. To establish student and lecturer exchange the partners work on a systemic comparison of modules and courses of the degree progammes. First student exchange activities, e.g. between MIP Milano, Danube University Krems and the London Institute of Education, are initial results of the network. Generally, regardless of regional differences, all higher education management programme providers have a mutual interest in strengthening their programmes' international perspective and networking via various methods. Therefore, besides lecturer exchange, sandwich programmes, student exchange, an exchange of modules, for example, as well as a European pool of lecturers and a You Tube channel of higher education management training providers are on the agenda of this new network.

OUTLOOK: MAPPING THE FIELD

There is a clear (emerging) need for higher education L&M training in many areas. In the first place this concerns training in strategic leadership aspects and in traditional management tasks, in areas such as quality assessment, personnel affairs, internationalisation, and financial administration. Training with respect to non-traditional management tasks, such as institutional ICT policy and relationship with the media, is regarded as less important. However, the training needs expressed in the MODERN survey show a great variety, and cover a large number of areas.

In general it can be argued that in the development of L&M training European higher education systems are in one of three categories. In the first category there is a clearly articulated focus on L&M training in higher education, with a long experience in a research-based understanding of the need for L&M training and some form of a specifically established national resource structure which provides a clear framework for the (further) development of L&M training and an impetus for the formalisation of training needs of higher education leaders and managers. In Europe only the UK is in this category. The second category consists of countries where there is an emerging national structure for L&M training issues in higher education, but this structure is not fully developed yet. In the countries in this category, there will be one or more national higher education L&M programmes, courses or seminars, e.g. for rectors or deans, or internationalisation administrators, but these activities are in general not needs assessment based, and are often provided by institutional buffer organisations. However, in these countries there is no sign yet of these training activities becoming part of the formal requirements for entering an institutional L&M position. In this category one finds countries such as Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, and Norway. Finally, many countries are at an early stage of the development of L&M training in higher education. Here L&M training activities are not nationally organised, and in general this training takes place 'on the job' in the higher education institution. There is no national agency that has taken the responsibility for developing L&M training activities, nor are there national L&M training programmes or courses. In this category one finds many of the Southern, Central and Eastern European countries.

Only a minority of the included higher education institutions have a specific staff development programme that is based on a well-articulated and needs-based L&M training strategy. These institutions organise most of the training activities themselves or in cooperation with other higher education institutions. But for most of the higher education institutions in Europe the emerging L&M training needs have not been translated yet into a clear demand for training programmes and courses of external providers. An additional factor here are the entrance requirements for L&M functions in European higher education institutions. These do not include a specific training in higher education management.

The providers included in the MODERN survey develop and offer programmes, courses or seminars either aimed at a very general set of target groups or a narrow professional group. This gives a picture of providers either located in a higher education institution offering broad academic degree programmes, or in a quasi-market environment with short specialized courses or seminars. Compared to the situation in the USA there is in Europe not yet a development of specialized professional training programmes for specific administrative tasks in higher education institutions, such as student affairs, institutional research, strategic planning. The majority of the respondents would support such a development, but is rather sceptical about its actual realization.

Most respondents feel that more should be done with respect to L&M training in their institution as well as their country. However, a majority of the respondents does not feel that there is a need for L&M training activities at the EU/European

level. The mentioned reason in the needs analysis and the results of the programme provision lead to following final conclusions:

- The widely recognized need in the practice of European higher education to professionalize institutional L&M functions and staff underlines the importance of training in higher education leadership and management in Europe. This market is not diversified so far and is in an early stage of professional development.
- Focus on national aspects is needed because higher education is still mainly a nationally funded and regulated sector. Therefore we see more a national and institutional need for the establishment of new and improvement of existing degree programmes and training activities than a need for investing in European level programmes and activities.
- As long as strategic L&M development at the institutional level is not linked to certain training activities and programmes, the attention for and involvement in training activities will be limited.
- Involvement in training activities relies on power, institutional culture and opportunity as well as benefits for the participants. Therefore career pathways as well as clear staff development strategies need to be developed at institutional level.
- Administrators need more management skills but also academics with leadership or management responsibilities need to be trained. Skills and competences in L&M have to be developed in an evolutionary way for both groups. These improvements have to be stimulated by the top leadership of higher education institutions.
- It might be beneficial in the further development of the European L&M programme and training activities supply to stimulate a close cooperation between different providers of these programmes and activities. Up to now the providers are isolated 'entities' responsible in most of the cases for institutional initiatives. International providers like associations provide usually short term programmes, and are in general not connected to the institutional providers.
- Both sides (demand and supply) could potentially benefit from a closer cooperation between providers. Content monitoring, learning from each other, faculty exchange could be mentioned here leading to possible benefits for the supply side. International student exchange, broader understanding of different elements as well as solutions within higher education systems and institutions could be discussed and analysed jointly.

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SIMON MARGINSON

8. AUSTRALIAN-BASED RESEARCH IN HIGHER EDUCATION STUDIES

INTRODUCTION: AUSTRALIA

Australia is a nation of 23.1 million people (ABS, 2013a) occupying the whole of an island continent at the west end of the Pacific Ocean in the Southern Hemisphere. It is a British settler-state based on the forcible appropriation of the land of the indigenous inhabitants, akin in that respect to Canada (the nation it resembles most closely) and the United States. Like the North American countries it is a federation based on the unification of originally separated colonial enclaves. Australia achieved national independence in 1901, though it retains the British monarch as the nominal head of state.

Australia is positioned geographically on the opposite side of the world to the United Kingdom and Europe, conferring both the disadvantages of isolation and the advantages of independence. Australia continues to be patterned by British norms in government, and policy, business, the professions, higher education and science. Nevertheless, Australia is increasingly influenced by its location close to Southeast and East Asia, which has become a region of exceptional economic dynamism. The majority of Australia's trade is with China, Korea, Japan and Taiwan and Singapore; and Asian migration has a growing demographic impact. The UK and Ireland used to be the largest provider of new migrants. India and China now occupy the first two places. The 2011 census found the Asian-born share of the population was at 10 per cent (ABS, 2013b).

In Australia population is small relative to the landmass of 7.7 million square kilometres and is concentrated in a handful of coastal cities. This has implications for the higher education system. First, the bulk of the country's larger and more research-active institutions are in Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane. Second, given the geographic spread, there is some higher education in the larger provincial cities, though no provincial institution is a front rank player in research. Third, issues of distance education are significant, though not as important as might be expected because of the population concentrations on the coasts. Fourth, students tend to be mobile within their cities of birth rather than between them. There is not a national market in the sense of the United States. However, academic faculty and researchers are mobile on the national scale.

Australian higher education was patterned along English and Scottish lines and the sectors in UK and Australia continue to resemble each other closely, from the Treasury-driven polity and the broad policy frameworks in higher education, to cultures of academic work, faculty promotion and the doctorate. In 2011 there were

B.M. Kehm and C. Musselin (eds.), The Development of Higher Education Research in Europe, 87–101.

1.2 million students in higher education, in institutions offering degree programs of at least three years in duration (DIICCSRTE, 2013), and a larger number in sub-degree programs in Vocational Education and Training (VET). More than 90 per cent of all higher education students were enrolled in public institutions constituted by individual Acts of Parliament. The 36 public universities on the federal government's schedule, plus three private universities that are partly regulated and funded by government, dominate the forms of higher education. All of these institutions offer programs at doctoral level and nearly all offer a comprehensive suite of professional degrees. Between institutions there is substantial variation in research intensity. On average the institutions on the principal schedule receive just over 40 per cent of all income from government sources, with almost 40 per cent constituted by all forms of fees and charges. Public expenditure on all tertiary education in 2010 as a proportion of GDP was 0.8 per cent, well below the OECD average of 1.1 per cent. Private expenditure is relatively high at 0.9 per cent (OECD, 2013, p. 193). Tuition is relatively high but supported by a system of tuition loans based on income contingent repayments. This eliminates most price-based disincentives to enrol.

Participation in tertiary education in Australia is relatively high, and more than one third of 25-34 year olds hold degree level qualifications. As in many OECD countries there is much policy emphasis on social inclusion and boosting the participation of students from poorer families. About 15 per cent of the higher education enrolment is comprised by students from the bottom quartile in socio-economic status terms. Official policy is to lift this share from 15 to 20 per cent by the year 2020 but progress has been slow (James, Karmel, & Bexley, 2013). As elsewhere, it has proven easier to expand the size of the system than to redistribute its benefits across the population. Participation is weaker than average for rural and remote students, and indigenous people enroll at about half the rate suggested by their share of the Australian population. Distance education only partly bridges the gap for remote communities. Much official and institutional effort has gone into strengthening indigenous education but so far no clear strategies have been devised that hybridize traditional culture, authority and identity with the modern higher education system. Indigenous families are especially under-represented in STEM and in the more prestigious professions such as Medicine. Women comprise 56 per cent of first degree students and almost half the doctoral students but remain dramatically under-represented in engineering and technologies at about 15 per cent (DIICCSRTE, 2013).

On the other hand, first and second generation migrant families – particularly those originating from China and Vietnam – are sharply over-represented in university education relative to their share of the Australian population, and the enrolment of cross-border international students is very high. Building international education has been a priority of government for 25 years and it has become a vital source of revenue. A large proportion of international students, perhaps a third, become permanent residents after graduation and constitute much of the skilled migration intake. The OECD's *Education at a Glance 2013* notes that in 2011, 20.8 per cent of students enrolled in Australia in degree granting

institutions had crossed the national border for education. This was the highest proportion of any OECD nation, though UK was not far behind at 18.3 per cent (OECD, 2013, 317). Four fifths of Australia's international students are from Asia, with the largest source countries being China, India, Malaysia and Vietnam. Apart from some scholarships for doctoral students international education is run on a commercial basis, and in 2011 generated 17.5 per cent of the revenue of higher education institutions (DIICCSRTE, 2013). International education at all levels is Australia's fourth largest export industry after coal, iron ore and goal, ahead of tourism and all agricultural sectors. International students in higher education tend to be concentrated in first degree and Masters programs in business and technologies.

On the global scale research activity in Australia is stronger in breadth of activity than in depth. In 2012 there were 19 Australian institutions in the Shanghai Academic Ranking of World Universities top 500 universities, a good result for a nation of Australia's size. In its spread of capacity the Australian system resembles Canada and the Netherlands. However, the highest placed Australian institution in ARWU in 2012 was the University of Melbourne at 57, whereas Australia's closest comparator Canada had two universities in the world top 40. There were four Australian institutions in the top 100 (ARWU, 2013). In a Thomson-ISI summary of aggregate citations for the 2001-2011 period – this covers research papers produced in government research laboratories and the corporate sector as well as universities – Australia ranked 10th nation in the world on volume of citations but 17th on average citations per paper. The rate of citation was above the European average in five disciplinary areas – Veterinary Science, Energy, Engineering, Earth and Planetary Science and Medicine. In most fields of research the citation rate was between the European average and the world average. In contrast, in the UK all fields of research were above European average (OCS, 2013). While Australia's per capita income is on par with the UK and most of Western Europe its citation rates in science have lagged behind.

THE FIELD OF RESEARCH IN HIGHER EDUCATION STUDIES

As in other countries, scholarship and research in higher education studies is applied in character, draws on a range of social science disciplines, and is closely shaped by official policy agendas and the information and business needs of individual universities, so that academic research and publishing in higher education shades into institutional research and consultancy conducted partly outside the public domain. Higher education studies is a relatively small zone in universities. There is only one developed academic unit devoted to the field, the University of Melbourne's Centre for the Study of Higher Education, founded in 1968, with about thirty doctoral students. Some doctoral students in other disciplines such as political science and policy studies, educational psychology, sociology, history and economics pursue topics related to higher education; and several university education schools have one or two scholars focused on higher

education. Academic development units attached to the universities pursue some research, mostly in relation to teaching, learning, assessment and management.

Much of research in higher education – defining 'research' in the broadest sense – is located outside the strictly academic domain. National educational organizations pursue research and publishing that is advocacy related, and there is some research work inside government, but most of this work does not lead to academic monographs and journal articles. The number of monographs published within Australia or by international publishers, and focused on higher education, is very small. However, two of the world journals in higher education studies were developed by national education organizations in Australia: *Higher Education Research and Development*, and *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*. Another organization publishes *Australian Universities Review.* Further, Australian scholars have a strong aggregate presence in the journal literature, relative to the size of the country, and a small number of scholars are very active at global level. Australia has supplied three of the recent and current editors-in-chief of *Higher Education* and *Studies in Higher Education*.

The chapter now examines, in order, research in the national organizations that cover higher education (including government), the work of academic development units, and the University of Melbourne Centre for the Study of Higher Education. It then looks at recent patterns of publishing and scholarship in the field, and reflects on the preoccupations of Australian scholars; and the relation between research contents, and the Australian system and context.

Informal research in national education organizations

Australian higher education is serviced by organizations that foster and pursue the collective interests of all universities *qua* institutions, of differing groups of universities, of university faculty and other employees, and of students and others. As noted most research by these organizations does not enter the public domain. Nevertheless the volume of discussion papers, survey reports, briefing papers and data analyses is large, much larger than the volume of academic publishing, even without considering web-alone data. Though it does not generate codified knowledge of the academic kind this informal research informs practices in the sector. In addition a large number of sector conferences are held, entailing conference papers. Sometimes these become academic journal articles.

The members of Universities Australia are the 39 universities on the government's schedule. These universities are represented by their Chief Executive Officer, designated the Vice-Chancellor (and often also President). Universities Australia undertakes research and fulfils a policy and advocacy function on behalf of members. For example it conducts policy and advocacy regarding: research, including research students, postgraduate scholarships, research quality assessment, Australia's intellectual property system, international research engagement, commercialisation, and the future academic workforce. It also conducts surveys into public attitudes to universities and university funding. The

findings of most such research are available on the public record, being normally accessed via the Universities Australia (2013) website.

Alongside and additional to Universities Australia – and sometimes competing with it – are the bodies that cover particular groupings of universities that consider themselves to have common interests. The most important of these, and the sponsor of the largest volume of policy-related research, is known as the Go8 (Group of Eight), which represents the eight leading research-intensive universities. The mission of the Go8 secretariat includes 'influencing national policies for higher education and university research,' and 'providing high quality policy analysis and advice services to its members and their staff.' It also prepares discussion papers, and factual data about Australia's research universities, mostly summaries and interpretations of statistics prepared and issued by federal government departments and the Australian Bureau of Statistics (Go8, 2013). The Australian Technology Network (ATN, 2013) represents five designated universities of technology. Its research is largely limited to its advocacy function, producing less of broad policy interest. Likewise the Innovative Research University group, representing seven research-focused institutions younger than the Go8, concentrates on advocacy-related research and data (IRU, 2013); as does the Regional Universities Network (2013), representing seven institutions outside the main cities. The chief executive officers of the Go8 and the IRU universities are active in the higher education studies literature, as are some university leaders, one of whom has co-authored two books on higher education policy in Australia (Coaldrake & Stedman, 2013). That same university vice-chancellor was also the 2013 President of the OECD's Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) program.

In mid-2013 the National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU, 2013) represented 25,000 members in all universities on the public schedule as well as a number of small private higher education institutions. The NTEU undertakes research and policy analysis focused on the higher education sector, and related aspects of public policy impacting on the working conditions of its members. This includes research regarding work and careers, academic and intellectual freedom, casual faculty, research regulation, gender pay equity, workload and occupational stress, and intellectual property. Essentially research is undertaken to inform campaigns and union-activity. Much of it is published openly. However, it rarely enters the global academic literature. The NTEU's main contribution to academic scholarship is the publication twice a year of the journal *Australian Universities Review,* which carries refereed articles. This journal began in 1958.

The Association for Tertiary Education Managers (ATEM, 2013), which in mid-2013 had 1,350 individual members, encourages institutional research and research skills development among members. It provides awards and grants, including some that support research. It is also the nominal auspicing publisher six times a year of the *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, a refereed journal which operates independently of the ATEM and is oriented to research and scholarship in higher education studies. ATEM also issues occasional research-based working papers; and the website publishes members' research that meets the criteria for

inclusion. These cover a mix of academic and institutional research: doctoral work by members, the outcomes of administrative projects, policy-related studies, and reviews.

Government

Between the early 1960s and the late 1990s the federal government was the most important single sponsor of research on higher education. Its own officers, working in departments and specialist education commissions, prepared analyses of issues and problems in higher education, many of which were published. On a larger scale, it sponsored research by faculty in universities and consultants outside the higher education sector. Much additional research-based discussion was triggered by the periodic commissions and boards of inquiry and review that punctuated policy development in Australia. While little of this work became part of the global literature in higher education studies, within the country it fostered a sophisticated policy research culture with an applied focus.

In the last 15 years there has been a substantial shift in the federal government's relationship to research on higher education. Work conducted by its own officials is now rarely made public, and little is sponsored compared to the patterns of the preceding forty years. Government discussion papers tend to be marketing oriented, or focused on regulation, rather than providing evidence-based discussion of issues of public policy choice as previously. The main research function carried out by government and specific to higher education is the compilation and publication of high quality statistical series covering students, employed academic and professional staff, financial expenditures and research activities (DIICCSRTE, 2013). However, specific units of government provide research-based data, information summaries and occasional discussion papers in designated areas. For example, regular data provided by Australian Education International contributes to commercial development, university planning and policy debate on international education (AEI, 2013).

Academic development units in universities

Nearly all of Australia's 39 universities support academic development units. These are primarily focused on teaching, learning and assessment, including educational technologies. Some also engage with management and university organization. Many, especially in smaller universities, provide faculty with one-to-one counseling on teaching matters. While the largest number of such units operate on a central basis and focus on generic definitions of academic work, in some larger universities there are units also at the discipline of Faculty/School level, some of which combine academic development with study skill building among students. As apparent in the literature there are some tensions between generic approaches to teaching and learning, and discipline-based approaches.

Academic development units typically provide short- and long-course staff development, and assistance and advice tailored to the needs of particular

disciplines and university service units. Some focus on graduate employment and related issues, but in other universities this area is handled by a specialist unit separate from the academic development function. While the main focus of academic development units is to the institution, especially the servicing of the university executive and disciplinary units, some academic developers work on policy-related issues and consultancy; some conduct research; and some contribute to the journal literature, mostly in relation to teaching and learning.

All of these academic units produce informal research and conduct action research projects that do not lead to journal articles or book chapters. At the same time, unlike the national education organizations discussed above, most such units have active incentives to produce academic publications. Many academic development staff hold designated academic posts. Publications assist the profile of their units, the publication volume of their institutions, and their own prospects of academic promotion. A minority of these academic staff pursue long term research programs and compete successfully for project grants. The federal government maintains an Office of Teaching and Learning (OTL) that supports applied research in areas like online learning and internationalization.

Academic developers are organized on a voluntary national basis in the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA, 2013). According to its website HERDSA 'is a scholarly society for people committed to the advancement of higher and tertiary education. It promotes the development of higher education policy, practice and the study of teaching and learning.' The HERDSA annual conference platforms much research-based work. The Society publishes *Higher Education Research and Development*, which is the highest cited of the three Australian-origin journals in higher education studies.

The Centre for the Study of Higher Education and others

There have been a number of individual academic scholars of higher education who have been regularly productive in the global literature, though unsupported by centres/units or colleagues in the field. Such individuals have been located in academic development units, the offices of Deputy Vice-Chancellors responsible for teaching and learning, or in general faculties/schools of education, at universities including Sydney, Queensland, Western Australia, Monash, Griffith, Western Sydney and the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology. From time to time there is also significant work on higher education by scholars in other disciplines. One is economist Ross Williams at the University of Melbourne, the designer of the U21 ranking of higher education systems (U21, 2013).

There have been larger concentrations of academic expertise only in two places – the University of New England (UNE) and the University of Melbourne.

For two decades the University of New England housed Grant Harman, the long-standing editor-in-chief of *Higher Education* who died earlier in 2013, Kay Harman and Lyn Meek. Meek became co-editor of *Studies in Higher Education* in 2012. While at UNE this group and their research associates and doctoral students contributed to scholarship in higher education studies in many areas. They were

prolific in the literature on policy and regulation, the academic profession, research and commercialization, quality assurance, and comparative studies in Asia and Europe. Grant Harman and Meek together provided the base research that underpinned the federal government's development of Australia's first national system of quality assurance in 1999. However, after Grant Harman's retirement and Meek's departure, activity at the UNE wound down.

This left the University of Melbourne Centre for the Study of Higher Education (CSHE) – always much larger than the UNE group – as the sole academic unit in Australia with a leading role in each of global scholarship in higher education, national policy-related consultancy, and public discussion of higher education matters. The CSHE combines these functions with academic development activities within the university; a strong presence in national conversations about teaching, learning and the student experience; advice and servicing for university executive and committees; and doctoral training. In mid-2013 the CSHE housed four academic faculty in continuing positions, and six more in contract-based positions and supported largely by project funding, in addition to professional staff and a large complement of doctoral students.

The CSHE was founded in 1968 as an academic and university development centre. Its website notes that 'the CSHE is one of the few centres world-wide that sustains a blend of higher education research at systems level with effective service to its host institution.' Among Australian universities it has the major policy research role in areas such as participation and social equity, student financing, the student experience, the academic profession, postgraduate training, globalization and international education. There is significant work also on international education. The CSHE's work is largely in the applied tradition of higher education studies and the volume of its consultancy work, largely for government, exceeds the work published in monographs and journals.

The CSHE conducts some fundamental research in areas such as markets and competition in education, global mobility, university rankings, national and global public goods in higher education, and higher education in Asia. This is primarily carried out by Simon Marginson. In 2012, Marginson was appointed as one of the two Editors-in-Chief of *Higher Education*, with Jussi Välimaa from Finland. Marginson is one of the world's leading scholars in the field, if citations are a measure. Richard James, CSHE director from 2006-2012, is recognized as the nation's leading expert on social equity in higher education, and is also a leading authority on the regulation of academic standards. Present Director Sophie Arkoudis is an expert on English language standards in higher education.

While the CSHE is well networked in Europe and its faculty regularly attend the main conferences on higher education in the UK and USA, its orientation to Asia has increased sharply in recent years, paralleling a more general shift of orientation by Australian higher education. It has developed especially close links with higher education research in Japan. It has an annual research seminar with the Research Institute for Higher Education at Hiroshima University and works with centres at Nagoya University and Tohoku University. CSHE faculty are a frequent presence in Asian regional conferences. Active relations have developed with scholars in the

field of higher education studies in China, Korea, Vietnam, Malaysia and Singapore as well as Japan. CSHE is also affiliated with the Pullias Center for Higher Education at the University of Southern California.

The CSHE conducts by far the largest Australian doctoral training program in higher education studies, with 30 students enrolled in mid-2013. Half of these students were from East and Southeast Asia, including a large group from Vietnam. The student projects covered such areas as international and comparative education and aspects of globalization, cross-cultural learning, English language teaching, educational technologies, university management and organization, quality assurance, and institutional benchmarking (CSHE, 2013).

The LH Martin Institute for Tertiary Education Leadership and Management (LH Martin, 2013), located alongside the CSHE at the University of Melbourne, specializes in short and long programs of management training. It is partly financed by the federal government. Its Director Leo Goedegebuure has a long track record of scholarship on higher education, and it has a small number of doctoral students, but it is primarily a training centre, not a research centre. The Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER, 2013), which is by far the largest research organization in Australia that is focused on education, conducts projects for government and international organizations. The ACER's expertise is largely in psychology-based approaches and it has a strong role in assessment and the design and management of large scale testing, including the OECD's PISA program. It has an active higher education consultancy led by Hamish Coates.

AUSTRALIA SCHOLARSHIP IN THE FIELD: TWO JOURNALS

One way to trace the role of Australian-based scholarship in the field is to survey it in the principal journals. Here two journals are examined: *Higher Education*, and *Studies in Higher Education*, over the ten-year period 2003-2102 inclusive. Arguably, these are the two leading journals in the field outside the United States, and more inclusive of world scholarship than are the American journals.

In *Higher Education,* 720 articles were published between 2003 and 2012. Australian institutions contributed 111, or 15.4 per cent of these articles—a very strong result for a nation of Australia's size. In *Studies in Higher Education*, 459 articles were published in the time period, with Australian institutions contributing a still higher proportion: 99, or 21.6 per cent of all articles. Annual numbers of articles from Australia fluctuated between 5 and 18 in *Higher Education,* and 3 and 17 in *Studies*. Table 1 summarizes the relative contribution of articles by authors working in Australian institutions. Of the papers by authors working in Australian institutions, 16.2 per cent of those in *Higher Education* and 10.1 per cent of those in *Studies in Higher Education* involved collaboration with at least one author designated as working from another country. These figures indicate that scholars in Australian institutions make a contribution to these journals much larger than would be expected on the basis of system size – even allowing for the fact that Australia is an English-speaking country and thus enjoys some advantages in academic publishing, this does not explain the strength of the performance of

Australian-based scholars – but Australian rates of international collaboration are lower than for scholars from Europe. This latter is partly a function of Australia's geographic isolation and the absence of a regional context of the kind found in Europe or Latin America.

Table 1. Contributions by Australian-based scholars to Higher Education and Studies in Higher Education, 2003-2012

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2003-2012
HIGHER EDUCATION											
Australian articles*	5	8	6	11	13	14	18	10	11	15	111
All articles	45	48	49	53	81	84	91	83	90	96	720
Australian as % of total	11.1	16.7	12.2	20.7	16.0	16.7	19.8	12.0	12.2	15.6	15.4
STUDIES IN HIGHER ED.											
Australian articles*	7	12	5	3	11	8	11	12	17	13	99
All articles	26	38	40	41	40	44	58	56	56	60	459
Australian as % of total	26.9	31.6	12.5	7.3	27.5	18.2	19.0	21.4	30.4	21.7	21.6

* Articles generated from Australian institutions irrespective of the nationality of the author

Balance of themes

Table 2 considers the broad contents of the Australian-origin papers in the two journals under consideration.

A large group of articles in both journals were primarily focused on teaching and learning – 32.4 per cent of those from Australian institutions that were published in *Higher Education*, and 30.3 per cent of those in *Studies in Higher Education*. This reflects the strength of academic development units within higher education studies in Australia, as well as the centrality of this broad topic area to research in higher education studies as a whole. When it is remembered that Australian contributors are also responsible for much of the content of *Higher Education Research and Development* it is apparent that teaching, learning and assessment are the main strands of research on higher education in Australia. However, it is difficult to identify any really major Australian-based contributions to the field of knowledge in the period under review, on teaching, learning and assessment, as indicated for example by citation levels. Many perhaps most published Australian studies in the sub-field are small and localized and have been derived from practical research tasks at institutional level. The result is a reflexive

culture of teaching and learning, widely shared, but one that makes a limited contribution to seminal thinking at global level.

Table 2. Principal contents of articles by Australian-based scholars published in Higher Education and Studies in Higher Education, 2003-2012

Principal contents	Number of Australian* articles in *Higher Education*	Proportion of all Australian* articles in *Higher Education*	Number of Australian* articles in *Studies in Higher Education*	Proportion of all Australian* articles in *Studies in Higher Education*
		%		%
Globalization, international education, comparative education	21	18.9	2	2.0
Higher education policy, funding and regulation in Australia	6	5.4	1	1.0
Quality assurance and standards	1	0.9	5	1.0
Research, research training, innovation, commercialization	8	7.2	37	37.4
Institutional leadership, management and governance	2	1.8	4	4.0
Teaching, learning and assessment	36	32.4	30	30.3
Academic faculty	18	16.2	7	7.1
Student services, experience, engagement and satisfaction	12	10.8	9	9.1
Business activities and organization of institutions	1	0.9	1	1.0
Indigenous higher education	1	0.9	1	1.0
All other topics	5	4.5	2	2.0
Total, all topic areas	111	100.0	99	100.0

*Australian = at least one author based in an Australian higher education institution

Another large group of articles – 10.8 per cent of those in *Higher Education*, 7.4 per cent of all articles from Australian institutions in *Studies in Higher Education* – were primarily about aspects of research, including performance evaluation, research training, innovation policies and commercialization. This reflects the growing emphasis in Australia, as elsewhere, on research performance, the innovation (knowledge) economy, and the role of research in university rankings. Also, recent Australian policy has focused more than previously on improving quality in research training (Palmer, 2013) and there has been focus likewise in institutions. Again, though it is difficult to identify, there are no really major Australian contributions to our thinking about research.

In *Higher Education*, other important areas included globalization, international education and international students, and comparative education (18.9 per cent of Australian-based papers). In terms of quality, this cluster of research is perhaps the strongest Australian sub-field, perhaps reflecting the need for isolated Australians to reach out to connect, coupled with the multiple character of their connections. As noted, history drives them to connect to UK, USA and Europe while geography positions them on the edge of Asia. A number of scholars have made significant contributions to comparative education, including Tony Welch, Phil Jones, Ravinder Sidhu, Martin Hayden, Harman, Meek, Marginson and others. Some Marginson articles and chapters on globalization attract strong world attention, particularly a 2006 paper on national and global competition in higher education, his 2002 argument with Gary Rhoades about the 'glonacal' (global/national/local) character of higher education, and later work for the OECD; and Fazal Rizvi, Bob Lingard, Jane Kenway and others have also made prominent contributions to the world discussion about higher education and globalization. A number of scholars have contributed to broadly cited research on international education, including Marginson, Welch, Rizvi, Chris Ziguras, Simone Volet, and others. Australia's large international education sector generates a significant flow of research, some marketing related, and some designated in Table 2 as teaching and learning-related, and some falling within the category of critical social science and policy studies.

In addition, in *Higher Education* there is some work on academic faculty (16.2 per cent), student services, experience, engagement and satisfaction (10.8) and Australian policy, regulation and funding (5.4 per cent). It may be surprising that there is not more work on Australian policy and related areas, given the attention in the 1990s literature to reforms in higher education in Australia.

In *Studies in Higher Education*, other important topic areas were student services, experience, engagement and satisfaction (9.1 per cent) and academic faculty (7.1 per cent). Work on globalization, international education and international students, and comparative education played a relatively minor role in *Higher Education Studies*. This may reflect the preoccupations of that journal's editors, but it is also a function of the availability of alternate outlets for research in the broad topic area, including the journals *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *Comparative Education, Comparative Education Review*, and *Compare*.

CONCLUSIONS

Higher education studies in Australia is dominated by applied research, shading into institutional research and a large volume of other activities that draw on research techniques but do not generate lasting contributions to the academic literature. The informal and action research agendas are much larger than the scholarly agendas. The number of active academic research scholars is relatively small compared to the number of institutional researchers and of academic developers who use action research methods, and compared to the large bulk of advocacy-related research and policy analyses produced by the organizations representing institutions and academic and professional staff.

Of the academic research bases only the Centre for the Study of Higher Education at the University of Melbourne has achieved a level of research concentration akin to that of the large centres in the field worldwide in Netherlands, Japan and the United States. As with other academic development units, the bulk of even that Centre's work is localized and service related; and much of its consultancy work for government does not lead to published academic monographs and articles. The CSHE is distinctive, however, in that alongside the conventional applied research and consultancy activities, it maintains a basic research program and vigorous publishing by a small group of faculty, is active globally, and houses a large cohort of doctoral students.

Government no longer commissions published research at scale or sponsors large numbers of projects leading to published research, as it did in the period 1960-2000. In aggregate less is published on Australian higher education than during those years. However little of that previous work found its way into the academic literature and the volume of academic writing, in the form of journal articles and monographs, may have expanded since then, particularly in relation to teaching, learning and assessment. Academic faculty have stronger performance incentives to publish now than at any previous period; that is one reason for the large volume of relatively localized studies of teaching and learning.

The lists of articles from *Higher Education* and *Higher Education Studies* are also notable for what is not there, or is underplayed. In the period under review, in these two journals there was relatively little published on online and distance education, which one might expect to be a strong theme in Australia given the geographic spread. However, there are specialist journals working in that topic area. It is disappointing to see that there were only two articles on indigenous higher education, one in each journal. More generally, there was relatively little work on access, participation and related issues of social equity, themes of long-standing importance in policy and institutional provision in Australia, that received renewed government attention in 2009 and after. (Some such work is included in Table 2 under the student experience.)

The relative weakness of work that reflects Australia's particular circumstances of geography and history, as outlined in the opening of this chapter – with the exception perhaps of research on international education and the growing interest in Australia/Asia interaction – is intriguing. It suggests that Australian work tends

to fall between schools: either localized work that is often free of national context, and work in the world literature that tilts towards universality rather than reflecting a nuanced Australian location. Arguably, on its own, neither kind of work enables sufficient effective purchase on the national context. Nevertheless the globalized work can contribute to the field more broadly; and a small number of productive individuals have disproportionate impacts on the world stage and occupy positions of scholarly leadership.

Perhaps this failure to explore the middle ground, in which work is both nationally and locally sensitive *and* connects to the global conversation, reflects a lacuna in Australian identity. Though the point has yet to be investigated in detail, it is likely that there are close parallels between research on higher education in Australia and the corresponding body of work in the UK. Certainly, many leading researchers move seamlessly between the two jurisdictions, such as Paul Ramsden and David Boud. It may be that knowledge creation in higher education studies (as in many other research fields) in Australia still bears close relations with the colonial origins of the settler state. The neglect of indigenous higher education, a savage outcome of the colonial legacy, emphasizes the point. One senses that the field definition of Australian work in higher education studies is an unfinished project. It is likely that in the coming decades Australian work in this field, like many others, will be reshaped in the encounter with East Asia.

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PEDRO NUNO TEIXEIRA

9. REFLECTING ABOUT CURRENT TRENDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH: A VIEW FROM THE JOURNALS

INTRODUCTION[i]

Being mainly a field of studies and not a discipline, higher education has had to develop an institutional network in order to support and nurture the community of higher education researchers. Researchers working on new fields have to develop persistent and effective networks of communication with the rest of the practitioners in the field and consolidate themselves as an intellectual community (Knorr Cetina, 1999; Becher & Trowler, 2001). There are many different people to be addressed: specialized colleagues, fellows in the various disciplines working or interested in higher education topics, students and potential new researchers, and practitioners and policy-makers. The diffusion of a new field of studies among these different types of audiences requires different approaches.

The proponents of each new contribution to the field certainly aim to get recognition for their ideas by their scientific peers. As a result they will be interested in creating a community of researchers who are specialised in the area which will be primarily responsible for advancing and developing extensions of new theoretical and empirical advances. This requires interaction in professional meetings, specialised publications, and specialised associations gathering together those focused on that topic of research (Price, 1963; Whitley, 2000). At the same time, in order to endure (or survive) a new field has to attract new young researchers and convince them of the usefulness and vitality of the field. Moreover, these people need places to teach and research in order to continue to develop and expand the field.

One of the major objectives of authors producing research work is for it to be disseminated and accepted by their academic peers. Nowadays this has been increasingly achieved via the publication of research results in specialised academic journals. An important part of this process of dissemination is through discussion at professional meetings which can provide feedback on preliminary results. The role of the dissemination of research results has been increasingly taken over by scientific journals since monographs seem to have lost ground in many disciplines. The main scientific journals in each field play a double role within the scientific communities they serve. On the one hand, they act as a mechanism of the certification of an addition to its body of accepted knowledge. On the other hand, they become an instrument through which individual scientists

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compete for priority and (peer) recognition (Hargens, 1988; Whitley et al., 2010). In fact, by publishing in the main journals researchers are not only disseminating and achieving recognition, they are also promoting the development of their research agenda by stimulating further research on the topic by others (Stephan, 1996, 2012). For these reasons it becomes important, and therefore difficult, to get access to the core journals of any field of discipline.

In this chapter we will reflect on the state of the art of higher education research by primarily looking at some of the leading international journals in the field. Previous examples of this type of exercise in this field have been used to monitor trends in higher education research, to assess the link between higher education research and policy and to identify patterns of communication among leading scholars (Tight, 2007, 2008, 2012). We will see what portrait is provided by those specialized publications and analyse what insights they can provide about the composition and interests of this community of researchers. We will then reflect about what this current portrait suggests regarding the future outlook of higher education research in Europe, with a particular emphasis placed on the role of CHER in this regard.

JOURNALS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education is a reasonably recent area of study. In Europe, the development of higher education research was even more recent than in the USA, mostly at the turn of the 1970s. The European research centres have not generally been linked to graduate programs and to the training of new researchers who are specialized in higher education. However in recent decades this has started to change, and several research centres have given increasing attention to post-graduate education and research training activities (see Altbach & Engberg, 2001). As a result the community of higher education researchers has expanded accordingly. One of the aspects that reflect the growth of this community has been the expansion of specialized publications (see Tight, 2010) which reflect the supply and demand forces in the market for research ideas. On the one hand the expansion of research outlets reflects the potential of supplying scientific articles by a growing community of researchers. On the other hand, the creation and consolidation of scientific publications stimulates the demand for scientific publications through professional, intellectual, and symbolic rewards.

The portrait provided by the analysis of the journals may produce interesting insights about the current patterns of research in leading international publications, even though it will certainly need to be qualified and completed. This portrait reflects the priorities of editors and authors and their interaction in the marketplace for ideas. It is influenced not only by authors' research interests and agendas, but also by their anticipation of what is publishable and how and where it is publishable. Therefore, when authors submit their articles to each of these journals it is likely that they have pondered about the interests and tastes of the editors of each journal. There is therefore an issue of self-selection. Moreover, we are only analysing those articles that have been accepted and eventually published after an

iterative and often long process of discussion between editors, authors and referees that will mould the final result that we have access to. As a result we are only dealing with a partial portrait of the current research, mainly that part of all the submitted work that referees and editors considered particularly relevant and well crafted.

Table 1 presents a selection of some of the leading research journals in higher education. With the exception of the two oldest journals, we see that most of the others have emerged in the 1970s and 1980s, and are therefore rather close to the time of the establishment of CHER. Most of the journals are based in either North America, Australia or in Europe (especially the UK). This is due to the fact that higher education research developed early in those regions. It also reflects the fact that we are focusing on journals which are publishing in English. This option means that the portrait will also need to take into account that there are important language and cultural issues that affect the international dissemination of the results of higher education research. Not all authors will be equally motivated or equipped to present their work in a way that may be attractive to an international

Table 1. Main International Journals in Higher Education Research

Journal	Year of Foundation	Current Number of Issues per Year	Affiliation
The Journal of Higher Education	1930	6	AIR/Ohio State University Press/USA
Higher Education Quarterly	1947	4	SRHE/UK
Higher Education	1972	12 (two volumes of 6 issues each)	Springer/Europe
Research in Higher Education	1973	8	Springer/USA
Studies in Higher Education	1976	6	SRHE/UK
The Review of Higher Education	1977	4	ASHE/USA
The Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management (formerly the *Journal of Tertiary Education Management*)	1979	6	ATEM/ LH Martin Institute/Australia
Higher Education Policy	1988	4	International Association of Universities/Paris

audience. Many authors will have to present their work in a language that is not their native one, and as often happens in those situations they will be likely to express their views in a peculiar way when regarding both form and content. The old saying of "traduttore, traditore" is relevant here, even if it often happens as an unintended by-product of the linguistic and cultural translation of different realities into another language, and in a way that is considered to be relevant for a vaguely defined 'international audience.' Therefore there are issues of intellectual and linguistic conformity to what are considered to be international standards that are more congenial to some authors than to others.

However, and despite those caveats, this portrait is an essential part of current research in higher education. This relevance is certainly due to the fact that the rising importance of English as a main academic *lingua franca* has created incomparable advantages for the international dissemination of academic work published in English compared to when it is available in other languages. Moreover, the work published in English, and in particular in academic outlets with wide circulation, is likely to have an important effect in shaping subsequent work since it will potentially be read by a much larger number of researchers and influence their views and approaches to specific themes in higher education research. Influential articles may even create waves of interest and research that will multiply research attempts to replicate, debate, contest, or extend those original efforts, and this is far more likely to happen if those articles have been published in major academic journals with an international circulation.

Due to the purposes of this volume, we will focus on European-based and international journals which specialize in higher education research.[ii] We have therefore excluded those journals that either do not have a very strong international presence or which have a tradition of publishing national research. We have also excluded the American and Australian based journals since they tend to reflect the research agenda and style promoted in those communities of higher education researchers (see Tight, 2007). This may overlap with that of the members of CHER in some aspects but it largely corresponds to different communities than those attending the meetings of CHER (and presents some differences regarding the focus and method of research). We have also not considered other journals which are not specialized in higher education research (including education journals). This does not mean that higher education is (or even should be) only be published in its specialized journals, but that a mature specialized community of researchers will tend to privilege those research outlets in order to reach their primary audience. To a large extent, when higher education researchers publish their work in other type of journals this can be interpreted as signalling their intention to communicate with other research communities (and possibly certain types of reputational rewards which are different from those provided by the community of higher education researchers). The journals which are excluded deserve their own analysis, but the space limitations of this chapter prevent that.

As a result, in this article we have analysed articles published in the following journals: *Higher Education* (HE), *Higher Education Policy* (HEP), *Higher Education Quarterly* (HEQ), and *Studies in Higher Education* (SHE). Regarding

the period, we have chosen those articles published in the volumes of each of these journals for the years 2010 and 2011 since we wanted to get a rather updated picture of current research in the field. In the case of *Higher Education* this has meant covering the first volume of each year since this journal publishes two volumes per year (we have excluded two volumes otherwise the sample of articles covered would be dominated by this journal, and that would bias the analysis). In the next section we will analyse that database regarding certain main aspects of their authors and themes.

MAIN TRENDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION RESEARCH

In order to get an overview of the authors and the content of the articles published in higher education journals we have created a database of the articles published in those two years for these four higher education journals. The database was statistically analysed in order to try to answer some basic questions regarding major characteristics of the authors and some of the major themes addressed by them in those articles. We have tried to learn who those authors were regarding the geographical distribution of their affiliation, their type of institutional affiliation, and the main themes covered in the articles. In the cases of multiple authorship we have analysed the corresponding author (otherwise the database would be biased towards those articles with multiple authors). We have then tried to combine some of those issues by trying to see discover the extent to which some of those characteristics were linked in any meaningful way. For all of these aspects we present the data separately by journal, as this information may be relevant to ascertain the extent to which there are common patterns among different journals or whether they have different profiles regarding the type of authors and themes published in recent years.[iii]

A brief characterization of authors

The first aspect that we have analysed has been who the authors are that are publishing in the journals that we have selected. The two aspects covered were the institutional affiliation and the geographical location. Regarding the first aspect we have identified two major groups of affiliations – academic and non-academic ones. Although we are talking about a research field and scientific publications, it is plausible that not all of the higher education researchers are associated to a higher education or research institution. This is especially the case in view of the important policy orientation of the field. As a result, we have considered the possibility of having authors affiliated with administrative and policy units at both the systems and the institutional level. Regarding academic affiliations, we have considered their distribution across a number of fields in order to identify which disciplinary areas seem to be more involved with higher education research. This does not necessarily mean that it is the disciplinary background of those authors since they may have evolved in terms of their research and academic careers, but it

provides a good approximation to the disciplinary composition of the community of higher education researchers.

Regarding the institutional affiliation, we can observe that the link to academic and research organizations is clearly the dominant situation. Only a small group of authors are affiliated with non-academic positions, and this is the case for all of the four journals considered. This is hardly surprising, since although these units may produce some research the incentives and rewards for producing research-type publications is far stronger in academic and research positions than it is in institutional and policy-making contexts. Whereas academics and researchers may be increasingly incentivized and assessed on the basis of their number of publications (and the publication outlets in which they have placed their work), this is hardly a major issue for those working in non-academic contexts. Moreover, there may even be some deterrents to that in the latter case since there is an opportunity cost involved in choosing the type of outputs and publications produced, and these are valued differently across different professional contexts (and research papers may be more or less valued with regards policy papers or reports).

Regarding the disciplinary background we observe that the picture is less clear. In general there is a broad distribution with authors coming from various disciplines: Economics and management, Education, Humanities, Political Science, Psychology, Social Sciences, Sociology, and Health and Exact Sciences. Among these disciplinary affiliations, Schools, Departments of Education and Educational Sciences are the dominant group for all of the four journals, although far less so in the case of *Higher Education* than in the other three. This does not mean that their disciplinary background is homogeneous, as schools of education have a tradition in many countries of presenting a rather diverse disciplinary profile in terms of their academic staff (for instance, congregating sociologists and economists specialized in education), but at it least suggests that a large part of those publishing in the field are located in those schools and departments. Moreover, this may also reflect the fact that schools of education may value publications in higher education journals more than their economics and sociology counterparts, as these departments are likely to privilege publications in the journals of their disciplines.

Regarding the other major academic affiliations, it is interesting to note a large variation of disciplinary composition across the four journals. One significant result is the fact that Schools and Departments of Economics and Management hold the second place in three out of the four disciplines, with the only exception being Higher Education Policy. In this latter case Political Science Departments hold that position, and one wonders to what extent the title of the publication may have something to do with its perception as a journal which is more oriented towards policy analysis and its recognition among policy departments. The case of economics and management is also interesting, and this may reflect the growing influence and visibility of economic and management ideas in higher education policy and the regulation and organization of higher education systems and

Table 2. Articles by Institutional Affiliation of Main Author

	Institutional Managers and Org.		Government & Agencies		Economics and Management		Sociology		Political Sciences		Education		Psychology		Humanities		Health and Exact Sciences		Social Sciences		Other		Not Available	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
HE	0	0.00%	2	2.25%	14	15.73%	6	6.74%	4	4.49%	25	28.09%	7	7.87%	1	1.12%	4	4.49%	3	3.37%	1	1.12%	22	24.72%
SHE	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	15	12.82%	1	0.85%	6	5.13%	47	40.17%	8	6.84%	8	6.84%	8	6.84%	9	7.69%	5	4.27%	10	8.55%
HEP	1	1.75%	2	3.51%	4	7.02%	5	8.77%	9	15.79%	23	40.35%	0	0.00%	1	1.75%	5	8.77%	0	0.00%	2	3.51%	5	8.77%
HEQ	0	0.00%	1	2.38%	9	21.43%	0	0.00%	5	11.90%	19	45.24%	1	2.38%	1	2,38%	3	7,14%	0	0,00%	1	2,38%	2	4,76%

institutions (see Amaral et al., 2002). As a result, not only those trained in economics and management have found a more congenial audience for their views in higher education research, their contribution may also be regarded as more timely and relevant to the field. Some results that may be less expected include the very limited presence of authors originating from Schools and Departments of Sociology (especially in two of the journals – SHE and HEQ), which may be explained by the aforementioned comments made about schools of education. Other interesting results include a visible contribution from academics working in Schools associated with Exact and Health fields which may suggest a broadening of interests linked to issues of teaching and learning, but also to developments in science and technology that might justify the engagement of scholars from those disciplines in higher education research.

The following aspect that is analysed refers to the geographical distribution of the authors publishing in those four higher education journals. The results for this aspect confirm that the international coverage of the field has been expanding, though it still largely dominated by authors located in Western countries. Nevertheless, it should be noted that we are analysing the professional location of those authors and not their nationality since Western systems of research and higher education have for many decades been able to attract researchers from other parts of the world, and higher education research is no exception to that. The geographical distribution of authors again shows some differences among the journals analysed, suggesting that some of them have a more international coverage (mainly HE and HEP) and that others are still more supported by their original institutional backgrounds. Therefore SHE and HEQ present a very large proportion of authors who are based in the UK, Ireland, Australia and New Zealand, which in both cases account for more than 60% of the articles published in the period analysed. By contrast, for HE and HEP those countries account for less than one-sixth of the articles published. It is interesting to note that the other major English-speaking community of higher education researchers, that of North America, present a rather symmetric position in these four journals with a much smaller presence in the more Anglo-Saxon dominated journals than in the more internationally diversified ones. In any case, the presence of researchers based in North America seems to reflect the fact that they are more likely to publish in other journals that are not included in this analysis in view of the small size of publications compared to the size of that community of researchers.

The strong presence of researchers based in English-speaking countries is not a surprising aspect in itself, but it deserves a few additional remarks. On the one hand, this reflects the fact that both the expansion of higher education as a significant social, economic, and political reality and the development of higher education research has been emerged earlier in North America and Western Europe than in other parts of the world (Trow, 2009; Palfreyman & Tapper, 2009). Moreover, in the former contexts English has steadily established itself as a major working language. On the other hand, this does not seem to be a unique feature of higher education research. Authors based in those countries are likely to have a language and scientific advantage in publishing in academic journals which are

only publishing in English. Even if they are not native speakers their proficiency in English will generally be, other things being equal, higher than those researchers based in non-English speaking countries. They will teach and write fluently in English, and that will favour them in presenting their results. Moreover, those based in non-English speaking countries may have other opportunities to publish in national journals. Although many countries seem to be increasingly favouring publication in international journals (strongly dominated by English as a working language), these pressures may be more significant in some regions than in others. Moreover, the trend towards publication in international journals is also more consolidated in other disciplinary contexts than in social sciences and humanities, whose research design and results are more culturally and nationally embedded that those of natural and exact sciences.

Table 3. Articles by Geographical Affiliation

Journal	UK & Ireland		US & Canada		Australia and New Zealand		North Europe		Central Europe and Eastern Europe		South Europe		Asia		Africa and Middle East		Latin America	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
HE	10	9.62%	22	21.15%	8	7.69%	17	16.35%	11	10.58%	16	15.38%	16	15.38%	4	3.85%	0	0.00%
SHE	43	34.68%	6	4.84%	35	28.23%	17	13.71%	3	2.42%	6	4.84%	7	5.65%	6	4.84%	1	0.81%
HEP	5	7.04%	11	15.49%	3	4.23%	14	19.72%	16	22.54%	6	8.45%	6	8.45%	10	14.08%	0	0.00%
HEQ	15	35.71%	2	4.76%	12	28.57%	2	4.76%	0	0.00%	5	11.90%	4	9.52%	2	4.76%	0	0.00%

The geographic distribution of authors also shows that the presence of authors based in Asia, Africa and the Middle East and Latin America still represent an only small part of the total number of articles published in higher education. This is even more striking in view of the expansion of higher education in those regions (Altbach & Umakoshi, 2004; Teferra & Altbach, 2003). Therefore the potential growth of research communities in those countries has not materialized, at least in a way that may be perceptible in major research publications. Nevertheless, it should be noted that there are a few exceptions to this general trend, namely the significant presence of Asian-based researchers in HE and of African-based researchers in HEP. By contrast, there is an almost total absence of articles from authors based in Latin American countries, which is even more remarkable since higher education research may be regarded as having some presence in that region which is in some ways older than it is in the other emerging regions. This may be also due to the journals chosen and to language issues which may be favouring the

publication of research results from Latin American scholars in other research outlets and in Spanish and Portuguese speaking journals. Overall, these results suggest that the production of research in the field is still largely dominated by those researchers located in the so-called Western countries, with particular relevance to Europe and North America (though the latter is less visible in these journals due to the aforementioned criteria of the selection of publications).

A brief characterization of themes

The other main aspect explored in this general characterization of the articles published in the higher education journals selected was their thematic distribution. We wanted to identify what the main themes covered in the articles were by both journal and the overall group in order to identify common trends and possible differences of agenda and interest among the four publications. The main topics identified were the following ones: systems regulation (and relationships between governments and higher education institutions), institutional issues, governance and management, quality assessment, funding and economic issues, access and equity, learning, student's satisfaction and performance and the academic profession. Overall, these themes seem to constitute almost 90% of all of the articles published in these four journals, though with some variation across the four publications.

The main topic seems to be that of students' performance and satisfaction and learning issues. This may be justified by several recent policy developments that have given an increasing prominence to those topics. Firstly, there are the changes linked to the so-called Bologna process and the European Higher Education Area that have given an increasing visibility to matters such as student-centred learning (see Amaral et al., 2009; Scott et al., 2012). Secondly, there have been the concerns with the performance of institutions, including the teaching mission (…). Thirdly, there is the issue of competences and skills developed by the higher education system and their articulation with the labour market that have emphasized issues of learning and students' satisfaction (Teichler & Schomburg, 2009). Lastly, but certainly not the least, the growing influence of marketization and managerialism (Bok, 2003; Teixeira et al., 2004) that has promoted a discourse of students as customers and has enhanced the issues of students' views and perceptions of satisfaction as important aspects in a life of higher education.

The importance of this theme is closely followed by two other important themes on the higher education research agenda of recent years. On the one hand there is the issue of quality assessment, and on the other hand that of institutional analysis, governance and management. The rise of quality issues in higher education has been significantly documented and explained in higher education research (see Schwartzman & Westerheijden, 2004; Westerheijden, Stensaker, & Rosa, 2007). The results of our analysis of the data confirm that it has kept a significant prominence in recent published research. The rise of institutional analysis and governance and management topics is also significant on several accounts. This confirms the growing importance of institutional research as an important aspect of

higher education research, following to some extent the strengthening of the role of higher education institutions in many higher education systems. Institutions have become richer and more complex topics of research due to their increasing centrality in the dynamics of higher education systems, and this seems to be reflected in research and publication patterns (Paradeise et al., 2009; Meek et al., 2010). Moreover, recent years have seen a wave of reforms in the governance and management of higher education institutions (Middlehurst & Teixeira, 2012), and this may have played an important role in explaining the research and publication interest about these topics since people are already dealing with the analysis and impact of some of those important developments.

These themes are closely followed by two other themes, which are that of systems regulation and the relationship between the government and higher education institutions and that of the academic profession. The somewhat lower visibility than expected for the former topic may be due to several reasons. On the one hand, its importance may be underestimated since some of the aspects linked to the regulation of the system may be included in the themes of funding and quality assessment which have become very important instruments of the systems regulation of higher education in recent decades. On the other hand, the lower visibility of this topic in recent research may be the counterpart of the rise of institutional analysis. In fact, recent decades have seen the move to less explicit forms of systems control and the delegation of a lot of the daily management of higher education from central governments to the higher education institutions (Neave, 2012; Amaral et al., 2002). As a result the relationship between these two levels has become less dominant to higher education research as was two or three decades ago for most higher education systems.

The theme of the academic profession and its relevance for the research agenda also seems to be linked to some of the aforementioned transformations. On the one hand, the marketization of higher education and the growing influence of managerial rationales have also had an important effect in shaping academic careers and redefining the mission and priorities of academics in many higher education contexts around the world (Musselin, 2006; Altbach et al., 2012). On the other hand, the changes in the balance of power between the state and higher education institutions have not been irrelevant to the role and influence of the academic estate (or oligarchy in the famous Burton Clarke's triangle), and this has been a topic of interest for many researchers. Moreover, recent years have seen several large research projects trying to address the evolution of academic careers, academics' performance, their levels of pay and benefits, and their participation in internal governance mechanisms which are likely to have stimulated multiplying effects in higher education research (see Altbach et al., 2012; Teichler et al., 2013).

The last major themes in higher education research that we have identified refer to issues of access and equity and funding and other economic issues in higher education. The interest of higher education research on the theme of inequality seems to have been following certain waves of interest, to a certain extent also reflecting waves of the policy visibility of issues related to inequalities in higher education and the role of higher education in reducing, enlarging or perpetuating

gender, ethnic and socio-economic inequalities (see Goastellec, 2010). The relevance of each and all of these inequalities is likely to be different across different higher education systems and the different phases of development of those systems. In the case of funding, its smaller visibility is somewhat surprising, not only because this issue has been particularly relevant in many policy debates but also because of the data presented above regarding disciplinary background. This suggests that researchers based in economics and management departments are less focused on financial and economic issues and may be contributing to other topics, which therefore suggests a greater degree of interdisciplinarity.

The relative importance of each of these themes seems to vary significantly across the journals, and a few differences are worth highlighting. For instance, it is interesting to notice the contrasting relevance of systems analysis between journals such as HEP (very high) and SHE (very low), potentially reflecting a much lower level of attention given to the system's analysis in the English-speaking context than in Continental Europe. It is also interesting to notice the dominant role of learning and students' issues for SHE, possibly reflecting both a much greater emphasis on learning and student satisfaction concerns along with the disciplinary composition of authors (which had a stronger affiliation to Schools and Departments of Education). Finally, it is interesting to note that quality issues seem to be the ones presenting a more homogeneous portrait across the four journals, pointing out a transversal nature of quality issues in multiple higher education systems.

Table 4. Articles by Themes

	Total		System Regulation/ Government and HEIs		Institutional Analysis, governance, management		Quality, evaluation, assessment		Funding and economic issues		Access, equity		Students' satisfaction, performance and evaluation		Academic profession		Other	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Higher Education	86	100	15	17.44%	19	22.09%	13	15.12%	4	4.65%	8	9.30%	23	26.74%	9	10.47%	9	10.47%
Studies in Higher Education	112	100	2	1.79%	7	6.25%	19	16.96%	0	0.00%	9	8.04%	39	34.82%	24	21.43%	24	21.43%
Higher Education Policy	52	100	20	38.46%	13	25.00%	10	19.23%	6	11.54%	3	5.77%	3	5.77%	2	3.85%	5	9.62%
Higher Education Quarterly	41	100	6	14.63%	11	26.83%	8	19.51%	4	9.76%	6	14.63%	4	9.76%	7	17.07%	2	4.88%
Total	291	100	43	14.78%	50	17.18%	50	17.18%	14	4.81%	26	8.93%	69	23.71%	42	14.43%	36	12.37%

In our analysis we have also explored the relative contribution made by each of the journals to each of the specific themes considered. This was considered to be an interesting way to see the extent of which some of these journals dominated the

published discourse about a specific theme. This analysis indicates that one journal (SHE) has a dominant position when it comes to the themes of student satisfaction and performance and learning and that of the academic profession, as more than half of the articles published on those themes were published on that journal. Another journal (HEP) has a very prominent position when it comes to funding and other economic-related themes and to systems regulation. By contrast, these two journals have a very limited or even non-existent contribution to some themes, thus suggesting a certain focus on the publication agenda. The other two journals which were considered (HE and HEQ) present a more diversified publication profile, contributing to all themes and suggesting a more balanced profile. Nevertheless, these results are based on just one year of publications, and we would need data from more years to assess the extent to which that year was a representative example of the publication profile of each of these journals or whether it was particularly influenced by a certain flow of articles (though they are always to a certain degree modulated by the preferences and priorities of the journal's editorship).

Table 5. Articles by Themes

	Total		System Regulation/ Government and HEIs		Institutional Analysis, governance, management		Quality, evaluation, assessment		Funding and economic issues		Access, equity		Students' satisfaction, performance and evaluation		Academic profession		Other	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Higher Education	86	29.55%	15	34.88%	19	38.00%	13	26.00%	4	28.57%	8	30.77%	23	33.33%	9	21.43%	9	25.00%
Studies in Higher Education	112	38.49%	2	4.65%	7	14.00%	19	38.00%	0	0.00%	9	34.62%	39	56.52%	24	57.14%	24	66.67%
Higher Education Policy	52	17.87%	20	46.51%	13	26.00%	10	20.00%	6	42.86%	3	11.54%	3	4.35%	2	4.76%	5	13.89%
Higher Education Quarterly	41	14.09%	6	13.95%	11	22.00%	8	16.00%	4	28.57%	6	23.08%	4	5.80%	7	16.67%	2	5.56%
Total	291	100.00%	43	100.00%	50	100.00%	50	100.00%	14	100.00%	26	100.00%	69	100.00%	42	100.00%	36	100.00%

The final aspect explored in this characterisation of the articles published in these four journals was the combination of two of the aspects analysed above. We opted for an analysis of the thematic distribution of the articles by geographical region of authors. By doing this we hoped to identify a particular focus of themes by authors based in a particular region and to identify possible geographical variations in the research agenda. In order to do this we combined the total set of articles and classified them by both region and by theme. The results indicate some interesting differences. Overall we can say that most regions present a rather

Table 6. Themes by Geographical Affiliation

	System Regulation/ Government and HEIs		Institutional Analysis, governance, management		Quality, evaluation, assessment		Funding and economic issues		Access, equity		Students' satisfaction, performance and evaluation		Academic profession		Other	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
UK & Ireland	5	6.02%	9	10.84%	14	16.87%	3	3.61%	10	12.05%	16	19.28%	14	16.87%	12	14.46%
US & Canada	12	25.53%	8	17.02%	3	6.38%	2	4.26%	2	4.26%	6	12.77%	10	21.28%	4	8.51%
Australia and New Zealand	4	6.35%	4	6.35%	16	25.40%	1	1.59%	2	3.17%	15	23.81%	11	17.46%	10	15.87%
North Europe	12	21.05%	8	14.04%	10	17.54%	3	5.26%	1	1.75%	16	28.07%	4	7.02%	3	5.26%
Central Europe and Eastern Europe	9	25.71%	8	22.86%	6	17.14%	4	11.43%	2	5.71%	3	8.57%	0	0.00%	3	8.57%
South Europe	3	7.89%	11	28.95%	4	10.53%	3	7.89%	5	13.16%	9	23.68%	0	0.00%	3	7.89%
Asia	10	23.26%	8	18.60%	5	11.63%	3	6.98%	2	4.65%	7	16.28%	7	16.28%	1	2.33%
Africa and Middle East	2	8.33%	5	20.83%	4	16.67%	2	8.33%	3	12.50%	2	8.33%	1	4.17%	5	20.83%
Latin America	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	100.00%	0	0.00%

balanced distribution of articles by themes. However, certain themes seem to dominate the profile of certain regions. Among the interesting aspects to be highlighted is the fact that systems regulation and analysis seem to be quite prominent among the articles published in the year under analysis by those authors based in North America. To a large extent this may be due to a perception among these authors that the journals under analysis (and their readership) may be more interested in those themes than the American based ones. As we had seen above, this theme also seems rather relevant for most of Continental Europe (except Southern Europe), and to those authors who are based in Asia and are not very prominent authors compared to those based in most English-speaking countries. Regarding institutional analysis and organizational themes they seem to be relevant

to almost all regions, with a particular emphasis on authors based in European, African and Middle-Eastern countries. This may reflect the strengthening of the institutional dimension and its relevance for higher education policy in those regions (later than in the Anglo-Saxon countries). Also worth mentioning is the relevance of quality issues for authors based in Australia and New Zealand, and the learning and students' issues for many authors based in Continental Europe, in the latter case reflecting the recent advances of marketization and managerialism rationales in those countries (see Teixeira et al., 2011; Regini, 2011).

CONCLUDING REMARKS: CURRENT RESEARCH TRENDS AND THEIR RELEVANCE FOR THE FUTURE OF CHER

The results presented above constitute an important though incomplete portrait of the current patterns of research in higher education. This portrait confirms the existence of important policy and institutional changes in many higher education systems, namely with the rising relevance of the institutional dimension in higher education compared to the decline of systems analysis and regulation. The publications in those journals also highlight the persistent relevance of quality assessment and academic careers as major themes of research in higher education, and the emergence of learning and students' issues as important topics on the research agenda. Another major aspect to be underlined is the persistent concentration of the research networks in the so-called Western quarters, namely Europe, Australia and New Zealand and North America, though this may change in the near future, especially with a potentially stronger contribution from Latin America and, in particular, from scholars based in Asian countries. Finally, the analysis confirms the nature of the research community of higher education scholars as being rather diverse from a disciplinary point of view.

An interesting aspect emerging from the analysis is also a certain convergence in the research agenda, despite the role of national peculiarities in research and policy trends. Although we have observed a growing standardisation and internationalisation of educational systems and educational institutions that have reduced national specificities and peculiarities in recent decades (see Meyer & Ramirez, 2000), these have not disappeared and still represent an important factor in shaping differences in the structure and content of national education systems. The national resistances cannot be restricted to a political bargain, but instead they are nurtured by deeper legal, cultural, and historical traditions that have been shaping higher education at the national and institutional levels and which may resist what is often perceived as a serious process of standardisation (see Ertl & Philips, 2006). However, several trends point towards greater policy-borrowing and transnational influences. In the case of Europe, the growing integration within the EHEA will spur these trends across national borders, especially for those institutions that have a higher degree of international integration (which are often also among the most prestigious in each country). As a result, despite national specificities one might expect a growing homogeneity in the degree of influence of policy trends and major research themes across the EHEA in the near future.

The presented data also confirm that despite its progressive institutionalization higher education research is not an autonomous discipline but rather a multidisciplinary field of research. This has been reflected in the origins and evolution of CHER as an organization of higher education researchers whose activities have remained faithful to that tradition and who have permanently developed as a multidisciplinary community. This was possible because the CHER members come from a wide variety of backgrounds, namely economics, education sciences, history, management, philosophy, political sciences, public policy and administration, and sociology. This multidisciplinary nature of CHER has meant that each researcher could benefit from the diverse backgrounds of its members and was able to contribute to the development of a kaleidoscopic view about the complex realities of higher education.

Another important issue is the international vocation of CHER and how broad its geographical ambitions should be. The analysis performed in this paper gives weight to the view that the international integration of non-Western parts of the world is still limited. According to publications in journals, the production and dissemination of research by scholars based outside Europe, North America and Australia and New Zealand still plays a minor role. As a result CHER may play an important role in helping some of those pockets of research activity to integrate and participate more actively in the international networks of higher education research. However, this alertness to a potentially growing and more geographically diverse international community of higher education researchers has to take into account the fact that the core of its membership is still in Europe. Those based in Australia, New Zealand and North America have their own regional communities and networks, and due to issues of cost and institutional linkages will generally tend to have a secondary attachment to CHER. In these cases CHER may play a more relevant role by developing a certain complementarity to the research profile and agenda of their non-European counterparts, thereby providing a forum for non-European scholars who are interested in internationally comparative and policy-oriented research.

The presented data also point out the potential and the risks of higher education studies becoming a consolidated field. The fact that several specialized journals and associations like CHER have established themselves as important outlets for the dissemination of research in higher education is certainly an important aspect in the institutionalization of the field. This is particularly relevant for younger scholars since it creates greater opportunities to disseminate their work and develop a career in higher education, including through international publications which are recognized by several of the major bibliometric indicators. Moreover, this also creates greater opportunities for the consolidation of a specific theoretical and methodological identity which may differentiate the field. However, this also poses risks from both an intellectual and a professional point of view. On the one hand, the intellectual development and renewal will benefit from a fruitful exchange with several of the disciplines that have been contributing to the study of higher education. On the other hand, the institutional opportunities for the development of those careers are limited and may encompass greater vulnerability, especially in

times of the retrenchment of academic positions and the funding of higher education and research. This is certainly an aspect in which CHER could play an important role, notably by continuing to nurture a community of specialized researchers that has nodal points with other disciplinary contexts and through which the communication flows in both directions, bringing insights from other disciplines and being able to communicate the relevance of the results of higher education research to those disciplines.

Finally, the analysis showed that it is important that CHER strives for a balance between responsiveness to policy developments and the capacity to reflect critically about the real impact and significance of these developments. The profile displayed by the publications indicates that the patterns of research reflect major trends in systemic, institutional, and policy developments. This is hardly a surprise given the nature of the field and its objects, however these developments can be approached in different ways. A stronger emphasis on policy trends may increase its visibility among institutional managers and policy-makers, but it may also create a bias for short-termism and policy epiphenomena. Moreover, it may reduce the space for a critical reflection about the institutional and political realities of higher education. Over the last 25 years CHER has given an importance to this aim, and one hopes that it will continue to do this in the many years to come by being able to balance policy and intellectual relevance.

NOTES

[i] In the collection of some of the data I have counted on excellent research assistance by Ricardo Biscaia of CIPES.

[ii] For a study covering a broader set of journals, see Tight (2010).

[iii] For a complementary bibliometric analysis more focused on methodological issues see Tight (2007, 2012).

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APPENDIX 1
CHER CONSTITUTION

Name and Seat

Article 1

The foundation shall be named: Foundation CHER – Consortium of Higher Education Researchers.

It shall be established in ENSCHEDE. The foundation is a continuation of an organization existing since the twenty-fourth/the twenty-sixth of November, nineteen hundred and eighty-eight.

Object

Article 2

The foundation shall have as its object:

a. the promotion of the exchange of ideas and views in the field of (research of) higher education;
b. the improvement of the theoretical knowledge and quality of research in the field of higher education;
c. the organization and holding of an international forum in Europe on developments in the aforementioned field;
d. the organization and holding of training courses for researchers, policy-makers and managers in higher education in Europe;
e. the establishment of contacts with international organizations that are involved in higher education and policy.

Participants

Article 3

1. Participants shall be natural persons of full age who are active in any field coming under or related to the objectives of the foundation.
2. The board of governors shall keep a register in which the names and addresses of all participants are contained.

B.M. Kehm and C. Musselin (eds.), The Development of Higher Education Research in Europe, 123–128.

Article 4

1. The board of governors shall decide on the admission of participants and determine the contribution to be paid by the participants towards the costs of the foundation. Applications for participation shall be addressed to the board of governors in writing.
2. Participants shall be entitled to attend the events organized by the foundation, including the Annual Conference, and receive all those papers whose forwarding is deemed desirable by the board of governors. Participants may come forward as candidates for a seat on the board.

End of participation

Article 5

1. Participation shall end:
   a. by the participant's death;
   b. by the participant giving notice;
   c. by the foundation giving notice. Such notice can be given, if a participant fails to meet his obligations towards the foundation.
2. Notice on behalf of the foundation shall be given by the board of governors.
3. Notice by the participant or by the foundation shall only be given in writing and by the end of the financial year. The term of notice shall be at least one month.
4. If participation ends in the course of a financial year, the contribution for the current year shall be due for the full amount.

Capital

Article 6

The capital of the foundation shall be formed by:
a. contributions of participants;
b. subsidies, gifts, legacies and bequests;
c. revenues from foundation activities;
d. any other legal proceeds.

Appointment of board of governors

Article 7

1. The board of governors of the foundation shall consist of seven persons. They shall be appointed for the first time by the present deed.
2. The board of governors shall fill its vacancies from among themselves, with the understanding that appointment shall be made from a list of participants who have come forward as candidates for a seat on the board. The nomination of a

candidate shall be filed in writing with the board of governors and shall need the backing of at least two other participants.

3. The aforementioned list of candidates shall be drawn up by the board of governors. Before making appointments the board of governors shall request the participants during the annual business meeting to name the candidate, mentioned on the aforesaid list, who is preferred by them.

End of board membership

Article 8

1. Every board member shall resign not later than three years after his appointment according to a rota to be drawn up by the board of governors. The member stepping down is directly eligible for reappointment. The member appointed in a premature vacancy shall take his predecessor's place in the rota.
2. Board membership shall further end:
   a. by resignation in writing;
   b. by loss of legal capacity;
   c. by dismissal of a board member by the other board members;
   d. by dismissal by the court by virtue of the provisions in section 298, Book 2 of the Dutch Civil Code.

Article 9

A board resolution to dismiss a board member shall only be validly taken with a majority of at least two-thirds of the number of sitting board members in a meeting for which a proposal to this effect has been placed on the agenda. Before the ballot on his dismissal is held the board member concerned shall be given the opportunity to expound and defend his views in the meeting, but he shall not participate in the ballot, nor shall he be regarded for the purpose of this ballot as a sitting member, so that he shall not be included in the calculation of the required quorum.

Board functions and decision-making

Article 10

1. The chairman, secretary and treasurer shall be appointed by the board of governors from among themselves. For each of them the board can appoint a deputy from among themselves. A board member may occupy more than one function.
2. Of the dealings in every board meeting minutes shall be kept by or under the responsibility of the secretary, which shall be adopted by the board of governors in a next meeting in witness whereof they shall be signed by the chairman and the secretary.

3. The board of governors can only take resolutions, if the majority of the sitting and non-suspended members are present. Representation shall not be allowed. Each board member shall have one vote.
4. The board of governors shall take resolutions with a simple majority of votes. Simple majority shall be understood to mean more than half of the validly cast votes. All ballots shall be oral, unless one of the board members demands a ballot in writing. When the votes are equally divided, the proposal shall be deemed to have been rejected.
5. If the number of board members has decreased to below seven, the board shall continue to be authorized. However, it shall be held to fill the vacancy or vacancies as soon as possible.

Board task and representation

Article 11

1. The board of governors shall be charged with directing the foundation.
2. The board of governors shall be empowered to have certain parts of its task executed under its responsibility by persons or committees that are appointed by the board. The board shall see to it that one person will be charged with the portfolio: Annual Conference. The said person shall keep that portfolio for at least one year. Under the board's responsibility the said portfolio holder shall be charged with the organization of the Annual Conference in behalf of the participants of the foundation, which Conference shall be held in the manner and on the subjects to be established by the board.
3. The board of governors shall be empowered to enter into agreements to acquire, alienate and encumber registered goods and to enter into agreements in which the foundation binds itself as surety or as severally liable co-debtor, answers to a third party or provides security for a third party's debt. The omission of such approval can be pleaded by and vis-à-vis third parties.
4. The foundation shall be represented by the board of governors and further by the chairman and the secretary jointly. If one of them is absent, the foundation shall be represented by the other jointly with another board member.

Annual report and accountability

Article 12

1. The financial year of the foundation shall run from the first of January until the thirty-first of December of any calendar year.
2. The board of governors shall be obliged to keep record of the foundation's financial position in such a way that its rights and obligations can be known at all times.
3. At the end of each financial year the accounts of the foundation shall be closed. From these accounts the treasurer shall draw up a balance sheet and a profit and

loss account for the full year then ended, which financial statements together with the report made by a chartered accountant or an accountant consultant if the board may wish so - shall be submitted to the board of governors within nine months of the end of the financial year.
4. The financial statements shall be adopted by the board of governors.
5. The board of governors shall be obliged to keep the records and financial statements as referred to in paragraphs 2 and 4 for at least ten years.

Rules

Article 13

1. The board of governors shall be empowered to draw up rules in which those subjects are regulated which are not contained in the present articles of association.
2. The rules shall not be in contravention of the law or the present articles of association.
3. The board of governors shall at all times be empowered to amend or annul the rules.

Amendment of the articles of association

Article 14

1. The board shall be empowered to amend the articles of association.
2. The convocation for the meeting to discuss a proposal for amendment of the articles of association shall contain the exact wording of the proposed amendment.
3. A resolution to amend the articles of association shall need at least two-thirds of the valid votes cast in a board meeting where at least two-thirds of the board members are present. If not at least two-thirds of the board members are present, a second meeting will be convened and held within four weeks but not within two weeks thereafter, in which resolutions can be taken about the proposal as discussed in the last meeting, regardless the number of board members present, provided that such resolutions are taken with a majority of at least two-thirds of the validly cast votes.
4. A board resolution to amend the articles of association shall need the consent of at least two-thirds of the number of participants of the foundation attending the next Annual Conference as referred to in article 4, paragraph 2, after the board resolution to amend the articles of association.
5. An amendment of the articles of association shall not become effective before a notarial deed thereof has been made. The board members shall be obliged to deposit a certified copy of the present deed and of the full contents of the amended articles of association at the foundation register office of the Chamber of Commerce.

Dissolution

Article 15

1. The foundation can be dissolved by a board resolution to that effect. The provisions of paragraphs 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the preceding article shall be equally applicable. For such a resolution no consent of the participants shall be needed.
2. Any positive balance upon liquidation shall be allotted up to the amount of the contribution for the current year to the participants who at the time of the resolution to dissolve the foundation had paid their contribution and for the remainder to a legal person with the same or affiliated object or to an institution of public utility to be designated by the board.
3. The foundation shall continue to exist after its dissolution as long as necessary for the liquidation of its capital.
4. Liquidation shall be effected by the board of governors.
5. The liquidators shall make sure that the dissolution of the foundation is entered in the register as referred to in article 13, paragraph 5.
6. During the liquidation the provisions of these articles of association shall remain in force as much as possible.
7. After the liquidation the accounts and records of the dissolved foundation shall rest with the youngest liquidator for a period of ten years.

Final article

Article 16

In all cases not provided for in the present articles of association, the law or the rules as referred to in article 13, the board of governors shall decide.

APPENDIX 2
CHER CONFERENCES AND PUBLICATIONS OF RESULTS

1988	1st CHER Conference and Foundation of CHER in Kassel, Germany; Conference theme: Research on Higher Education in Europe. Published in: European Journal of Education, Vol. 24, No. 3, 1989.
1989	2nd CHER Conference in Enschede, the Netherlands; Conference theme: Decision Making in Higher Education. Published in: Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 16, No. 3, 1991.
1990	3rd CHER Conference in Brussels, Belgium; Conference theme: A Changing Europe: Challenges for Higher Education Research. Published in: Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 16, No. 3, 1991.
1991	4th CHER Conference in Dijon, France; Conference theme: Higher Education Finance. No publication.
1992	5th CHER Conference in London, United Kingdom; Conference theme: Higher Education and the World of Work. Published in: Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 18, No. 2, 1993 and in: Brennan, John, Kogan, Maurice, Teichler, Ulrich (eds.) (1996): Higher Education and Work. Higher Education Policy Series 23. London: Jessica Kingsley.
1993	6th CHER Conference in Stockholm, Sweden; Conference theme: Graduate Education. No publication.
1994	7th CHER Conference in Enschede, the Netherlands; Conference theme: Cross-National Studies in Higher Education. No publication.
1995	8th CHER Conference in Rome, Italy; Conference theme: Cross-National Studies in Higher Education: The State of the Art in the Disciplines. Published in: Higher Education, Vol. 32, No. 4, 1996.
1996	9th CHER Conference in Turku, Finland; Conference theme: Governance and Management in Higher Education Institutions. No publication.
1997	10th CHER Conference in Alicante, Spain; Conference theme: Evaluation and Higher Education Research. No publication.

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1998	11th CHER Conference in Kassel, Germany; Conference theme: Higher Education Research – Achievements, Conditions and New Challenges. Published in: Higher Education, Vol. 38, No. 1 and Vol. 38, No. 2, 1999.
1999	12th CHER Conference in Oslo, Norway; Conference theme: The Research Function in Higher Education. No publication.
2000	13th CHER Conference in Lancaster, United Kingdom; Conference theme: The Institutional Dimension: Organizational Aspects in Higher Education Research. No publication.
2001	14th CHER Conference in Dijon, France; Conference theme: Higher Education and its Clients: Institutional Responses to Changes in Demand and in Environment. Published in: Higher Education, Vol. 44, Nos. 3-4, 2002.
2002	15th CHER Conference in Vienna, Austria; Conference theme: Higher Education in the Global Age. Published in: Higher Education, Vol. 48, No. 1, 2004.
2003	16th CHER Conference in Porto, Portugal; Conference theme: Reform and Change in Higher Education: Renewed Expectations and Improved Performance? Published in: Gornitzka, Ase, Kogan, Maurice, Amaral, Alberto (eds.) (2005): Reform and Change in Higher Education. Analysing Policy Implementation. Higher Education Dynamics 8. Dordrecht: Spinger.
2004	17th CHER Conference in Enschede, the Netherlands; Conference theme: Public-Private Dynamics in Higher Education: Expectations, Developments and Outcomes. Published in: Enders, Jürgen, Jongbloed, Ben (eds.) (2007): Public-Private Dynamics in Higher Education. Expectations, Developments and Outcomes. Bielefeld: transcript.
2005	18th CHER Conference in Jyväskylä, Finland; Conference theme: Higher Education: The Cultural Dimension – Innovative Cultures, Norms and Values. No publication.
2006	19th CHER Conference in Kassel, Germany; Conference theme: Systems Convergence and Institutional Diversity. Published in: Kehm, Barbara M., Stensaker, Björn (eds.) (2009): University Rankings, Diversity, and the New Landscape of Higher Education. Rotterdam, Taipei: Sense.

2007 20th CHER Conference in Dublin, Ireland; Conference theme: The Research Mission of the University. Published in: Clancy, Patrick, Dill David (Eds.) (2009). The Research Mission of the University. Rotterdam, Taipei: Sense Publishers.

2008 21st CHER Conference in Pavia, Italy; Conference theme: Excellence and Diversity in Higher Education. Meanings, Goals, and Instruments. Published in: Rostan, Michele, Vaira, Massimiliano (Eds. (2011). Questioning Excellence in Higher Education. Policies, Experiences and Challenges in National and Comparative Perspective. Rotterdam, Taipei: Sense Publishers.

2009 22nd CHER Conference in Porto, Portugal; Conference theme: Public Vices, Private Benefits? Assessing the Role of Markets in Higher Education. Published in: Teixeira, Pedro, Dill, David (Eds.) (2011). Public Vices, Private Virtues? Reflecting about the Effects of Marketization in Higher Education. Rotterdam, Taipei: Sense Publishers.

2010 23rd CHER Conference in Oslo, Norway; Conference theme: Effects of Higher Education Reforms. Published in: Vukasovic, Martina, Maassen, Peter, Nerland, Monika, Pinheiro, Rómulo, Stensaker, Bjorn, Vabo, Agnete (Eds.) (2012). Effects of Higher Education Reforms: Change Dynamics. Rotterdam, Taipei: Sense Publishers.

2011 24th CHER Conference in Reykjavik, Iceland; Conference theme: Prospects for Higher Education in the 21st Century. Research, Ideas, and Policy. To be published

2012 25th CHER Conference in Belgrade Serbia (plus post-Conference workshop in Ljubljana, Slovenia); Conference theme: Higher Education and Social Dynamics. To be published. Post Conference Workshop theme: The Past, Present and Future of Higher Education Research: Between Scholarship and Policy Making. To be published in: European Journal of Higher Education 2013.

2013 26th CHER Conference in Lausanne, Switzerland; Conference theme: The Roles of Higher Education and Research in the Fabric of Societies. To be published.

APPENDIX 3
MEMBERSHIP FORM

Admission Form 2013
Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER)

Membership is open to individuals, both active researchers in higher education as well as students. No institutional and associate membership is possible.

Yes, I want to become a member of CHER.

Name (M/F) _____

Position _____

Main research interest _____

_____

_____

Institution _____

Address _____

_____

_____

Phone _____

Telefax _____

E-mail _____

Signature _____

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Regular membership fee EURO 75,- per year / students EURO 55,-

Address this form to:
CHER Secretariat
Prof. Dr. Barbara M. Kehm
International Centre for Higher Education Research Kassel (INCHER-Kassel)
University of Kassel
Mönchebergstr. 17
D-34109 Kassel
Germany
Fax +(49)-561-804-7415
Email cher@incher.uni-kassel.de

CHER Directory 2013

Because of limited space, please restrict your information to one page. Please list at most 5 major publications (preferably recent ones; translation of title if not in English; sequence according to year of publication; please name publishers).

I agree that the attached information can be used for a restricted membership website of the CHER-directory.

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1. Family name, first name(s):

2a Title:

2b Function:

3. Institution:

   Department/Institute:

   Address:

   Telephone:

   Fax:

   e-mail:
   www:

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4. Brief information about institution (if applicable, about 30 words)

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5. Brief statement of own research interests and recent activities (about 50 words)

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6. Other functions (if applicable)

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7. List of *at most 5 major publications* (preferably recent ones; translation of title if not in English; sequence according to year of publication; please name publishers). If more than 5 are provided, the first 5 of your list will be included in the directory.

APPENDIX 4
CHAIRPERSONS AND SECRETARIES OF CHER

Chairpersons

1988 to 1990	Ulrich Teichler (Germany)
1990 to 1991	Guy Neave (UK, France)
1991 to 1992	Jean-Claude Eicher (France)
1992 to 1998	Ulrich Teichler (Germany)
1998 to 2001	Oliver Fulton (United Kingdom)
2001 to 2006	Alberto Amaral (Portugal)
2006 to 2013	Christine Musselin (France)

Secretaries

1988 to 1992	Frans van Vught (The Netherlands)
1992 to 1999	Peter Maassen (The Netherlands)
1999 to 2005	Jürgen Enders (Germany, The Netherlands)
2006 to 2013	Barbara M. Kehm (Germany)

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