Pallas Debrecina

INTERNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Edited by:
Ilona Dóra Dabney-Fekete

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International Higher Education

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Table of contents

Foreword

One critical part of higher education's operation is the carrying out of research. On a grand scale, doing research expands the capacity to do further research and promotes the act of researching itself in the higher educational arena. In other words, researching strengthens and advertises itself as another worthwhile endeavor to which higher education institutions ought to devote time and energy. Being involved in such activity on an institutional level is promising, as it raises the prestige and academic visibility of universities and colleges that seek to leave their mark on national and international stages. Institutions receive much help from their doctoral programs in the area of researching which makes this involvement much more feasible. Doctoral programs provide the higher educational institution with a wealth of new resources, that is with new human capital, which can be used to do work the school would otherwise not have the ability to do. Thus, the doctoral program focuses on preparing its students for navigating and interacting in the higher educational sphere, and actively doing the job of networking on behalf of their institutions. Through carrying out research in the name of the university, doctoral students build up the capacity for further research in higher education. As they publish studies, many valuable objectives are accomplished, namely: 1) the name /reputation of the institution is carried elsewhere, 2) knowledge is transferred from a closed, limited sphere to a larger market where it can reach a broader audience, and 3) the quality of researching is given a measure with which to evaluate future studies. For, there is always opportunity for improving upon research methods and academic writing, as well as on modes of testing and analyzing data. Thus, publishing research can be a way to quality control future publications. What is more, these students as apprentice researchers, while honing their researching skills, can act as ambassadors reaching out and forming cooperative networks with other institutions. For this reason, we find it critical for doctoral programs to arm their students with all the tools they need to: 1) be prepared for their future professions, 2) to provide through researching a better overall picture of higher education, 3) to ask relevant questions, and 4) to identify and solve problems. If successful

in this, they will be able to respond to critical questions on education policy and regarding its actors.

The aim of this book is to prepare PhD students for taking the complex exam. With that said, we have filled its pages with necessary and helpful information that will equip students not only for the exam but also will give them a treasury of tools and skills to apply in the field of research and in their future professions. Moreover, we aim to aid Master's students who are interested in the world of higher education policy and research, or who plan to continue on to doctoral studies. It is our intention that this book act as a stair step and an aid prior to and throughout their doctoral student journey. It is also for those who seek to understand the inner workings of and the processes ongoing within higher education. Since at first glance, the topic of higher education may seem daunting and overly complex, we sought in this book to present its concepts in a clear and easy-to-grasp manner. Thus, anyone who might take an interest in the nature of higher education, higher education policy, researching, and the influence of doctoral schools on the former will gain a concise, overall picture of these topics. Finally, this book is for all those who are simply interested in the topics found within, who seek to build upon their already existing knowledge, and would like to delve into the world of higher education.

The book is structured in such a way that each chapter is concise and easy to read. Through its transparent format, we aim to make it available to any and all who would read it. The main goal is to provide students with a general overview of higher education, its policies, the nature of researching, and the effect of doctoral programs on each of these. In having a firm grasp on these concepts, students will be better prepared for exams, for entering the researcher's world and navigating the challenges of networking in higher education, and will be more well equipped to confidently work at their professions. It is not an exhaustive analysis of these themes, and thus does not go into great detail about each. With this generality, however, the aim is to pique the interest of readers, to give them a first look and basic insights into the world of higher education. This book aims to build upon the prior knowledge gained, and to pass on skills and mindsets necessary for conducting good independent research. Moreover, we seek through this work to encourage students to make independent study and research a continuous good habit and academic practice. In doing so, universities will have access to a great resource pool of fresh minds and talents who are able to carry out research, and to uncover and establish new opportunities for cooperation worldwide. Finally, through reading this book, students should learn to develop their own opinions and perspectives. Students will need to utilize their critical thinking skills and their academic writing knowledge as well in laying

out their positions. This book will give their previously acquired knowledge of forming and testing hypotheses a stronger foundation, so that they would be able to convey their findings professionally and express their positions confidently backed with scientific data and evidence.

February 11th, 2024

Ilona Dóra Dabney-Fekete, PhD

Academic proofreader's preface

I was delighted to be asked to review this important work on Higher Education in Hungary and beyond. As a higher education researcher and teacher from the United States, I was able to experience the Hungarian system of higher education in 2002 and 2009 as part of the U.S. Fulbright Program. My background and experiences provide me a unique lens in which to view this work.

The primary purpose of this work is to provide Hungarian doctoral students a guide or "coursebook" to various areas of academic study related to international higher education. An exam is required of Hungarian doctoral students midway through their program that may cover the twelve areas that are represented by chapters in this guide. This book will help students prepare for the complex exam required by their degree program. This work also has significant value beyond serving as a study guide. It can provide others interested in international higher education a primer to various topics; it may even provide future researchers ideas or areas of higher education from which to construct research projects and/or dissertations. The guide is also valuable for international scholars wishing to study Hungarian higher education, as it provides a window into some of the most important topics and studies that have been produced by Hungarian higher education researchers.

The chapters provide readers with a broad and thorough examination of important higher education related topics. These topics serve as a primer for doctoral students, and masters level students studying higher education, and include: international trend and challenges facing higher education; the internationalization of higher education in Hungary; diversity and excellence in higher education-university students; inequalities in higher education among students-the resilience strategy; the academic profession-researchers and teachers; higher education management, religious higher education, higher education rankings, higher education and the labor market, finance in higher education, virtual universities, the continental and atlantic systems of higher education and educational policy, and education policy and higher education in developing countries.

From the standpoint of an academic review, the strengths of this project include, but are not limited to: 1) the contributors have studied and written ex-

tensively on their assigned area. 2) the supporting arguments and sourcing are robust; 3) the scope of this work is broad, yet each chapter is concise and includes pertinent information to the topic being addressed, and 4) the content serves a direct purpose of helping current students prepare for a specific content related exam.

As noted in this coursebook, higher education serves a very important purpose for both individuals and the broader society. It equips individuals with the knowledge, skills, and competencies required to excel in their chosen fields and to contribute to the advancement of society. It also promotes social mobility, allowing individuals to access better job opportunities and improve their socioeconomic status. Moreover, higher education institutions serve as important drivers of research and development, generating new knowledge and ideas that contribute to scientific advancements, economic growth, and social welfare. In summary, higher education is essential to the progress and development of any given country. This guide helps to reinforce the importance of higher education particularly through the lens of Hungarian academics.

March 1st, 2024

Jason Morris, Ed.D.

GABRIELLA PUSZTAI – ILONA DÓRA DABNEY-FEKETE

I. Higher education and the challenges it faces in the 21st century

Similar to decades prior, higher education still remains the focus of research in the 21st century, with one exception, that is, that unlike previously attention is no longer focused on the expansion and its effects. After all, its waves have since passed. Though the number of those seeking to attend university continues to grow, as a result of the expansion of institutions and their capacities, this pressure on higher education is not as great. Thus, researchers endeavor to first shed light on the various dramatic steps of international and national higher education policy (Pusztai 2011).

From among these rise questions of a leadership and financing nature, along with issues of internationalization and its related processes and activities. Without a doubt, the higher education arena has become an international sphere, and, for many university and college institutions, this transformation forced them to adapt. This occurrence is said to be unavoidable, leaving two choices for higher educational institutes: adapt, or be left behind. What is more, globalization puts pressure on the goals set by universities, forcing them to comply with state evaluation and requirement measurements. This move toward internationalization is indeed a key phenomenon in higher education. After all, tying into the international academic value chain, and consciously spreading the cross-border network systems are not merely the signs of improving course quality, but also of academic competitiveness (Dabney-Fekete 2020).

According to Enders and Fulton (2002), every country's and every education system's reaction to internationalization can be different, and each varied response may influence how objectives are accomplished. In regards to the latter, Enders and Teichler (1995) point out four positions on internationalization: 1) „it would be great if", 2) „it's a question of life or death", 3) „two arenas", and 4) „one-way". In countries holding the first position, support of internationalization exists both on the institutional level and the individual level, but partnership with other nations is difficult. International academic activity for the second camp is seen as a compulsory element, if a pedagogue or an institute is inactive, they lose legitimacy in their home country as well. The third stance is one where academics have the choice either to „go international" and step into the international sphere, or not. Finally, „one-way" internationalization is a very

specific and seemingly exclusive branch. Oftentimes this involves popular target countries, e.g. English-speaking countries. Academic activity and achievement here is difficult because of stringent, high standards set by these popular target countries.

One of the main characteristics of the acute and sometimes tense competition of internationalization is that knowledge, relational capital, and creativity become the engine of development and that these goods and resources are constantly increasing in value (Papanek 2006). One very important and probably most evident matter of appearance of internationalization is higher educational mobility and academic cooperation. These are nothing new to Hungarian higher education, since the habit of "pregerinatio", which we can interpret as the medieval equivalent for academic mobility and cooperation, is as old as the first universities in Europe. Though, due to certain events, (e.g. wars, epidemics, religious and political differences and hostility between countries) there were times when mobility came to a halt or was not particularly strong and active, it still has been continuous.

The fall of the Iron Curtain after the Second Word War meant a larger break, when the almost impervious physical and ideological borders prevented researchers and other academic staff from travelling abroad to share their ideas and make contact with their peers. After 1990, the central and eastern European higher educational systems had to catch up, making up for several decades of hiatus (and not necessarily arrears!). Despite the fact that the countries had already existing international cooperation networks from before the war, it was a rather arduous task to revive these relations and at the same time join the global processes.

Another hindrance for these central and eastern European countries in the competition that was exposed in their higher educational system by a new wave of internationalization was the fact that their researchers and university instructors, in order not to isolate themselves from the bloodstream of the international academic community, (would/should have) had to publish in the language that became the lingua franca of the world – English. However, in the states that were for so many decades cut off from the West whose its citizens could hardly learn anything other than Russian, this created serious problems that had to be solved fast. Recent researches in these countries still show some kind of lag behind regarding foreign language knowledge, and especially regarding English.

All these trials in connection with the new world order that followed the fall of the Iron Curtain and that were brought about by globalization put several universities to the test. Gibbons (1998) examines the theoretical question of whether in the 21st century new models of institutions transferring knowledge will (have to) development due to the changed environment. In his work he con-

cludes that the university will inevitably be put to the proof and stretched, and be closely investigated to see not only whether it is resilient enough for further operation, but also that its survival is assured.

Even though the higher educational arena has become international, there is no proper theoretical model to analyze this. According to Clark's model (1983) for the international comparison of higher education systems, three power centers are mentioned the pressure, influence, and effect of which determine the system's function. These three power houses are: 1) academic oligarchy, 2) government bureaucracy, and 3) market players. The expectations, held values, and professed values of the latter drive and shape the higher educational system and its institutions. Many critics of this model rose in the decades to follow. Among other things, they highlighted the model restrictions to application in post-socialist systems (Tomusk 1997), and, also, the fact that the state is ever increasingly becoming the evaluator, which shows a move in the direction of market logic (Neave 1998). Furthermore, Clark's model interpreted the power centers to exclusively refer to organizations, all the while it is clear that there exist others such as collective interest groups and individual players (e.g.- students and university instructors) who likewise deserve attention and examination (Marginson & Rhoades 2002).

More and more one question came to the forefront: what is the role of higher education in this new international space, what are its functions? Multiple functions underwent change, while a few new ones appeared on the scene. These functions mean different things to different actors, and their significance and weight can change depending on these meanings. According to Parson and his colleagues (1973), social integration is the education system's main task, after all, through conveying social norms higher education's ability to resolve conflict and moderate alienation is crucial. Beyond passing on professional knowledge, it must also prepare students for the intense selection process that follows graduation, as well as a powerful transfer of values (Hrubos 2009; Hermanowicz 2005) and evaluation of social inequalities (Tinto 1993; Astin 1993).

However, according to several concepts, its primary task is to adapt to the labor market and its needs, where the goal is to marry quality and effectiveness with frugality. After all, this is what would lead to the maximum profit. For, higher education is not just the tool and forum of knowledge transfer and dissemination but can be understood as a sort of business. It is at this point that the internationalization of higher education becomes critical. As a matter of fact, there has been a drastic growth in the number of teacher and student mobility programs, of academic co-operations between institutions, in the amount of money dedicated to research, and in the significance and spread of international networks. These are all indeed signs of international cooperation. What is more,

these demand appropriate resource management (human and financial alike). Of course, the question of quality does arise in the competitive, 21st-century world, which further complicates the question of adapting market logic to the higher education approach.

Pusztai (2011), however, highlights that there are authors who think it unlucky to interpret the nature and operation of higher education simply from a market operation perspective, since there is also a taste- and value-forming task (Winston & Zimmermann 2000). The fact that any economic approach and interpretation is unintelligible and inseparable apart from the various social processes and effects very clearly appears in higher education as well. What is more, this focusing approach is well known in the professional sphere as well. One of them, using the example of minorities and church-run higher education, shows that for a given group or community, higher education can have a solidarity-strengthening function too (Pusztai 2010). After all, the creation and maintenance of a higher educational institution is in and of itself a solidarity-supporting and -strengthening symbol to the community. According to another approach, higher education is a tool in the hand of the social elite, which is used to legitimize their own power and their own positions (Pusztai 2011).

It is clear that higher educational institutions find themselves under these limitations and constraints to conform to numerous explicit but unarticulated or sometimes inaudible expectations on several levels, and they are also under heavy pressure from society and the economy. It can be seen as a constant battleground or race, with institutions competing against one another for students, resources, and renown. There is a very obvious struggle for prestige and to be the best, a struggle which is often decided by the ranking system by which each institution is measured (Cremonini et al. 2008, Shin et al. 2011, Yudkevich et al. 2015). Although ranking gets criticism from several sides for using inaccurate methodology and for being unreliable, thus leading to erroneous conclusions, it still serves as a basis for comparing higher educational institutions and choosing the best one. Furthermore, these ranking lists affect the economies of nations just as much they do the performance and reputation of the individual institutions.

It is not an easy task (if not impossible!) to rank colleges and universities, as there are many factors to consider (Daraio & Bonaccorsi 2017). Some of these factors might be the size and maintainer of an institution, its agenda, ambition and objectives, and also the social-policital environment in which the specific higher educational institution finds itself. Moreover, it is a well-known fact that ranking criteria are decided in a way that they have the tendency to lean toward English-speaking institutions (Marginson & Van der Wende 2007), making the prepotency of American and British universities apparent and unavoidable. It

is because of these biases that many have begun to question the necessity of ranking at all, and have begun to discuss how ranking ought to be done properly (Billaut et al. 2010).

Despite its flaws and sometimes questioned validity, ranking still has a great impact on academic and educational policy decision making, as well as on the influence of (and pressure from) the economy. Knowing and having the worth of one's institution acknowledged by other institutions on a local, national and international level, makes consulting the ranking list and wanting to place high on its charts unavoidable.

All of these foreshadowed that not only did the transformation of higher education as a system, or that of universities as institutions take place and become necessary in the 21st century, but also that the academic communities and the environment in which they are formed also undoubtedly underwent significant changes.

During the several phases of transformation in higher education that expansion and the question of accountability have brought about, the academic community of students, researchers and teachers has also developed and changed. With the cultural and social background of both the students and teachers altered, a significant change can be detected in their roles and responsibilities (Pusztai 2011). The profession-based achievements, as well as the academic, institutional environment further diversify the already varied population. Thus, it is no coincidence that in special literature some kind of deconstruction of the term "academic communities" can be found (Pusztai 2011), and upon which conversations now ought to focus on campus cultures, where systems of goals, values and norms, study and work attitudes, and the variety of visions of the future are being discussed and implemented in a given institution.

Although from amongst the social institutions universities for many decades were thought to be the most defiant to change (Gibbons 1998), the end of the 20th and the beginning of the 21st centuries have brought radical transitions in this arena as well. These changes cannot be understood without the examination of the challenges higher education had to face and without closely investigating the answers the different systems, institutions and countries provided to these challenges.

The first and foremost change that had to be surmounted by higher education was internationalization. Though several different viewpoints on the issue persist, it was quickly realized that there was very little choice in the matter – universities either joined in, or had to lag behind. What is more, the internationalization process unearthed several tough, urgent matters needing to be addressed. The mobility and cooperation that existed in Central and Eastern European higher education post World War II, left much slack to pick up. On

top of that, the researchers and instructors there found themselves faced with the daunting challenge of needing to adapt to a new world-academic language. In this new system, much conversation was on the nature and the functions of higher education, as well as what expectations were already and ought to be placed upon it.

Once it was concluded that much social and economic pressure rests on the shoulders of higher education, and thus on the shoulders of each individual institution, it was clear to see that the strain of these expectations might be too great. This was obvious when the ranking of institutions was discussed and how these universities combat each other for the best places. It was found that though under great stress from these expectations, the stretch and strain under which these institutions and higher education at large find themselves may prove to be a good test to their resilience. In the same way, though the ranking lists do appear to pit one institution against another, much good comes from knowing the quality of an institution; and knowing where one's institution and that of his competitors stand is, for universities, invaluable knowledge.

Ultimately, internationalization and its challenges, though hard to overcome, have proven to be a good testing ground for current higher education policies and for future ones as well. Also, it has brought to the surface changes within the institutions, of a cultural and community nature, that might have otherwise remained hidden.

Due to the competition for prominent positioning on the ranking lists, the measurement of the individual work and results of teachers and researchers became the focus of attention. This sort of evaluation at the Individual level gives high ratings to activities with which the individual contribute to the good performance of the institution – e.g. activities related to active involvement on the international stage, in international publications, and international citation. This performance analysis disrupts the former order of tertiary education institutions, where recognition often rests on traditional hierarchy rather than actual performance. Thus, this system naturally and necessarily leads to conflict within the institution. These rapid changes, however, have put higher education on more exciting ground.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. How has higher education in your own country changed over the decades? What are the most significant challenges it has to face in the 21st century?
2. Is quality management needed in higher education? Why/why not?

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ÁGNES RÉKA DUSA

II. Internationalization of Higher Education in Hungary

INTRODUCTION

OECD data show that in 2011 there were more than four million secondary and higher education students who went abroad for some time to receive education there (*Education at a Glance 2013*). Although student mobility has been prevalent throughout history with its deep-rooted traditions, the significant influx of foreign students in higher education, now available to the masses, has posed novel questions and challenges. First, academic exchange happens between an increasing number of countries. Second, the group of those who can afford studying abroad is expanding, even though the scarcity of economic resources is the most common cause of immobility (Tót 2005; Erdei 2005; Dusa 2012). At the same time, it is clear that even students at home and higher education institutions without a special international emphasis are involved in the process of (higher) education internationalization (Derényi 2014). By contrast, knowledge societies may produce new kinds of inequality between individuals and institutions (Hrubos 2012; Orosz & Perna 2016).

In Hungary, the Statistical Yearbook of Education for the 2010/2011 academic year recorded 26,024 foreign students, 15,889 of them in full-time higher education. In the 2011/2012 academic year, there were 17,112 full-time tertiary students from abroad in Hungary (20,176 including part-time students). According to statistics from the autumn semester of the 2016/2017 academic year, Hungarian higher education institutions had 28,628 foreign students from 160 different countries (Berács 2017). At the same time, the number of Hungarians studying abroad is also on the rise. OECD data show that the number of Hungarian students registered at foreign higher education institutions increased from 6,987 in 2000 to 8,079 in 2011. While in 1998 only 856 Hungarian students participated in the Erasmus Scholarship program, the number of Hungarian exchange students rose to 4,164 by the 2010/2011 academic year (*Statistical Yearbook of Education* 2011; Kasza 2014).

Internationalization has become an important topic in both Hungarian and international higher education research, which includes, among other things, the analysis of the increased number and ratio of international students. Higher education internationalization is shaped by economics, foreign affairs, and policy considerations, as well as individual career motivations: professor and student acclaim on the labor market and in the academic field is raised by experience abroad.

DIMENSIONS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

The most comprehensive definition of internationalization has been created by Jane Knight. She has highlighted the process-like nature of internationalization as it is a constant force in transition, a ceaselessly emerging and transforming phenomenon. According to Knight, internationalization at a national, sectorial, and institutional level can be defined as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose (mission), functions (such as education, research, social responsibility) or delivery (e.g., branch campuses, off-site training, etc.) of postsecondary education" (Knight 2003:2).

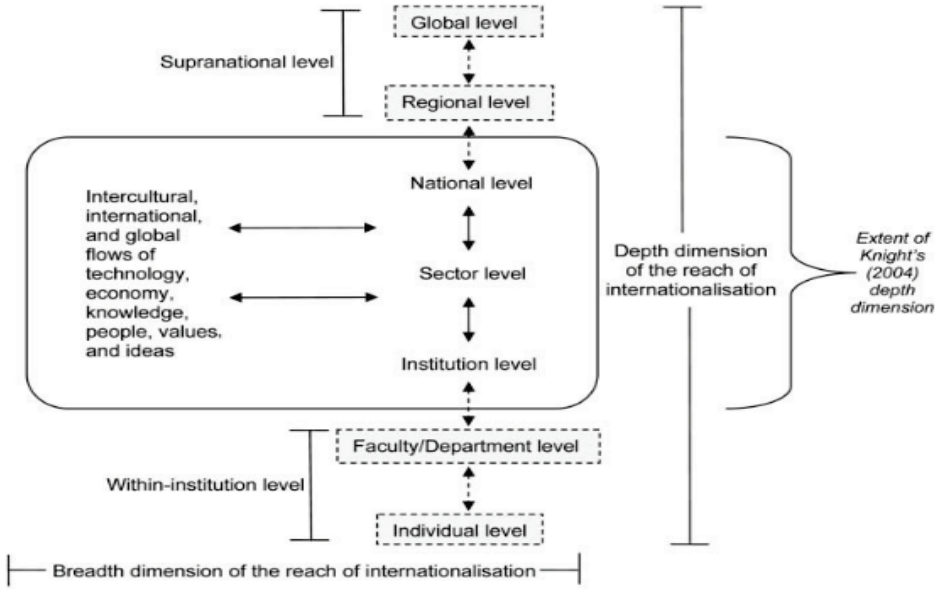
Sanderson (2008) has supplemented Knight's three-level (national, sector, and institutional level) theory with two additional levels each, both below the institutional and above the national level, thus differentiating between seven dimensions of internationalization (see Figure 1).

Now, using the dimensions of Knight's internationalization theory supplemented by Sanderson, we investigate the issues and research questions at different levels in the Hungarian and international literature.

At the supranational level of higher education internationalization, discourse is shaped by organizations such as the European Union, OECD, and UNESCO. The supranational level is aimed at mutual understanding between nations, which also includes political, cultural, and academic issues. This goal is best achieved if professors and students return from their exchange abroad, which might pave the way for a global intelligentsia with international experience, who could transmit peace and understanding between cultures (Vincent-Lancrin 2008; Altbach & de Wit 2017).

Below the supranational level (national and institutional levels), the main focus is on economic and financial concerns. International students support their host university by paying tuition (Polónyi 2010; Polónyi 2009), and help the local economy and trade through their living costs (Vincent-Lancrin 2008; M. Császár & Wusching 2016). Capacity increases also appear at the national level: when a country becomes more attractive for foreign students and researchers,

FIGURE 1: Dimensions of higher education internationalization according to the theory by Sanderson and Knight



Source: Sanderson 2008, p. 280

it benefits local performance in higher education and in research and development activities (Vincent-Lancrin 2008). Local performance is also enhanced by returning students (De Villé et al. 1996) and professors (O'Hara 2009).

A possible downside of global competition between nations is the bidding for highly qualified professionals: developed countries try to attract the most talented experts (De Wit et al. 2013; Ackers 2005). However, brain drain can be beneficial as students from developing countries help their nation converge to Western standards both economically and academically by studying at Western European or North American universities (Baruch et al. 2007). Some students who study abroad develop a strong sense of diaspora and patriotism (Rizvi 2006). Academic diasporas enhance academic life at home through their connections (Ackers 2005). In some cases, the phenomenon is better described as "brain circulation" rather than brain drain (Baruch et al. 2007; Lee & Kim 2010).

Hungary has a national strategy to increase student mobility. The Stipendium Hungaricum program accelerates inbound mobility by providing scholarships at Hungarian higher education institutions through international treaties. Outbound mobility is aided by other scholarships, such as the Eötvös Hungarian State Scholarship, Campus Mundi, Collegium Hungaricum, and summer schools. Often universities apply their own recruitment strategy to attract for-

eign students, and organize mobility fairs to popularize international mobility among Hungarian students.

At the institutional level, foreign students' economic role is vital: tuition paid by international students is an important source of revenue, especially at universities or faculties specialized in medicine (Mészáros 2012). Tuition revenue benefits financial stability and institutional autonomy alike. In the United States it has been known for a long time that research findings ought to be transformed into marketable innovations, which incentivizes market participants to fund research projects. In Europe, however, many still believe that higher education and research should not operate from market-based financing exclusively. As Török points out: "The main output of universities is skilled labor; nevertheless, the global connectivity of labor markets forces them increasingly to get their resources and their input, namely students in need of training, on terms similar to market competition" (Török 2006:311). This competition requires considerable public relations and recruitment effort. A 2014 study analyzing the marketing strategy in connection with the internationalization of the University of Debrecen found that annually the rising amount of international students is thanks to conscious recruitment, the creation of a uniform service system, and the availability of vital information on the Internet. At the same time, the study points out that outbound student mobility receives only a minor share of resources devoted to internationalization in spite of the fact that local students' inclusion into mobility programs is highly emphasized in strategic documents (Kuráth 2014). Polónyi (2010) highlights that Hungarian universities base their internationalization mainly on student mobility, hoping for a demographic and financial boom by international student arrival and tuition payment, which could help balance budget constraints and falling student enrolment. However, Polónyi argues that it is uncertain whether international students and their tuition fees are in fact able to make Hungarian higher education competitive. He believes that Hungarian universities and colleges could benefit more from inviting renowned foreign scholars to teach and do research in Hungary (Polónyi 2010). This approach is an integral part of the strategy called "internationalization at home" as inviting professors and lecturers from abroad affects both international and local students, many of whom can only be involved in internationalization this way.

The individual level of higher education internationalization consists of multiple parts. Students, professors, and other university or college employees participate in mobility for various reasons, profiting from it differently, and facing distinct challenges and obstacles. However, both professors and students can be considered knowledge brokers, that is to say, intermediaries who transmit

information and maintain relationships between several professional communities due to their mobility (Lightowler & Knight 2013; Pusztai et al. 2016).

The mobility of professors and lecturers is difficult to measure because only a certain proportion of their activity is recorded in the statistics, which do not account for informal cooperation among colleagues and some guest lectures (O'Hara 2009). Furthermore, a part of research mobility, namely that of those who have a higher degree, remains unrecorded in labor market statistics. Databases which traditionally track student mobility do not monitor their mobility in most cases, and even if they do, as in the case of Erasmus databases for instance, the volume lags behind student movement (Hőrich 2014).

Mobility is also hindered because some institutions have little interest in providing their employees international experience due to substitution and recognition problems on their part. Some researchers risk falling out of the institutional social network or cannot afford to travel with their family (Pusztai et al. 2016). As of 2009, the ten leading Hungarian universities hardly mentioned in their development strategies the mobility of their own academic staff abroad, or their plans to invite foreign guest professors (Hubert 2009). Furthermore, inequalities are also present in academic mobility (Bilecen & Van Mol 2017). In Hungary, large research universities have the advantage over smaller colleges outside the capital city (Pusztai et al. 2016).

Among the 596 Hungarian academics who went abroad in the 2005/2006 academic year, the most popular destinations were Germany, France, and Italy, the same destinations chosen for student mobility. When differentiating by age groups, it has been found that the largest share of participants were relatively old. Most gave lectures in English (54%), while some taught in German (23%) or French (10%). The majority were motivated most by the opportunity to earn experience and maintain international connections, and least by the opportunity to speak a foreign language. When asked to elaborate on international relationships before the mobility, 79% of scholars responded that they had connections abroad already, 71% had participated in an international project, and 52% had taken part in some form of cooperation. This implies that the participants of such mobility programs are mostly academics who are already embedded in the sphere of international higher education (Rédei et al. 2006). Fekete and Simándi have reached similar results by showing that the so-called Matthew effect is also present in scholars' international mobility: internationally renowned professors and researchers enjoy an ever-growing social network, while it is difficult to enter the international academic network as a newcomer (Fekete & Simándi 2012). Referring back Rédei et al., academics did not report major difficulties during their mobility, and only some experienced financial hardships. A few people faced issues with administration and substitution upon return. When

asked about possible measures to encourage mobility among the academic staff, program participants highlighted the importance of research cooperation besides coursework, emphasized the need for moral and financial support of mobility, and concluded that the academic environment should incentivize mobility (Rédei et al. 2006).

According to a more recent study, the reasons to teach courses abroad are networking, professional development, enhancing language competencies, and publication opportunities. However, even a short, 5–6 day long stay could be difficult due one's absence from family. Young scholars are often constrained by the high number of courses they teach, although they have an advantage compared to older generations because they are more likely to be proficient in foreign languages. Relationship patterns differ between older and younger professors: the former have informative, the latter institutional social networks (Hőrich 2014).

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. To what extent do you think your own research topic is affected by internationalization?
2. How does the internationalization of higher education affect other areas of educational sciences and researches (e.g. teaching methodology)?
3. How internationalized is higher education in your country in the aspects mentioned in this chapter (Sanders' dimensions)?

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ÁGNES RÉKA DUSA

III. Diversity and excellence in higher education – university students

INTRODUCTION

Since the first ancient universities, students have always been important actors in the world of higher education. If we think, for example, of medieval monastic schools, everyone had their own tasks and duties in addition to their studies. Everyone had a part to play, thus creating a society of their own. Much has changed over the centuries, but higher education institutions still have their own distinctive world. Moreover, as more and more young people spend increasing amounts of time on campus, the world of universities is becoming a progressively more important part of their socialization. This particular way of student life between the years of secondary school and the world of work creates a specific set of norms, aspirations and habits that young people entering the world have to learn.

This chapter looks first at how higher education has changed since the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries, and how this has affected students. The second part focuses on the concept of diversity and excellence. Then we move on to the key characteristics of today's students.

CHANGES AT THE TURNS OF THE 20TH AND 21ST CENTURIES

After the Second World War, processes were set in motion that changed the world of higher education institutions. These changes culminated in Western Europe and the United States of America in the 1960s and 1970s and are significant in three respects. One is institutional: the number, type and size of institutions increased. The second change affected the student population: the quantity of students increased enormously (see table below). The third is socially significant: the proportion of people attending university has increased in the relevant age groups. The extent of the increase is illustrated by the fact that the share of the post-war university population has more than doubled in twenty-five years (from 4–5% of the relevant age group to 10–20%). This growth did not stop after the turn of the millennium: today, around 30% of the age group in question is enrolled in higher education in Europe.

1. TABLE: **Global higher educational enrollments in million**

Years	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010	2015	2020 (proj.)	2030 (proj.)	2040 (proj.)
Student Population (million)	32.6	50.8	68.3	99.9	181.5	214.1	250.8	377.4	594.1

Source: Calderon (2018): Massification of higher education revisited, using data from UIS 2018

These higher numbers also affected the quality of universities. Martin Trow in the 1970s predicted that universities would move from being elite institutions to becoming mass-education institutions. He said that elite universities will remain, but new institutions will be created to meet the needs of mass education (Trow 1973). There are big differences between the two types of university. Below we mention a few of these differences.

At the "elite" stage of higher education, a maximum of 15% of the relevant age group can enter higher education, while in "mass" education, 16–50% of the relevant age group is able to enroll. (Trow calls the phenomenon when more than 50% of students can go on to university, the "universal" stage of higher education.) Access at the elite stage is for a privileged few, while at the mass stage everybody who has the required qualifications is granted access. The main function of the institutions is different, too. Elite universities train the ruling class and impart the necessary skills, abilities, norms and behavior patterns appropriate for the ruling class. Mass universities train to wider "intellect" roles, give more practical skills and the training prepare students for specific occupations not for a lifestyle or way of life. Elite universities are more isolated in the physical world, while a mass university campus is more open and more an integral part of the city where it is located (Trow 1973; 2007).

In the same way that the differences between elite and mass education affect the function of institutions, they also affect the composition of their students. The biggest change affecting students is diversity. While in the elite phase students entering higher education were very similar (typically young men from high class families), in the mass phase of higher education students from very different backgrounds and with different difficulties could enroll different motives, talents and job prospects. This diversity can become a positive influence, leading to democratization of (higher) education and all society inclusion of different views and opinions. Or not-so-positive one, uncovering the reproduction of social inequalities, the problems of equal opportunities, the slow response to diverse needs (Trow 1973; 2007; van Vught 2009).

DIVERSITY OF STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

It is difficult to give a precise definition of diversity because, as we shall see, it is still an evolving concept. Diversity has its roots in Western liberal theories about equality. After World War II in the USA and Canada, and after the fall of the Berlin Wall in Europe diversity slowly became an important concept – but different way. The first analyses of diversity appeared in the academic literature on the two continents at different times. Ultimately, it has long been a policy and academic issue for many, in North-America since the 1970s, in other English-speaking countries (United Kingdom, Ireland, Australia, and South-Africa) since the 1990s, and in Europe since the end of 2000. There are, however, regions where diversity in higher education is not a priority research topic, such as Asia, Latin America, Africa or the Middle East, where diversity is less popular as a topic for higher education policy or education studies. In addition to the time difference, the topic of diversity touches on different issues from continent to continent. In the USA and Canada, diversity research focused on racial under-representation, in Europe (in the UK and the Continental countries as well) it delved into ethnicity, inclusion and disability, while in Oceania the (inter)cultural side of diversity was examined (Claeys-Kulik et al. 2019). One approach which is well researched everywhere is that of gender differences (Ceglédi et al. 2022). This is especially of STEM fields, where women are underrepresented, or at feminized professions, where they are overrepresented (e.g. nursing, teaching). A dimension of diversity is that more and more people are entering higher education from families in which they will be the first graduates (so-called first-generation intellectuals), putting them at a considerable disadvantage. Last but not least, age is also a diversifying factor. There is a growing number of students who do not start (or rather do not immediately continue) their higher education after graduation from secondary school, but only later (due to military service, work, etc.). These 'older' students are more independent from their parents, have different experiences, live alone or with their families (and typically not on university campuses), work part-time or full-time (Engler 2019; 2021). The educational literature primarily refers to this latter group as 'non-traditional students'. Based on the above mentioned criteria (race, ethnicity, gender, disability, lower social status), we can also consider a significant part of the student population of mass higher education as different from so called 'traditional students' (van Vught 2009; Claeys-Kulik et al. 2019).

According to Trow, mass education cannot maintain the standards of its elite counterpart, at least not in the national education system, so higher education has needed to differentiate. The highest-ranking elite universities remained, being joined by institutions offering more practical training or complementary

courses. Moreover, in addition to state universities and colleges, the number of church-related denominational institutions and foundation-run institutions has increased. They vary in size from small, family-like institutions to massive universities with tens of thousands of students (Trow 2007).

At the elite stage of higher education, the young members of families with the highest socioeconomic status enrolled in universities, thus the student body was very homogenous. With the expansion and massification of higher education, many students with mixed backgrounds or pasts (socialization, experiences, norms, previous study paths), various needs (teaching and learning methods, social supports, cheaper accommodations, varied interest), and different futures (goals, further education plans, career paths) all arrived at university in a short time and in large numbers. Each type of institution tried to respond differently to these varying needs (Teichler 2002; 2007; van Vught 2009). Not surprisingly, there is a considerable body of diversity literature dealing with the teaching, learning and pedagogical difficulties of these new students. This leads us to the issue of excellence.

EXCELLENCE IN MASS HIGHER EDUCATION

Student excellence can be measured in many ways, as higher education has changed, so has this concept. The excellence of students in elite schools primarily referred to academics. In mass higher education in addition to academics, the labor market and social aspects are also important (van Vught 2009; Pusztai 2015).

Strict academic criteria may include the percentage of final graduates, number of scholarship winners, of international research projects, of publications, and number of scientific presentations, etc. However, the aim of mass education is no longer just to develop academic talent, but also to train people for practical graduate jobs. Therefore, from a labor market perspective, it is the fast and successful employment rates that are more important – meaning the most sought-after, most lucrative degree for students. In addition to academic and labor market benchmarks, the diversity discussed earlier, and (successful) support for disadvantaged students, can also mean excellence for the institution, which is often called the third mission (Pusztai 2015). Here is where the concept of resilience enters, which in educational theory refers to students who succeed despite their disadvantages (minority status, financial hardship, disability, first-generation at university etc.). While resilience means effort and commitment on the part of the student, the institutional added value, support services, talent management programs, colleges for advanced studies also help disadvantaged students (Ceglédi et al 2022). The opposite of excellence and resilience is the

drop-out rate. According to Eurostudent VII. survey, students of the scientific field of Health and Welfare consider dropping out less often, while the intention to drop out in the field of Information and Communication Technologies is above average. From this perspective, the student satisfaction is a very good indicator for drop-out risk.

CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATIONAL STUDENTS

To summarize the characteristics of average European higher educational students, we used the results from Eurostudent VII. survey.

Although women make up the majority of student body, there are gender imbalances in disciplines. Female students are much more likely to study education, health or welfare than STEM majors. On average, 64% of students are under the age of 25, so 36% of the ratio of the non-traditional students. 11% of all the students have at least one child. 15% of students have a familial migration background and 10% of are international students. Around half of students' parents hold a tertiary degree, while students from lower parental educational backgrounds are underrepresented in almost all the examined countries. These students are older than their peers and most of them do not receive parental support. In addition to delaying their entry into higher education, they also tend to enroll in lower quality institutions and/or courses (e.g. non-universities, short-cycle programs, bachelor majors), or they study under part-time status. All of the aforementioned things can be a heavy emotional load on a student. Less educated parents also have an impact on attitudes. They are able to be a support and guide for their children at a time when these great steps in life bring much uncertainty. After all these students' further education was not clear during their secondary school years, and during their university years they could not fit in. 15% of all students report an impairment that is limiting to their studies e.g. physical chronic diseases or mental health issues. Most of these students enrolled for a major in the fields of business, administration, and law (22%), health and welfare (15%), or engineering, manufacturing, and construction (14%). A quarter of students had an international background as a result of family ties (first or second generation migrant) or education (international student). Most of the students live with their parents (34%), they are quite satisfied with their living condition, for, this is the cheapest form of housing. As a result of living with parents, longer distances to university make daily commutes average 40 minutes. By contrast, 17% of students, who lives in dormitories, are less satisfied with their living condition, although their daily commuting times is much shorter than those living with their parents (15 minutes on average). 25% of all students

live with their partners and/or children. 13% live either with other person(s), or flat mates, and 11% live alone. Students who do not live with parents spend 65% of their total monthly expenses on accommodation, food and transportation (Hauschildt et al. 2021).

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. How has the proportion of students in higher education in your country developed and what impact has it had on higher education?

	2000	2016
Arab States	5.1	10.8
Central & Eastern Europe	14.0	18.9
Central Asia	1.5	2.0
East Asia & the Pacific	25.3	70.9
Latin America & the Caribbean	11.5	26.2
North America & Western Europe	27.8	37.5
South & West Asia	12.2	42.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.6	7.4
World	**99.9**	**215.9**

Higher education enrolment rates by global region, 2000–2016.
Source: Calderon, UNESCO

2. What difficulties does the increasingly diverse student population create in classroom situations?

3. The non-traditional student type is a possible expansion option for most higher education institutions. What are the "new types" of students in your country that could help to further expand higher education?

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TÍMEA CEGLÉDI

IV. Inequalities in higher education among students – the resilience strategy

INEQUALITIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The reproduction of inequalities in higher education and in public education as a whole became a dominant thesis of educational research in the 1970s and 1980s (e.g. Bourdieu 1978; Boudon 1981; Goastellec 2010; Beck 1983; Müller et al. 1989, 2011; Simkus 1981; DiMaggio 1981). The international literature on the exploration of inequalities and the scientific investigation of the processes and phenomena behind them (even the creation of key concepts of the problem) has sounded unanimous alarms about their persistence and reproduction, emphasizing as a reason the determinant or highly determinant role of family background (e.g. Beck 1983; Bourdieu 1978, 1998, 2003a, 2003b; DiMaggio 1981; Ferge 1969, 2006; Gazsó 1971; Kozma 1975; Fehérvári 2015a).

In recent decades, the expansion of higher education has been one of the processes – both embedded in and reflecting the macro processes of society – in which social mobility could be understood. The "opening of the gates" has reinterpreted the academic discourse on the relationship between education and social inequalities, giving it new meaning. In the search for answers, one question has been reassessed: whether higher education, which is absorbing ever larger numbers of students and becoming increasingly differentiated and diversified, contributes to reducing social inequalities in the new student population, and whether, under the changed conditions, higher education is able to (and is seen as a goal of) compensating for social and economic disadvantages (Goastellec 2010; Veroszta 2009; Hrubos 2006, 2009, 2012a; Altbach 2010; Shavit et al. 2007; Róbert 2000b). Several theories and studies have described the access to higher education of the underprivileged, taking into account not only structural but also individual aspects (Baron 1994).

In the current literature, there is a considerable debate about the paradox between existing social inequality, and expanded and open (higher) education. One the one hand, some argue that the discourse on social inequality in current higher education which has gone through a substantial expansion has lost its validity. It is said that this is because widely accessible education implies a broader and socially less pre-selected pool of potential students, and because

inequality is less prevalent in tertiary education than it is on lower levels due to academic selection (e.g., Treiman 1970; Beck 1983; Breen & Jonsson 2005; Nagy P. 2003). On the other hand, many believe that higher education provides fertile ground for inequality, where it might accumulate, get reinforced, and spread further (e.g., Altbach 2010; Vukasovic & Sarrico 2010; Szemerszki 2009a, 2009b; Kozma 2004; Shavit et al. 2007; Lucas 2001; Polónyi 2006, 2016a, 2016b; Róbert 2000a, 2000b). This is because inequality plays a significant role in shaping differentiation and diversification (Veroszta 2010).

Theories and research findings on the social determinants of access can be interpreted as different interpretations of the argument: "Is the glass half full or half empty?" In the positive-outlook approach, the reduction of inequalities is shown in the growing number first-generation intellectuals, in the possibility of continuing education after vocational training and in returning to the labor market upon completing one's own education. Various reductions in other areas such as the effect of age, of origin, or other factors on the labour market and the selection process also contribute to the reduction of inequality. In the negative-outlook approach, the persistence of inequalities is discussed in terms of the self-exclusion of low-status people, the internal stratification of higher education, the increase in the availability of vacant status, in terms of territorial inequalities, selective emigration, the upward creep of the origin effect, and differential selection or the punishment of inherited disadvantage.

In conclusion, the literature corroborates the argument that inequality is indeed present in higher education with respect to the possibility of and actual differentiation of entry (social differences in the inner structure of higher education), the ability not to drop out, the content of student years, and prosperity later in career. Since this phenomenon within higher education is relatively seldom investigated, in this chapter we offer a glimpse at students' everyday lives as we address the question of how one's family background can be traced in higher education.

Following the comparative, descriptive, and consequence-focused approach of mobility analyses, our chapter fits well into the literature which explores the underlying reasons of a phenomenon. Our goal is a deeper understanding of the "whys" and "hows" of this anomaly. To achieve this, we have put in the center of our chapter a section (Ceglédi 2018) which deals with students who entered higher education with outstanding performance despite the disadvantages of their social background. At a certain stage of their academic careers, rather than fail or drop out, the usual social patterns associated with an unfavorable social background, they excelled unto success. Thus, they have earned the title of "resilient students".

This chapter deals with the following questions: How can students from a less favorable social background achieve well in higher education? How can they be or become resilient?

RESILIENCE, RESILIENT STUDENTS

Resilience is often defined as the ability of "adapting well in the face of hardships", that is, as an extraordinary phenomenon which occurs despite adverse circumstances. The definition provided by the International Resilience Project also emphasizes this approach: "Resilience is a universal capacity which allows a person, group or community to prevent, minimize or overcome the damaging effects of adversity (…)" (Grotberg 1996: page not specified). In this chapter the term to describe a sociological phenomenon was used (Ceglédi 2012). One may regard someone as resilient if they have performed well in school in spite of poor financial footing. In other words, students who perform well academically despite disadvantages are called resilient.

In OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) reports analyzing PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) data, an important indicator is the proportion of resilient students per country, which is used to infer inequalities in the education system (not society) of each country (OECD 2016, 2019). Resilient students are those who are in the bottom quartile of the ESCS (PISA index of Economic, Social and Cultural Status), a complex measure of social background, and who have a high level of achievement. High performance is measured using a variety of methods. In the most detailed time-series analysis to date, a disadvantaged student who scores in the top quarter of the international field on the PISA test is considered to be resilient (OECD 2016).

"On average across OECD countries, one in ten disadvantaged students was able to perform in the top quarter of reading performance in their country, indicating that disadvantage is not destiny. In Australia, Canada, Estonia, Hong-Kong (China), Ireland, Macao (China) and the United Kingdom, all of which scored above the OECD average, more than 13% of disadvantaged students were academically resilient. Academic resilience was found to be positively related to parental support, teacher enthusiasm, student self-efficacy and a positive disciplinary climate at school. In some countries, resilient students were also found to enjoy reading more, to have higher motivation to master tasks and to have a greater ability to set and pursue goals. In 35 out of 76 countries and economies, a greater proportion of academically resilient students reported that they feel they belong at school compared with students who are not academically resilient. Associations were strong in Bulgaria, France, Jordan, Morocco, Panama and the Philippines. Academic resilience was associated with other measures of

student well-being, such as life satisfaction and lack of self-doubt when facing failure, but to a lesser extent." (OECD 2019: 66)

The share of resilient students in Hungary decreased by 6.7 percentage points between 2006 and 2015 (from 26% to 19.3%), and this decrease is one of the steepest among the countries examined (the OECD average in this area increased from 27.7% to 29.2% over the period (OECD 2016). The most recent report, from 2018, shows that Hungary's poor position has not changed: 7.7% of students are resilient in Hungary, based on the definition of the top quarter of achievement nationally (OECD average: 11.3%) (OECD 2019).

In their time series analysis, Agasisti and colleagues also concluded that the share of resilient students in Hungary decreased between 2006 and 2015 (2006: 20.9%, 2009: 20.2%, 2012: 18.6%, 2015: 14%) (Agasisti et al. 2018). Agasisti and colleagues (2018) identified resilient students based on absolute achievement data. According to their definition resilient students were "among the 25% most socio-economically disadvantaged students in their country but are able to achieve at or above 'Level 3' in all three PISA domains (reading, mathematics and science), a level that equips them for success later in life (Level 2 is considered a baseline level),. Level 3 corresponds, in each subject, to the highest level achieved by at least 50% of students across OECD countries on average (median proficiency level). (…) Students who perform at Level 3 begin to demonstrate the ability to construct the meaning of a text and form a detailed understanding from multiple independent pieces of information when reading; can work with proportional relationships and engage in basic interpretation and reasoning when solving mathematics problems; and they can handle unfamiliar topics in science." (Agasisti et al. 2018: 8–9). As Table 1 shows, based on 2015 data, Estonia, Japan, Canada, Finland and Korea have the highest proportion of resilient students (42.1–36.7%), while the least ratio of resilient students are found in Mexico, Chile, Turkey, Hungary and Greece. The largest decreases over the years studied were in Finland, Korea, New Zealand, Australia, Hungary and Iceland.

TABLE 1. Trends in the proportion of resilient students, PISA 2006 to PISA 2015, OECD (resilient students were identified through absolute levels in the PISA proficiency distribution)

		Proportion of resilient students									
		PISA 2006		PISA 2009		PISA 2012		PISA 2015		Annualised change	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	% dif.	S.E.
Australia	AUS	36.3	(1.03)	34.1	(1.39)	32.3	(1.18)	28.6	(1.10)	–0.8	(0.17)
Austria*	AUT	27.6	(2.28)	m	m	m	m	23.4	(1.75)	m	m
Belgium	BEL	28.4	(1.41)	29.8	(1.27)	29.6	(1.45)	26.6	(1.26)	–0.2	(0.20)
Canada	CAN	43.3	(1.33)	43.2	(1.40)	41.2	(1.15)	39.6	(1.50)	–0.4	(0.21)
Chile	CHL	2.5	(0.64)	4.8	(0.74)	3.9	(0.78)	7.2	(0.97)	0.4	(0.12)
Czech Republic	CZE	25.2	(1.92)	22.9	(1.37)	26.2	(1.92)	20.2	(1.56)	–0.4	(0.26)
Denmark	DNK	29.9	(1.65)	26.3	(1.70)	27.0	(1.61)	31.1	(1.58)	0.2	(0.24)
Estonia	EST	40.0	(2.63)	39.3	(2.44)	47.1	(2.01)	42.1	(2.13)	0.5	(0.32)
Finland	FIN	55.8	(1.83)	51.9	(2.07)	43.4	(1.68)	39.1	(2.13)	–2.0	(0.28)
France	FRA	19.0	(1.51)	24.6	(2.16)	24.1	(1.63)	24.1	(1.31)	0.5	(0.22)
Germany	DEU	25.2	(1.90)	24.5	(1.79)	31.7	(2.20)	32.3	(2.04)	1.0	(0.30)
Greece	GRC	12.6	(1.27)	15.2	(1.78)	12.5	(1.23)	15.1	(1.76)	0.2	(0.23)
Hungary	HUN	20.9	(1.83)	20.2	(1.76)	18.6	(1.86)	14.0	(1.20)	–0.7	(0.21)
Iceland	ISL	28.5	(1.78)	33.2	(1.78)	26.6	(1.52)	23.7	(1.68)	–0.7	(0.26)
Ireland	IRL	30.7	(2.31)	27.1	(1.77)	34.5	(2.04)	32.0	(1.75)	0.4	(0.32)
Israel	ISR	9.7	(1.28)	10.6	(1.20)	15.3	(1.64)	15.8	(1.34)	0.8	(0.19)
Italy	ITA	15.8	(0.96)	22.7	(1.18)	24.7	(1.10)	20.4	(1.26)	0.5	(0.17)
Japan	JPN	33.9	(2.14)	43.5	(2.41)	50.0	(2.45)	40.4	(1.93)	0.9	(0.30)
Korea	KOR	52.7	(2.28)	51.3	(2.69)	54.9	(2.24)	36.7	(2.27)	–1.5	(0.36)
Latvia	LVA	23.3	(1.99)	21.6	(2.15)	24.7	(2.07)	22.1	(1.36)	0.0	(0.24)
Luxembourg	LUX	16.4	(1.26)	14.4	(1.17)	18.3	(1.25)	17.0	(1.30)	0.2	(0.18)
Mexico	MEX	2.0	(0.40)	3.3	(0.43)	3.0	(0.37)	3.5	(0.58)	0.1	(0.08)
Netherlands	NLD	37.9	(2.38)	33.8	(3.08)	38.7	(2.63)	32.9	(1.67)	–0.3	(0.31)
New Zealand	NZL	36.6	(1.95)	34.2	(1.69)	23.6	(1.61)	25.1	(1.90)	–1.5	(0.27)
Norway	NOR	24.7	(1.51)	29.4	(1.87)	29.8	(2.08)	31.7	(1.42)	0.7	(0.23)
Poland	POL	25.8	(1.67)	26.5	(1.69)	35.8	(1.85)	30.0	(1.88)	0.7	(0.25)
Portugal	PRT	16.3	(1.65)	21.6	(1.71)	21.8	(1.95)	25.8	(1.68)	1.0	(0.23)

		Proportion of resilient students									
		PISA 2006		PISA 2009		PISA 2012		PISA 2015		Annualised change	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	% dif.	S.E.
Slovak Republic	SVK	18.7	(1.60)	20.3	(1.64)	14.8	(1.66)	15.8	(1.37)	–0.5	(0.21)
Slovenia	SVN	25.0	(1.45)	22.9	(1.37)	22.3	(1.40)	32.5	(1.60)	0.7	(0.22)
Spain	ESP	17.6	(0.97)	21.2	(1.59)	22.5	(1.22)	24.8	(1.22)	0.8	(0.17)
Sweden	SWE	30.2	(2.03)	25.6	(1.85)	22.3	(1.66)	25.0	(1.51)	–0.6	(0.30)
Switzerland	CHE	29.9	(1.81)	29.9	(1.63)	33.1	(1.72)	26.8	(1.78)	–0.2	(0.24)
Turkey	TUR	6.0	(0.88)	10.6	(1.37)	13.5	(1.59)	7.2	(1.34)	0.2	(0.17)
United Kingdom	GBR	28.0	(1.65)	24.6	(1.59)	32.5	(1.60)	28.2	(1.63)	0.3	(0.22)
United States**	USA	m	m	22.6	(1.56)	24.4	(1.78)	22.3	(1.88)	m	m

Source: Agasisti et al. 2018:15

RESILIENT STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The literature on resilience consists mostly of studies which explore the "secret" of students who are resilient based, examining the reasons behind their academic efficiency despite the disadvantages of their background. These works offer a variety of explanations, sometimes even opposing ones, which, with the related empirical findings, help identify specific issues and lead to novel questions, as well. A notable example is the question of whether resilience potential in higher education or due to rising social inequality remains mere potential.

To answer this question, Ceglédi (2018) has analyzed the HERD student survey database (N=1295, targeted both fee-paying and state-funded, full-time students who were in the 1st or 3rd year of their bachelor's studies, in the 1st year of their master's studies, or in the 1st or 4th year of their undivided training, which offers a master's degree).

To identify students with resilience potential and their control groups, they have chosen socio-economic background variables which the literature suggests can predict academic outcomes the best (parents' level of education, inactive or missing parents, place of residence and its socio-economic development, subjective financial status). They have also selected input indicators which are closely connected to manifest academic goals and can predict higher education efficiency well (whether during their secondary studies, students have received any award or scholarship for academic achievement at the end of a semester or

academic year, or for success in academic, art, and sports competitions; whether students have been granted extra admission points due to favorable results in an academic competition, such as the National Secondary School Academic Competition, or in a sports tournament). They have attempted to create an index which corresponds with the Beck's theory on individualization of social risks and the diversity of non-traditional groups in higher education (Beck 1983; Pusztai 2011; Engler 2013, 2016; Tőzsér 2012; Nagy P. 2010; Hrubos 2012; Veroszta 2010; Széll 2016) as well as on multidimensional individual disadvantages (Mayer & Müller 1971; Blaskó 2002; Kovách et al. 2015; Vukasovic & Sarrico 2010; Huszár 2013a, 2013b; Kolosi & Keller 2012; Sági 2010; Ceglédi 2017). They have attended to missing observations, created dichotomized variables and indices, standardized the data, and then conducted a cluster analysis, which has resulted in the identification of four groups. 1) students with resilience potential (low social background and high input efficiency); 2) drifters (low social background and low input efficiency); 3) beneficiaries (high social background and high input efficiency); 4) indifferent prodigals (high social background and low input efficiency).

The results of analysis show that compared to the higher education entry motives of beneficiaries, they have found that students with resilience potential possess traits from the family and secondary school which only slightly strengthen their prospects of pursuing further studies. It is clear that they fall behind beneficiaries and, often, indifferent prodigals in aspects which determine development and prosperity in the future: enjoying the benefits of 6 or 8 year secondary schools, attending shadow education, relatives who read frequently, parents' intellectual commitment, university degrees in the family and the required financial background to enter higher education, as well as certain elements of psychological resilience necessary to be part of the intelligentsia or act as a leader. However, in comparison to the average composition of higher education, students with resilience potential seem to perform in an unusual environment better than their socio-economic background would suggest, and the forces which drive them to higher education are remarkably different. From this perspective, the atypical reasons behind the higher education entry of students with resilience potential include their parents' caring attitude (which is an important force in itself, even without the intellectual dimension – e.g., Reay et al. 2009; Pusztai 2004b; Ceglédi 2012), a not overly damaged family structure, mothers who read frequently, private classes, friends' inspiring examples, advice and pressure from parents and teachers, reading habits, certain elements of psychological resilience, and the realization that networking is a relevant entry motivation. In conclusion, an extensive support network was observed which comprises the main components described in the literature about resilience: family, peers, teachers, and individual traits (Ceglédi 2018).

The second hypothesis about the existence of a multi-layered structure of higher education has been confirmed, although the conclusions cannot be generalized due to the relatively low number of observations. Only the most talented of students with disadvantages of background can enter higher education in the fields of medicine, economics, and pharmacology (they are students with resilience potential), but compared to beneficiaries, their presence is modest. The fields of law and rural development are neutral in this regard. Students with resilience potential are overrepresented at university faculties of natural sciences, mostly at the expense of indifferent prodigals. The multi-layered structure can also be traced in the choices between college and university: students with resilience potential often opt for college education (Ceglédi 2018).

Third, the hypothesis about the differences in student years has been confirmed. Students with resilience potential outperform beneficiaries in academic commitment, and are equally receptive to extracurricular activities in close connection with the manifest goals of higher education, while lagging when it comes to making use of the advantages of higher education which are characteristically capitalized by intellectuals. Students with resilience potential are often not able to break through the "ceiling" set by beneficiaries as regards certain indices of academic and professional efficiency, language certificates, and personal relationships with professors and fellow students. Beneficiaries display a performance which can only be expected of those who have entered higher education with similar results. The fact that students with resilience potential lag behind them may be a clear sign of social inequality in higher education (Ceglédi 2018).

According to the fourth hypothesis, careers outside and after university or college are also influenced by social inequality within higher education. A significant division was observed between attitudes and actual opportunities. Whereas students with resilience potential show attitudes which are characteristic of a successful person, their limited opportunities imply that social inequality is also prevalent outside and after higher education. Based on their attitudes, they can be described as citizens and employees who are conscious of their intellectual role, possess stable morals, and are open to the norms of their potential workplace. Their scarce opportunities are evidenced by the fact that during their student years, they rarely seek employment in the field of their studies; instead, they endeavor in different lines of work, often to earn money or to help out in the family business. This does not necessarily result in reduced success in the future as there may be many advantages of employment which is not in close connection with one's field of studies. Surprisingly, students with resilience potential do volunteer work more frequently than others, which is a clearly beneficial addition to higher education in terms of skill acquisition and networking. Postgraduate programs are less attractive for students with resilience potential,

which may be an indication that they are not committed to lifelong learning or realize that their prospects are limited (Ceglédi 2018).

In conclusion, Ceglédi's (2018) findings underline that resilience demonstrated before entering higher education is only the potential thereof because students with this sort of potential make use of higher education only through curricular channels and are not able to break through the ceiling set by beneficiaries. That is to say, social inequality is reinforced in higher education.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. What are the arguments in the literature about inequalities in higher education? Which do you agree with? Why?
2. According to PISA data, which countries have the most and the least number of resilient students? What characteristics of the education systems and societies in these countries do you think might be associated with this result? What solutions would you suggest to policy makers, school leaders, teachers, school professionals, parents and students?
3. What factors do you think explain why students from better social backgrounds perform better in higher education and later in the labor market?

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ILONA DÓRA DABNEY-FEKETE

V. The academic professoriate*

THE INSTRUCTOR

In the past 60 years there have been several radical and paramount changes taking place in higher education. First of all, it has become one of the centers for research and public interest due to its constantly increasing involvement in both the life of communities and politics. The academic spotlight then turned to the consequences and dilemmas of the explosion in the number of students attending, followed by the changing mission, social roles, and responsibilities of universities. Inquiring about financing, maintaining higher educational institutions, and exploring the problems experienced by participants and challenges arising in educational policy.

After the second half of the 2000s, the roles and related issues of students, a group representing a massive, ever-growing body of actors that expands annually with the arrival of freshmen, was the subject of focus. This focus shifted again, moving instead toward instructors. The group of university teachers that Bourdieu (1989) calls *homo academicus*, or that Altbach (2002) mentions as the *guru*, were only in recent decades scrutinized, although the academic profession has the capacity to affect other sectors as well (Enders 2007). Altbach and Haas (1996) point out that the morale, attitude and competence of this particular group are essential in shaping the whole higher educational system, and in keeping it healthy.

Researching the academic professoriate is not without its hardships. Having to deal with numerous difficult questions proves arduous, the foremost of which is: who in an academic environment do we call ***instructors*** and teachers? This topic must be examined very thoroughly, since it may differ from country to country, and age to age; even the "contents" behind the term may change, depending on quite a few factors. According to Weber (1995) the university is the

* The lines in this chapter are a condensed overview from selected parts of the author's work *Nemzetköziesedő tudomány (Internationalizing academics),* and were reorganized following the author's unique interpretation and selection. These were further enhanced by other thoughts and points from special literature.

temple of science, thus the professors are like high priests, whose paths to the top are paved with expectations and sacrifices. Altbach (2002) is of the opinion that although one of the instructors' central roles is teaching, doing research and service are also essential – the question is, which will be dominant – teaching, research, or service.

According to the Humboldt concept, universities should strive for the unification of teaching and research, where the main function of teaching should be giving feedback to research, that is training researchers. And similarly, research should help improve the quality of teaching. Based on the findings of Höhle and Teichler (2013) however, those in higher education prefer research to teaching. They explain this phenomenon in this manner: teachers, especially at the beginning of their careers, are both enthusiastic and ambitious to perform well, to advance fast. And this, in the struggle for internationalization, is made a more viable possibility through joint international researches. Kwiek (2016) points out in his analysis of researchers from 11 countries, that only those willing to shift all other roles related to the university to the background can belong to the elite group of researchers and can be successful. According to Altbach (2002), in developing countries the instructor predominantly focuses on teaching, thus the researching and providing service aspect come second. Colbeck (2002) on the other hand does not necessarily interpret the higher educational "role collision" as a conflict, but he holds that they have to form a unit, and the evaluation regarding an instructor's work and achievement should always reflect that unity.

Along with the teaching and researching, the third is namely that of an administrator. Due to the profound changes in higher education, it was inevitable that the administrative tasks would increase considerably, at the expense of academic work. In this picture where the bureaucratic structure comes into the foreground, the teaching role is paired not with the researcher but with the administrator. The instructor's career path is dependent more on the bureaucratic results and success rather than on academic achievements (Bourdieu 1984). In Hungary for instance, a teacher in higher education is weighed not only by his academic achievement, but also by the attainment and performance of his students, and his own popularity among students. In this instructor-administrator arena, the individual is forced to reposition himself, and build out new sources (other than knowledge-based ones) for the sake of advancement. In that sense, new friendships, even alliances must be shaped. This shows that besides academic components, other factors of success also play an influential role in the advancement of a professor. This tendency can be detected in European special literature, while the discourses overseas focus more on the conflict of teaching versus research roles (Astin 1984).

In addition, from another view, instructors are expected to maneuver not only in the crossfire of feuds caused by competitions within the university department, but they also have to conform to the expectations imposed on them by external interest groups (Neave 2005; Amaral 2008; Pusztai 2011). Since the universities come under pressure to maximize their incomes, the achievements of the instructors are evaluated by practical, clear, transparent and countable indicators, just like for any other worker. With this, they experienced a loss of prestige and a move from the ivory tower of academics to the life of a common laborer (Ramsden 1998; Pusztai 2011). Rhodes (1999) looks upon this as a part of an unavoidable process, where the instructors become more and more "guided", which is generally due to the fact that some universities are very much interested in money (Becher & Trowler 2001).

It has become evident that in the 21st century examining university teachers by viewing them as higher educational actors, who are constantly juggling teacher, researcher, and even administrator roles, is preventing us from seeing a complete picture. The problem of the expansion, and the swift spread of internationalization have made the entire system of higher education face new challenges. Thus, teachers too have to accommodate in their roles to the new juncture. They also have to take up new parts to play, like actively participating in academic and public life and the activities related to them (Perger 2016), or to perform well in their field in practice. For them teaching and carrying out researches are roles that are needed "only" to help them further their career (Eagan et al. 2014). Being a motivator for the students and colleagues, a psychologist, an academic service provider, an organizer, an economist, who has to know how to distribute resources, a promoter, a national and international professional manager, or an IT specialist, all while being an instructor is truly what it means to be a 21st-century instructor, a polymath. It is an evident thought that in the long-run the instructor will come to a point where he will have to choose from among these roles, since one cannot execute them all by himself.

THE PROFESSORIATE AND INTERNATIONALIZATION

The question immediately arises: what reaction does the university teachers' community have to the changes and challenges it had to face? We persist, two different reactions are possible. On the one hand they can choose not to take notice of the processes related to internationalization and the challenges in higher education, keeping out of the struggle for position, and remaining far from the world of academic expectations. On the other hand, they may participate in these processes – either willingly, with curiosity, or due to some kind of external pressure. Such a push can manifest itself in state supervision or the necessity to

be involved in the practices and activities of internationalization. The former, the state, due to the finite financial resources would have to redefine its relationship with universities – the goal: accountability, effectiveness, and productivity should characterize higher education. Even from a distance it is clear that the state would like to control higher education. As a tool, it uses evaluation, with which, following various indicators and quality criteria, it aims at assessing the departments as well as the professoriate itself. In this arena the international activity of instructors, their joining internationalization serves as a measuring instrument of sorts.

Internationalization for the professoriate is an essential and very much compulsory adaptation urge, which has two major elements: ***international cooperation*** and international mobility. The concerted activity and creative expression of the instructors and researchers that involves sharing, accumulating, utilizing and applying knowledge, as well as the learning process itself, is what international collaboration is about. It includes the mapping of new possibilities and the generation of added value. Its most important elements are participation and communication. ***International mobility*** is also a dynamic entity, and it is evidently an essential component of national capacity building, as well as world-class excellence (Van Der Wende 2015). This is probably the reason why most countries intentionally watch and support its development. It enhances the progress of communication technology and intercultural competences, the improvement of employment chances, the finer understanding between cultures, the broadening of research infrastructure, cultural and global awareness, and the development of problem solving and decision making skills (Craciun & Orosz 2018). What is more, international mobility is all the more tightly connected to "visibility" in the academic arena – whoever appears there will not be unnoticed, invisible to the scientific community.

Taking the economic side of international movements into consideration, one has to mention the factors that are realized as national economic interests. Several researchers have examined the forces that impact economic growth, and many concluded that without doubt, one of the main influences is ***knowledge accumulation*** (Grossmann & Helpman 1994). It is an interactive process based on cooperation, during which the creativity, professional experience, expert knowledge, previous academic knowledge of the researcher and instructor are utilized or applied. Another term, ***knowledge capital,*** is closely linked to this. It consists of structural, human, and relational capital of individuals, and including the instructor's knowledge, skills, competences, experiences, education, and possessed information as well. Though it is rather difficult to measure, its results and appearances are noticeable and visible, and thus its extent and rate can also be ascertainable.

A research between 2012 and 2014 was carried out among the instructors of two universities in Hungary – one, a leader in the internationalization processes of Hungarian higher education, and as the other a regional knowledge center (Dabney-Fekete 2020). During the analysis the international academic activity of the professoriate was also examined from a motivational aspect. The main question was whether the instructors are willing to participate in the internationalization process or not, and if they are, what could be the driving forces for this involvement, and the degree of their engagement? Based on the results eight distinct groups were formed.

The first group is called the *academically isolated*. They are university teachers, who carry out research in their narrow, distinctive fields of interest, hence only a small audience reads their works. They are not eager to step out into the international academic arena, they do not want to have publications in a foreign language (mostly due to a lack of linguistic proficiency), they are not involved in innovation. The next cluster is the *withdrawn*, who are similar to the *academically isolated* in their unwillingness to join the flow of internationalization. However, the difference lies in their motivation. These instructors do not lack the motivation like the previous group, but they are held back by the fear of insufficient language knowledge, of not measuring up to their internationally active peers, and ultimately of failure. The third group consists of the *forced travellers*, who are under the pressure of institutional and accreditation expectations. They are the ones, who do have a few international co-operations and publications already, and they fulfill the minimum that is required of them regarding internationalization. Still, they feel uncomfortable in this environment. *Those who stay out* is the name of the next cluster. They, according to their own description, would want to travel abroad and build out international co-operational networks, however, due to certain reasons they are unable to do so. Among the excuses (?) the inadequate flow of information, the unsupportive academic environment, the lack of information and social capital, or the insufficient language knowledge are listed. In many cases the difficulty of providing for children and the lack of support from the spouse are also contributors. The fifth group is *the world travellers*, whose knowledge and ambition met with the backing of the academic environment. The community they are in offers international opportunities, as well as social capital, sufficient information flow and abundant financial resources. Since these instructors have expanded international networks, entering a new one is no obstacle. They also have the needed language knowledge, and their children are mostly older, thus leaving them for the time period of a conference would not require a lot of organization. A very intriguing group is the so called *knowledge brokers* (Kakihara & Sorensen 2002; Meyer 2010; Pusztai et al. 2016). They serve as mediators between several groups, being constantly on the move

between national and international higher educational institutions. The majority of their networks are from the era of the Change of Regime, from around 1989–91. They were able to accommodate to the changes fast, and perfect their language knowledge due to different scholarships. They also play an important role in today's political and economic arenas. The seventh group is the *young instructors with PhD*. They have relatively small experience, and they also lack extensive academic networks. However, they are mostly ambitious and they also mastered the English language. The last cluster, the *saunters* is the most difficult to identify. They have international cooperation networks and publications, and they have already achieved academic recognition, but being a part of such collaborations does not fascinate them.

It is evident that the instructor has to face several challenges and meet unarticulated expectations from society, economy, politics, the students and the colleagues as well. He has to learn to maneuver not only along the cliffs of the local institutional community's principles and beliefs, but to find a way in the non-uniform and fragmented academic community. Moreover, he must simultaneously juggle all the roles entrusted to or forced upon him. The new developing situation in higher education imposes an urge on both the institutions and the individual as well. There is a tangible fight for prestige and students. In this environment the instructor plays a vital role, as his individual performance, academic achievement and international activity promote the reputation of the universities.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. As the member of the international community, who does the researcher research for?
2. Who will utilize the results?
3. How do the changes and challenges form the higher educational system of your country?

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GERGELY KOVÁTS

VI. Higher education governance and management

The first universities have been operating since the 11th century. Among the first universities is the University of Bologna, whose official establishment dates back to 1088, though its existence may very well be earlier, at a time when universities were not founded but simply were, recognising already existing teaching activities. The universities of Europe had many antecedents, from the philosophical schools of Athens to Carolingian Renaissance institutions and some Arab medres. However, they were often tied to a single individual, had no institutionalised, formal structure, and the awarding of degrees was not commonplace (Ridder-Symoens 1991).

An important characteristic of European universities is their organisational nature, which is closely linked to the question of how they are run, managed and governed. In the 12th century, for example, the Chancellor of the University of Paris wrote: "In the old days, when each master taught for himself and the name of University was unknown, lectures and disputation were more frequent and there was more zeal for study. But now that you are united into a University, lectures are rare, things are hurried and little is learned, the time taken from lectures being spent in meetings and discussions." (Rashdall 1936:298) Thus, from the outset, the question in universities was who (what persons and what bodies) and by what process decisions were made (which is essentially the concept of governance). Equally important was knowing how, in a context of limited resources, to plan and coordinate the cooperation of teachers and students, to supervise and control their activities (which is essentially the definition of management).

Although the issues of governance and management have been present from the beginning (as is clear, for example, from the chapters on management in the four-volume work on the history of European universities; Rüegg – Ridder-Symoens 1991–2011), the issue became more acute with the expansion of higher education, which brought to the fore the tensions stemming from the distinctive organisational characteristics of the university. This raises two questions:

1. What are the specific characteristics of universities as organisations, and why do they pose challenges for university management and governance?
2. How is management and governance changing today, and what dilemmas do these changes create?

ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF UNIVERSITIES, THE UNIVERSITY AS A MANAGEMENT CHALLENGE

There are estimated to be around 31000 higher education institutions in the world (the webometrics ranking lists the websites of as many institutions), including small teaching-oriented community colleges closer in form to a secondary school, as well as large international research universities. It is, therefore, not easy to make statements that are true of this diverse range of institutions. Thus, the characteristics that follow should be seen as tendencies.

The management of universities is challenging because they are complex organisations (Bess & Dee 2007), full of experts who need self-governance and autonomy. There are several reasons for this need: one is the difficulty of standardising teaching and research, and another is the role of academic freedom.

Standardisation is an important tool for managing an organisation, through which processes or outputs are defined, regulated, and controlled. The core activities of universities are teaching and research (nowadays, a third mission, i.e. consultancy, service, community engagement, and regional development, is also included). However, neither the processes nor the outputs of teaching and research can be well standardised. For example, a teacher in order to facilitate learning should take into account the interests, prior knowledge and experience of students. Therefore, teaching is a dialogical process and cannot be prescribed step by step. Research is also a dialogical process. The outputs of teaching and research are also difficult to standardise: the quality of a publication or the capabilities of a graduate student can be very different, even if papers appear in the same journal or students graduate from the same study programme. In higher education, therefore, the efforts are focused on the ***'standardisation of skills'*** (Mintzberg 1981), i.e. processes and organisational cultures are developed through which academics internalise the norms and standards of the profession through which they can maintain the quality of teaching and research. For example, PhD training or peer review can be seen as such a process of socialisation.

An important task for the academic profession is to generate and institutionalise new knowledge (through teaching and research), which requires academics to legitimately challenge taken-for-granted social and scientific views, and pursue research and teaching according to their convictions. This freedom is called ***academic freedom,*** and it guarantees that other actors external to the aca-

demic profession (for example, the management or external stakeholders) cannot interfere in research or teaching. Academic freedom is constitutionally protected in many European countries. This freedom is based on the competence and expertise of academics, and is limited by the written and unwritten rules, standards and norms of the academic profession (science) (which an academic hopefully internalises when becoming an academic).

The development and enforcement of academic norms, and the protection of academic freedom mean that professional self-regulation plays a vital role in higher education, both at the organisational and disciplinary levels. For this reason, Clark (1983) sees universities as ***"bottom-heavy" organisations*** in which academics have considerable influence on the functioning of the university. Consider, for example, that relatively few organisations have a governing body of internal stakeholders, similar to senates, which shapes the hiring and promotion of academics (i.e. employees) or the content of study programmes (products), and has a say in the selection of the rector (e.g. top management).

Academics are experts in their fields and can be assessed best by other academics working in the same field. As a result, the academic profession is ***disciplinarily fragmented,*** with each discipline developing its own conventions and norms, in addition to the general norms of the academic profession. Disciplinary cultures impact how teaching and research are organised in that field or what management style is acceptable. This diversity is illustrated in the book, very expressively entitled "Academic tribes and territories" (Becher & Trowler 2001). Departments and faculties are, in fact, structural representations of disciplinary diversity. As faculties and departments are aligned to their own disciplines, there are only loose professional links between academic units within a university. This is why Weick (1976) sees universities as ***loosely coupled systems*** in which each department and individual pursue their own goals. According to Cohen, March and Olson (1972), universities are characterised by ***goal ambiguity*** because they and their constituent actors may simultaneously pursue many different and conflicting goals, which are difficult to prioritise.

In such an organisation, it is difficult to impose unified and common organisational goals on academics. It is often said that running a university is like herding cats or leading a troupe of prima donnas. The task of management in this approach is much more to create the conditions and resources for the creative work of teaching and research. This typically means providing the necessary supporting administrative background and organising it effectively. Because of the bureaucratic and hierarchical nature of administration, universities are ***"bifurcated"*** organisations, where academic and administrative units have very different operational and cultural norms. This is often a source of tension between academia and administration.

CHANGES IN UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

Higher education has significantly expanded in several waves over the past decades. This expansion has exacerbated tensions regarding how to govern and manage universities. Expansion required an increased demand for public resources (state funding) while leading to growing complexity. As a result, neither the self-governance of institutions nor their direct governmental supervision was sustainable. One particular question was raised, namely: how to guarantee the efficient use of resources and the social relevance of higher education (including the question of what the roles of universities are in society). Reforms in most countries have been guided by the New Public Management movement (Broucker & de Wit 2015), based on which in many European countries

- the decision-making freedom, institutional autonomy and responsibility of universities were increased,
- universities were made more responsive to societal needs,
- external stakeholders gained more influence over the functioning of universities, and
- the role of market coordination mechanisms was strengthened as opposed to bureaucratic coordination (e.g. governmental supervision) and professional self-governance.

Universities were, therefore, able to decide more and more of their own operational issues (organisational structure, funding, internal allocation of resources, HR systems, academic issues), i.e. they had gained more institutional autonomy (Pruvot & Estermann 2017). However, the increased decision-making power was typically concentrated in the hands of top management, who became much more prominent and independent actors than before. Increased power was accompanied by increased accountability and responsibility for results. Therefore, many attempts were made to strengthen managerial control, for example, by introducing business practices such as strategic planning, performance measurement, performance indicators, quality management, or rationalisation and redesign of processes and organisational structures (lean management).

The development and implementation of these practices require many higher education professionals involved in the organisation and supervision of academic work who are not academics (such as student advisors, pedagogical support staff, accreditation managers, etc.) This also implies an increase in the size and restructuring of the administration. These management techniques allow universities to move from a loosely- to a tightly-coupled system, a "complete organisation" (Seeber et al. 2015).

The role of management is also strengthened by its growing independence from internal stakeholders (academics, students). The voice of internal stakeholders in formal decision-making is reduced. Their representation in decision-making bodies is weakened and/or the power of the bodies where they are present (such as senates) becomes narrower (e.g. they have only consultative rights or they can make decisions only on academic issues) (Rowlands 2020; Poutanen et al. 2018).

In many European (continental) countries, instead of the senates, new bodies called boards (composed of external stakeholders) have been established to supervise and control the management and the university, adopt the university's budget, strategy, reports and appoint the university's management (Veiga et al. 2015).

CRITIQUE AND DILEMMAS OF CHANGE

While many agree with strengthening the social embeddedness of universities or the pressure for increased performance, these changes have also attracted much criticism. These are typically expressed in the context of the ideology of managerialism (Deem et al. 2007; Halffman & Radder 2015). The increasing dependence of universities and the strengthened position of management weakens the conditions for academic freedom and leads to the emergence of perverse incentive systems such as the 'publish or perish' culture. Another common criticism is that universities are becoming McUniversities like business organisations, in which academics lose control over their work (Poutanen et al. 2018), i.e. they are transformed from experts to proletarianised knowledge workers. This managerialisation ultimately undermines the ability of universities to function as discursive spaces or to scrutinise critically, for example, powerful social actors or social ideologies.

One of the fundamental dilemmas of the management and governance of higher education today is what governance (decision-making) mechanism will ensure the relevance of universities for societies without undermining their role as a socially critical institution. Another dilemma is how to develop intelligent management that facilitates the efficient and focused operation of universities while maintaining the self-governance of the academic communities that ensures academic freedom.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. Who (should) own the university?
2. What are the social roles and functions of universities? Who and by what means should ensure that universities work to achieve them?

3. Whose interests should institutional management represent? To whom should it be accountable?
4. Why is institutional autonomy and academic freedom important in higher education? What are their limits and constraints?

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ZSUZSANNA DEMETER-KARÁSZI – GABRIELLA PUSZTAI

VII. One segment of the non-public higher education sector*

In most countries, higher education is seen as a unique institutional system, to be established, maintained, and operated by the state, and the concept of higher education is directly linked to secularism (James 2006; Carpenter 2014). However, research in history shows that education has its origin in the Church. Throughout history, there have been a great number of church-founded higher education institutions, all around the world, which have earned a notable and permanent position in the higher education system (Carpenter 2014).

In the period before the political transition, higher education was characterized by the state socialist model, which stipulated the exclusive right of the state to establish institutions. After the political transition, the power of the state and its exclusive right to establish institutions were diminished, as the law provided for the establishment of institutions by various other entities as well (Pusztai 2020). Although the laws in 1990 granted the right to establish institutions in all areas and at all levels, there were differences between post-socialist countries. In some countries, such as Hungary for example, any type of entity was conferred the right to establish an institution, while in other countries, like Romania, churches could not maintain institutions, only church-established foundations had this right (Pusztai 2020).

Church-related higher education institutions constitute a significant component of non-state but state-recognized institutions. The definition of this particular type of institution varies from one country to another, and in the special literature as well. It is unfortunate that we do not find a unified approach. Nonetheless, most scholars agree that it is mostly institutions established and/or maintained by a church that are considered church-related higher education institutions. In spite of this consensus, according to researchers the range of definitions is still very.

Regardless of definition, one should consider two dimensions when looking at the nature of a church-run institution, namely financing and operation. When discussing the issue of church-related higher education institutions, one should

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separate the two dimensions. "According to the financier, two large sectors are separated, based on criteria taken from the world of economics: institutions financed from the budgets of smaller or larger units of public administration or from sums raised by private individuals, groups, and non-state actors" (Pusztai et al. 2016; Pusztai 2020). Institutions financed by non-state actors belong to private higher education. This classification of church-related higher education institutions as belonging to a certain sector varies from country to another. According to some, all institutions managed by non-governmental organizations are put into the private sector, while in our region these institutions mostly belong elsewhere, as "they are financed through the church, but mainly from state budget resources" (Pusztai et al. 2016; Pusztai 2020).

Their operation is also of essential importance. This includes those responsible for the work within the institution, as well as, the purpose, guiding principles, and contents of operation. Formulating the concrete objectives of the institution (Pusztai et al. 2016; Pusztai 2020) and examining the mission in order to identify the differences are deemed the most important aspects of operation. The specific objective of church-related institutions is mostly rooted in social responsibility, but they also greatly contribute to the freedom of scientific research and thought, and to efficiency, as well as to the creation of a quality life full of meaning (Pusztai 2020).

Since the church-related nature does not necessarily follow from the maintainer and/or operator, and the international literature (Daniels et al. 2016), as well as our previous research (Pusztai et al. 2019; Demeter–Karászi et al. 2020; Pusztai 2020) confirm that church-related higher education institutions are not homogeneous in terms of their image, one has to distinguish between these as well. We can identify church-run, church-related, religious-affiliated higher education institutions, as well as faith-based institutions. Researchers use these concepts simultaneously. Nonetheless, our previous results point out that one should classify and examine church-related higher education institutions in separate groups. In the case of faith-based higher education, in addition to belonging to the church organizational system, the institution is characterized by a specific institutional culture (Firmin et al. 2010; Hrubos 2012; Daniels et al. 2016). The institutional ethos of faith-based educational institutions is fundamentally religious. The majority of secular institutions do not adopt a religious ethos lest the number of students enrolling decrease, even though this would make a stronger statement regarding their identity (Pusztai et al. 2019). Carpenter (2014) distinguishes two types of church-related institutions. One of them is institutions, which are church-founded and have certain formal ties with the founding church, despite being mostly secular institutions. The second type is institutions, which, are gradually weakening their religious

ties, though religiosity should be playing a prominent role within the institution (Carpenter 2014). For this very reason, a number of American researchers introduced the concept 'church-related', which obscures and circumvents the definition of church affiliations (Carpenter 2014). The fact that the maintainer and/or operator of a church-maintained higher education institution is a religious organization, religious community, private person, group, foundation or association, does not necessarily entail that these institutions also have a religious character and spirituality. In the case of church-maintained, faith-based institutions the focus is on belonging to an organizational system, and also on a specific institutional culture, which most of the time is defined as the mission of the institution (Firmin et al. 2010; Hrubos 2012; Daniels et al. 2016). A significant difference between church-maintained and faith-based higher education institutions is that although the institutions belong to the same organizational system, the affiliation and the specific institutional culture they represent do not necessarily go hand in hand.

The differences between church-related institutions within the sector gave rise to a number of different models and typologies, which contributed to a better classification and a more accurate description of the institutions. Such a model is Robert Benne's typology (2001) or Morey and Piderit's (2006) typology of Catholic institutions. Benne (2001) defines church-related institutions as units that confess and embrace church-related identity, they formulate it as an objective of their mission, and shape their student, instructor and administrative bodies, their academic life to fit the model. In his typological division, he distinguishes orthodox institutions, which can also be called traditional, critical-mass institutions, the intentionally pluralist group, and the accidentally pluralist category (Benne 2001). Benne's typology cannot fully accommodate all types of church-related higher education institution as in many cases these reflect the characteristics of a given region, but most church-related higher education institutions can identify with certain parts of each category of the typology (James 2006). Morey and Piderit (2006) created the typology of Catholic higher education institutions. According to their opinion, the differences between church-related institutions may depend on many factors, such as student society, institutional culture, the degree of passing on the traditions of the founding/supporting church, etc. (Morey et al. 2006). They investigated five areas when developing their typology: academic program, residential living, student activities, religious activities, and administrative staff, with particular attention to lecturers and administrators. Based on these aspects, they distinguished four models of Catholic institutions. These are the following: Catholic Immersion Universities, Catholic Persuasion Universities, Catholic Diaspora Universities, and Catholic Cohort Universities (Morey et al. 2006). Their typology includes institutions in which the Catholic character emerges in all or

some parts of the institution, Catholic institutional culture is mostly dominant, while secular worldview emerges only partly or is entirely absent.

Typologies of church-related higher education institutions are also to be found in the national literature. Pusztai (2010) puts forth the typology of Central European church-related higher education, while there are also other typologies that specifically apply to certain countries, such as Szolár's (2010) typology of church-related higher education in Romania, as well as Pusztai, Maior and Demeter-Karászi's (2019) typology of church-related higher education in Hungary after the change of regime. Pusztai's (2010) typology was created while examining the church-related higher education system of five Central and Eastern European countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Czech Republic and Estonia). In the course of the research eight categories emerged, the examination of which may be important for providing a comprehensive picture of church-related higher education institutions. The eight categories are as follows: organizational history, regional characteristics, the issue of ethnicity, the influence and presence of the church, the social background of individuals, the curriculum, efficiency, and international relations. With the help of these eight categories, four poles were established, at the intersection of which church-related higher education institutions can be placed. One pole is the regional mission, which encompasses attending to various ethnic minorities, while the opposite pole is the ethnic-minority mission, which is aimed at attending to individual ethnic minority groups. The third pole is the religious/church-related perspective, which dominates the organizational culture, and finally the fourth pole is the secular perspective, as the dominant determinant of the organizational culture (Pusztai 2010).

In the light of all these, it can be concluded that one has to consider not only the differences between higher education institution sectors, but also to take into account the features resulting from the differences within each sector. It should also be noted that country-specific features can lead to significant differences as well, which confirm the complex nature of the non-state higher education institutional sector.

QUESTIONS TO HELP FURTHER THINKING

1. How did the political transition affect higher education in post-socialist countries?
2. Can church-related higher education be considered an independent institutional sector?
3. What are the characteristic features of the non-state higher education sector in Hungary?

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ILONA DÓRA DABNEY-FEKETE – GABRIELLA PUSZTAI

VIII. Higher educational ranking

INTRODUCTION

Higher educational institutions in the world are under the constraint of measuring up to several explicit yet unarticulated expectations on institutional, regional, national and international levels. In addition to that there is constant rivalry for one university to have more students walking its halls than the next, and all are vying for resources. Thus, each campus offers increasingly diverse courses in order to entice more students from around the globe. In order to further advance the name of the institution and take the lead in the ranking, teachers and researchers publish articles on various topics, and participate in international co-operations. After all, a higher rank is a critical objective to strive for, since it can influence the university choice of students, draw in financial support, and recruit academically acclaimed professors; all elements that help the given university remain the leader of the pack.

Thus it comes as no surprise that for both the actors of economy and of society must know what differences exist between higher educational institutions, which university is best and what its excellence is based on (Kozma 2006; Cremonini et al. 2008; van Vught & Westerheijden 2010; Shin et al. 2011; Yudkevich et al. 2015). Thus rankings are often consulted, despite being continuously criticized for their frequently invalid data, faulty interpretations, and especially for the methodology they use.

RANKING AND THE PROBLEMS WITH IT

Ranking has become a center of attention for many researches in the field of higher education, since it has the capacity to influence the productivity of economy, and the forming and evaluation of society at an international level. It operates on the fact that it takes several factors into consideration – who placed the order, what the target population is, what the labor market dictates, what the expectations of the prospect students are, whether the university focuses on research rather than education, etc. (Török 2007). From the comparison of these and other indicators, the ranking system is formed, although, it is impossible to

bear all of these in mind and find an algorithm that would make it possible to favor one over the other. Despite these things, it is widely used and referred to worldwide. Thus, one should cautiously rely entirely on ranking, for it does not always reflect the research and education assessment (Török 2007).

The more one deals with rankings and delves into both its national and international special literature, the more they realize how shaky and slippery the ground is underneath it. Mihályi (2020) collected at the dawn of ranking developing in Hungary some lessons to be learned. He points out that ranking will always boost disputes, meaning that once a university gains prestige, it will continue to have a shining image even when it is not as prominent as it used to be. Also, he argues that rankings are more accurate regarding the leading and trailing universities, but differentiation among middle-ranking higher educational institutions is barely visible. We believe that rankings are useful and needed at all levels – regionally, nationally, and globally. It is not an easy task, however, to find common grounds for comparison. Furthermore, a number of questions, dilemmas, and complications arise regarding ranking validity, the selection of indicators and their influence, and the expected benefits to come of ranking.

Kosztyán and colleagues (2019) identified three main areas where ranking is lacking. The first one is the distorting effect it has on higher educational institutions. The second main problematic area is that the developers of rankings pick and choose the indicators as they see fit, based on subjective reasons. The third and most debated problem is that completely different higher educational institutions are being compared. Fábri (2017:36) summed up the critique of ranking in one blunt sentence: "Ranking depicts higher education in a one-dimensional, simplified way, and gives a falsified version of the essence of university performance" (*direct personal translation*).

IS IT VALID?

After all, it seems to be a difficult, if not impossible or completely futile, task to compare higher educational institutions that could be different in size, mode of financing (Daraio & Bonaccorsi 2017), could be in diverse locations, and be subject to various political, social and economic conditions. University rankings are also criticized by many scholars because they analyze the universities as one single entity and do not take the different fields and institutional features into consideration. Moreover, most rankings are structured in such a way that they emphasize and favor English-speaking institutions that are more deeply rooted in science (Fábri 2017), thus it is no surprise that tertiary academies from the United States and the United Kingdom are dominant.

Some researches point out that there is a need for several diverging rankings; the reason: because the indicators, the weights and the methods used to develop the lists might vary based on the priorities and perceptions of the researchers (Billaut et al. 2010). Furthermore, certain rankings work with indicators that do not give a true or clear picture, thus conclusions cannot be drawn from them. Such is true of the number of national and international students studying at a given university, the dropout ratio, or the number of doctoral students, since these cannot give clear and reliable information on the quality of training (Török & Konka 2020). It is also questionable whether the teacher-student ratio, or the number of researches can be seen as an indicator of quality. International mobility tells more about the economic, political, and even weather conditions in a given country/region, than does the quality of education (Török & Konka 2020). Thus, publications, as well as citation indexes have grown to be imperative indicators in academic life, so much so that whole careers and promotions are based on them (Frey & Rost 2010). Thus for publications to push someone into the international spotlight, being exceptional in academic English has become of key importance. Although, this knowledge does not necessarily mirror the quality of academic knowledge. Having internationally acknowledged publications also requires much financial support, since proofreading done by native speakers may be quite costly. Not to mention the fact that there are certain fields and research areas that are either not relevant (or non-existent) in English-speaking territories.

THE FLAWS AND CRITIQUES OF INDICATORS

Not only has the question of ranking's necessity and usefulness been the focus of decades of debates, but also, questions have arisen regarding what precise factors, achievements and features (or the lack thereof) should be pondered, and what emphasis they would have, when deciding the ranking list of higher educational institutions.

Billaut and colleagues (2010) argue that rankings are not "clean" but have been contaminated by several problems. The methodology itself, as well as the pondered factors and indicators, and the structure are sometimes haphazard. How can Harvard University be compared to any Hungarian academy, when the American university budget alone is 2.5 times bigger than the budget for the whole of the Hungarian higher educational system (Polónyi 2017)? Furthermore, rankings take only a few university roles into account, namely research, internationalization, publication and international mobility, completely leaving out others like regional engagement, or knowledge transfer (Bengoetxea & Buela-Casal 2013). Barabási (2018) contends that, above a certain level of proficiency,

achievement and performance are not evaluated (or ranked) reliably based on objective measuring. He brings up the example of fine wines in a contest, where the judges are not able to stick to an objective evaluation system; they assess the wines based on opinions, and give different ratings to the same drink covertly served to them multiple times.

Different rankings work with different methods and use various indicators, causing the alteration among the placements of universities. Several studies (Lukman et al. 2010; Bergseth et al. 2014; Kosztyán et al. 2019; Kaycheng 2015) focus on the methodology of how ranking could be improved and developed in a way that would actually show a close(r) to true picture of compared universities. Kosztyán and colleagues (2019) argue that ranking is only possible if we are comparing countries within their own "leagues", for then there could be certain indicators which prevent the comparison from producing a distorted picture. As a result, it is not about what indicators are used for the comparison, but rather about how comparison would be made possible with those indicators. Furthermore, they formed three groups of countries and indicators on which the higher educational systems would be categorized. States belonging to *League A* (the elite) had a more developed educational system, *League B* denoted the midfield countries, while *League C* contained the stragglers. However, even in this grouping there were exceptions and overlap: As an example, Kosztyán et al (2019) names Norway, a *League A* country, which lacks regarding inward international student mobility. Conversely, Saudi Arabia and Indonesia, both *League C* countries, perform outstanding in writing studies as a result of international co-operations. The research also revealed that a country does not have to have a high GDP expenditure on higher education to secure a place among the elites. Still, if this indicator is low, that country is assigned to *League C*.

DOES RANKING AFFECT STUDENTS' CHOICE?

After mentioning a few of the problems that ranking carries within itself, one can ask whether it counts at all when it comes to students deciding which university they would like to attend abroad. Since the very first appearance of ranking in 1983 in the United States, several ranking lists were released, with the aim of directing and guiding students to choose the best university (Kosztyán et al 2019; Lukman et al. 2010). However, Billaut et al (2010) states that rankings generally are, and the Shanghai Ranking specifically is, not apt in any way for students to base their tertiary study choice on them, for they are not valid and could be misleading regarding the measuring of university "quality".

As higher educational institutions are competing for students, both native and foreign, it is essential for them to know what high school graduates are looking

for when it comes to applying to a certain university and who they are turning to when making that decision. The strongest influence comes from their immediate environment, their families, friends and teachers. Families are important for students not only because there is a base of trust but also because the family is in most cases the main financial backer. Since the family supplies study funding, it is natural that they would want a say in what the child's study direction, and how that choice will affect the income of the family after graduation. Studies (Callender & Jackson 2008; Gyamfi et al 2016; Little et al. 1997) show that although ranking plays an important role in high school student university choice, they will immediately look for scholarship, grant and employment opportunities, since without these, they would most probably pick the second best (thus probably cheaper) option. This is even more true, in the case of international mobility, where the difference in the degree of economic development between the host and the home countries also weighs heavily upon student choice (Pozsgai 2014).

Higher educational institutions that are doing better on the ranking list attract more students, since they are thought to have better chances on the labor market with a diploma earned from a prestigious university (Wut et al. 2022). Dearden and colleagues (2019, as seen in Wut et al. 2022) also argue that one should not forget about the psychological aspect, namely that attending a university with high prestige makes students feel that they are a part of the academic elite. Thus, these higher educational institutions have the opportunity to choose from among the best students. This further elevates the reputation of the university, attracting the attention of the labor market, other economic actors, and more international students. Thus ranking does play an important role in choosing a university.

IS IT SOMETHING THAT HAS ACTUAL BENEFITS?

After all the problems, critiques and shortcomings of ranking, the question arises, whether there are benefits making it essential and profitable to operate a system on whose development a whole industry rests. Much adjustment and restructuring is needed on the part of universities, to be able to achieve the best position and ranking on the list, not to mention the financial cost of modifications and revised higher educational policies. As Altbach (2003:5) puts it, "Everyone wants a world-class university." The problem, according to the American researcher, is that it is difficult to define what exactly that means and what conditions have to be fulfilled to achieve success, and it is difficult to agree on who can actually make that decision (Altbach 2003). Despite lines being rather blurry, and deficiencies and flaws that limit the understanding and comparability of higher educational institutions; still, there are advantages to ranking.

As mentioned earlier, ranking helps to orientate the university choice by providing a relatively unbiased benefit, that is, clearer career prospects (Wut et al. 2022). The more prestigious the higher educational institution, the more certain the chance that students can earn a better position on the labor market.

As regards institutional and educational policy, ranking is considered to be essential for strategic planning and national, as well as international, collaboration (Ghulam 2022). It enhances competition, draws attention to the question of quality and excellence in education, and also opens the way to further development and improvement (Altbach 2003). It provides an opportunity for the institutions to self-evaluate and collect information about the other competitors in order to further advance. However much ranking is criticized, the prestige of a university can be enhanced by advancing up the ranking lists, since the key of a successful higher educational policy and strategy is its position in the international rankings (Telcs et al. 2020).

Ranking of universities is not merely a question of prestige for the higher educational institutions themselves, but it has an impact on the national economy as well. Thus, it is essential to have rankings that are concerned with both the universities as single units, and with a country's higher educational system as a whole.

SUMMARY

The question of ranking, its validity, faults, weaknesses but also its benefits in higher education has long been a focus point for researchers, as well as an issue of heated debates. Though there are conflicting interests within it, ranking cannot remain unaddressed, for it indeed has a major impact on both local and global academic, institutional, political, and economic policy decisions. It has gradually grown to become a sector of business on its own, and every so often it is rather difficult to get a full and objective picture of its function. However, ranking is considered by many to be vital and unavoidable in national and international higher education. This is because it is important for the maintainer, in a broader sense for society and the economy, and for the "consumer" that is the students, to know the "worth" of a university and whether the diploma they receive from there will be competitive on the labor market. It is key from the point of view of the distribution of resources, and crucial for ministerial and institutional strategic planning as well. The methodological imperfectness of comparing higher educational institutions in ranking still has its legitimacy, for it enhances transparency, national and international cooperation, entices disputes about what quality means in education, and due to the apparent competition between universities, it instigates quality (Ghulam 2022).

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. If ranking has several flaws and its validity is even questioned by man, why is it still important to the universities?
2. How could ranking influence the individual students / the academic staff / the universities / the countries' economy?

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ZSÓFIA KOCSIS

IX. Higher education and the labor market

TRANSITIONS FROM EDUCATION TO WORK

The boundaries of the transition from education to work are not narrowly defined in the literature, they are not interpreted as a one-time event, but as a lifelong process, as exit points have become more and more blurred (Nilsson 2018). In social research, it is defined as a critical point in life, highlighting the importance of the transition, which can have long-term consequences for an individual's career and family plans (Staneva 2020).

Developing countries do not form a homogeneous group, several factors distinguish them from developed economies: self-employment, agricultural work, and unpaid family work; credit and income constraints, labor market segmentation, and the urban-rural divide, they interact with each other. Young people in developing countries face different challenges than those in developed countries (Nilsson 2018). "In sequential education systems, part of the human capital, namely the work-related competences, are acquired after completing education. Any barrier in the labor market may slow down the STWT process, contributing to the increase of relative disadvantage in terms of work experience as compared to adults (Pastore 2015, 2018). Conversely, an education path strongly connected with the enterprises, such as the dual model of Continental countries in most cases makes the transition to work faster and smoother, with many students starting work even before completing their studies (student-workers)" (Pastore 2022).

Decades ago, we would talk about the succession of education and the world of work (du Bois-Reymond 1996), however, in the life of young people today, these two areas become a kind of double life, as they study and work simultaneously (Sackmann & Wingens 2001). Linking work and learning helps young people develop the skills needed in today's labor market and simplifies the transition from education to work (OECD 2015). It must be noted however that the policies that support the transition of young people from education to the labor market differ from country to country (Ostoj 2020).

Transitions are uncertain but can also be dynamic. This uncertainty is due to the globalized labor market, where freshman graduates must adapt to techno-

logical innovations and constantly strive to update their knowledge and skills (Heinz 2009; Teichler 2011; Grosemans et al. 2017). Because of this constant need to adapt, the need to secure their careers in an increasingly challenging global labor market is critical, making transition periods important times in young people's lives (Donald et al. 2018). With the ever-changing ecosystem, it is no easy task for higher education institutions to support students' transitions into the workforce. Sometimes students have only partial ideas about how their future ought to be, increasing the burden on tertiary institutions (Izzo et al. 2022). One aspect that does aid in the transition phase is previous work experience acquired in addition to studies (Grosemans et. al. 2017).

PAID WORK AMONG HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS

DEFINITION OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

The issue of paid work by university students during their studies has been addressed for decades in international literature (Pascarella & Terenzini 1998; Heinz 1999; Warren et al. 2000; OECD 2005; Riggert et al. 2006; Perna 2010; Teichler 2011).

„Student employment: Paid work done by full-time students of secondary or tertiary education during term time or vacation. It can be facilitated by various organizations such as student employment agencies, which ensure that students work legally and under controlled conditions. In some education systems, schools offer or help to organize work opportunities for their students" (Kocsis 2021). Whereas previously the ideas of student employment and work were synonymous, Pusser (2010) separates these concepts saying: the former (employment) serves to generate income, the latter (work) to develop a student's character and personality, thus elevating their paid work to a higher value dimension.

THE EMERGENCE OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

The spread of student employment can be linked to changes in European higher education that began half a century ago. Thanks to this expansive change, young people of lower status who needed to supplement their incomes could enter higher education; what is more, practical courses became equally essential, gaining a place alongside traditional, theoretically oriented education, thus strengthening the link between gaining experience and studying (Pusztai & Kocsis 2019). In the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, under socialism, only 10% of the age group entered higher education, which is why even today the proportion of first-generation people who enter higher education due to expansion

is high. In general, these families are characterized by having less information about higher education and the burdens and opportunities associated with it. Most come from smaller settlements, can only partially cover tuition costs, and of them only a small number get scholarships. This is where student employment comes on the scene.

Students need sufficient resources to cover their living expenses and the cost of their studies. This may be through family/partner contributions, their own income, or state support. Each option has its advantages and disadvantages. Family/partner contributions are often considered a stable source of funding, but it prolongs dependence on their parents. It also makes some students feel that by supporting them their parents will be overwhelmed by this. The next option is for the student to cover tuition fees with their own earnings; though this gives them a sort of independence from their parents, it can also be exhausting. The responsibility to earn enough money to cover costs rests upon each student, which as a positive can be a growing experience. Conversely, since they must earn the wages themselves, a significant amount of their time is spent working, thus leaving precious little time for study and other goals. As a final option, students can receive state support, which, although not as abundant a source compared to the other two sources, can nevertheless provide students with a certain degree of financial independence (Hauschildt et al. 2021).

CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

THE MOTIVATION OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

As was previously mentioned, the concept of working while studying at university is becoming increasingly popular worldwide. An increase in the number of working students can be seen both in the United States of America and in many European countries (Beerkens et al. 2011; Roshchin & Rudakov 2015; Pusztai & Kocsis 2019; Hvozdetska et al. 2020; Kocsis & Pusztai 2020; Ostoj 2020; Staneva 2020).

According to Eurostudent VI. research, 35% of students worked regularly during the semester, and 16% of them only occasionally (Masevičiūtė et al. 2018). Based on the results of Eurostudent VII., 80% of the students work during their studies. Around 60 % of all students work during term time. These rates are considerably higher than those of the previous survey. The proportion of working students is highest in the Czech Republic, Iceland, Norway, Slovenia, the Netherlands, Romania and Turkey (over 85%), while student employment is at its lowest in Georgia and Portugal (Hauschildt et al. 2021).

Based on the results of Eurostudent, there are differences between the countries in the motivations of work. According to Eurostudent VI. in the Balkan countries, one of the most common motives to work is to pay tuition fees. The Balkan countries, one of the more frequent motives to work could be to cover tuition fees, whereas in countries supporting student participation in higher education from the public budget (e.g. Denmark, Finland, Malta, Norway, Sweden), students generally do not have to worry about covering fees, but might work to sustain themselves while studying or to increase their standard of living (Masevičiūtė et al. 2018:34). Based on the results of Eurostudent VII., more than half the students surveyed work to cover living costs (67%), and a similar proportion, 65% of them, also work in order to afford things they could not otherwise afford without paid work. 53% of them work while studying, otherwise they would not be able to continue their studies. 58% of students are motivated by gaining work experience (Hauschildt et al. 2021).

HORIZONTAL FIT OF WORK AND STUDIES

In analyzing the relationship between work and studies, most researchers focus on two approaches: first, whether the work can be categorized as "on-campus" or "off-campus"(Astin 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini 1998; Perna 2010; Pusser 2010), and second, how well the work fits with the higher education studies (Di Paolo & Matano 2016; Gáti & Róbert 2013; Yanbarisova 2014). According to Staneva (2020), unequal access to study-related work may also reflect unequal opportunities in terms of academic achievement and the labor market. In order to explore the following proposition more deeply, she not only distinguished between study-related and non-study-related work, but also considered the skill level of the student work. In this way, she separated jobs requiring high and low skill levels. Student jobs that require a low skill level are manual, physical jobs or jobs that do not require routine or special skills. Jobs that require a high skill level are primarily administrative and managerial jobs that require specific qualifications and experience and involve being responsible for someone. In occupations that require a high skill level, students can acquire the general competencies expected in the labor market (e.g., writing, analytical, digital skills, social skills), even if they aren't related to their studies.

The results so far suggest that working while studying can accelerate the transition to the labor market (Weiss & Klein & Grauenhorst 2014), and improve the chances of accessing higher-level positions (Róbert & Saar 2012; Passaretta & Triventi 2015).

Previous findings draw attention to the fact that study-related work provides students with higher income than typical student jobs (Jacob & Gerth &

Weiss 2017; Kocsis 2017b). According to Kocsis (2017b), though finding work through student cooperatives in Hungary has some advantages, these organizations mainly offer typical student jobs that are rarely related to a student's field of student, thus limiting a student's employment options to low-income and perhaps low-level jobs.

Based on the Eurostudent survey also shows that older students, students attending IT and health courses often have study-related work. Master's students are more likely to have a study-related job in all surveyed countries except Romania and Slovakia, where there's little difference between bachelor's and master's students (Masevičiūtė et al. 2018).

CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKING STUDENTS

Young people cannot be considered a homogeneous group, because they have different social, economic and cultural backgrounds, different visions of the future and different experiences. This is especially true of working students, making it all the more important to pay special attention to studying their diversity: the who, when, why, and how questions surrounding working a job alongside their studies?

According to the research, the frequency and motivation of work is related to the students' socio-economic characteristics (Warren et al. 2000; Masevičiūtė et al. 2018; Pusztai & Kocsis 2019). In general, it can be stated that as the level of parents' education increases, the probability of working while studying decreases (Warren et al. 2000; Perna 2010; Beerkens et al. 2011).

Staneva (2020) explains these motivations in terms of relative risk aversion, and rational decision theory, which are related to the Breen and Goldthorpe's (1997) theory. The basis of this theory is that the individual strives to avoid downward mobility. As a result, students belonging to a more favorable social class received a greater incentive to participate in higher education, since further study provides access to social class positions similar to those of their parents. However, due to increasing participation in higher education, advantaged students are looking for additional ways to secure their social status, like taking up a study-related job. In contrast, students from less favorable backgrounds are less likely to pursue such "prestigious" jobs. For, entering higher education already proved to be a big step up the ladder of social mobility, even if they haven't yet overcome the class position from which they came. For them, study-related jobs thus offer less added value toward avoiding downward mobility or achieving more upward mobility (Staneva 2020).

In addition to the influence of social and economic background, the age of the students also plays an important role among the demographic characteristics.

For instance, students are more ready to enter the labor market as they get older (Fischer & Lipovská 2014; Masevičiūtė et al. 2018).

Furthermore, there is a significant connection between the gender of students, frequency of employment, and its involvement with study. According tothe results of Eurostudent VI. the percentage of men and women who work during their studies is equal at 51%, but it's more typical for men to have study-related work, albeit minimally (Masevičiūtė et al. 2018). In Hungarian higher education, according to the findings of Fényes (2010), Gáti and Róbert (2013), and Szőcs (2014), men are more likely to work while studying, and it is more typical for them to have jobs related to their studies.

Among the institutional characteristics, the level of education and the field of study are also important. Based on the results of Eurostudent VI. 48% of bachelor students and 65% of master students are engaged in paid work. In most countries, master's students are more likely than bachelor's students to work to gain experience (Masevičiūtė et al. 2018).

According to the Eurostudent VII. survey, students in education (56%), health (53%), and IT (52%) are most likely to have a job related to their studies, while students in science and math (34%) are least likely to have study-related duties (Hauschildt et al. 2021). According to the results of Kocsis, Alter & Pusztai (2022), technical, natural science and non STEM courses can be considered relatively homogeneous in terms of the frequency of employment and study-related jobs. However, the balancing work and study is less typical of medical and health science students, whereas it is more common with IT students.

THE AFFECT OF STUDENT EMPLOYMENT ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

There two ways that work can be interpreted. First, student employment can often be understood to be a risk factor that increases the risk of dropout by preventing student integration into the university culture and community (Riggert et al. 2006; Darmody-Smyth 2008; Perna 2010). Second, work can be seen as part of a learning process. Work has an identity-forming role, strengthens commitment to study, and can have a positive impact on academic careers and even on later labor market performance (Perna 2010). In addition, through work, students gain experience that proves useful in developing their character (Chantrea et al. 2017). Through employment, students acquire the general and transferable skills (communication, teamwork, time management) that are particularly important when entering the labor market. Research has also shown that while working, students better understand the value of the work itself (Rothstein 2007; Jewell 2014).

THE FOCUS POINTS OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Research most often examines type of employment, number of working hours, horizontal orientation of work, the job position, and coordination of work and study (Pascarella & Terenzini 1998; Riggert et al. 2006; Perna 2010; Yanbarisova 2014).

In addition to these characteristics of student employment, some research focuses on the post-graduation period. The aforementioned studies attempt to find an answer to the question of what influence employment during studies has on later employment opportunities, the duration of the job search, and later income. These articles address the return on investment in human capital (Trolian et al. 2018).

Many studies seek to answer the question of whether the positive or negative effects of student employment predominate during students' university careers. These studies focus on acquired skills and abilities and emphasize that different types of work (study-related and non-study-related, on-campus and off-campus) have different effects on academic achievement, acquireable skills, and relational capital (Pascarella & Terenzini 1998; Riggert et al. 2006; Gáti & Róbert 2013; Yanbarisova 2014; Di Paolo & Matano 2016).

THE TOPICALITY OF THE ISSUE

The international and national literature on educational research points to the growing trend of working while studying. However, Student work is a "double-edged sword" with both positive and negative implications. There are mixed and sometimes contradictory findings on the effects of student employment on academic performance (Pascarella & Terenzini 1998; Riggert et al. 2006; Perna 2010; Teichler 2011). Future research can support policy decision-making and help strengthen the relationship between higher education institutions and the labor market, as this is still a task awaiting implementation. From the development point of view, the collection and analysis of data on the situation of students is crucial.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. How does student employment affect academic careers and performance?
2. How does paid work affect opportunities for employment after graduation?
3. How does student employment contribute to skills development?

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ANDRÁS ISTVÁN KUN

X. Traditional and new trends in financing higher education

The fundamental issue of financing higher education is the optimal ratio between public and private funding. Institutions can be financed by either public or private resources, or both. In recent decades the scarcity of public funds led to the "cost-sharing" models, the participation of several actors (students, families, central and local governments, and other stakeholders) in financing higher education institutions (Agasisti et al. 2008).

The main reasons and aims for heavily subsidizing higher education from taxpayers' money in most of the countries are the (1) public good ('quasi-public good', 'near-public good', or 'impure public good') nature of higher education, (2) improving equal opportunities, and (3) increasing the output of higher education as a whole or on certain fields or levels.

Public funds can be allocated to the institutions directly (supply-side financing) according to their costs and/or results, or to the students (demand-side financing) who will spend this money at the universities and colleges according to their choices (Agasisti et al. 2008). The main reason behind demand-side funding is supporting market mechanisms, while supply-side financing can increase governmental control. Supply-side financing is direct (there are no intermediate actors between the financer and the institution), and the demand-side financing is indirect. Other indirect financing models may contain other players as well (e.g. NGOs).

For private funding the main reasons are fairer cost sharing and the limited capacity of public funding. Due to the presence of significant private benefits from taking part in higher education, individual beneficiaries should bear a larger share of the burden compared to other taxpayers (Barr 2017; Greenaway & Haynes 2004).

The expansion of higher education is a phenomenon taking place in many countries worldwide, which is actively supported by their governments as an engine of the "knowledge-based economy" (Greenaway & Haynes 2004). According to OECD data one-third of the reporting countries increased their investments in tertiary level education between 2012 and 2018 (OECD 2021). As OECD countries experience a more rapid growth of higher education enrolments than of public funding, the level of expenditure per student decreases. Thus, public

funding alone cannot sustain the quality of higher education. The trend is a continuous increase in the proportion of private financing, which is expected to continue in nearly all higher educational systems around the world.

In the following parts of this chapter, we review the public and private benefits of education, and then we discuss the most well-known financing solutions.

1. SOCIAL BENEFITS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

By many researchers higher education is considered to be a public good (Chapman & Lounkaew 2015; Huang, Daizen, Chen & Horiuchi 2021) because of its pecuniary and non-pecuniary positive spill-over effects ('externalities'). The strict definition requires public goods to be "non-rivalrous" (can be consumed by any number of people without being depleted), and "non-excludable" (no one can be excluded from its consumption or benefits). Although higher education itself does not satisfy these requirements, many of its externalities do. The following positive spill-over effects are connected to higher education most frequently (Chapman & Lounkaew 2015; Greenaway & Haynes 2004): better public health, greater social inclusion and tolerance, greater participation in voluntary organizations, voluntary work, and democratic processes, lower crime rates, more environmentally conscious behavior. The non-pecuniary spillover effects have fiscal consequences, because of reduced public expenditures (they save taxpayers' money).

Although social rates of return to higher education are typically estimated lower compared to private rates of return (because only the social return rates involve social costs), they are still above the rates of most alternative investments. Some researchers suggest a broader definition of social rates of return, raising them to the level of private rates of return (McMahon 2009). Contemporary economic policies supporting the expansion of higher education are often based on the presumption that investment in higher education potentially accelerates national level innovation, productivity, and economic growth. While there is some empirical support for the correlation between faster growth and the expansion of the higher education sector (Greenaway & Haynes 2004), a more detailed analysis reveals that more attainment (or years of schooling) in higher education per se is unrelated to economic growth (Hanushek 2016).

2. PRIVATE BENEFITS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The most obvious private benefit of higher education investment is the positive wage premium: the higher wages and salaries received by graduates compared to non-graduates. This wage premium increases with age (OECD 2021). Younger

adults (25–34 year-olds) with tertiary attainment working full time and part time earned 38% (OECD average) more than their peers with upper secondary attainment in 2019, 45–54 year-old workers earned 70% more. In case of younger adults the earnings advantage of tertiary-educated younger adults fell by 6 percentage points (OECD average) between 2013 and 2019. The gender gap in adults' (25–64 year-olds) earnings slightly decreases with educational attainment. On OECD average the gap among adults with below upper secondary attainment is 34% (women's earnings are on average 66% of men's), 31% among adults with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary attainment, and 30% among those with tertiary attainment.

Another private benefit is the higher employment rate (employment premium). On average across OECD countries, in 2019 (OECD 2021), the employment rate is 75% for adults (25–64 year-olds) with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education and 84% for tertiary-educated adults (the employment premium from higher education is 9% more). Female employment rates are always higher on average (except Norway), but the difference is narrowing as educational attainment increases. The gender gap in employment rates among 25–64 year-old employees is 15 percentage points among adults with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (82% for men and 67% for women), and 8 percentage points among the tertiary-educated ones (89% and 81% respectively).

The third benefit to mention is protection from unemployment. In 2019, on average across OECD countries (OECD 2021), the unemployment rate is 6.6% for adults with upper secondary or postsecondary, non-tertiary attainment, and 4.7% for those with tertiary attainment. Thus, higher education reduced the risk of becoming unemployed by 1.9 percentage points. Higher education is also narrowing the gender gap in unemployment rates: the difference is 2.6 percentage points (female unemployment rates are higher) among young adults below tertiary education and 0.6 percentage points among tertiary-educated woman and men (OECD averages).

There is a consensus in empirical literature that private rates of return to higher education over the working-age life are well above the (private) investment costs (Greenaway & Haynes 2004). According to the newest available data (from 2018), among OECD countries, the private financial benefit for each U.S. dollar invested in higher education was around 6 dollars for men and 7 dollars for women (OECD 2021). The financial returns from tertiary education are about 1.5 times higher than from upper secondary education for both genders.

3. FUNDING SCHEMES AND METHODS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

A classification developed by Jongbloed and Koelman categorizes funding schemes into four basic models using two dimensions (Agasisti et al. 2008): funding base (input or performance oriented financing) and resource allocation mechanism (centralized/regulated or decentralized/market-based). The four models are:

- Q1: (input-oriented, centralized): The government signs contracts directly with the institutions. Funding criteria are decided by the government.
- Q2: (input-oriented, decentralized): The voucher model (see below).
- Q3: (output-oriented, centralized): The government uses various formulas to connect fund allocation to institutional performance.
- Q4: (output-oriented, decentralized): A demand-driven model where institutions are competing by submitting proposals for a given supply of graduates. A relevant part of the resource-allocation is based on performance indicators.

Below we introduce a short selection of the most known alternative funding options from theoretical discussions as well as from international practice (Greenaway & Haynes 2004).

GRADUATE TAX

Graduate tax is a tax supplement that applies only to graduates (Greenaway & Haynes 2004). The main advantages of this solution are: (1) the increased public funding burdens the primary beneficiaries of higher education; (2) since the tax paid is based on future earnings, the education is still free for the students during their learning, thus it does not decrease the affordability of higher education for the less wealthy; (3) low costs and straightforward administration. However, there are strong counterarguments as well. (1) Because of the deferred nature of the payment, it does generate public resources slowly. (2) It does not support the flexibility and competitiveness of the system and does not act against social exclusion. (3) The tax amount does not reflect the cost differences among degrees. (4) It works well only if the revenue from graduate tax is designated to be spent on higher education (hypothecated tax), and this is not possible in all countries.

HIGHER EDUCATION VOUCHERS

Vouchers (or learning entitlements) are "coupons" provided by public funds directly to the university students. They can spend it at a higher education institu-

tion of their choice to pay educational costs (Agasisti et al. 2008). It is a demand-driven fund allocation system, as the money is channeled to the institutions via students' preferences. It is a flexible tool: the voucher's value could be applied to educational costs, to course type, to the student's socio-economic background, or to other considerations. It does not alter the volume of public expenditures on education, only the way of distribution. The voucher system is expected to increase the competition among institutions and empower students.

DEREGULATION OF TUITION AND FEES

In countries where the private higher education sector is stronger the role of (tuition) fees in financing higher education is significant. However, due to subsidies from various sources not even in the highly decentralized higher education system of the United States do students of public or private non-profit institutions pay the full costs of their education (Ehrenberg 2020). In most OECD countries, the reliance on fees is limited, and in many cases higher education remains free for students.

Giving the institutions greater freedom in setting their own tuition and fees is based on the following arguments (Greenaway & Haynes 2004). First, private rates of returns to higher education are greater than public returns, thus students should make a greater contribution. Second, different institutions have different cost structures, because of their different subject mix, different balance between teaching, research and technology transfer, etc. This variation of the cost structures has increased rapidly in the last decades. Third, deregulation of fees can increase market discipline and decrease costs of regulation. On the other hand, differential fees affect demand for and access to education adversely (especially for those from low-income backgrounds). To avoid this negative effect, deregulation of fees should be combined with scholarships or student loans.

INCOME CONTINGENT STUDENT LOANS

Income contingent loans (ICLs) provide students with finance for tuition and/or income support, where the collection of the debt depends on the borrowers' future income (borrowers pay a given share of their income) (Chapman 2006; Vona 2015). Since student loan repayment will never be a too high proportion of the income, ICLs will have two major advantages over classic student loans: default protection and consumption smoothing.

They can generate additional private resources (if loans derive from non-public sources, e.g. private banks), improve access to higher education for students from low-income backgrounds (up-front charges should be avoided,

learning can remain free at the point of consumption, repayments should be a small proportion of the initial earnings), and avoid revenue leakages all at the same time.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. Student loans are often criticized as putting newly graduated people in a difficult situation at the beginning of their careers with a serious amount of debt. Respond to this statement, assuming it's an income contingent student loan.
2. Higher education attainment does not correlate positively with labor market outcomes only but also with several health indicators. Discuss this statement using statistical data from the newest available edition of the Education at Glance OECD series.
3. An important aim of governments is to provide equal access to higher education for everyone. How will privatization (that is a living trend in many countries) of higher education institutions affect this goal?

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ANDRÁS BUDA – BALÁZS CZÉKMÁN

XI. Virtual universities

The idea of the virtual university appeared in the professional discourse at the end of the last century, when it was clearly seen as a counterpoint to traditional, brick and mortar universities. Since then, the concept of virtual university has been given a wide range of meanings, from e-learning courses, institutional networks, MOOC solutions, but also pandemic-era higher education. We will not go into all the definitions, but will now look at some of the key elements of the issue.

GENERATIONS OF UNIVERSITIES

Based on the model developed by Wissema (2009), several generations of universities can be distinguished, which differ in a number of characteristics. The first generation of universities, founded in the early 1200s, considered education to be their main task. Because of the strong influence of the Church, the classes were typically taught in Latin and were clearly intended to train scholars. The dominance of this classical university model declined towards the end of the Middle Ages as the world underwent major changes. The printing of books, the great geographical discoveries, the Renaissance, Humanism, the Enlightenment and the First Industrial Revolution all gave rise to a new (second) generation of universities, whose aims were not only to educate but also to research. These institutions were essentially localized, operated in national languages and provided elite education. In the second half of the 20th century universities again underwent significant changes. The number of students increased by leaps and bounds, globalization processes began, accelerated, interdisciplinary research was developed, and cooperation with industrial organizations became more and more widespread. The expansion of education (Archer 1982) meant that universities had to switch to 'mass production', and take on a new function in addition to their classical role of education and research – namely that of decreasing their environmental impact and competing for regional dominance (Thorp & Goldstein 2013).

Lukovics and Zuti (2017) complemented Wissema's model and named a new, fourth generation of universities. According to their findings, the fourth generation should not be seen as a further development of the third generation univer-

sity, but should be conceived as a set of activities that these HEIs perform that are distinct from the previous functions. Among these, the impact on the local economy and society stands out as a consequence of a very important proactive approach. This is why the fourth generation of higher education institutions can now be seen as a driving force for the local economy, acting as a catalyst in setting strategic directions. Table 1 summarizes the main characteristics of the generations of universities.

TABLE 1: Some characteristics of the generation of universities

Aspect	First generation universities	Second generation universities	Third generation universities	Fourth generation universities
Goal	Education	Education and research	Education, research and utilization of knowledge	education, responsible R&D&I, knowledge exploitation, proactive economic development
„Output"	Professionals	Professionals and scientists	Professionals, scientists and entrepreneurs	professionals, scientists, entrepreneurs, competitive local economy
Language	Latin	National	English	multilingual, national and English

Source: Wissema 2009, Lukovics & Zuti 2017

VIRTUAL UNIVERSITIES

The expansion of universities has required significant infrastructure and human resource improvements, but the budgets of the institutions have generally not allowed for such leaps in development. Nevertheless, at the end of the 20th century, thanks mainly to the spread of computers and the internet, many saw the creation of Virtual Universities as the solution and the way of the future. It was believed that these institutions without walls would not only be able to educate

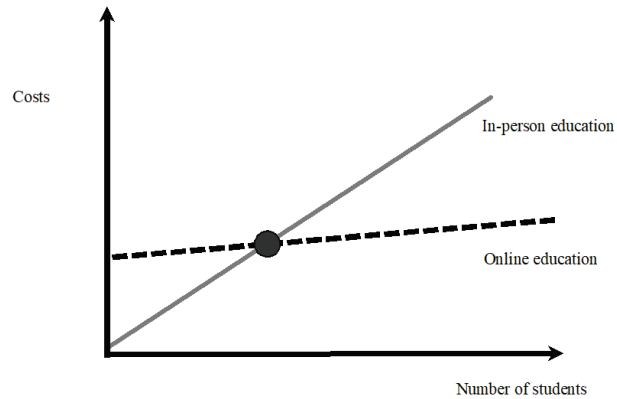
the masses, but also would be able to create the possibility for anyone to pursue any kind of education without being hindered by physical barriers. The idea is that teaching and learning in institutions will be asynchronous, i.e. the teacher and the student will not need to be connected at the same time, so the student can progress even at a completely individual pace.

However, it soon became clear, that this imagined solution is not so simple, as there are a number of requirements for online training that are not easy to meet, and there are also problems with virtual universities that have not yet been amply fixed. There are various ways of looking at virtual university education over the Internet (e.g. teacher-student, economic, legal, health and socialization, equal opportunities, etc.), two of which are discussed below.

ECONOMIC PERSPECTIVE

The idea of setting up virtual universities was also heavily influenced by economic considerations. While it is true that online training can serve the masses much more easily than traditional offline training, this does not clearly mean that it is more economically advantageous to organize such in-person training. The number of students is extremely important in this situation. In the case of traditional training, the initial cost for the training provider is relatively low and rises steadily in small increments as the number of students increases. In very simple terms: for a single student, a subject requires one textbook, one classroom and one teacher. For two pupils, two textbooks are needed, but one classroom and one teacher are still enough. If there is another subject, you need a textbook and a teacher, but one classroom is still enough. But when you reach a certain number of students, you need two classrooms, more teachers, etc. On the other hand, for online training, you start with one student, one digital curriculum and one teacher. Above a certain number of students, there is no doubt that an additional teacher is needed, but the "reproduction" of the digital curriculum does not entail additional costs, nor is it necessary to rent or build another room or building. In other words, the costs for training providers rise much more slowly in line with the number of students. What makes a huge difference between the two forms of training is the initial cost. Of course, buying or ordering a textbook is a big difference in cost, but neither comes close to the cost of producing digital learning materials for individual learning. A good digital textbook is far from being the same as a digitized traditional textbook! Digital learning materials must have a completely different structure (e.g. much smaller units), different layout, different illustrations (e.g. videos, animations), include activation, progress measurement, etc. The cost of producing them is therefore several times higher than the cost of a textbook.

FIGURE 1: Evolution of the cost of attendance and online education as a function of the number of students



The economic benefits of teaching and learning over the internet are not entirely clear from the point of view of teachers, students and stakeholders. It is undeniable that some students can save considerable travel and accommodation costs by enrolling in a virtual university, and that they can study while still being able to work and without having to give up their jobs. Lecturers also save on travel costs, but both groups need the necessary infrastructure, which includes technical equipment and internet access with sufficient bandwidth, and the purchase of the necessary software to ensure legal compliance. As regards the latter, in most cases the office software available for the basic operating system does not represent a significant additional cost and for educational purposes typically no other software is needed. There are, however, courses (e.g. engineering courses) that require programs costing hundreds of dollars to complete but also involve an ongoing cost to ensure access to certain databases. The experience of emergency remote education during the pandemic period indicates that the provision of facilities is a problem in many countries, albeit to a significantly different extent. The differences are illustrated by an online survey conducted by UNESCO in April 2020, which found that, at the time of completing the questionnaire, teaching had been discontinued in 3% of higher education institutions in Europe, the US and Asia, and in almost a quarter (24%) of African higher education institutions, mainly due to infrastructure deficiencies (Marinoni et al. 2020).

LEGAL PERSPECTIVE

The formal procurement of software for teaching-learning has already been linked to the legal issues related to the virtual university. This also includes copyright issues relating to teaching materials and content integrated from external

sources, and the availability of student data (privacy) by various persons. With a little attention, the right procedures in place, and a clear understanding of the rights involved, these elements can be relatively well managed and should cause few problems. However, a major problem that has not yet been adequately resolved is the real equivalence of a virtual university qualification compared to a traditional one. In legal terms, the two qualifications can be considered to be of equal value, but in the labor market the value of a diploma obtained in the traditional manner is much higher. The basic problem is that it is very difficult to ensure that the student who is enrolled in the course actually demonstrates his or her knowledge and that the knowledge demonstrated is acquired knowledge and not knowledge produced by the student using various prohibited aids. In particular, the potential for fraud is increased in virtual universities when the organizers wish to ensure that the learner be able to take his examinations independently of time and place. Of course, written assignments are an easy way of meeting this basic requirement of virtual universities, but in this case it is impossible to identify the author. In the case of oral reporting, identification can be verified, but even with this method filtering out the help of external aids proves difficult. The experience of online education in the pandemic period has also demonstrated this problem: Alam and Asimiran (2021), studying undergraduate students from different disciplines, found that pre-pandemic students had poorer academic performance than their counterparts during the pandemic. In contrast, however, pre-pandemic graduates had better job-readiness scores (Alam & Asimiran 2021), meaning that they would be a better choice from an employer's perspective.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. Consider the advantages and disadvantages of synchronous and asynchronous teaching-learning.
2. Look at the characteristics of LMS and LCMS frameworks.
3. Examine the teaching-learning process in a virtual campus from aspects not covered in the above paper.
4. Take note of the similarities and differences between teaching in a virtual university and in a pandemic period!

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ANETT HRABÉCZY

XII. The continental and Atlantic systems of higher education and educational policy

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we review what characterizes the Atlantic and Continental systems. First, the most important terms will be explained. Then, a comparative analytical presentation of the two education systems will be made, looking at all levels of the education system in general. Afterwards, the Atlantic and Continental higher education systems are discussed in more detail. Due to space limitations, we do not attempt to present individual countries and their specific characteristics. At the end of the chapter, there are questions to help the reader further delve into the topic and to provide a starting point for further research.

THE ATLANTIC AND CONTINENTAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS FROM A COMPARATIVE POINT OF VIEW

As mentioned, in this chapter, the Atlantic and Continental higher education systems are briefly presented. Before that, we should review what characterizes these education systems in general. What the education system is like largely determines the structure of a person's knowledge (Kozma 2006). However, it is important when we talk about Atlantic and Continental systems to clarify that we are not talking about two specific educational systems, but a grouping of educational systems in which similar systems are categorized based on their characteristics (Kozma 2006). Based on Kozma (2006), table 1 summarizes the characteristics of these systems, and the most basic differences between them.

STRUCTURE

As we saw in Table 1, the education systems of the developed world can basically be divided into two groups (Clark 1983; Levy 2017). The characteristics of the two education groups are also echoed at the higher education level within each given system. In the case of Continental higher education institutions, the French (Napoleonic) and German (Humboldtian) models have spread throughout Europe (Kozma 2006; Sursock 2017; Marra & Moscati 2017; Tapper 2017). Their

TABLE 1: Characteristics of Atlantic and Continental education systems

	Atlatic education systems	Continental education systems
Area	Britain and USA	Europe
Main types	–	french, german
Main characteristics	weak government role, network of local institutions	officially organized, centralized, selectivity
Root	reformation, church education, the spread of book printing	Napoleonic Wars, Enlightenment, French Revolution
Centre	public school	ISCED 2–3
Aim	to make young people members of the community	preparation for higher education, professional public administration
Function		civil servant middle class, social mobility
Structure	–	building on each other, the relationship of each institution to the secondary school
Control	elected school board	state
Funding	significant role of school districts	
Curriculum	the curriculum is a local issue	central, unified
Textbooks	tool, market commodity	

Source: own editing based on Kozma (2006).

structure is mostly built upon the institutions' relation to secondary schools, where there exists interdependence between the institutions. This makes the structure understandable on its own (Kozma 2006). For, it is characterized by three tiers (elementary, secondary, and tertiary education), and each level may boast several types of institutions (Kozma 2006). These other institutions are partly determined by their relation to the structure (Kozma 2006). One embodiment of this is the matriculation examination, which is in many ways linked to higher education (and which has a very important selective function). Preparation for higher education is one of its roles (in addition to the training of the administrative members of the society), and the way the examination procedure is laid out also imitates the exam and examination board styles of those in higher education (Kozma 2006).

The majority of Continental education systems are subject-centered, which is supported by a central, unified curriculum determined by the state. This can be seen in the curriculum, the school's structural layout, and the design of the classrooms (Kozma 2006). However, the Atlantic systems and their forms of higher education are not so uniform. Instead, the structures are unique to each system. The reason for this is that the institutional system of the Atlantic way is organized and built up from bottom-up, rather than top-down. The result is, each structure of the approximately 50 educational systems in the United States is more or less different from the next (Kozma 2006). It can be said that British traditions had a significant impact on higher education in the U.S. (Anderson 2017). Community institutions, whose function is to help form children and young people into members of the community, spread in these systems (Kozma 2006). Thus, the community also determines the curriculum, and much more emphasis is placed on the development of competencies.

STATE VS. AUTONOMY

Despite the fact that the institutions of the Atlantic system are so unique, their common feature is that they have a stronger tradition of autonomy, and the involvement of the state in their operation is much more marginal. In place of this government involvement, a network of local institutions is managed by elected school boards (Kozma 2006). Atlantic system universities have a different profile in terms of both teaching and research, characterized by powerful institutional leadership, with the state managing from a distance (Jungblut & Maassen 2017). This is less typical of higher education institutions in the Continental system (Sursock 2017). Kozma (2006) briefly summarizes that in the Continental system, "the education system is officially organized, centrally managed, and based on long traditions" (Kozma 2006:112). Its universities are controlled by the nation-state as an external power, as the university is legally owned by the state, all the while, the state also acts as the university's main partner (Marra & Moscati 2017). Their administration also follows and models that of the state (Kozma 2004). For these institutions, the national interest is a priority, and they follow the centralist logic of the nation-state. According to de Boer and von Vught (2017), the main tools for intervention are command and control, authority and organization. Marra and Moscati (2017) call this the state control model. Tapper (2017) also suggests that, as regards the Continental higher education institutions, there is a close relationship between the needs of the university and the state. Of course, this can differ from country to country. Let us take, for example, France's elite training schools, and Germany's research universities (Tapper 2017). In the French system, there are mostly state-controlled teaching

universities, where the academic staff are practically without autonomy, while the institutions of the German model are mostly homogeneous but competitive research universities. In these institutions, state bureaucracy is strong and institutional leadership is weak, but the professors are relatively autonomous (Jungblut & Maassen 2017).

HIGHER EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY

The Atlantic and Continental systems are not only defined by their relationship to the state, but also by how all this is reflected in teaching, and in the relationship between institutions and the surrounding community. For Atlantic systems, forces outside education policy (e.g. parents and students) play a greater role in what happens within schools. According to Kozma (2006), the community school is practically a symbol of the Atlantic system. Continental universities (learning from Atlantic universities) tried to bring universities and users (students and research backers as stakeholders) closer together, but the state still maintains the control (Marra & Moscati 2017). Some researchers consider this to be better than previous centralist systems, but at the same time consider it the „rise of controlled autonomy" (Neave 1995, 1998; Marra & Moscati 2017). It was mentioned earlier that the higher education institutions of the Continental systems are in close coordination with and under the control of the state. As a result, a Continental education system strives less for international scholarship and is more connected to the domestic society that surrounds it. Thus, regional universities are created as specific products of this format (Kozma 2004). The purpose of these systems is related to how the state trains its own administrators through this education form (Kozma 2006). In Atlantic systems, however, we are more likely to find social learning (e.g. the British Open University). Atlantic educational systems (not only higher education) are also known for +"folk schools" founded and maintained by local communities (Kozma 2006).

MOBILITY

Regarding the community, it is also important to discuss the relationship between education systems and mobility. In terms of mobility, Continental systems possess a lesser degree of internationalization. They are very selective, stratification there is less prominent, and the social mobility channels are very difficult for students to navigate (Bonaccorsi 2017). After all, these channels are not for everyone. Instead of diversity, the focus is on equality (Paredeise 2017). As a result of this, it is characterized by shadow education, which attempts to offset the disadvantage plaguing many members of society, disadvantage brought on

by selectivity (Kozma 2006). With Atlantic systems, since they work in close cooperation with the community, it is important that the universities have sources to draw upon other than the state (Shattock 2017). This method supplements institution funding by attracting international students to the universities and making them pay the high tuition fees (Shattock 2017). While most Atlantic universities preferred attracting students to their campuses, and thus started to establish campuses overseas, this approach also became attractive in some Continental systems, since on top of covering university costs, it also had a greater degree of managerial autonomy. Thus, Continental universities started to offer English-language courses and master courses at their headquarters (Shattock 2017). From this, we can see that the Continental systems are more closely tied to the state and the Atlantic systems rely more on the community. Still, researchers define social mobility as one of the functions of Continental systems (Kozma 2006). This springs from the main objective of Continental institutions: they seek to promote the rise of civil servants up to the middle class.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, we discussed the concept of the education system, introducing both the Atlantic and Continental education systems, along with their higher education branches. It can be said that the institutions in both systems were classified as belonging to one or the other based on their common characteristics. These main characteristics can be seen in the state's relationship to the education system. This in turn determines the relationship between the education system and the curriculum, the community, the society and the school. The most important difference is that, while Continental systems are heavily state controlled in all respects, Atlantic systems are much more relaxed, with the community playing a prominent role in the present and future state of these elements.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. How does the school's role in the process of social mobility appear in the two educational systems?
2. What effect does the selectivity of Continental systems have on the education and labor market situation of individual social groups?
3. How do students from the Continental and Atlantic systems perform on international performance measurement tests (e.g. PISA)? What might be the reason(s) for the results they receive on the tests?

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PESHAWA MOHAMMED

XIII. Education Policy and Higher Education in Developing Countries*

INTRODUCTION

The term "education policy" refers to the laws, procedures, and guidelines that educational institutions, local school districts, and state governments develop and implement in order to meet specific academic objectives. It aims to provide explanations for why education is important, what goals (both societal and personal) it is meant to achieve, how those goals might be achieved, and how success can be evaluated. Where the education takes place and the goals are achieved is also a critical element to examine when looking into educational policy. These educational settings where learning can occur come in a wide variety. Typical examples of this type of educational institution include kindergarten, elementary schools, secondary schools, junior colleges, universities, trade schools, colleges for adults, and vocational and technical schools. Thus, educational policies have the potential to influence the learning experiences of people of all ages.

According to Kingdon et al. (2014), education is a politically and ideologically charged field. As a result, political processes and practices impact educational institutions and policy changes. They address that education reform is driven by politics and is shaped by the interests and incentives of different stakeholders, the direct and indirect pressures from those stakeholders, and formal and informal institutions. Each of these factors affects the quality of education reform in some way, whether through policy design, funding, implementation, or evaluation.

Reviewing educational policies, topics, and problems in developing countries is inextricably bound up with the function of education in global development. This field combines some different subjects (sociology, politics, critical studies, gender, health, cultural studies etc.). It is also worth mentioning that whilst global institutions, policies, and discourses generate patterns and trends, local

* Dealing with the terminology to denote the specific context in this chapter proved to be a challenge. No term, whether „Third World", „Global South", „Less developed" or "Developing" is without its issues. In this chapter, I refer to "Developing countries" as countries with severely under-resourced education systems.

settings and cultures shape how things work out. In this chapter, the essential themes and issues of education in developing countries are illuminated.

FINANCING, MANAGEMENT, AND DECENTRALIZATION POLICIES

Developing nations have been investing actively in education during the past few decades. The official UNESCO reports state that developing nations contribute an increasing percentage of their GDP to education. Mbiti (2016) states that actual education spending increased by an average of 6% annually in 26 African nations. Additionally, monetary investment in education is also growing in South Asia, Latin America, and the Caribbean. The primary goal of this increase in education spending in developing nations is to raise educational standards. In contrast, some studies claim that the level of education in emerging countries remains low despite the uptick in educational spending and enrolment rates. Yet insufficient infrastructural facilities (e.g. physical infrastructure) require more money put towards education.

Buildings, classrooms, laboratories, and equipment, i.e., educational infrastructure are essential components of school and university learning environments. There is substantial evidence that great infrastructure promotes better learning, increases student results, and decreases dropout rates, among other advantages. Unfortunately, due to conflict-affected infrastructure, poor(er) countries are facing severe challenges. Over 230 million students worldwide attend primary schools without electricity, with 217 million of them in Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Latin America. It is worth noting that while 87% of the world's population now has access to electricity, primary schools only have 69% of power. This leaves millions of children without access, jeopardizing educational and developmental results, particularly in impoverished and rural communities (UN 2019).

Multiple initiatives have been launched throughout the developing world to improve education and bring it up to standard with that of more developed countries. Traditionally, policymakers have assumed that a higher budget for educational inputs will lead to higher levels of student learning. Nevertheless, the difference between the developing world and OECD countries does not appear to be well explained by the correlation between spending on school inputs and student achievement.

Effective management is one of the elements of quality education. Basic education is consistent with poor quality due to under-resourced and poorly managed systems, but increasing funding is not always the solution. While it is recommended that 6% of a country's GDP be allocated to education, just 41 of the 150 nations for which data is available do so. Meanwhile, 25 countries allocate

less than half of that amount. While under-resourcing does not account for all educational quality issues, it can explain why only 5% of Tanzanian students have their own textbooks and why only one in four schools has a bathroom (UNESCO 2014). The issues of management and corruption are considered characteristics of education in some developing countries. Sometimes funds are provided for textbooks, but are then reallocated for other purposes and in the end never reach students.

In some cases, the curriculum used in many schools is not appropriate for children because of the elite orientation of the curricula (Hickey & Hussain 2019). While many nations have made significant progress in increasing access to basic education, intermediate and higher education participation is still below what many believe to be optimal, especially for children from disadvantaged backgrounds. Concerns can also be raised about the quality of education based on the number of students who drop out or repeat a grade, how well they do on national achievement tests, and how their scores compare to those of other countries.

Recently, education in developing countries has been under intense pressure to become more decentralized. Resource constraints have been a significant factor in the change, but worries about the efficiency of a centralized system for providing educational services have also contributed (Behrman et al. 2002) to decentralization. One of the most significant trends to have impacted educational planning in recent decades is that of decentralization. Who should decide what happens in public schools? Who should cover the cost? Discussions over these issues have been very heated. Now, however, due to the demand to cut public spending and improve resource utilization efficiency, decentralization is a reality in many countries, even those thought to be highly centralized. In areas where state bureaucracy appears to be heavy-handed and inefficient, where it has shown to be unable to address problems with teacher deployment, teacher compensation, purchase and distribution of equipment and materials, or building maintenance, decentralization seems to be the answer. It can more quickly enable the identification of difficulties and the search for more effective solutions. It also frequently follows the process of political democratization as people want to be heard and involved in decisions that directly affect their daily lives. Moreover, it aids in defining responsibility spheres. Such administrative reform initiatives are being driven by a number of additional factors as well, factors like some governments' desire to curtail the influence of teachers' unions. According to Mcginn & Welsh (1999), in developing countries, the main driver of decentralization is searching for new resources. Sadly, because school management structures are unable to appropriately handle financing, devolution is necessary.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES AND ITS MAIN CHALLENGES

Numerous underdeveloped countries have made substantial financial commitments to higher education. Most have based their university systems on those of their colonial states, while others have understood from the beginning that higher education policy should reflect the needs of the local population. The universities in the developing world differ greatly from their first-world counterparts in size, management, and resources. University systems in the developing countries are less self-sufficient and more reliant on external finance. As a result of national policy constraints and institutional deficiencies, universities in developing countries face significant challenges (Kallaway 2021).

It is well known that universities require well-thought-out academic programs and a defined purpose. The quality of the teaching staff, student dedication, and the availability of enough resources are crucial to their success. Most universities in developing countries suffer severe problems in all three categories, with a few exceptions (World Bank 2000). Thus, few achieve a high level of constant performance.

FACULTY QUALITY

The success of universities and colleges depends on having faculty members who are both competent and enthusiastic about their work. At present, competent, enthusiastic teachers are hard to come by in general. To make matters worse, sometimes, professors who teach at leading institutions in developing countries are not upgraded with teaching and ICT skills. As a result, students are hampered in their pursuit of knowledge and their capacity to draw inspiration from previous studies and the wider world. What is more frequently used techniques of instruction are antiquated and ineffective (Smith & Hudson 2019).

Atop these challenges, the salaries of most academics are significantly lower than those of other professional fields. Pay raises are determined by bureaucratic personnel procedures that prioritize years of service over excellent teaching or researching. While wage differences make it hard to attract people, recruitment methods sometimes inhibit intellectual advancement. Establishing academic freedom and independent research traditions in such countries is slow. Corruption and bureaucracy are pervasive, influencing both student and teacher recruitment and placement (World Bank 2000). This usually prevents colleges from reaping the benefits of intellectual diversity. Politicized academic environments are particularly prone to these issues since decisions are often made based on who has the most influence rather than on what is best for the institution or

its students. The deficiencies mentioned above can cause brain drain in higher education, which is common in many developing countries. For example, since the early 2000s, the number of Iranian students studying at universities outside of Iran has risen rapidly, and now it stands at around 130,000. Global publication records show that over 100,000 Iranian researchers have held positions at institutes of higher education outside of Iran. This number represents one-third of Iran's research-related human capital (Azadi et al. 2020).

Taking the damage of brain drain into account, it is of utmost importance to find a way to inspire teachers and professors to stay at their institutions. The commitment of faculty members is essential for universities. Learning is encouraged by their physical presence and accessibility to fellow employees and students. However, few organizations in low-income regions enforce policies that prevent employees from working several jobs or taking long absences. Many academics hold many part-time positions, put forth the minimal effort to advance their fields of study or teaching practices, and otherwise do not contribute much to the institutions where they are employed.

CHALLENGES FACING STUDENTS

Students struggle with difficult learning conditions in many educational contexts. Overcrowded classes, inadequate libraries and poor student services all make it harder to study effectively. Academically, many first-year students are not ready for university. The lack of a rigorous selection process within the educational system, and deficient basic and secondary education are the primary causes of this issue. Schools are also responsible, as they hardly ever come up with programs to help unprepared students who are lagging behind.

Because of traditional culture and infrastructure restrictions, students may study fields with few job possibilities, such as humanities and arts. In many countries, girls are expected to follow social norms and choose fields of study that do not prepare them for the workplace, even when there is an unmet demand for graduates with science degrees.

The gender disparity is also a problem not exclusively in developing countries. Practically every society has a gender wage gap. However, in nations with low GDP per capita, gaps in health and education are larger. Further, there are well-documented gender disparities in education, particularly in rural areas or among linguistic and ethnic minorities (Grant & Behrman 2010). In recent years, academic success among girls has lagged behind that of boys in South Asia, West Asia, and North Africa.

In addition, sometimes students must select their field of study early, sometimes even before enrollment. It can be very challenging, if not impossible, to

reverse a decision once it has been made. This rigidity prevents students from exploring their academic interests.

INSUFFICIENT RESOURCES AND AUTONOMY

Up to 80% of the budgets of public universities in Africa and Asia go into personnel and student maintenance expenditures, leaving little room for facility maintenance, library acquisitions, equipment purchases, or supply purchases—all of which are essential to running a productive research institution.

According to recent studies, developing nations cannot attain excellent governance in higher education by simply taking structures from the best systems because the widely recommended "one-best-way" approach frequently ignores levels of institutional capacity in developing countries. In Southeast Asia, the success of governance reforms was hampered by a lack of infrastructure, such as insufficient personnel and resources (Varghese & Martin 2014). In their study, Shin et al. (2022) highlights institutional capacity as a critical component of good governance in four South Asian nations (Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Sri Lanka). The study combines data from each country's legislation with UNESCO data to assess the autonomy and capability of higher education institutions, comparing them to Southeast and Northeast Asian countries as a reference. The study suggests that university autonomy is necessary for good long-term governance, but the capacity building should be prioritized to establish an optimal environment for governance.

Furthermore, the loss of these universities' commitment to research as an institutional priority has far-reaching effects. The inability to conduct research separates the nation's top scholars and scientists, preventing them from keeping up with advancements in their respective professions. Once academic institutions lose their potential to serve as sources of information for the rest of quality education, it becomes increasingly difficult for states to make crucial judgments regarding the worldwide issues that concern them. Many higher education institutions in developing nations do not have the right to make crucial academic, budgetary, or personnel decisions. This is despite the fact that many of these schools are operating with severely inadequate funding.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER CONSIDERATION

1. How can decentralization impact educational attainment in developing countries?
2. In lieu of the fact that developing countries require increases in human capital to build and improve education, what initiatives can developing countries do to combat brain drain?

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Glossary

Academic freedom: The concept of academic freedom includes the freedom of teaching and researching, the freedom of learning, the freedom of dissemination, and the freedom of academics to participate in decisions affecting academic freedom (freedom of self-government). The collective form of academic freedom is institutional autonomy. Academic freedom is protected, for example, by the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. The concept of academic freedom is described in detail in Annex I of the 2020 Rome Communiqué of the Ministers of Education of the European Higher Education Area.

Academically resilient students (OECD definition): "Academically resilient students are disadvantaged students who are in the bottom quarter of the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status (ESCS) in their own country/economy but who score in the top quarter of reading in that country/economy. These students are academically resilient because, in spite of their socio-economic disadvantage, they attain educational excellence by national standards".[1]

Academic cooperation: In the academic world, partnership is understood as the harmonized activity and creative expression of experts. This contains the sharing, increase, and use of knowledge, along with the study process. It maps out new opportunities and creates added value. The most important ingredients of partnerships are participation and communication, for without these, neither the learning together nor the sharing of experiences takes place.

Asynchronous teaching: In asynchronous teaching, knowledge is transferred via an external host, typically a learning management system (e.g. Moodle, Canvas, etc.). The instructor uploads the material to be learned, ideally rich in images, animations, videos, and descriptions of the tasks to be performed, and the learners acquire the knowledge and complete the tasks at their own pace and in their

[1] OECD. (2019). *PISA 2018 Results (Volume II): Where All Students Can Succeed*. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/pisa-2018-results-volume-ii b5fd1b8f-en

own time. Most of the time, participants do not meet face-to-face at all, but communicate through electronic messages or forum posts.

Atlantic education systems: We call the educational systems that were formed in the Anglo-Saxon, primarily American and British economic, social, legal and community environment, as well as the educational systems that were formed in areas influenced or conquered by these states, the Atlantic education system.

Brain Drain: The Royal Society used the terms for the first time in 1963. It was used to describe the migration of British intellectuals to the United States. Today the terms are used differently. In the context of international migration, the term "brain drain" refers to a phenomenon whereby many highly educated people leave one country for another. Although the term "brain drain" is most often used to describe the movement of people from developing to developed countries, it can also be used to describe the movement of highly qualified professionals (such as engineers, doctors, etc.) between countries within the developed world. Reasons for this loss of talent include:

- Differences in labor conditions, wages, and promotion opportunities between the country of origin and the country of destination
- Poverty and slow economic growth
- Inequality, political oppression, lack of freedoms.
- Military and civil conflicts, environmental and climate issues.

Church-related higher education: Church-related higher education institutions constitute a significant component of non-state but state-recognized institutions. The majority of scholars agree that institutions established and/or maintained by a church are considered church-related higher education institutions. These institutions due to the uniformization of higher education institutions following the monkey policy and the international ranking fetishism[2, 3] progressively lost their religious ties, their institutional life is not guided by religious convictions.

Continental education systems: Using the concept of the education system as a basis, we call the education system that was formed in the economic, social, legal, and community environment of continental Europe, a Continental education system.

[2] Hrubos, I. (Ed.) (2012). *Elefánttoronyból világtorony. A felsőoktatási intézmények misszióinak bővülése, átalakulása*. Budapest, AULA Kiadó Kft.

[3] Berger, P. L. (2014). *Many Altars of Modernity*. De Gruyter.

Decentralization: In the context of public education, "decentralization" refers to the process through which administrative and financial decision-making authority is shifted from the Ministry of Education to lower levels of government, communities, and individual schools. The three major forms of administrative decentralization are de-concentration, delegation, and devolution, each with varying characteristics.

Demand-side financing: public funds are to be allocated directly to the prospective students who can spend it at the higher education institution of their choice.

Diversity: Diversity is in itself a multi-dimensional concept, dependent on the cultural context and level of awareness of difference. Certain dimensions of diversity have received particular attention because groups identified as either under-represented, disadvantaged or vulnerable (or any combination of these three). As awareness about different aspects of diversity has spread, inclusion has come to mean embracing this diversity and working to make groups identified as 'diverse' an integrated part of the university community.

Education system: It is an educational environment created within the framework of the surrounding economic, legal, societal and community factors, which significantly determine its structure, operation and purpose.

Faith-based higher education: Faith-based higher education institutions in comparison with church-related higher education institution maintained their religious spirituality which is emphasized in their mission and institutional life. These are guided by faith convicts.[4]

Higher education vouchers: coupons provided by public funds directly to the students, who can spend it at a higher education institution of their choice to pay educational costs.

Income contingent student loan (ICL): To provide students with finance for tuition and/or income support, where the collection of the debt depends on the borrowers' future income.

Instructors: When speaking about instructors working in higher education, then one is inevitably reminded of the teacher-educator, researcher, publicly

[4] Daniels, J. R. & Gustafson, J. N. (2016). Faith-Based Institutions, Institutional Mission, and the Public Good. *Higher Learning Research Communications, 6(2).*

active person, motivating psychologist (to students and colleagues alike), academic provider, international and domestic professional manager, grant writer, organizer, baseline IT professional, and the economist that adequately divides up resources, who depending on the institution, the position, and the given job may need to shoulder further roles. The university instructor today is required to excel in multiple areas, juggling numerous tasks. This position attempts to force the individual to become a quite contradictory 21st century "polyhistor".

International activity: It can be understood as the willingness to join international academic life, as well as to form international academic partnerships.

Internationalization of higher education: Internationalization, though many have attempted to define it based on its functions and aims, in reality refers to the set-up of contact networks, but also carries in itself the integration of international results into domestic education and research, in the same way that Hungarian academic performance is introduced abroad. Internationalization is not the same as globalization, albeit it marks the same cross-border process. It is rather a trend that is constantly affected and formed by globalization, its changes, opportunities, challenges, and risks.[5]

International mobility of instructors: By the international mobility of instructors, we are referring to the activity of teachers in higher education connected to teaching and research, which could vary from several days to a few months. During such a time, personal professional development and cooperations are expected. These could form the foundation of later institutional- and state-level cooperations, also indirectly promoting economic growth.

Knowledge broker: According to Simmel,[6] there exist certain societal players who connect individuals and groups led by their own interests that would not otherwise interact. These intermediaries are called brokers. Based on the theory of social capital and expanding on Simmel's ideas, a knowledge broker is someone who aids the groups in swapping knowledge, in creating new information, by supporting change.

[5] Knight, J. (2003). Updating the Definition of Internationalization. *International Higher Education 2003 Fall.*

[6] Simmel, G. (1922).*Conflict and the Web of Group Affiliations*. Translated and edited by Kurt Wolff. Glencoe, IL, Free Press.

Mass higher education: From the end of the Second World War, the social demand for education increased rapidly, with more and more people wanting to go to university and increasing numbers of people enrolling. Martin Trow defines the transition from elite to mass higher education as more than 15% of the population of a given age group entering higher education. As well as an increase in numbers, expansion is associated with a systemic transformation of higher education.

Non-traditional student: Non-traditional students are those who enroll to university or college, and who have population characteristics not normally associated with entrants to higher education (especially in elite stage). Some definitions narrow the concept to older students (over 25), while other approaches include all under-represented groups, such as ethnic minorities, gender inequalities, people with disabilities, first-generation students, disadvantaged people. For mass and marketized higher education, these new groups have become very important new resources.

Private higher education: Private higher education is a segment of the complex higher education system. The segment of higher education that is founded and operated by individuals and associations is known as private higher education. In some countries, institutions that are not state-owned but are supported and supervised by the state also belong to the private sector.[7] The international literature uses the collective term private higher education and emphasizes its internal stratification, however a uniform system of requirements has not yet been developed for distinguishing the segments of the sectors.[8, 9]

Resilience (International Resilience Project's definition): "Resilience is a universal capacity which allows a person, group or community to prevent, minimize or overcome the damaging effects of adversity (…)."[10]

[7] Szemerszki, M. (2003). *A magánfelsőoktatás kialakulása Magyarországon*. Ph.D. értekezés. Budapesti Közgazdaságtudományi és Államigazgatási Egyetem.

[8] Szemerszki, M. (2003). *A magánfelsőoktatás kialakulása Magyarországon*. Ph.D. értekezés. Budapesti Közgazdaságtudományi és Államigazgatási Egyetem.

[9] Pusztai, G. & Farkas, Cs. (2016). Church-Related Higher Education in Central and Eastern Europe Twenty Years after Political Transition. In Máté-Tóth, A. & Rosta, G. (eds): *Focus on Religion in Central and Eastern Europe: A Regional View*. 129–157. De Gruyter Verlag. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110228120-005

[10] Grotberg, E. H. (1996). *The International Resilience Project: Findings from the Research and Effectiveness of Interventions*. Page not specified.

Student employment: Paid work done by full-time students of secondary or tertiary education during term time or vacation. It can be facilitated by various organizations such as student employment agencies, which ensure that students work legally and under controlled circumstances. In some education systems, educational institutions offer or help to organize work opportunities for their students.

Supply-side financing: public funds are to be allocated directly to the higher education institutions according to their costs and/or results.

Synchronous teaching: In synchronous teaching, the teacher and the student are simultaneously present in the teaching process. The communication is fast, the teacher communicating directly and the learners being able to react immediately to what is being said, asking questions of either the teacher or their peers. Attendance-based teaching is a typical form of teaching, where the participants are physically present in the same place. However, the same physical space is not a prerequisite: participants can also maintain visual and auditory contact through different platforms (e.g. Zoom, Webex, Meet, etc.).

Transition to working life: The lengthening period between graduation and labor market entry, with multiple transitions between educational institutions and workplaces, unemployment, and even household work. In this period, student and employee status can alternate constantly.

University governance: The distribution of the powers of the actors and bodies involved in decisions about the university, and the procedures and processes involved by which those decisions are made. Governance is shaped by formal rules, policies, and informal cultural norms. University governance can be external or internal. External governance describes the relationship between the state, external actors, and the university. Internal governance describes the powers and decision-making processes of actors and bodies within the university.

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