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Quality Assurance of Higher Education through Accreditation Policy:
A Comparative Case Study of Egypt and Japan

by

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Submitted to
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Abstract

Keywords: Quality assurance (QA), accreditation, higher education (HE), HE system (HES), HE institutions (HEIs), NAQAAE, JUAA, NIAD-UE, JIHEE, knowledge transfer (KT)

The purpose of this research is to develop a theoretical model of the accreditation policy process from the policy-as-knowledge perspective of HE..

The literature review on QA of HE shows that in the early 19th century governments were interested in the quality of HEIs because of underwriting the finance of HE as well as defining the legal and administrative framework within which that institution evolved. By the end of 19th century the transition from elite to mass HE created many fundamental changes as well as challenges decision makers in the field of HE that the real *pre-quality era* started. Therefore, QA was already a concern of nearly all nations, most of which have implemented schemes to evaluate the quality of institutions and programs in HE. Since 1990s, there was a significant change in the quality mechanisms and this decade can be seen as *the decade of quality* in HE. From this time on and with the push of globalization on HE, HEIs are required to demonstrate, through their institutional leaders to and to express in a comparable measure, the quality of its activities. The relevant literature reveals that there are four main approaches of evaluation in QA, the external reviewing or examiner system, quality audit, quality assessment and accreditation. Countries have begun to implement innovative procedures for HE quality. As a result, QA has become a rapidly growing concern in a context of ongoing change in HE through the great attention that has been focused on convergence or transfer of QA knowledge or making different national QA schemes and frameworks more comparable to one another. There are attempts to identify KT in the public policy process. However, there is a significant void about the modeling of the KT process in the QA of HE in general and in the accreditation policy process in particular.

To accomplish the objectives of the study, we conducted a case study. In the first stage of the study, we analyzed the case of NAQAAE as the only certified

accrediting agency of HE in Egypt. In the second stage, we conducted a case analysis of three certified accrediting agencies in Japan; JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE.

In both stages, we focus on the KT process on the accreditation policy process. Particularly, we addressed this major research question; How has accreditation policy been made in Egypt and Japan?, and three subsidiary questions: (1) How have accrediting agencies in Egypt and Japan acquired, shared and transferred QA and accreditation knowledge?; (2) What factors have affected the QA and accreditation policy process in Egypt and Japan?; and (3) What are the similarities and the differences in QA and accreditation policy processes in Egypt and Japan?

The result show that the accrediting agencies in both Egypt and Japan build up their QA and accreditation knowledge base based on several mechanisms of knowledge emulating, sharing and transferring such as; IQAS knowledge, agency's surveys, governmental releases, networks knowledge, CoP knowledge, global, regional and international projects and conducting and sharing in global, regional and international seminars, workshops and conferences. Moreover, our results show that there are four main factors affecting QA policy in general and accreditation policy transfer in particular. These factors are the same in the two countries but its effects on this process are differs according to the differences in the two countries. These factors are; globalization, factors related to social system, factors related to HE system and factors related to the nature of accrediting agencies.

Concerning theoretical implications, this study proposes a model of the accreditation policy process. This model, EEII, consists of four phases: emulation, evaluation, integration and internalization. These phases are based on the knowledge base of each accrediting agency.

Regarding practical implications, this study suggests that the independence of accrediting agencies in acquiring, sharing and transferring accreditation knowledge moreover in issuing its own standards is crucial. Finally, in order to understand the accreditation process this study provides directions for future research suggesting the study of other positional perspectives who are likely to differ in the views of QA and accreditation policy such as; political, bureaucratic, and union policy actors.

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Dedication

To my dear beloved country Egypt

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List of Acronyms

Acronyms	Full Name
AARU	Association of Arab Universities
AAST	The Arab Academy for Science and Technology
ABET	Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology
ABEST21	The Alliance on Business Education and Scholarship for Tomorrow, a 21st century organization, Japan
AHELO	Assessment of Higher Education Learning Outcomes project
ALECSO	Arab League Education, Cultural and Science Organization
ANQAHE	Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education
APQN	Asia-Pacific Quality Network
ARWU	Academic Ranking of World Universities
ASEAN	Association of South East-Asian Nations
AUC	American University in Cairo
AUN	Asian University Network
CHEA	Council for Higher Education Accreditation , USA
COE	Centers of Excellence, Japan
EAPAA	European Association for Public Administration Accreditation
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EFMD/EQUIS	European Foundation for Management Development/European Quality Improvement System
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ENQA	European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education
EQUIS	European Quality Improvement System
ERASMUS	European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
ETCP	Egyptian Technical Colleges Project, Egypt
EUN	Egyptian Universities Network
FLDP	Faculty and Leadership Development Project, Egypt
FOEP	Faculties of Education Enhancement Project, Egypt
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GATT	General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs
GOE	Government of Egypt
HE	Higher Education
HEEP	Higher Education Enhancement Project, Egypt
HEEPF	Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund, Egypt
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
IAU	International Association of Universities
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICTP	Information and Communication Technology Project, Egypt
IDA	International Development Association
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO

IMF	International Monetary Fund
INQAAHE	International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education
IQAS	Internal Quality Assurance System
ISESCO	Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
JABEE	Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education
JACA	Japan Association for College Accreditation
JIAE	Japanese Institute of International Accounting Education
JIHEE	Japanese Institution for Higher Education Evaluation, Japan
JIME	Japan Institute of Midwifery Evaluation
JSPS	Japan Society for the Promotion of Science
JUAA	Japan University Accreditation Association, Japan
LPUs	Local Public Universities, Japan
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology in Japan
MOHE	Ministry of Higher Education, Egypt
NAQAAE	National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Education, Egypt
NCERD	National Center for Educational Research and Development, Egypt
NIAD-UE	National Institute for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation, Japan
NIER	National Institute for Educational Policy Research, Japan
NPM	New Public Management
NUCs	National University Corporations, Japan
NUCEC	National University Corporation Evaluation Committee, Japan
NUFFIC	Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCIQA	Program of Continuous Improvement and Qualifying for Accreditation, Egypt
PDCA	Plan-Do-Check-Act
PIs	Performance Indicators
PMU	Projects Management Unit, Egypt
PUs	Private Universities, Japan
QA	Quality Assurance
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, UK
QAC	Quality Assurance Center, Egypt
QAAP	Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project, Egypt
QAAs	Quality Assurance Agencies
QAAS	Quality Assurance and Accreditation System
QAS	Quality Assurance System
QAU	Quality Assurance Unit, Egypt

SCU	Supreme Council of Universities, Egypt
SCPU	Supreme Council of Private Universities, Egypt
SCTI	Supreme Council of Technical Institutes, Egypt
SEEP	Secondary Education Enhancement Project
SJTUIHE	Shanghai Jiao Tong University Institute of Higher Education
SPU	Strategic Planning Unit, Egypt
SEU	Standards for the Establishment of Universities, Japan
THE	Times Higher Education World University Ranking
TEMPUS	Trans-European Mobility Program for University Studies
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNESCO/ IBE	UNESCO/ International Bureau of Education
US	United States
USDE	United States Department of Education
WB	World Bank
WTO	World Trade Organization

Chapter 1: Introduction

Over the last three decades, most systems of higher education (HE) have been confronted with an overall trend of system expansion that is due in many instances to both growing social demand for HE and a government's greater inclination to focus on investment in human resources. As systems of HE have expanded, diversification of HE systems has generated growing concern worldwide for the quality of HE processes and outputs in both developed and developing countries.

1.1 Backgrounds

1.1.1 The rise of QA policy in HE

In the knowledge-based society, all countries are facing big challenges in HE. Moreover, accountability is an increasingly important element in the governance of HE systems. Within the context of publicly-funded HE systems, demonstration of *value for money* or of *responsible and relevant activities undertaken with the taxpayers' money* is now widespread in many countries. This trend towards greater transparency and public accountability is developing in parallel with the move towards greater autonomy. The quality of a country's HE sector and its definition, assessment and monitoring is a key not only to its social and economic wellbeing but is also a determining factor in the status of that HE system at the international level. In the early 19th century governments were interested in the quality of HEIs because of underwriting the finance of HE as well as defining the legal and administrative framework within which that institution evolved (Neave, 1988). By the end of 19th century, the transition from elite to mass HE (Trow, 1974) created many fundamental changes as well as challenges for decision makers in the field of HE where the real 'pre-quality era' started (Ewell, 2007).

Hence, QA was already a concern of nearly all nations, most of which have implemented schemes to evaluate the quality of institutions and programs in HE.

These systems vary enormously in focus, reach, objectives, and impact (Altbach, et al., 2009). Starting in the early 1980, quality has become a key topic in HE policy. However, different quality mechanisms in HE were present, for instance, the external examiner system in the United Kingdom (UK) and other Commonwealth countries, the accreditation system in America or the government ministerial control in many other countries[1]. In the 1990s, there was a significant change in the quality mechanisms of the HE field and this decade can be seen as the decade of quality in HE. From this time on, HEIs are required to demonstrate, through their institutional leaders and to express in comparable measures, the quality of its activities (Bernhard, 2012).

The need for QA has also become more pressing as the globalization of HE continues to grow. Quality and accountability have become key elements in the efforts of many countries to be internationally competitive in a world where interdependence in trade is rapidly growing. A part from this, the dramatic increase in international student mobility over the past three decades (OECD, 2007b), and the more recent surge in various forms of cross-border provision of HE have raised questions about quality standards and the reputation of cross-border institutions, and calls for a closer monitoring of cross-border education quality (van der Wende, 1999; El-Khawas et al., 1998). Craft (1994) points out:

> Globalization and international migration mean that academic and professional qualifications need to be portable across national borders, and so both institutions and nation states are been to learn more about each other's procedures for assuring the quality of tertiary education provision (p. viii).

Accreditation is one way for HEIs to prove its QA policy. As a result, countries have increasingly established national regulatory frameworks that evaluate and monitor quality in HE. The report of Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) states that almost all OECD countries

[1] Especially European countries.

have national systems of QA and accreditation, and a growing number of non-member countries are establishing similar system (OECD, 2004). In countries that lead in technology innovation, university management contributions to QA concentrate on accounting, administrative, and audit procedures. These procedures generate data and measures to evaluate teaching and research impacts on teaching, thus enhancing the global competitiveness of HE. In countries characterized as technology followers HE, however, management has been slow in aligning itself with the external requirements of QA (Gertel & Jacobo, 2007).

Recently, HE is being challenged to provide high quality education that is accessible and delivered in flexible ways, how to timely react to globalization, and how to accommodate themselves to massive demands while still assuring the delivery of quality teaching and research. Such challenges should be met in the face of increased global competition and the pressure of diminishing resources.

As a consequence, many countries have begun to implement innovative procedures for HE quality. Thus, QA has become a rapidly growing concern in a context of ongoing change in HE through the great attention that has been focused on convergence or transfer of QA knowledge or making different national QA schemes and frameworks more comparable to one another (Altach, et. al, 2009). The globalization of HE systems increases the possibilities of improvement in the quality of national HE systems. Therefore, the establishment of QA systems has become a necessity, not only for monitoring quality in HE nationally but also for engaging in delivery of HE internationally. As a result, there has been an impressive rise in the number of national, regional and international or specialised QA and accreditation agencies in the past two decades.

QA agencies, responsible for monitoring institutional and program quality, are under globalization's pressure of multiple constituencies to address evermore complicated expectations. These agencies throughout the world, while considering collaboration among them, are implementing measures for assuring the quality of globally deployed HE from the same global viewpoint.

1.1.2 QA and accreditation policy of Egyptian HE

Egypt is one of developing countries in North Africa. It is located in the northeastern corner of Africa and is bordered by Libya, Palestine, Israel, Sudan, the Mediterranean, and the Red sea, and includes Asian Sinai Peninsula (Figure 1-1). Its location made it a transcontinental country and a major power in Africa, the Mediterranean Basin, the Middle East and the Muslim world[2].

Egypt is the world's 30th-largest country, at 1,001,450 square kilometers (386,660 sq mi)[3]. It lies between latitudes 22º and 32ºN, and longitudes 24º and 36ºE. During Egypt's long history, the Nile River has played a dominant role in Egyptian life. It extends for some 1500 kilometers through the length of the country. Approximately 98% of the population lives along its banks, as they have for more than 6000 years. Egypt is the most populated country in the Middle East and the third most populous on the African continent at about 82,079,636 (July 2011 EST)[4].

Egypt has the largest education system in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). About 22% of Egypt's population is in school age, which is between the age of six and seventeen, another 10.5% are in the age group 18-22 of whom fully one third are in HE. This age structure places enormous pressures on the HE system[5].[6] Between 1996 and 2006, the number of students enrolled in HE increased by 115%, and this trend is likely to continue (Fahim & Sami, 2009).

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[2] Retrieved on January 30, 2012 from: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Egypt>

[3] World Factbook Area Rank Order. Retrieved 3 March, 2011, from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2147rank.html>.

[4] Retrieved on January 30, 2012 from: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/eg.html>.

[5] Egypt Human Development Report (2010), Retrieved on Feb. 16, 2012 from <http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/national/arabstates/egypt/Egypt_2010_en.pdf>.

[6] Egypt is one of the countries that are known in the literature as "Youth Bulge," i.e., the increasing share of youth in the total population relative to other age groups.

Moreover, World Bank (2010) expects the rise in Egyptian HE student's enrollment from 28 percent to 35 percent over 2006-2021.

Figure 1-1: **Location of Egypt**
Source: <http://www.maps.com/Search.aspx?q=Egypt>.

Accordingly, the accessibility to HE, and the policy of free public education were the main principles guiding the expansion of public universities in the post revolutionary era[7]. In 2000, Egypt has notably improved its HE enrolment rate and there were over a million students at 12 universities and 20 campuses, in line with government policy of admitting all secondary school graduates (AFDB/OECD, 2004, p. 131).

International development organizations, such as World Bank (WB), are increasingly embracing the view that significant reforms in tertiary education are necessary for African countries to become more economically productive.

[7] After 1952 revolution.

Consequently, in 2001, the Country Assistance Strategy (CAS)[8] report revealed that Egypt needs to accelerate its economic development and build its competitiveness in a global market. Accordingly, the CAS recommended WB Group support in four key areas: promotion of export-led development; encouragement of private sector-led growth; development of the human resources base; and promotion of natural resource management. In the education sector, the CAS recommended expanding dialogue and support for basic and secondary education, and for increasing the market orientation of technical education and vocational training institutes. The CAS acknowledged that Egypt's capacity to build human resources will be central to its long-term economic and social development. The CAS identified the development of the education sector, and specifically HE and skills development, as being critically important to ensuring adequate and balanced social development in Egypt that became a critical in ensuring competitiveness of the Egyptian labor force in the globalizing economy.

Consistent with the CAS recommendations, the WB expanded its dialogue with the Government of Egypt (GOE) on basic and secondary education and provided support under the Education Enhancement Program (EEP) and Secondary Education Enhancement Project (SEEP). These programs' objectives directly supported the Government's 20-year Education Sector Strategic Framework (1999-2019)[9]. The WB supported Egypt's efforts to improve the market orientation of the HE sector by providing quality and relevance and enhancing sector efficiency.

QA efforts of HE in Egypt fall under the umbrella of the three-stage Higher Education Development project (2002-2017), which was launched in 2002, with the support of the WB. The accreditation policy in Egypt is implementing through the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Education

[8] The WB prepares a CAS for active borrowers from the International Development Association (IDA) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) to identify the key areas where Bank Group's assistance can have the biggest impact on poverty reduction.

[9] This strategic framework developed with technical support from the WB

(NAQAAE), the only accrediting agency responsible for all educational institutions.

1.1.3 QA and accreditation policy of Japanese HE

Japan is an archipelago of 6,852 islands in East Asia, with a total area of 377,835 sq.km; including land and water about 11% smaller than California. Located in the Pacific Ocean, it lies to the east of the Sea of Japan, China, North Korea, South Korea and Russia, stretching from the Sea of Okhotsk in the north to the East China Sea and Taiwan in the south[10]. It lies between latitudes 24º and 46ºN, and longitudes 122º and 146ºE. The characters that make up Japan's name means "sun-origin", which is why Japan is sometimes referred to as the "land of the rising sun".

Japan proper has four main islands[11], which are from north to south; Hokkaido, Honshu (the largest island, where the capital and most major cities are located), Shikoku, and Kyushu, together accounting for 97% of Japan's land area. There are also many smaller islands stretched in an arc between the Sea of Japan and the East China Sea and the Pacific proper. About 73% of the country is mountainous, with a chain running through each of the main islands[12]. Japan consists of forty-seven prefectures, each overseen by an elected governor, legislature and administrative bureaucracy. Each prefecture is further divided into cities, towns and villages (McCargo, 2000, pp. 84-85).

Japan has the world's tenth-largest population, with 127.3 million[13], experienced a phenomenal growth rate for much of the 20th century as a result of

[10] Retrieved April, 2012, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Japan

[11] Retrieved April, 2012 from http://www.answer.com/topic/Japan

[12] Retrieved May, 2012 from http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/4142.htm

[13] World Factbook, *Japan*. Retrieved Jan. 2011, from http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ja.html.

scientific, industrial, and sociological changes, but birth rates have fallen steadily since 1970s.

Figure 1-2: **Location of Japan**

Source: <http://www.worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/asia/eastsea.htm>.

In 2005, Japan's populations declined for the first time, 2 years earlier than predicted. In 2010, the population growth rate was -1.0%. However, high sanitary and health standards produce a life expectancy exceeding that of the US[14]. Population density is very high. Most residential and industrial areas tend to be located in lowland areas, along rivers (OECD, 2006a).

The schooling system in Japan, primary schools, secondary schools and universities, was introduced in 1872 as a result of the Meiji Restoration. Three

[14] Retrieved May, 2012 from http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/4142.htm

fourth of high school students receive additional formal instruction of some kind after graduation (Nakayama, 2011, p. 2). According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), as of 2005 about 75.9 % of high school graduates attend a university, junior college, trade school, or other HEIs[15].

Table 1-1: Number of Japanese universities as of May 1, 2008

Category	Total	University	Of those on the left,: Universities with graduate schools	Junior colleges	Colleges of technology	Specialized training colleges (with specialized courses)
Total	1,224	780	618	387	57	2,720
National	137	86	86	0	51	9
Public	122	95	75	24	3	185
Private	965	599	457	363	3	2,526

Source: MEXT, 2010, p. 4.

By the early 1970, Japan achieved mass/higher tertiary education. The decrease in the number of secondary school graduates and the continued establishment of new higher/tertiary education institutions contributed to the present situation in which 49.4 percent of high school graduates continue to study in four-years universities and junior colleges and 70.5 percent in higher/tertiary education institutions as a whole.

More recently, a declining 18-years-old population has galvanized universities into taking the necessary actions into making reforms (Tables 1-1, 1-2 show the number of universities and HEIs as of May 2008). In comparisons, the 18 year old bracket population reached its peak of 2.05 million in FY1992, then entered a period of decline, and remained about 1.5 million from FY 1999 to FY 2003. In FY 2004 there were about 1.41 million, and in FY 2005 there was yet another

[15] MEXT (2012), "Education". Retrieved March, 2011 from www.mext.go.jp/english/introduction/1303952.htm

decrease. It is expected that after dropping to about 1.21 million in FY2009, the number will remain at about 1.2 million through to FY 2020 (OECD, 2006b).

Table 1-2: Number of Japanese HEIs as of May 1, 2008.

Category	Total	Graduate schools	Subtotal	Universities (Undergraduate)	Junior colleges (Regular course)	Higher technical colleges (Fourth and fifth years)	Correspondence education
Total	3,200,199	272,451	2,736,439	2,569,716	145,045	21,678	191,309
National	628,148	157,864	470,284	450,834	0	19,450	
Public	150,589	16,463	134,126	124,502	8,159	1,465	
Private	2,421,462	98,124	2,132,029	1,994,380	136,886	763	191,309

Source: MEXT, 2010.

Therefore, Doyon (2001) emphasis that at the time that many Japanese universities have been woken out of their slumber into the reform process as a result of the decreasing number of student enrolling into their programs, the Ministry of Education desires to raise the quality of education and research in Japan to be on par with its Western neighbors. As also Japan worked to catch up rapidly with western industrial countries, it placed great emphasis on systematic efforts to foster the development of educated human resources (Kimura, 2004). Knipprath & Arimoto (2007) emphasizes that the concerns of the Ministry of Education, the public and educational advisory councils with the achievements of Japanese students throughout their educational career have had a major impact on education policy and the QA system in Japan.

> Japanese HE has become more diverse in the past two decades, assuring the quality of academic degrees has become an issue, with the need for standardizing university quality including raising the bar for establishment with rigorous standards. In particular, as student mobility in HE increases, a QA system has become essential for Japanese universities to maintain international credibility (JUAA, university accreditation handbook, p.2).

However, the concepts of QA and accreditation are still new. Over time, there have been basically two ways to monitor QA of HE in Japan; on is provided as an ex-ante regulation under the law for *Standards for the Establishment of Universities;* the other is by regular evaluation after establishment as ex-post-facto checks (Maruyama, 2008). Moreover, in 2001, the Council for Regulatory Reform, which was established in the Cabinet office of the government, published the report on the regulatory reform of the government. In that report, matters related to HE system were include, such as development of free competitive environments for HE, minimization of common rules in regulating the establishment of universities and faculties, etc. In exchange for the de-regulation, the council proposed the introduction of a continuous accreditation system by third-party organizations (Yamamoto, 2006). This report stated that:

> With a view to maintaining and improving the level of university education and research activities, a continuous accreditation system should be introduced by which all authorized universities are required to take accreditation by third-party organizations and report the results regularly. When any violation of laws and regulations is exposed in the evaluation results, the MEXT should be able to take corrective measures (Yamamoto, 2006, p.6).

Accordingly, and under the 2002 revision of the School Education Law[16], universities in Japan are obligated to receive an evaluation conducted by a QA agency certified by the Minister of MEXT at least once every seven years.

1.2 Objectives and research questions

1.2.1 Objectives

The main objective of this research is to understand and explain the QA and accreditation policy process in both Egyptian and Japanese HE. Particularly, this study has three objectives:

[16] Retrieved Feb. 2012, from http://www.juaa.or.jp/

1. To develop a theoretical model of the accreditation policy process of HE from the policy-as-knowledge perspective.
2. To investigate the factors affecting on QA and accreditation policies in both Egypt and Japan.
3. To make recommendations for HE's policy-makers and accrediting agencies depending on our adopted comparative study.

1.2.2 Research questions

The research questions that guide our study are as follows:

Major research question (MRQ):

How has accreditation policy been made in Egypt and Japan?

Subsidiary research questions (SRQs):

SRQ 1: How have accrediting agencies in Egypt and Japan acquired, shared and transferred QA and accreditation knowledge?

SRQ 2: What factors have affected the QA and accreditation policy process in Egypt and Japan?

SRQ 3: What are the similarities and the differences in QA and accreditation policy processes in Egypt and Japan?

1.3 Originality and significance of the study

Numerous scholars from different disciplinary areas are undertaking research in HE, especially in terms of QA as a rather new field of interest (predominant in the past few decades). Many of them had an impact on the quality of teaching, learning research as well as management of HE in a certain way.

However, most comparative HE research foregrounds the national systems of HE. It offers cross-national comparisons of national patterns. The accreditation policy making process and accreditation policy/knowledge transfer mechanisms are not analyzed or theorized as they are identified. A review of literature revealed that little research has been conducted about accreditation policy making barriers.

Moreover, the current situation of how the accreditation policy in HE is being made from policy/knowledge transfer perspective in both Egypt and Japan have not yet been studied extensively in discursive research.

Thus, this study aims to fill that gap and gives the way for future studies in the field towards a deeper understanding of knowledge transfer phenomenon in QA of HE sector.

1.4 Methodology of the study

Qualitative methods were most appropriate for this research because of its exploratory nature. We adopt an in-depth qualitative case study approach combined with a comparative methodology. The procedures for the data collection and analysis are interwoven within an iterative cycle consisting of interview-analyze-refine-interview.

1.4.1 Data collection

The materials were systemically collected between the years 2009 and 2012 and analyzed afterwards. The main tool for retrieving relevant information was the Internet. The majority of study materials were found by using electronic search engines and intensive research of relevant websites. The primary on-line search method was complemented by selected newspaper articles, contributions from conferences and seminars. The analyzed materials have various forms such as; official documents, press releases, and interviews. In addition to several websites (Appendix: P) were regularly searched to make sure of undated collected data.

The analysis of theoretical and the description of country reports do neither support the study with enough information nor do they provide a comprehensive picture of the research field. They are also not able to answer the main research question and the other sub-questions in detail. Therefore, the primary method of data collection was unstructured and semi-structured interviews. The perspectives of interviewees are unique because; they all have administrative experience in a college or university, the majorities have been faculty members, and the majorities have direct experience with the accreditation organizations. In the semi-structured

interviews, questions were asked about a small number of specified topics. This gave the interviewees ample time for elaboration on specific topics they considered relevant. A contact summary sheet was designed and used for every interview session to keep track of respondent information. The interviewers only intervened when further details were required or new topics needed to be addressed questions.

The experts are seen as a medium which provides information about professional values and attitudes, decision-structures and patterns of interpretation. The interviews had two major objectives: to fill in the gaps in information from the documents analyzed and to explore how the QA policy of HE is made from knowledge transfer perspective in both Egypt and Japan.

The interviews for this study were conducted during the months December of 2011, and April, May, June, and July of 2012. The total number of interviews is 29 (13 with Japanese experts, Appendix N, and 16 with Egyptian experts, Appendix L. Each interview session lasted approximately 60 to 90 minutes and was recorded and carefully transcribed. The interviews were guided by an interview protocol (Appendixes: M & O). Necessary clarifications with interviewees were made to ensure the reliability and validity of the collected data. We supplemented interview data with various written documents (i.e., annual reports, mission statements, meeting notes).

1.4.2 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p.143). By using a case study approach, we can focus on both the phenomenon and the context in which it exists. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships. Yin (1984) defines a case study as:

> An empirical enquiry that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context; when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (p. 23).

Through the use of case study, the subjects of the research are investigated within a real-life context (Yin, 1984). Case study research does not provide the means to prove ideas or test hypotheses so much as it allows for explorations of one or two issues or processes that are fundamental to understanding the system being studied (Feagin, 1991, p. 153). Therefore, case study approach enables us to capture reality in detailed manner.

When the purpose of comparison includes the identification of discrete phases of educational development, an assessment of the historical dimension is an integral part of the comparative process (Sweeting, 2005). Yariv-Mashal (2003) in his polemical essay emphasized the fundamental role of the historical approach in the comparative methodology[17]:

> ……we are facing an important role for historical research within the comparative discipline, one that would enable comparative work to trace the conceptualization of ideas and the formation of knowledge over time and space. One could picture such a theoretical framework for comparative studies as a multidimensional process in which research is grounded in 'local histories', but is based and embedded in different forces, connections, times and places. The reception of each of these histories in different 'presents' will produce an individually, historically contingent social, cultural and educational discourse (p. 435).

Four case studies in two countries, Egypt and Japan, were conducted; from Egypt only one case the NAQAAE, and from Japan JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE. The selection of these case studies was influenced mainly by two factors. The first reason for my country case selection, NAQAAE, was the accessibility of data, experts, legal material as well as sufficient information of this case. In this respect also the language issues was considered as well as existing materials that could have been used.

[17] Cited by Sweeting (2005).

We select qualitative data analysis software (MAXQDA) as our data management and analysis tool to handle our textual collected data[18]. MAXQDA allows for automated searches of text for words, phrases, and co-occurring themes with more accuracy and time efficiency than hand sorting and counting (D'Andrea, et.al., 2011). Lewins & Silver (2008) state that this technology also allows researchers to interrogate the data set, look for co-occurrences of codes or themes, and to play with ideas in an exploratory fashion.

1.5 Definitions of terms

In this section, we will define the following keywords in this research:

- Higher Education System: a set of autonomous post-secondary institutions, all of them have their specific natures but are still close enough to each other of offer teaching, learning and/or research to student.
- Quality Assurance: refers to a set of approaches and procedures regarding the measurement, monitoring, guaranteeing, maintenance or enhancement of the quality of HEIs, providers and programmes, or the processes by which the achievement of education programme standards, as established by institutions, professional organizations, government and other standard-setting bodies, is measured.
- Accreditation: refers to the formal approval of a HEI/provider or programme that has been found by a recognized accreditation body to meet predetermined and agreed standards, through a process of evaluation which eventually results in the granting of accredited status to that institution/provider or programme by the responsible authorities.

1.6 Organization of the study

We organized this dissertation into six chapters. These six chapters have been organized according to the study's three steps as shown below (Figure:1-3). The

[18] www.maxqda.com

general outline of this study is presented in the first chapter. In the second chapter, we present our literature review which covers the quality definitions, QA in HE, QA different approaches; quality assessment, quality audit, accreditation and TQM. This chapter also presents different aspects of policy transfer. The last part of this chapter shows the different theories and models of policy/knowledge transfer.

Chapter three analyses the case of Egypt. It includes a brief of HE in Egypt with a historical backgrounds of QA and accreditation policy in Egypt, followed by a background of NAQAAE case. This chapter analyses the building of accreditation QA and accreditation knowledge base in Egypt. Moreover, it shows the different factors affecting QA and accreditation policy transfer in Egypt.

In chapter four, we analyses the case of Japan. This chapter starts with a brief of HE in Japan followed by a historical backgrounds of QA and accreditation policy in Japan. The middle part of this chapter presents backgrounds of our three cases of certified evaluation and accreditation in Japan, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE. In the last part of this chapter we analyses how each of these accrediting agencies acquires, share and transfer QA and accreditation knowledge. Moreover, we show the different factors affecting QA and accreditation policy transfer in Japan.

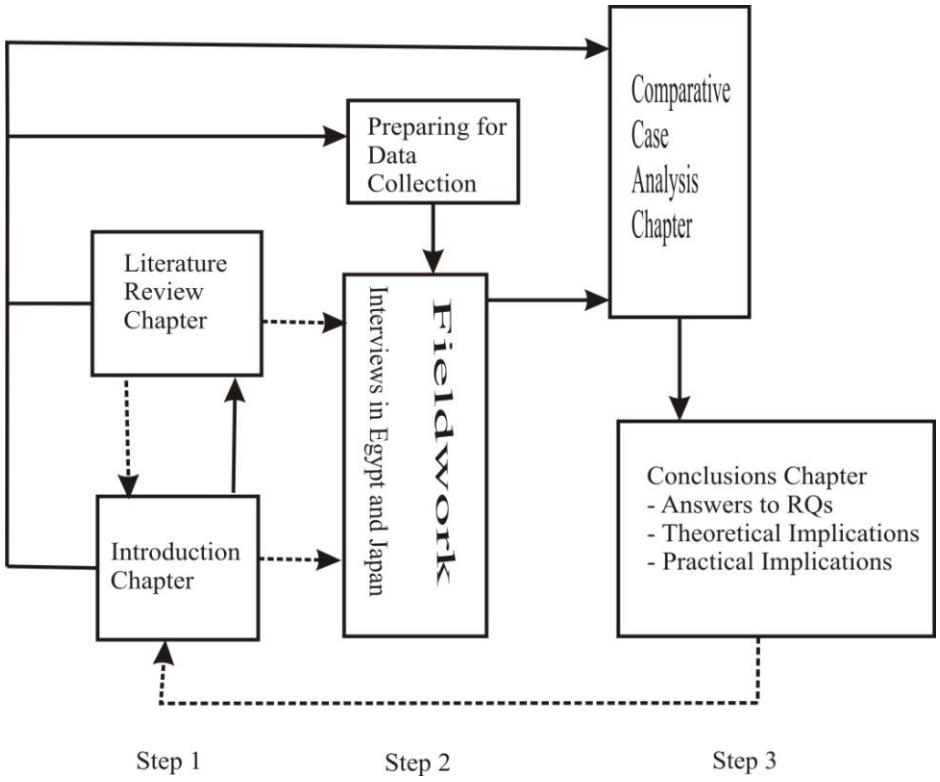

Figure 1- 3: Research steps and organizing

Chapter five shows a comparative analysis of QA and accreditation policy in Egypt and Japan. This chapter is organized in two main parts. In the first part, we present the similarities between Egypt and Japan in the QA and accreditation policy. The second part presents the differences between the two countries in this policy.

The final chapter presents the summary of the major findings of this study through answering three subsidiary questions, followed by answering of the major research question. Moreover, in this chapter we propose a theoretical model of accreditation policy making process based on P/KT perspective. Practical implications are also presented in this chapter with an outline of the direction for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

"*Every country has problems, and each thinks that its problems are unique…However, problems that are unique to one country…are abnormal…confronted with a common problem, policy makers in cities, regional governments and nations can learn from how their counterparts elsewhere responded*" (Rose; 1991, p. 3).

2.1 Introduction

This review of literature is organized by three stands of literature. The first one is QA and accreditation movement in HE; the second is the ways in which QA movement has shaped HE policy and practice and impacted national, regional, and international priorities. The third is the theories and models of QA knowledge/policy transfer. The literature review is very significant for building up the next chapters. Thus, the analyzing of our cases will depend on theses literature guidelines, views, models and theories; to help us in proposing our theoretical implications.

2.2 QA & accreditation policy

2.2.1 Definitions of quality in HE

Quality has become one of the most popular words of the early twenty first century. *Quality of life*, *total quality management*, *quality products*, and *quality service* entered lexicon of daily life. "Quality" was created by the industry after World War Two, and transplanted to education[19]. The notions of quality as excellent, standards setting, QA and quality improvement are often conflated and

[19] Cited by Hoffman & Julius (1995).

used in policy documents and literature rather loosely. A part of looseness arises because various interested parties bring different perspectives to bear.

Pirsig (1974) stated in his book, *Zen and the Art of Motorcycle Maintenance*, which has much of interest about quality and standards, expresses the problem if one cannot define quality or standards, and then one is in danger of spluttering into silence:

> Quality…… you know what it is, yet you don't know what it is. But that's self-contradictory. But some things are better than others, that is, they have more quality. But when you try to say what the quality is, apart from the things that have it, it all goes *poof!* There's nothing to talk about. But if you can't say what Quality is, how do you know what it is, or how do you know that it even exists? If no one knows what it is, then for all practical purposes, it doesn't exist at all. But for all practical purposes it really does exist. What else are the grades based on? Why else would people pay fortunes for some things and throw others in the trash pile? Obviously some things are better than others… but what's the 'betterness'? so round and round you go, spinning mental wheels, and nowhere finding any place to get traction. What the hell is quality? What is it?[20]

Garvin (1988) in his book, *Managing Quality*, describes the multiple dimensions of quality as follows:

- Performance, the "fitness for use" test: Does the product do what the consumer wants?
- Features, the "bells and whistles" that supplement the basic functions and add competitive edge.
- Reliability: how long until first failure or service need?
- Conformance, the extent to which the product meets established specification and manufacturer standards.
- Durability, the length of product life.
- Serviceability, speed, cost, ease of repair.
- Esthetics, a highly subjective but measurable aspect of product appeal.

[20] Cited by Williams (1992)

- Perceived quality: is a Honda built in America perceived as a Japanese car? Of higher quality? (pp. 49-68).

Moreover, Harvey & Green (1993)[21] identifies five categories or ways of thinking about quality (Figure 2-1).

- Exception: distinctive, embodies in excellence, passing a minimum set of standards.
- Perfection: zero defects, getting things right the first time (focus on process as opposed to inputs and outputs).
- Fitness for purpose[22]: relates quality to a purpose, defined by the provider.
- Value for money: a focus on efficiency and effectiveness, measuring, outputs against inputs. A populist notion of quality (government).
- Transformation: a qualitative change; education is about doing something to the student as opposed to something for the consumer, including concepts of enhancing and empowering: democratization of the process, not just outcomes.

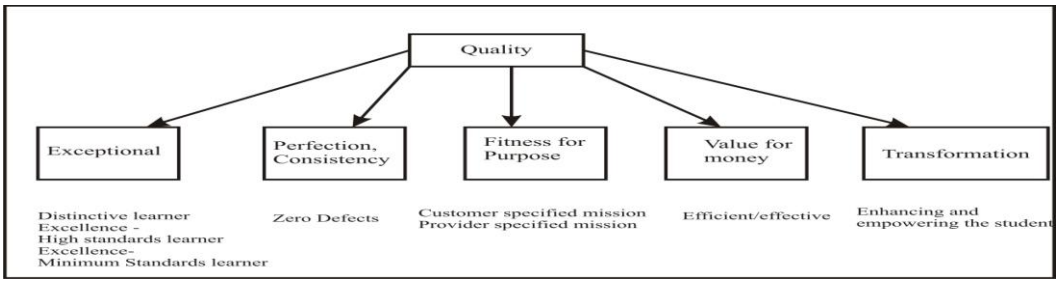

Figure 2-1: Definitions for quality

Source: Watty (2003), p. 215.

In HE, Astin, in his two books *Achieving Educational Excellence* (1985) & *Assessment for Excellence* (1993), offers a definition of excellence in HE:

[21] Cited in Watty (2003).

[22] In a small-scale research with a sample of senior managers in HEIs, Lomas (2001) suggests that fitness for purpose and transformation seem to be the two most appropriate definitions of quality.

> The most excellent institutions are, in this view, those that have the greatest impact-add the most value, as economists would say-on the student's knowledge and personal development and on the faculty members' scholarly and pedagogical ability and productivity (p. 61).

He also contends that there are four conventional views of excellence in collegiate quality: excellence as reputation, excellence as resources, excellence as outcomes, and excellence as content. While his definition focuses on results, a different definition is offered by Mayhew and his colleagues (1990). They argue for a more limited view on HE mission, suggesting that some of the effective hopes that are assumed in Astin's definition are unlikely to be realized in colleges. They anticipate a more limited definition:

> Quality undergraduate education consists of preparing learners through the use of words, numbers, and abstract concepts to understand, cope with, and positively influence the environment in which they find themselves (p. 29).

The literature shows that the definition of quality varies greatly. In this study, however, *quality* will refer to fitness for purpose. This definition carries the assumption of sufficiency, efficiency, and effectiveness of the program or institution and of the learning-teaching process. For example, quality is defined in terms of the institution fulfilling its own stated objectives or missions.

2.2.2 Quality criteria in HE

Quality measurement in HE, as in business, has to include evaluation of its criteria. Bergquist (1995) describes quality criteria in education as follows:

- Input criteria: the most common criteria for quality refer to the resources available to the institution including characteristics of incoming students. For example, the size of the library, or size of institutional endowment, number of faculty holding doctoral degrees, and grade point averages on standardized test scores for new students. Astin (1985) stated that input criteria assist in establishing an *institution reputation*.

- Output criteria: these criteria related to what the institution produces, including such outputs as alumni, research and scholarly publication, public services, graduation rate, and number of graduates being accepted in the best graduate schools.
- Value-added criteria: these criteria emphasize the difference that institutions make in the growth of all members of the institution: for example, the student's intellectual development value between the start and the end of an educational process.
- Process-oriented criteria: these criteria focus on the process of achieving quality that involves academic and non-academic activities of the institution. The criteria take the form of continuous improvements and concern themselves with the conformance to standards. For example, the quality of instruction would be measured, not by a final grade, but by student involvement. The quality of registration service would be measured, not by the performance students receive, but by the participation of staff and students in problem solving (p.36-44).

Historically, quality assessments in HE relied on quantitative data such as full-time professors with advanced degrees, volumes in a university library, paper published by faculty, or student-professor ratios. Recently, there has been a growing emphasis on the *outcomes*[23] of HE. OECD (2006) has launched The Assessment of Higher Education Learning Outcomes (AHELO)[24] project as initiative to assess learning outcomes on an international scale. This project was

[23] In other words, evaluators are looking for new data and indicators to demonstrate that students have mastered specific objectives as a result of their education.

[24] OECD defines AHELO as "a test of university students comparable internationally," available at <www.oecd.org/education/highereducationandadultlearning/45755875.pdf>.

launched to build the capacity for evaluating teaching and learning. The project is still under development with a target-launch-date in 2016[25].

2.2.3 Definitions of QA in HE

The term QA refers to systematic, structured and continuous attention to quality in term of quality maintenance and improvement (Vroeijenstijn, 1995). Watty (2003) states that a further review of the literature around change in HE reveals two schools of thought; the first attaches quality to a context and as a consequence quality becomes meaningful (Baird, 1988; Fry, 1995; Nordvall & Braxton, 1996). For example, references to the quality of assessment, student intake, academic programmes, teaching and learning, the student experience and programme designs are not uncommon. Any attempt to define or attach meaning to the term is largely ignored and one is left to assume that it is 'high' quality that is being referred to as opposed to 'good' or 'poor' quality;

A second way of thinking about quality relates to stakeholders-specific meaning. Here quality is considered, having regard to a variety of stakeholders with an interest in HE, each having the potential to think about quality in different ways. In particular, the early works of Vroeijenstijn (1992), Middlehurst (1992) and Harvey & Green (1993) highlight the importance and value of considering quality from variety of stakeholders' perspectives (Kis, 2005; p. 4).

Many scholars[26] defined QA has four components;

a) everyone in the enterprise has a responsibility for maintaining the quality of the product or service;
b) everyone in the enterprise has a responsibility for enhancing the quality of the product or service;
c) everyone in the enterprise understands, uses, and feels ownership of the systems which are in place for maintaining and enhancing quality; and

[25] The project will test students nearing the end of their bachelor degree. The tests will be created so that results can be comparable internationally regardless of language or cultural backgrounds (OECD, 2010-2011).

[26] E.g. (Frazer; 1992).

d) Management regularly checks the validity and viability of the systems for checking quality[27].

According to Harvey (1998) QA in HE is based on three main principles; control, accountability and improvement. He states that accountability usually requires meeting the preferences of politicians, outside parties and financiers. The control means that the institution does not merely control the expenditure of resources but also shows how high quality is achievable with the existing resources it raises the issue of the definition of *good value*. Improvement is probably the most widely spread aim of QA. It enables the institution to get necessary inputs, refine the process and raise the standards of output in order to meet the goals set. Moreover, Bogue (1994) explores governing ideals that presented several themes and questions which HE leaders can use to evaluate QA policies and programs as follows;

- *Distinction in Mission*, Does the campus have a distinctive mission statement? Does the campus have a crisp statement of mission and values, a statement they clearly and forcefully reveals what the campus stands for?;
- *Evidence of Improvement*, can the campus offer evidence of improvements that have been made to program and policy as a result of assessment and quality inquiries? A campus or a program unit that cannot offer a reasonably prompt and substantive answer to the question of "what did you do with what you found out?" deserves skepticism about the strength and substance of its quality assurance efforts;
- *Linkage to Teaching and Learning*, how have quality inquiries been used to improve teaching and learning, to enhance student/faculty/staff growth and development? Are QA and assessment activities "faculty friendly"? so,

[27] If the word 'university' replaces 'enterprise' in these four components, then a university which takes quality assurance seriously emerges as a self-critical community of students, teachers, staff, managers each contributing to and striving for continues improvement.

assessment and QA exercises unconnected to teaching and learning improvement are empty exercises.

- *External Standards*, in the early history of American HE, one of the principal board member roles to examine the proposed graduates. Thus, to the judgments and standards of the faculty was added the external standard of the board.
- *Multiple Evidences*, an effective QA program will involve the acquisition of multiple evidences on both student and program performance. Does the campus have a variety of quality evidence- conventional tests, program reviews, accreditation, licensure results, client satisfaction and follow-up, and perhaps more innovative intelligence that facilitates assessment? And has the institution examined the philosophic posture suggested by the cluster of measures or indicators identified?
- *Strategic and Systemic Perspective*, does the campus have a strategic and unifying vision of quality? This vision will be built on the idea that there is no policy, no behavior, and no practice that does not influence quality. Therefore, there will be a coherent and logical system of interactions among the various institutional approaches to QA.

According to Bogue, a campus whose QA efforts salute these *governing ideals* will have experienced the renewal power of these ideals. Such a campus will have rediscovered purpose and priority, promoted the development of its faculty and staff via continued learning, and strengthened community.

2.3 Approaches to QA in HE

Scholars such as Middlehurst (1997), distinguishes several stages in developing approaches to quality: quality control, QA, quality enhancement and quality transformation.

> An initial stage will involve specifying what one is trying to achieve in relation to a set of purposes and goals. In order to measure levels of attainment, standards will also need to be part of

> this specification. Typically, the next stage of development will involve quality control, i.e. procedures to check whether objectives have been achieved at the desired performance level. Beyond this level lies QA, which involves establishing that there are systems and procedures in place to ensure that objectives are met consistently and reliably, and that they are periodically reviewed. Quality enhancement can be conceived as a subsequent (and consequent) stage of each of these dimensions. For example, quality enhancement should follow from quality control by correcting errors or plugging gaps in the achievement of objectives……At levels beyond this, quality enhancement becomes quality transformation (p.48-49).

In HE, quality policy has been associated with concerns about maintaining standards with movement towards global mass HE (Randall, 2002). Throughout the world, both government officials and administrators in institutions of HE look for quality indicators in order to know which programs are most deserving of financial support, and where resources might best be used, in order to achieve the best education for the money spent.

Lincoln (1996) discussed how countries establish quality for HE. He states that countries could probably use more qualitative measures to arrive at judgments of excellence. For instance, look at graduates' satisfaction with their programs, assessed a year or more after they have taken their degrees. To what extent do graduates feel that they have graduated with the best and most recent knowledge in their field? To what extent did graduates need to engage in additional training once they were employed? To what extent do they feel they are competitive with graduates of other programs? At the micro level, institutional level, Lincoln stated that institutions of HE might also look at the extent to which their faculties contribute to the research literature from which other faculties teach[28].

QA agencies can adopt one or more of different approaches to quality according to different educational systems and traditions (Woodhouse, 1999). The

[28] Lincoln's study visits to China indicate that the major research institutions in the country, the "top 100," are extremely interested not only in evaluating curricula, but also in the processes of promotion and tenure, as well as ongoing merit evaluation that is used in universities in other countries.

three main approaches to quality are accreditation, assessment and audit (Kis, 2005, p. 5). Harman (2000) illustrates that most QA approaches depend on one or a combination of a limited numbers of methodologies, the most important of which are self-studies or self-evaluation; peer review by panels of experts; use of relevant statistical information and performance indicators; and surveys of key groups, such as students, graduates and employers.

Quality in HE has an array of indicators such as; peer reviews as expressed in accreditation and program reviews, student and alumni opinion and satisfaction indices, reputation and ranking studies, student performance profiles on entrance and exit tests, professional licensure results, and faculty research and publication productivity.In the US there are three levels of evaluation. First, internal self-study is conducted by on-site faculty and invited disciplinary experts from other institutions. Second, professional accreditations have the responsibility to assure that some "quality floor" exists under any given program, especially the professional training programs in areas such as medicine and engineering. Third, statewide coordinating agencies are responsible for quality planning.

2.3.1 Quality assessment

Patrick & Stanley (1998) define quality assessment as the process of external evaluation of the quality of teaching and learning in HE. The external assessment by peers of the actual provision of education in particular subjects is carried out by scrutiny of institutional documentation and student work, direct observation, interview, and by reference to performance indicators such as completion rates (p. 20).

In UK, quality assessment has been used to increase selectivity in the distribution of resources in support of research and have created a heightened awareness of quality issues in teaching and learning. USA has several parallel assessment processes, and recently interest has focused on the assessment of student academic achievement as an important outcome measure and tool for program improvement. Accreditation agencies an a number of states require that

institutions implement programs for the assessment of student outcomes[29] (Patrick & Stanley, 1998, p. 21).

2.3.2 Quality audit

In the 1990s, in response to the fall of the Soviet political system and the transformation of Eastern European countries to market economies accountability as a principle of good governance has been (re) discovered and highlighted by international organizations such as the World Bank (World Bank, 1992). Accountable government and accountable societal and political institutions have been recommended as decisive factors for the transition to market economies and the development of democratic political systems.

Power (1994) has published on the rise of the audit society and has traced the spread of auditing as a technique from financial accounting to many more societal and political applications. Auditing has been increasingly seen as an instrument that can be used to mark institutions at least formally more accountable to their stakeholders. It also provides the impression of certainty and control in a world where risks are increasingly perceived by a public who no longer puts blind trust into societal institutions and has become increasingly skeptical about the role of experts and professionals and their advice and judgment (Beck, 1992).

Hoecht (2006) illustrates that auditing provides the impression of being well informed and not being subject to a gross information asymmetry; it appears that the agent's performance is accessible to the principal's scrutiny and that the principal has the means to punish and deter agent malfeasance, all of which are key features of personalized social control.

The concept of quality audit has been developed in the UK, where in 1990 the Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals established a small Academic Audit Unit (AAU) using experienced academics on temporary secondment from universities. Frazer (1992) describes quality audit as a scrutiny by a group external

[29] Accreditation processes have been criticized in the past for relying too strongly on inputs; the emphasis on outcomes assessment thus represents a significant change.

to the university to check that the QA process is appropriate and working properly. He emphasizes that quality audit is neither concerned with a university's mission or objectives (inputs) nor with how successfully these objectives have been attained (outputs), but solely with the processes by which the university checks on the relations between its inputs and outputs. Matching with Frazer view, the Standards New Zealand (1994) refers to quality audit as a three-part process. The checking part refers to the suitability of the planned quality procedures in relation to the stated objectives. The second part is the conformity of the actual quality activities with the plans. The last is the effectiveness of the activities in achieving the stated objectives.

Woodhouse (1999) defines the core difference between audit and assessment in their outputs (Table 2-1): their processes may be the same, in the sense that both investigate the achievement of objectives.

Table 2-1: Differences between assessment and audit

ACTIVITY	PROCESS	OUTPUT
Audit	Investigate achievement of objectives	Description
Assessment		Grade (may include pass/fail)

Source: Woodhouse, 1999, p. 32.

2.3.3 Accreditation approach

The accreditation process had its origins in the need to document the *quality* in postsecondary education. The process was developed in the USA during the mid-nineteenth century, a period characterized by rapid industrial expansion, civil war, and proliferation of colleges and universities (Rudolph, 1962). Recently, accreditation approach is widely viewed as a process during which a HE institution or a particular programme is subjected to a review by a competent body or organization in order to establish whether or not the given institution or

programme can meet a particular set of standards of quality in order to undertake or to continue to function as an *accredited institution*.

Hence, accreditation policy was initiated as a way to achieve reasonable standardization in HE, thus serving a public need by helping to define HE institutional missions, to promote articulation among them, and to assist the general public in recognition and appreciating quality (Boung & Hall, 2003, p. 33). According to Adelman (1992) accreditation refers to a process of quality control and assurance whereby, as a result of inspection or assessment, an institution or its programmes are recognized as meeting minimum acceptable standards.

Accreditation is one of several QA measures (Table 2-1 shows different measures to QA). Its starting point is a need to maintain and improve quality in HE course, study programme, or institution. Hämäläinen, et al. (2004) summarizes the typical characteristics of the accreditation approach as following;

- The object is to certify a set of defined standards of quality in a HE course, programme, or institution;
- Accreditation includes a review by a competent body or organization;
- The standard can be minimal one or one of excellence;
- Standards are used as benchmarks;
- Accreditation decisions include a binary element and are always either 'yes' or 'no';
- Accreditation decisions are based solely on quality criteria, never on political considerations and,
- Accreditation decisions are time-limited (p. 18).

Accreditation performance standards have many forms. Bogue & Hall (2003) summarizes three possible choices for performance standards;

- A criterion standard, in which performance is compared to a predetermined criterion level;
- A comparative normative standard, in which performance is judged against the performance of another program or person or (group of persons);
- A connoisseurship standard, in which performance is judged against the opinions and values of a panel of judges.

Table 2.2: Classification of basic options used in educational QA systems

Purpose	Quality Control	Accountability/ public assurance	Improvement/ guidance
Preferred mechanisms	Licensing	Accreditation/ assessment	Quality audit
Framework for QA	Standard-based approach	Fitness for purpose + fitness of purpose	Fitness for purpose
Procedures	Mostly external assessment	Both external and internal assessment	Mostly self-assessment
Nature	Compulsory	Compulsory or voluntary	Voluntary

Source: UNESCO, 2006, p. 32.

Woodhouse (1999) suggests a natural five-point checking sequence to compare the three concepts; assessment, audit and accreditation.

- Are the HEI' objectives appropriate?
- Are its plans suitable for these objectives?
- Do its actions conform to its plans?
- Are its actions effective in achieving its objectives?
- What is the measure of the objectives?

Woodhouse summarizes (in Figure 2-2) that none of three approaches covers all five steps. Accreditation covers 1-4; audit covers 2-3; and assessment covers 5 and possibly 2-4.

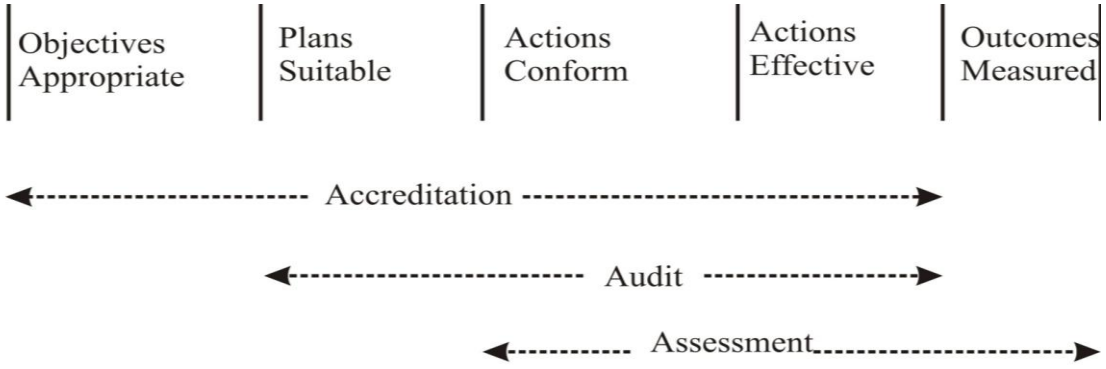

Figure 2-2: The difference between assessment, audit and accreditation

Source: Woodhouse, 1999, p. 33.

2.3.3.1 American accreditation approach

The American HE has a decentralized distinctive approach to its QA, one that is based on multiple actors each has a specific role. This combined approach involves:

- State governments, which have substantial involvement;
- The federal government, which has a limited, but powerful role;
- Private accreditation agencies, which have a narrow but significant role (El-Kawas, 2008, p.92).

The *triad*[30] is a general term used to describe the tripartite arrangements for oversight of HE quality, with complementary roles of state, federal, and private agencies. Under the US Constitution, state governments have power over two QA functions for HE. First, each state stipulates the requirements for an institution to operate within its borders, and second, each state sets requirements for entry into certain professions. These two powers affect all institutions of HE, both public and private, including nonprofit and for-profit institutions.

[30] The *triad* concept was developed in the decades following World War Π to accommodate rising enrolment spurred in part by federal stipends for returning soldiers and, later, by a student grants programme. It was further strengthened during the 1990s as enrolment in HE rose to over 14 million students, with about have of all students receiving federal grants or loans (Wellman, 2003; El-Kawas, 2001).

States[31] have additional QA responsibilities for public institutions, which enroll more than 80% of college students. These QA functions, tied to state funding and oversight responsibility, including state-level financial and regulatory audits, setting general requirements for degrees, and conducting external reviews of all academic programmes, usually on a five-year cycle (El-Khawas, 2008).

The federal government does not have authority over education matters (El-Khawas, 2008, p. 95). Federal mechanisms for regulatory oversight and QA are directed towards ensuring financial integrity in the administration of federal student grant and loan funds. The federal government thus directly regulates the administrative operations of colleges and universities that provide federal student aid funds. As part of this oversight, however, federal government also regulates the terms for student eligibility for aid and for programme eligibility for aid. It also has regulations about consumer production, mainly information disclosure that students have the right to know about in deciding where to spend their federal grants or loans (US Department of Education, 2005).

The American system of accreditation comprises a complex institutional set-up of six regional accreditation bodies in charge of institutional accreditation, as well as a great number of professional bodies involved in the accreditation of professional study programmes (Martin, 2008, p. 34).

El-Khawas (2008) and Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) (2008) summarize two forms of accreditation exist in the USA:

- *Institutional* accreditation is the responsibility of six regionally organized agencies that monitor and evaluate HEIs. A few other accreditation agencies work with special types of institutions nationwide; and
- *Specialized* accreditation monitors and evaluates academic programmes in professional fields, based on standards and procedures developed by educators and professionals working together.

[31] In the 1990s, *performance budgeting* derives from the state's responsibility to provide funding for HE. This model takes into account whether certain state objectives are met by each public university and college (Burke et al., 2002).

Both forms of American accreditation follow broadly similar review procedures, with different eligibility, evaluation criteria and procedural guidelines.

In a comparative case study, the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)[32] has launched a research project to explore and compare methodological options of accreditation systems through a limited number of case studies; Colombia, Hungary, India, the Philippines and from USA. This study shows that, in the American system of accreditation, the state governments are responsible for licensing HEIs and their programmes, but do not check on changing quality levels of existing institutions. Nor do they have any responsibility for quality improvement. For this reason, regional accreditation agencies focus on supervising changing educational capabilities of universities.

2.3.3.2 European accreditation approach

In Europe, there have already been two generations of accreditation. The first generation began in many countries of Central and Eastern Europe in 1989-1990. It was intended to protect the quality of HE systems and to retain some kind of central control after the various HEIs had been accorded autonomy (Hämäläinen, et al., 2004).

The second generation of national accreditation started at the end of the 1990s, when certain countries of Western Europe started to develop their national systems of accreditation (Westerheijden, 2001). In this second generation[33], certain proprietary professional bodies, like the European Foundation for Management Development/European Quality Improvement System (EFMD/EQUIS), and the European Association for Public Administration Accreditation (EAPAA) began to develop accreditation.

[32] www.iiep.unesco.org

[33] Some European universities have used American accreditation agencies, like the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET) (Hämäläinen, et. al, 2004, p. 18)

Holm, et al., (2003) and Frenyó & Rozsnay (2004) stated, depending on the ENQA, that the 'four-stage model' is the generally accepted mode of accreditation procedures which encompasses the following:

- Autonomy and independence in terms of procedures and methods concerning quality evaluation both from government and from institutions of HE;
- Self-assessment;
- External assessment by a peer-review group and site visits;
- Publication of a report.

In 1999, twenty-nine European ministers for HE agreed on a Declaration in Bologna, Italy. This declaration initiated the widest-reaching reforms to European HE in recent decades. The Bologna Declaration included six goals, including QA. It was the first basis for the whole process and lent its name to it. Meanwhile, three other conferences in Prague, Berlin and Bergen followed, each of them with a communiqué. These communiqué were milestones for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010[34].

The Bologna Process is more like a network than the centralized European Union, which aims in many ways to harmonize the legal basis for all member states. There is no central harmonization of structures or instruments. Rather, in a bottom-up process, Bologna members show a willingness to adapt certain structures to the accepted Bologna standards (Hendriks, 2008, p. 59).

The European system of QA within the Bologna Process consists of standards, guidelines and peer review system for QA agencies. These standards and guidelines at the European level are of course mainly directed at the HEIs and governments, and at the supervising authorities for QA. This system takes into particular consideration four positions, which are important as recurrent themes for the whole QA concept:

[34] www.ehea.info & www.dfes.gov.uk/bologna

- the interests of students as well as employers and more broadly society in good quality HE, in addition to the responsibility of governments and institutions for HE;
- the central importance of institutional autonomy combined with accountability to all stakeholders;
- the need for external QA to be fit for its purpose and place only an appropriate and necessary burden on institutions for the achievement of its objectives; and
- the interest of countries and institutions improving cross-border study programmes for HE **(**ENQA report, 2009, pp. 10-11).

2.4 Globalization and QA & accreditation policy of HE

Globalization creates a global economy where strong interaction, exchange and interdependence among cultures, countries and individuals. Competition becomes a need for every organization locally, regionally, and internationally. Burkhalter and Muse (1995) suggested that:

> Intense international competition focused on higher quality, low costs, and rapid response will sharpen over the next decade, and those mastering the science and art of this integrated, collaborative process will rise to the quality challenge and emerge as the cadre of leaders who will reshape the world as we know it today (p.431).

In the 1990s, globalization has been defined as a process, or set of processes, which embodies a transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transaction-assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact-generating transcontinental interregional flows and networks of activity and interaction, and the exercise of power (Held et al.,1999). Currently, most scholars who study globalization seem to agree that it is a set of processes that make borderless the important economic, social, and cultural practices previously bounded within nation-states. Jones and Fleming (2003) stated that the effects of globalization are best understood in terms of three sets of simultaneous

contradictions: convergence and divergence, inclusion and exclusion, and centralization and decentralization.

Altbach (2007) and Altbach & et al. (2009) differentiate between globalization and internationalization in HE. They define globalization as the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communications technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network and other force beyond the control of academic institutions. On the other hand internationalization is defined as the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization.

Therefore, the rules and the institutions of globalization were set up either directly through individual governments or through the policies imposed on them by International Monetary Fund (IMF), the WB, or the World Trade Organization (WTO). Castells (2000) stated that the US's government as the main 'globalizer, and the other governments have followed the trend for deregulation, liberalization and privatization for various reasons. The implications of GATS in HE are discussed with respect to QA (Van Damme, 2002) and international quality frameworks, e-learning providers, regulation of foreign providers, and intellectual property rights (Larsen, Martin & Morris, 2001). Nunn (2001) looks at the impact of GATS on HE employment, academic freedom and professional autonomy, intellectual property rights and student access and academic quality.

This study focuses on the globalization term thus the forces of globalization have exerted an enormous influence over HE in general and its QA policy in particular; and internationalization has emerged as the primary respond to the globalization phenomenon.

2.4.1 Cross-border HE

UNESCO (2004) characterizes cross-border education as the movement of education across jurisdictional boundaries, with the nation retaining its regulatory responsibility, particularly in the areas of quality, access, and funding. Moreover, cross-border education includes the movement of students, faculty, knowledge,

educational programs, curriculum, and providers from one country to another (OECD and World Bank, 2007).

The increase in cross border education by institutions and new private commercial providers has introduced a new challenge in the field of QA. Knight (2004) states that historically national QA agencies have generally not focused their efforts on assessing the quality of imported and exported programs of HE, with some notable exceptions such as the UK. Therefore, The question now facing the HE sector is how do national accreditation agencies deal with the increase in cross border education by public and private institutions.

2.4.2 The reputation race

Van Vught (2008) pointed out that, universities are currently in a reputation race, in which they compete for reputation and academic prestige. Though a number of countries have internal ranking mechanisms, or league tables, ranking institutions across borders brings competition to the global level (Portnoi, et al. 2010). The ranking of universities became a common phenomenon in many Western countries, including the US, the UK, Australia, New Zealand, and in many Asian countries, including China and Japan. The emergence of global university ranking systems, most notably *Academic Ranking of World Universities* (ARWU), produced annually by Shanghai Jiao Tong University Institute of Higher Education's (SJTUIHE) since 2003, followed by *Times Higher Education* (THE) World University Ranking[35] in 2004, is a significant development that emerged as a globalized issue in HEIs.

Key aspects of ranking include; student head count, research productivity, faculty qualifications, international reputation of institutions, responsiveness to market demands, study programs, throughput rate, library holdings, and the quality of teaching (Ntshoe & Letseka, 2010). Therefore, ranking mechanisms are created with specific sets of indicators designed to represent quality (Usher & Savion, 2006). For example, the THE composite rankings involve reviews by

[35] (http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/)

academics and employers, as well as university indicators, such as faculty-student ratio and the number of citations per faculty member. The SJTUIHE rankings rate institutions on four quality measures;

a) Quality of education: the number of Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals awarded to alumni;
b) Quality of faculty: the number of faculty awarded Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals or listed as highly cited researchers in specified categories;
c) Research output: papers published in science and nature and articles published in the Science Citation Index-Expanded[36] and Social Sciences Citation Index[37] and,
d) Per capita performance: weighted scores of the first three measures are added and divided by the number of faculty members (Labi, 2008).

These World Rankings began to affect the strategic behaviors of university leaders, governments, students, and employers (Hazelkorn, 2008). Mohrman and Wang (2010) stated that when political and academic leaders talk about the international competitiveness of their universities, the ARWU is usually the first ranking system they cite.

2.4.3 The Glonacal framework

Marginson and Rhoades (2002); Marginson and Wender (2009) and Marginson (2011) show that now we live in a 'glonacal' era of HE (Figure 2-3). Their figure of glonacal provides a spatial description and identifies intersections between three dimensions; local, national, and global. Each dimension has its own mode of organizing life and has distinctive perspectives, imaginings and practices.

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[36] The Science Citation Index-Expanded, accessed via Web of Science, provides researchers, faculty, and students with quick, powerful access to the bibliographic and citation information they need to find research data, analyze trends, journals and researchers, and share their findings. It covers more than 6,500 notable and significant journals, across 150 disciplines (http://thomsonreuters.com/) .

[37] Social Citation Index cites 2,474 of the world leading social science journals that across 50 disciplines (http://thomsonreuters.com/).

Each dimension is affected by the others but irreducible to the others. In HE systems and institutions, leaders and some personnel are active in each of these three dimensions and they are not active in each dimension all the time, but often in more than one.

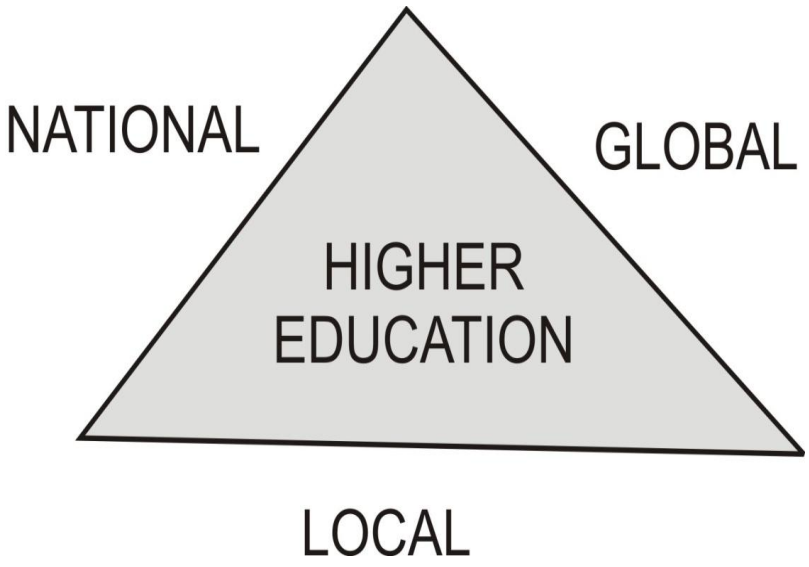

Figure 2-3: Dimensions of HE

Source: Marginson, 2011, p. 13.

Table 2-3: Global activity and impacts in HE

Manifestations of global activity	Primarily showing in which glonacal dimension?	Examples in higher education
Global ecology: the world as one relational space (the sum of all global systems in higher education and research)	Global	- The combination of institutional classifications, worldwide comparisons, performance measures and ranking in relation to research, which together map the global sector - The WTO-GATS agenda of coordinated reform to national education systems, designed to create a one-world free trade zone in education
Global systems- formal and informal- in higher education	Global	- Interne and telecommunications - Publishing of academic journals and books - Export market as an informal global system of institutional/national economic competition - International law in intellectual property - Networks: university partnerships and consortia
Impacts of global systems and activities in national dimension	National	- Policy drive to improve national competitiveness on the basis of global comparisons in research and in tertiary education participation. often associated with additional investment - policies to increase international connectedness and activity ('internationalization') - National selectivity and concentration in research activity to lift comparative performance - Temporary migration in and out of each national system by mobile students -Regulation of export sector by nations - Regulations of foreign providers by nations - Education 'hub' and knowledge city strategies - other national strategies to build research and to attract and hold global talent, such as 'fast-track' migration procedures, international scholarships
Impacts of global systems and activities in local dimension	Local	- Infrastructure investments to improve communications and global data monitoring - Policies to increase international connectedness and activity ('internationalization') - Selectivity and concentration in institutional research activity to lift comparative performance - other reforms to lift research performance, e.g. incentive schemes via funding or promotion criteria designed to encourage more academic staff to publish in global English - Use of university ranking and research metrics to set targets and drive performance - Global catchment approach to recruitment - Entrepreneurial and marketing activity in global practices, e.g. fee-paying international education

Source: Marginson (2011), p. 14.

The local dimension is the day-to-day institution and its communities inside and outside the campus gate. The national dimension is about national culture and policy and policies, and the laws and regulations shaping HE and research

Recently, scholars start to focus on the dynamics of interrelationships within, between and above national borders[38]. Marginson and Rhoades (2002) offer a conceptual framing for the dynamic interrelationship between global, national and local levels, which they call a *glo-na-cal* heuristic (Figure 2.3).

[38] The dialectic between the global and the local (e.g., Apple (2001), Dal (2001) & Welch (2001).

Dependind on aforementioned literature on globalization in HE, we can say that, globalization creats increased presure on countries to provide more HE, and higher quality for its system (Table 2-3 sumarizes the most global activities and how it affect HE).

Countries respond to these global activities in one of three manners as Eaton[39] (2005) refers to these international responses (described in detail below in Table 2-4).

Table 2-4: Three national responses to internationalization

Trade Response	Multinational Response	Higher Education Association Response
- World Trade Organization (WTO) and - Negotiations related to the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)	Through the Joint Guidelines Project of the - Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and - The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)	A statement on quality provision developed by - American Council on Education, the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC), - The Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), and - The International Association of Universities
Forcing higher education and quality assurance leaders to address the impact of	- focusing on quality provision in cross-border	Joint statement: *Sharing Quality Higher Education Across*

[39] Judith S. Eaton, president of the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) in the US refers to the 4th International Commission meeting in January 2005, where representatives from various nations discussed issues on regional and international QA and accreditation in Europe and the Arab World.

trade on the role and function of institutions and providers	higher education - supporting and enhancing student mobility and protect students from dubious providers of higher education - creating of non-binding but recommending guidelines - establishing an *international information tool*	*Border: A Statement on Behalf of Higher Education Institutions Worldwide* (set of principles to anchor various initiatives in cross-border higher education)

Source: Eaton(2005), p. 3f.

2.5 QA & accreditation policy/knowledge transfer (P/KT)

2.5.1 Knowledge and P/KT definitions

Nonaka (1994); Nonaka et al., (2000) describes knowledge as existing in two dimensions. Explicit knowledge which exists at the epistemological dimension and may be expressed in formal and systematic language and shared in the form of data, scientific formulae, specifications, manuals and such like. It can be processed , transmitted and stored relatively easily. In contrast, tacit knowledge is highly personal and hard to formalise.

Polanyi (1998) and Tsoukas (1996) among others, argue that the transfer of *useful k*nowledge involves the transmission of both explicit and tacit knowledge. Consequently, a single-minded concentration on explicit knowledge and careful articulation of assessment criteria and standards is not, in itself, sufficient to share useful knowledge of the assessment process. We conjecture that more complete or useful knowledge of a particular assessment starts in the mind of an individual assignment writer. However, in the process of transferring this knowledge to others, parts of the knowledge can be difficult to articulate and consequently go missing from the final communication. In Polanyi's words we can know more

than we can tell (Polanyi, 1998, p. 136). Such missing knowledge can be described as tacit—tacit knowledge in this context being defined as something that we know but we find impossible or, at least, extremely difficult to express.

KT is an area of knowledge management concerned with movement of knowledge across the boundaries created by specialized knowledge domains (Carlile & and Rebentisch, 2003). Christensen (2003) emphasizes that KT is about accessible knowledge that already exists, acquiring it and subsequently applying this knowledge to develop new ideas or enhance the existing ideas to make a process/action faster, better or faster than they would have otherwise been.

Many scholars identified different forms of P/KT in a wide ranging literature such as; diffusion (Walker, 1969) bandwagoning (Ikenberry, 1990), convergence (Bennett, 1991), policy learning (May, 1992), social learning (Hall, 1993), emulation (Howlett, 2000), and lesson-drawing (Rose, 2005). All have as a common concern an attempt to understand the mobilisation, movement and spread of education policy and practice across global space. The globalization of education policy and practice, as transfer, borrowing, learning, and so on, creats explanatory and normative burdens that differ from, and go beyond, those generated by analyses of the movement of policy in a national context.

Dolowitz & Marsh (1996) stated that policy transfer (PT), emulation and lesson drawing all refer to:

> A process in which knowledge about policies, administrative arrangements, institutions etc. in one time and/or place is used in development of policies, administrative arrangements and institutions in another time and/or place (p. 344).

The study of PT emerged gradually as a sub-set of the comparative politics literature. Before 1940, most comparative studies focused on the formal institutions of government and were thus *state centred* and overly descriptive. During the 1940s this state centred approach became less fashionable and studies began examining how civil society interacted with the state. By the 1960s a key focus was upon comparative policy analysis. As the field of comparative policy

analysis emerges, a number of authors, notably Walker, showed considerable interest inprocess termed policy diffusion (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996) .

Economically, PT/borrowing is often a transient phenomenon, because it only exists as long as external funding continues. Policy borrowing in poor countries is to the education sector what structural adjustment, poverty alleviation, and good governance, are to the public sector at large: a condition for receiving aid. As a requirement for receiving grants or loans at the programmatic level[40], policy borrowing in developing countries is coercive, and unidirectional. Reforms are transferred from the global north/west to the global south/east (Steiner-Khamsi, 2012, p. 5).

Researchers have argued that the ability to leverage valuable existing knowledge internally is critical to building competitive advantage because of the scarcity of valuable internal knowledge and the difficulty and expense of creation new knowledge (Szulanski, 1996). As a result, Dowlowitz & Marsh (2000) emphasizes that policymakers rely on PT technique:

> Given that policy-makers appear to be, increasingly relying upon PT, it is something that anyone interested in, or studying, public policy needs to consider (p. 5).

Moreover, Gumport (2000) stated that HE needs to be understood primarily as a knowledge-processing system[41] (p. 81), which indicates that HE has central knowledge functions. Therefore, Gumport saw the knowledge as the defining core of academic work and academic workers. Other scholars considered knowledge management is incomplete concept and advocate the broader umbrella concept of rapid KT, which includes knowledge management and considerably more in an integrated framework that consists of a *knowledge-enabled culture.* This

[40] Egypt is a case of this kind of programmatic policy borrowing as will be shown in next chapter.

[41] This view is in contrast to the conventional stand that characterizes higher education as a people-processing system in which goals, structures, and outcomes support student undergoing personality development, learning skills, and acquiring credentials that may enable upward mobility (e.g. Hasenfeld, 1972)

knowledge-enabled culture consists of a system of aligned human resource polices, tactics, processes, and practices which ensure that knowledge is captured, created, shared, used, and reused. Based on this, English & William (2006) defined four phases of a knowledge transfer race:

Phase 1: search and import best practices

Phase 2: learn, understand, and share

Phase 3: create intellectual capital

Phase 4: convert knowledge (via use and reuse) into value and profits.

Throuout our literature show, we develop our research on the two concepts of KT and PT because we believe that the two concepts refere to the same meaning. Since, the policy is a knowledge. So, we use the term P/KT.

2.5.1.1 Knowledge sharing and KT

Literature reveals that many researchers have been discussed both KT and knowledge sharing together. However, a closer scruting would suggest that these two are different in some aspects.

Ryu et al. (2003) refers to knowledge sharing as a people-to-people process. Thus it is a two-way process, which consists of the supply of new knowledge and the demand for new knowledge. According to Van den Hooff & De Ridder (2004) KT involves either actively communicating to others what one knows, or actively consulting others in order to learn what they know.

Nonaka & Takeuchi (1991) refers to knowledge sharing as a critical stage in the process of KT. Therefore, knowledge sharing in organizations mostly involves exchange of knowledge at the individual level; however, KT in organizations goes beyond this. It includes transfer of knowledge at higher levels such as groups, product line, department or division (Argote & Ingram, 2000).

At global level; global organizations such as UNESCO and WB consider knowledge sharing as a strategy that based on the view that knowledge (educational, technical, expertise, IT, knowledge management, etc) plays a central role in economic and institutional development.

2.5.1.2 Levels of P/KT

Scholars defined that knowledge can be transfering in three levels (Figure 2-4). First, at intra-organizational level, intra-organizational KT means that transfer happens between departments in an organization. Intra-organizational KT mainfests itself through changes in knowledge or performance of the reciepient unit (Inkpen & Tsand, 2005, p, 149). Second, at inter-organizations level, inter-organizations KT descibes transfer between organizations. Third, individual KT, Wilkesmann, et al. (2009) emphasiz that even through if knowledge transfer takes place on the intra- or inter-organizational level, individuals in terms of organizational members have to KT.

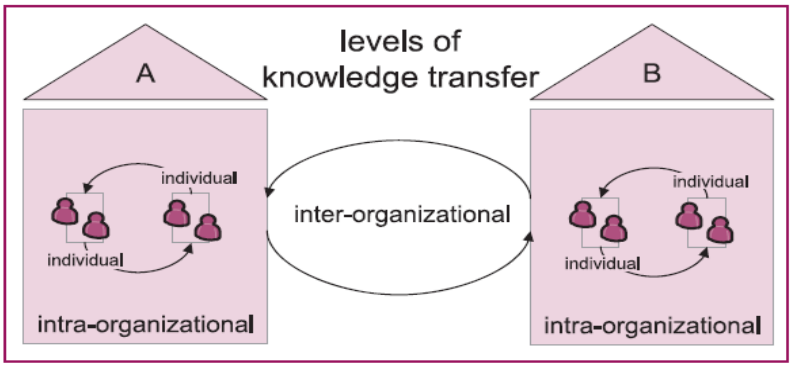

Figure 2-4: Levels of knowledge transfer

Source: Wilkesmann, et al. (2009), p. 465.

2.5.1.3 P/KT degrees

The P/KT has different degrees of transfer: straightforward copying of policy, legislation or techniques as well as various forms of emulation, synthesis and hybridization, and inspiration (Dolowitz & Marsh 1996, p. 351). Moreover, the policy and normative transfers can be either voluntary or coercive or combinations. Terms such as *lesson drawing* portray transfer as a voluntary and somewhat rational activity (Rose, 1993). Other terms of transfer emphasize compulsory conformity; that is penetration by international policy actors (Bennett, 1991). By contrast, the term diffusion has been widely by WB circels (Stiglitz,

2000), to refers to the more neutral overtones of a natural, gradual and a political process.

Dolowitz & Marsh (2000) suggest that it is better to conceptualize transfer as lying a long a continum (Figure 2-5) that runs from lesson-drawing to the direct imposition of a program, policy or institutional arrangement on one political system by another.

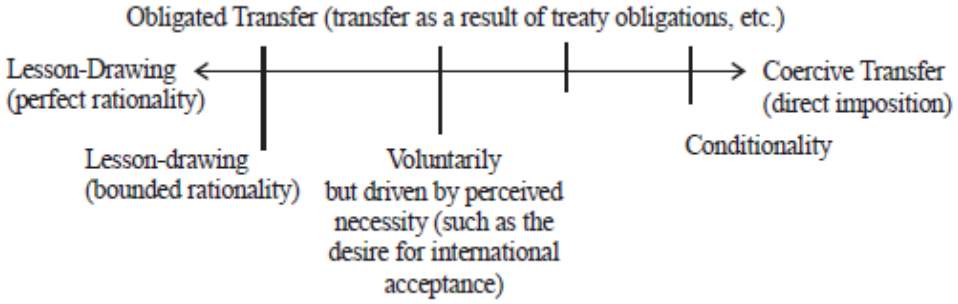

Figure 2-5: A policy transfer continum

Source: Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000, p. 13.

The literature shows that thoes concerned about improving quality would initially agree that engaging in a search process of policies and practices in other countries or jurisdictions is more comprehensive and through than a limited exercise of adjusting existing policy heuristics. As Schneider and Ingram (1991) note that cross national policy comparisons contribute to innovation. Six main categories of actors may involve in international P/KT, elected officials; political parties; bureaucrats/civil servants; pressure groups; policy entrepreneurs/experts; and supra-national institutions (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996).

2.5.2 QA communities and networks of practice

The term community of practice (CoP) was coined by Lave and Wenger (1991) to describe an activity system that includes individuals who are united in action and in the meaning that action has for them and for the larger collective. Wegner (1998) asserts that the generation of knowledge in CoP occurs when

people participate in problem solving and share the necessary knowledge to solve the problems.

Researchers show that there are numerous reasons individuals could have for sharing their knowledge with other members of a CoP online, ranging from self-esteem boosting to altrustic and conformist considerations (McLure and Faraj, 2000).

According to Brown & Duguid (2000), networks of practice usually comprise people that belong to the same occupational groups and meet from time to time in order to share their knowledge. Most of the time there is little reciprocity or willingness to do something with the knowledge they exchange.

Rose (1993) argues that intergovernmental and international organizations encourage exchange of ideas between countries. Rose emphasizes that European Community promotes comparison… so that member states can become aware of what their competitors are going and decide which elements of foreign programs they may wish to copy or adapt (p. 105). Bennett (1988) & Beech (2006) found that international organizations such as UNESCO, OECD and WB were important actors transferring data protection policies and created for the reconstruction of Europe after the Second World War. Currently, the 'transfer' of educational knowledge is considered to be one of its main roles.

Networks represent a soft, informal and gradual mode for the international dissemination of ideas. Through networks, participants can build alliance, share discourses and construct the consensual knowledge that defines an international policy community, it also enable actors to operate beyond their domestic context and networks are the means by which organizations individually and in coalition can project their ideas into policy thinking across states and within global or regional fora.

2.5.3 Factors affecting P/KT

Several alternatives or factors exist enabling organizations to acquire, share and transfer new knowledge. Other factors could prevent transfers. Stone (2003) refers to some of these factors at three levels. At the ideational level, she revers to;

the absence of international communitity, no consensual knowledge and ideological contest. At the institutional level, she emphasized that; the lack of institutional fit and the discordant policy instruments may cause this kind of preventing. But at the networks level, she refers to three aspect; the lack of shared vision, network disunion and defection.

Other literature show many of other factors affecting P/KT. In the following table we summarize the most cited factors and how it affect this process.

Factor	Authors	Explanation
Strategic similarity	Darr & Kurtzberg (2000)	Similarity of the stores' strategies and tasks positively affected KT
Characteristics of knowledge	Szulanski (2000)	Szulanski analyzed how characteristics of the source of knowledge, the recipient, the context, and the knowledge itself affect transfer.
The causal ambiguity	Simonin (1999); Cohen & Levinthal (1990); Teece (1987)	The extent to which it was not well understood predicted the difficulty of transfer throughout all phases of the transfer. Key knowledge characteristics include; transferability, where the knowledge is tacit versus explicit, complex versus simple; capacity for aggregation, where the recipient of the knowledge can add new knowledge to their existing knowledge, and appropriability, where the owner of the knowledge is capable of receiving a return equal to the value created by the resource.

Characteristics of individual members	Baldwin & Ford (1989)	These characteristics such as the members' ability and motivation affect the transfer of knowledge from training to transfer contexts.
Characteristics of social networks	Baum & Ingram (1998); Darr, Argote & Epple (1995); Greve (1990)	KT is more readily across organizations that are embedded in a network or superordinate relationship, such as a franchise.
Characteristics of the task	Thorndike (1906); after Argote & Ingram (2000)	The more similar the number of elements across the tasks, the greater the likelihood of KT. The similarity increases the likelihood of transfer has been found at different levels of analysis, ranging from the individuals (Singley & Anderson, 1989) to the organizational level (Darr & Kurtzberg, 2000).
Social ties	Hansen (1999)	Hansen found that weak ties, characterized by infrequent and distant relationships between units, facilitated the search for knowledge in other units and reduced the time to complete projects when knowledge was not complex and could be codified. By contrast, when knowledge was not codified, strong ties that allowed for repeated interaction promoted knowledge acquisition and shortened projects completion time.
The internal	Santoro &	They content that, a firm's ability to

context	Gopalakrishnan (2000)	scan the environment, identify appropriate knowledge sources, and acquire external knowledge is influenced by its past actions and choices. There are three key elements of internal context, the organizational structure, the organizational culture and trust.
Organizational structure	Burns & Stalker (1961)	The organizational structures are classified on three dimensions; number of hierarchical level, extent to which knowledge and control are concentrated at the top of the organization (centralization), and degree of adherence rules and policies (formalization). The configuration of these dimensions determines whether a structure is mechanistic or organic. Thus the firm's structure greatly affects the firm's ability to transfer knowledge.
Organizational culture	Barney (1986); Schein (1990); Martin et al. (1983); Trice & Beyer (1984); Deal & Kennedy (1982) Denison & Mishra	Organizational culture is a complex construct consisting of many concepts including; values, basic assumptions, stories, rites and ceremonies, and shared meanings. The four cultural traits of;

	(1995) Maidique & Hayes (1984)	involvement, adaptability, consistency, and sense of mission[42] have been used to represent a firm's culture within the rubric of the functionalist view. He specifically related these four traits to firm's performance. These four traits are important for firma to obtain external knowledge.
Trust[43]	Das & Teng (1998); Lewis & Weigert (1985); Mayer et al. (1995)	If firms build trust, they will develop confidence about their partner's abilities and expected behavior. Therefore, when high level of trust exists, the firm has more confidence about the partner's abilities and motives and finds the partner more predictable, and more willing to share ideas, feelings, and goals with the firm.

2.5.4 P/KT theories and models

Major & Cordey-Hayes (2000) distinguish two streams of KT models;

[42] Involvement is a cultural trait that creates a sense of ownership, responsibility, and commitment to the organization's growth and survival. Adaptability is the organization's capacity for internal change in response to external conditions and its openness to ideas from outside the firm. Consistency reflects the level of member conformity to the firm's collective behaviors and systems. Finally, a sense of miss ion provides organizational members with clear purpose and meaning.

[43] Mayer et al. (1995) defines trust as a willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party (p. 712).

- Node models; these describe nodes and discrete steps that are each gone through in a KT process; and
- Process models; these describe KT by separate processes that are each undertaken.

In this part of this chapter, we show the most influencial theories and models of P/KT based on our scanning and analysis of PT and KT literature.

2.5.4.1 The SECI model

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) propose that an organization creates knowledge through the interactions between explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. He calls the interaction between the two types of knowledge 'knowledge conversion', and supposes that there are four modes of knowledge (SECI model) conversion as follows (Figure 2-6):

- Socialization; it is the process of converting new tacit knowledge through shared experiences. This process can happen in a traditional apprenticeship, informal social meetings and beyond organizational boundaries.
- Externalisation; it is the process of articulating tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. For the externalization of tacit knowledge to succeed, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) emphasizes the importance of group commitment and the fact that it is mainly based on verbal communication.
- Combination; it is the process of converting explicit knowledge into more complex and systematic sets of explicit knowledge. In this mode, the tacit knowledge that has been explicated in the previous mode of the model is now the subject of verbal sorting, combination and categorization.
- Internalisation; it is the process of embodying explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge. Through this mode, explicit knowledge created is shared throughout an organization and converted into tacit knowledge by individuals. This process requires finding one's self in a large entity, learning by doing, training, and exercises allow the individual to access the knowledge of the group and the entire organization (Nonaka & Konno,

1998). Each mode of conversion constitutes one means of KT and creation.

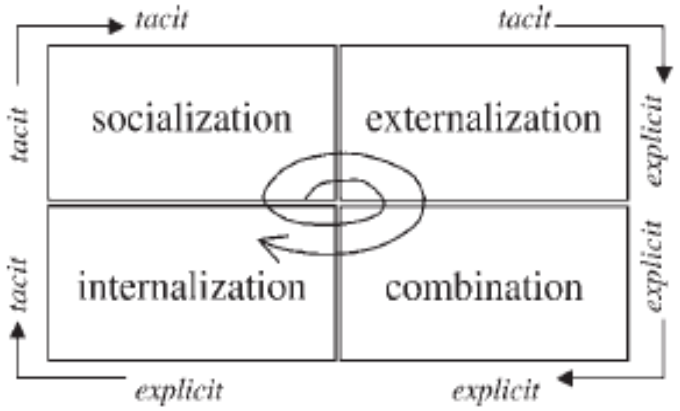

Figure 2-6: SEKI model

Source: Adapted from Takeuchi & Nonaka (2004).

2.5.4.2 Global, international and transnational model

Depending on McGrew's (1992) definition of globalization as the multiplicity of linkages and interconnections between the states and societies which make up the modern state system, therefore, globalization has two distinct dimensions: scope (or strretching) and intensity (or deepening) (p.23). Thus, global governance is the manifestation of the increasing scope and intensity of formal and informal processes of global social and plotical interactions.

Evans (2010) illustrated the formal processes of global governance which focus on the activities of predatory agents of policy transfer including multi-lateral organizations [44] and the established international organizations such as the OECD[45] which have become proactive in pushing neo-liberal policy agendas in

[44] These global economic institutions, such as WTO and the Bretton Woods, that their influence has been particularly pronounced in developing countries, transition states, and states emerging from conflict, which all depend heavily on external aid, loans and investment.

[45] The OECD is an international organization consisting of 30 member countries that chair commitment to democratic government and the market economy. Its main aim is assisting (cont.)

the international domain particularly in the areas of economic and administrative reform. Moreover, Rose (1993) goes on to emphasize that the European Community promotes comparison so that member states can become aware of what their competitors are doing and decide which elements of foreign programs they may wish to copy and adapt (p. 105). In contrast, informal processes of global governance would refer to networks of actors that seek to promote dominant policy discourses such as New Public Management (NPM)[46] or neolibralism (Biersteker, 1992).

As for Risse-Kappen (1995) and Stone (2000) recognized international as those structures and processes which inform state-to-state relations such as the United Nations (UN) and as transnational the increasing importance of non-state actors, such as multi-national corporations and knowledge institutions, in policy-making at all levels of governance.

2.5.4.3 Dolowitz & Marsh model

Dolowitz & Marsh (2000) model is organized around six questions (Table 2-5), five of which provided the focus of their original article (1996): Why do actors engage in policy transfer? Who are the key actors involved in the policy transfer process? What is transferred? From where are lessons drawn? What are the different degrees of transfer? What restricts or facilitates the policy transfer process? In their article (2000) they include a new question, how is the process of policy transfer related to policy "success" or policy "failure"? In their latter article they further examine the second, third, fourth and fifth questions in an attempt to move the debate surrounding policy transfer forward. Then they focus on two

governments in building and strengthening effective, efficient and transparent government structures through its Public Management Programme (www.oecd.org)

[46] The NPM is a created management philosophy used since the 1980s by governments to modernize the public sector through main hypothesis; the more market orientation in public sector will lead to greater cost-efficiency for governments without having negative side effects on other objectives and considerations.

crucial issues: the distinction between voluntary and coercive transfer and the relationship between policy transfer and policy failure.

Table 2-5: Dolowitz & Marsh model

A Policy Transfer Framework

Why Transfer? Continuum Want To.....Have To			Who Is Involved in Transfer?	What Is Transferred?	From Where			Degrees of Transfer	Constraints on Transfer	How To Demonstrate Policy Transfer	How Transfer leads to Policy Failure
Voluntary	Mixtures	Coercive			Past	Within-a Nation	Cross-National				
Lesson Drawing (Perfect Rationality)	Lesson Drawing (Bounded Rationality)	Direct Imposition	Elected Officials	Policies (Goals) (content) (instruments)	Internal	State Governments	International Organizations	Copying	Policy Complexity (Newspaper) (Magazine) (TV) (Radio)	Media	Uniformed Transfer
	International Pressures		Bureaucrats Civil Servants	Programs	Global	City Governments	Regional State Local Governments	Emulation	Past Policies	Reports	Incomplete Transfer
	(Image) (Consensus) (Perceptions)									(Commissioned) (uncommissioned)	
	Externalities	Pressure Groups	Institutions			Local Authorities		Mixtures	Structural Institutional	Conferences	Inappropriate Transfer
	Conditionality	Political Parties	Ideologies					Inspiration	Feasibility	Meetings/ Visits	
	(Loans) (Conditions Attached to Business Activity)								(Ideology) (cultural proximity) (technology) (economic) (bureaucratic)		
	Obligations	Policy Entrepreneurs/ Experts	Attitudes/ Cultural Values						Language	Statements (written) (verbal)	
			Consultants Think Tanks Transnational Corporations Supranational Institutions	Negative Lessons			Past Relations				

Source: Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000, p. 9.

2.5.4.4 Szulanski model

Szulanski (1996) & (2000) offer a diachronic[47] analysis of stickiness based on a model of the transfer process of organizational knowledge. this model identifies different stages of the transfer process and possible predicators of difficulty for each stage (Figure 2- 7). He suggests that there are four distinct stages in the KT. A distinction is usually made between the initiation and the implementation of a transfer. Within the implementation phases, further distinctions are often made among (a) the initial implementation effort, (b) the ramp-up to satisfactory performance, and (c) subsequent follow-through and evaluation efforts to intergrate the practice with other practices of the recipient. Initial implementation of a new practice and subsequent ramp-up to satisfactory performance involve a two-step sequence of first *learning before doing* – either by planning or by experimenting in a contrived setting before knowledge is actually put to use by recipient- and the *learning by doing* which entails the resolution of unexpected problems that arise when new knowledge is put to use by the recipient.

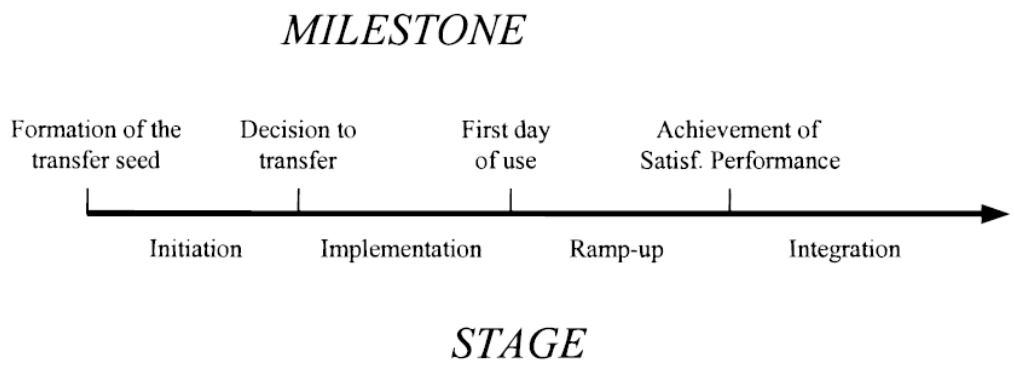

Figure 2-7: The Szulanski model

Source: Szulanski, 2000, p. 13.

The initiation stage is comprised of all events that lead to the decision to transfer. First, a need for knowledge is recognized which triggers a search for

[47] Szulanski borrowed the term *diachronic* from linguistics to suggest contrasts between earlier and later moment of an activity.

satisfying that need. Once the need and the potential solution to that need are identified then the feasibility of transferring that knowledge is explored. The implementation stage begins once a decision to transfer needed knowledge is taken. In this stage, the knowledge resources flow between the source and the recipient, social ties between the recipient and the source are established, transfer is customized to suit the needs of the recipient, and care is taken to avoid problems encountered in the previous transfers. In the ramp-up stage, a recipient starts using received knowledge. The recipient attempts to identify and resolve unexpected problems that arise while using the new knowledge and meeting the post-transfer performance expectations. In the integration, transferred knowledge gradually becomes routinized and institutionalized.

Data collection to study this model was carried out in a two-step questionnaire survey. In the first round, a feasibility test was conducted to select companies with strong incentives to transfer best practices. Based on the feasibility test, a list of transfers and parties in those transfers were identified for each of the participating companies. For each transfer a questionnaire was sent to the source, the receipent and a third party to obtain a balanced perspective. The explanatory power of the framework and the relative importance of each barrier was assessed using canonical correlation.

Szulanski concludes that, the general expectation is that factors that affect the opportunity to transfer are more likely to predict difficulty during the initiation phase, wherease factors that affect the execution of the transfer are more likely to predict difficulty during subsequent implementation phase. The process model provides a constructive way to incorpoate difficulty in the analysis of KT. By distingushing between initiation stickiness, implementation stickiness, ramp-up stickiness, and integration stickiness, the model provides one way to describe and to examine empirically the evolution of difficulty. He confirmed that the three most important barriers to best practice transfer are lack of absorptive capacity of the recipient, causal ambiguity, and arduous relationship between the source ans the receipient. The process model offers framework to classify transfer-related problems and the lessons from solving them. Process thinking offers the exciting

possibility of learning to manage organizational learning, that is, to plan knowledge transfers more effectively and to *unstick* sticky transfers.

2.5.4.5 Knowledge transfer as translation model

Holden & Kortzfleisch (2004) discuss KT in its international context and have brought to bear concepts of translation theory. They argued that translation is a highly applicable analogy for exploring the nature of KT. They emphasized that the translation theory, which has hitherto been largely ignored by the knowledge management community, can be of further value because it can through light on KT processes from at least four advantageous perspectives:

- Translation as a networking activity;
- Process and end-product quality;
- Levels of accuracy;
- Constraints on the production of good translations.

They explain that translation theory has identified three constraints on the production of good translations. These constraints are: ambiguity (confusion at the source); interference (intrusive errors from one's own background) and lack of equivalence (absence of corresponding words or concepts), (they use the same three constraints in forming their extended model, Figure 2-8).

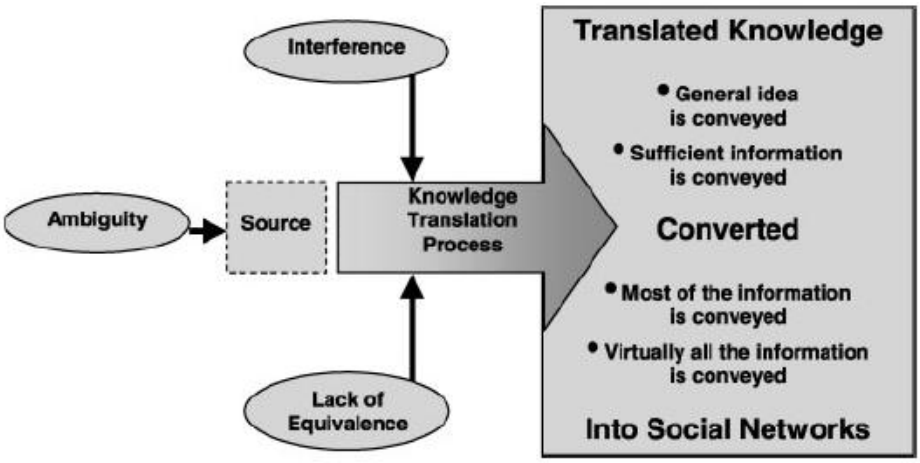

Figure 2- 8: An extended model of knowledge transfer as translation

Source: Holden & Kortzfleisch (2004), p. 135.

They emphasize that from the point of view of communication theory these three constraints on translation may be regarded as *noise*. In a technical sense noiseis any distrurbance or interference. In translation noise is anyhing that distorts the translation process and influences variously the accuracy of the final product. So, by analogy, in the inta- or inter-organizational transfer of knowledge, *noise* is anything that distorts this process and constrains the convertibility of knowledge: in other words, its relative transferability into domain eexperts' networks based on its perceived utility.

2.5.4.6 The Multi-theoretical model

Watson and Hewett (2006) study contributes to knowledge management literature dy developing a multi-theoretical model that gives a better understanding about how firms can increase the effectiveness of their knowledge transfer systems. This theoretical model tests how knowledge management systems can be designed to increase the rate at which they capture and store knowledge that can creat value when reused and leveraged in other applications in the organization, and increase the extent to which the captured and stored valuable knowledge is accessed and reused for the creation of new knowledge.

Watson and Hewett use different theories to help them understand the antecedents of knowledge contributions and knowledge reuse because these are two very different types of behaviours. Knowledge contribution is an altruistic act that is done to benefit others in the firm. To better understand why individuals would contribute their own valuable knowledge for the benefit of others, Watson and Hewett rely on social exchange theory, which was developed to explain why individuals engage in cooperative behaviours that are not formally rewarded by the organization. On the other hand, knowledge reuse is one way, among many, for an individual to obtain the knowledge necessary to do his or her work better or more efficiently. Thus, Watson and Hewett rely on expectancy theory, a theory of

motivation, to help them understand this behaviour, and link this theory to the technology acceptance model (Figure 2- 9).

They found that while social exchange theory helped them to uncover the factors that facilitate collection of knowledge from individuals throughout the organization, expectancy theory was insightful for modeling the factors that affected the frequency with which individuals accessed and reuse the firm's knowledge repositories.

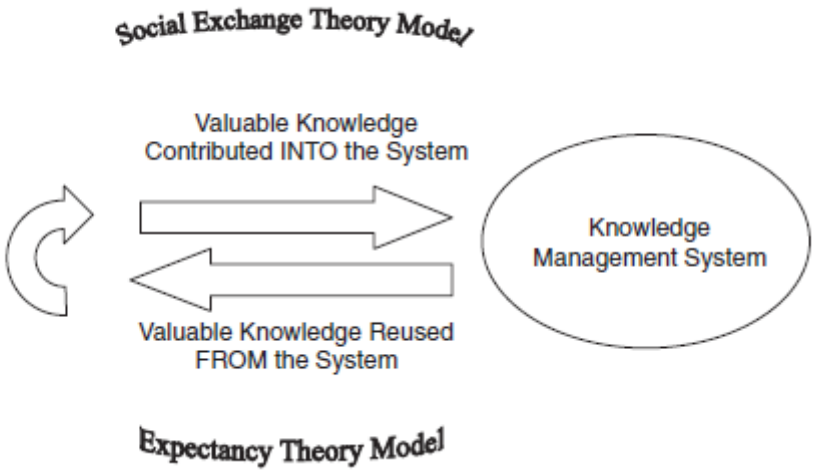

Figure 2-9: A multitheoretical approach

Source: Watson & Hewett (2006), p. 146.

They display that the results of the multi regression equation used to test their hypotheses regarding the factors that influence the frequency with which individuals contribute knowledge to the knowledge management. Three variables; frequency of knowledge reuse, organizational tenure and advancement within the organization were significant predictors of knowledge contribution. Moreover, variables such as; the ease of knowledge access, training and value of knowledge are significant predictors of knowledge reuse.

2.6 P/KT and policy process

The literature show that the transfer of knowledge from one location to another can enhance organizational learning. Thus, new knowledge can promote innovations in new methods and practices, which can then be absorbed into the routines and culture of an organization.

The traditional way of understanding *the policy cycle* is to divide it into four neat stages; problem definition and agenda-setting, formal decision-making; policy implementation; and evaluation.

2.6.1 Problem's definition phase

Clay & Schaffer (1984) argue, a divided, dichotomous and linear sequence of policy making from problem identification through analysis to implementation is unrealistic. It is more accurate to conceptualise the policy process as a chaos of purposes and accidents, in which policy implementaters interact with policy-makers, by adapting new policies, co-opting the embodied project designs, or simply ignoring new policies (Juma & Clarke, 1995).

2.6.2 Agenda setting and decision-making phase

Cobb and Elder (1972) define an agenda as ageneral set of politival controversies that will be viewed at any point in time as falling within the range of legitimate concerns meriting the attention of the polity (p.14). Agenda setting is about influencing which issues receive attention and which are excluded from public discussion. The number of potential policy issues exceeds the capacity of the policy-making process, ensuring the importance of the policy agenda, and the necessity for issues to compete against each other for a place on this agenda. Literature show three different aspects of the policy agenda;

- *The public agenda* consists of all items that are commonly perceived by members of the political community as meriting public attention and as involving matters within the legitimate jurisdiction of existing governmental activity (Cobb & Elder, 1972,p. 85). These are issues with high public visibility, and which large sections of the public

believe to both important and to require some kind of poicy response from government. The public agenda is the primary domain of activity for groups and individual that do not have free access to government. Issue or problem definition is central to the public agenda.

- *The formal agenda* is that set of items explicitly up for the active and serious consideration of authoritative decision makers (Cobb & Elder, 1972, p. 86). These items are issues that decision-makers accept require their attention, and policy problems given attention to by officials and politicians in any section or level of government.
- *The decision agenda;* Kingdon (1984) refers to decision agenda that consists of matters requiring immediate resolution, proposals considered for legislative enactment, or subjects under review for imminent decision by executives or departmental secretaries.

2.6.3 Implementation phase

The implementation phase embodies a wealth of knowledge about the practical applicability of both research and policy. Sharpe (1985) refers that there is *an implementation gab* in the execution of policy which is the difference between the policy-makers objectives and what actually happens at the point of policy delivery. Policy-makers have a control deficit that results from not implementing the policies themselves.

2.6.4 Monitoring and evaluation phase

Monitoring is a further aspect of the policy process over which researchers can have a significant impact. P/KT into policy process has the potential to general knowledge that is of use to future policy-makers. The sheer volume of expertise and advice can however prevent evaluative policy regarding policy successes and failures from being incorporated into future policy, and creats the potential for incoherence, conflict and gridlock. Evaluation in public policy is usually undertaken by national bureaucracies, but in global spheres- and for some

developing countries- evaluation comes from a variety of sources (Stone, et al., 2001, p. 10):

- Consultants
- Scientific advisers and other experts
- NGO and social movements
- International financial institutions

Governments, private foundations, corporations and charities are increasingly imposing requirements on research institutions to account for their use of funds and the relevance of their research.

Pollard & Court (2005) emphasize that knowledge exists in all public policy phases; in agenda-setting, policy formulation, policy implementation and evaluation. Knowledge is at a gratest advantage when knowledge sharing, acquisition, utilization and creation exist at the appropriate time and appropriate location. Morover, Knott & Wildavsky (1980) stated that KT is based on dissemination of research of knowledge to policy makers.

2.7 Summary

The literature review presents different meaning of quality, four criteria for quality have been identified; input criteria, out put criteria, value-added criteria and process orinted criteia. Quality in HE is currently defined as a combination of these four main criteria.

The literature review identifies many quality approaches implemented in HE today. Some of them evolved from the business quality practice such as quality audit and quality assessment are exclusively designed to be QA approaches. The literature shows that there are many factors affecting P/KT which vary such as; strategic similarity, charactersitics of individual members, charachteristics of knowledge, characterstics of social networks, characteristics of task, social ties, the internal context, organizational structure and trust. These factors has different effects on the P/KT process. Literature also shows the different theories and models of P/KT. We can conclude that there are two main groups ofmodels; the node models which describe nodes and discrete steps that are each gone through

in a KT process. The second group is the process models; these describe KT by separate processes that are each undertaken.

Chapter 3: Case Analyses of Egypt

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will analyze QA and accreditation policy in Egypt depending on our case of National Authority of Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Education (NAQAAE), the only certified agency for accreditation in Egypt. In order to study the knowledge transfer process during the accreditation policy process, first we will present how Egyptian HE is organized. Second, we will show a short historical background of QA and accreditation policy in Egyptian HE. The third part of this paper will analyze the NAQAAE case; it's background, followed by the acquisition and sharing of accreditation knowledge/policy and how NAQAAE build up its accreditation knowledge base. Then the variables of accreditation policy transfer in Egypt. This analyzing chapter depends mainly on the 16 interviews that had been conducted with Egyptian experts in quality of HE, NAQAAE experts and staff academic.

3.2 Egyptian HE

HE in Egypt dates back to 988 AD from the creation of Al-Azhar University by the Fatimid[48]. It preceded by 12 years of formal education in schools ending with a general exam that is similar to that of High School Graduation Exam in many countries.

3.2.1 Public institutions

Egyptian HE includes public and private technical colleges and universities. HE is accessible to all students holding the general secondary education certificate, a technical diploma with high scores, or diploma of advanced technical studies

[48] <http://www.tempus-egypt.com/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=11&Itemid=30>.

(UNESCO-IBE, 2011). Technical colleges offer two-year programs leading to a Diploma. Universities offer programs of at least four years leading to a Bachelor's degree, as well as graduate degrees. Two parallel education systems exist in Egypt, the secular system and the religious, or Al-Azhar, system. The secular system is organized into four stages; preschool stage for 4-6 year-olds; basic education stage beginning at age six and continuing for nine years (primary school for six years followed by preparatory school for three years); secondary school stage for three years; and tertiary stage (university). HE in Egypt is largely performed by the public HE sector, comprises of public universities and very diverse and numerous non- universities institutions. The private HE sector mainly comprises a number of private universities Belal & Springuel, 2006, p. 3). It is organized in three institutional models (Hassan, 2009; OECD&WB, 2010; NUFFIC 2010).

1- The university: HE institutions organized into colleges (faculties);
2- The four-to-six-year colleges or institutes: each institute offers programs in one of the major fields, such as engineering, computer science, agriculture, and so on. Some of these institutions were organized to become part of a university (University of Helwan); others still exist as such;
3- The two-to-three-year institutes: they offer programs that lead to a diploma. The same pattern is followed more or less in other Arab countries in Northern Africa and West Asia.

Egyptian universities are public institutions under the control of the state and follow the fundamental characteristics derived from the Anglo-American models of education and the European continent, which focuses on education, research and community (Elgharib, 2012, p. 5). Egypt has 34 universities, of which 18 are public. The largest university is the Al-Azhar; it is one of the universities making a claim to being the oldest in the world, as it was founded in 1972. The foremost of the universities is Cairo University, founded in 1908.

3.2.2 Private institutions

Egypt has established private universities to create a kind of competition for raising the educational standards and to relieve the burden from the governmental and university institutions. The private HE sector mainly comprises a number of private universities. Before 1993, only two private foreign institutions were established decades ago, the American University in Cairo (AUC), founded in 1919, and the Arab Academy for Science and Technology (AAST). Under a new law in 1992, Law 101, Egyptian private universities were established starting from 1996. These new universities are accredited by the Egyptian Supreme Council of Universities (SCU) every 3 years, in addition to accreditation from foreign educational bodies in Europe (Wikipedia, 2009). The MOHE is setting-up the regulatory measures and criteria to establish private university [49] and is continually refining them based on the experience gained from the already established ones (Said, 2001).

Assuring private universities' quality is considered an important challenge that Egypt should address it. El-Araby (2011), in his comparative study between Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria and Tunisia in financing policies of private HE sector, states that:

> Although private provision of HE has become more important in the Arab region during the last few decades, it still represents a small share of total enrollment. The transition towards more private provision of HE will likely have negative implications for the equity dimension of financing policies. Private provision implies higher tuition costs; in the absence of efficient financial assistance schemes, these higher costs will likely keep disadvantaged students from continuing their HE (p. 18).

3.2.3 Al-Azhar University

Azharite education system is supervised by the Supreme Council of the Al-Azhar Institutions and is independent from the Ministry of Education. But all

[49] Such as Act No. 101 issued in 1992 concerning the establishment of private universities.

Al-Azhar institutions itself is placed under government supervision, and its educational system is actually supervised by the Egyptian prime minister. Al-Azhar schools are named *institutes,* and include primary, preparatory, and secondary phases. The graduates of the Azharite secondary schools are eligible to continue their studies at the Al-Azhar University only[50]. Al-Azhar University is one of the oldest and biggest universities in Egypt. The nature of the study in Al-Azhar University is a scientific, religious and specialized one. It grants higher degrees other than the bachelor degrees in all fields and specialization that the programs of study in the different departments include such as post-graduate Diploma, the master degree and the doctorate degree (NCERD, 2001, p. 60).

The MOHE has jurisdiction over HE through the supervision and coordination of all post-secondary education, planning, policy formulation, and quality control. The MOHE is aided by three executive bodies; the SCU, the Supreme Council of Private Universities (SCPU), and the Supreme Council of Technical Institutes (SCTI). In addition to these three councils, Al-Azhar University has its own Central Administration of Al-Azhar Institutes.

The SCU is an authorized autonomous public body with the authority, which is responsible for the management of public universities. This council is responsible for planning, coordination and supervision of HE in accordance with the Law No. (49) for the year 1972, and its amendments.

The SCU presided over by the Minister of HE appointed by a presidential of the republic, and the membership of (Elgharib, 2012):

- Presidents of Egyptian state universities (17 universities);
- Five members at most experienced in matters of university education and public affairs assigned for two renewable years by a decree of the Minister of HE;

[50]The Egyptian Educational System. Retrieved Dec., 2009, from <http://www.impact-se.org/docs/reports/Egypt/EgyptMarch2004_ch1.pdf >.

- Secretary of the SCU.

The council forms planning committees for various educational sectors of the universities. Each committee consists of the deans of similar faculties. These committees are responsible for studying and investigating the next terms of reference (El-Meligi, 1991; Elgharib, 2012). The main responsibilities of SCU include: defining criteria and quality guidelines for establishing academic programs, new faculties, universities, and HEIs controlling the application of such criteria and guidelines; approving academic programmes based on a reference to an academic framework; forming teams from the academic community to act as external examiners in all disciplines to ensure equal quality of students in the final year of study and graduation projects and works; proposing and deciding on the admissions policy, criteria and the number of students admitted into each discipline, faculty, and university; setting up the modalities of equivalence of academic degrees; establishing and implementing the framework and system of promoting the academic staff in HEIs and universities (OECD& WB, 2010). The other two councils; SCPU and SCTI have equivalent roles and responsibilities to that of SCU.

The SCU signed a number of agreements with many international universities and institutions. The aim of these agreements is to achieve the cooperation between the Egyptian universities and the international academic community to exchange knowledge and experience in terms of the educational methodologies and the use of advanced technologies such as distance education and e-learning[51].

3.3 A historical background of QA and accreditation policy of Egyptian HE

[51] UNEVOC Network Portal, available at www.unevoc.unesco.org/netw_dir3.php?browse=id&id=297.

Until the 1950s, Egyptian universities were at international standards in science and research[52]. From the 1960s, fundamental changes in the HE system caused a declined in the Egyptian research and education system (Belal & Springuel, 2006). Through the decade of the 1970s until the mid 1980s, HE in Egypt has grown exponentially when admissions to universities were finally curtailed. This continued demand for HE in an expanding population led to the creation of alternative in post-secondary technical training. Thus Shann (1992) states that efforts to reform HE which were instituted in the middle 1980s have focused especially on containing enrollments, improving the quality of programs, and promoting responsible fiscal management (p. 226).

In the view of many Egyptian educational leaders, this too rapid expansion of HE has far outstripped the capabilities of new instructors to prepare and implement appropriate curricula and make seasoned judgments about academic policies and practices, and this criticism has been applied particularly to the technical institutes (Sanyal, et al. 1982; Selmi, et al. 1989). As an evidence Benderly (1976) states that the universities enrolled more than five times the student capacities they were designed to accommodate. Moreover, the unavailability of adequate computer facilities and limited libraries contributed further to the substandard quality of academic programs (Shann, 1992, p.229).

Recently, Egyptian HE faces unprecedented challenges. It is struggling for survival against an onslaught of overwhelming political, social and economic problems, rapid urbanization, rampant population growth, inefficient allocation of resources, and economic dependency. Therefore, authorities recognized the need to establish a national QA system. Moreover, the Egyptian government considered that the QA and accreditation mechanisms as a gateway towards motivation for its HEIs to promote comprehensive educational processes, and a quality system to raise the level of confidence in the institutions and their graduates.

[52] The Faculty of Science at Cairo University established an observatory in the 1950s with the third largest telescope in the world and also the world's first marine science research station on the Red Sea.

As governments in most parts of the world have considered their agenda for HE over the last few decades, issues of QA, quality enhancement and accreditation have been a major focus of attention. Therefore, many governments have decided that traditional academic controls are inadequate to today's challenges, and more explicit assurance about quality is needed.

The MOHE has over the past two decades, worked on improving HE through developing and implementing a comprehensive strategic plan. This plan is to be implemented in 3 phases 2002-2017[53], and was presented at the National Conference for Higher Education under the auspices of the President of Egypt. The Strategy was built within the government's vision for HE in the 21st century, and aimed at achieving the strategic objectives of reform. The first phase starting in 2002 until 2007 and was entitled Higher education Enhancement Project (HEEP).

3.3.1 Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP)

During this phase grants were provided by various organizations in order to cover the costs of preparing the reform strategy for HE (PMU, 2009). In addition to these grants, on April 23rd, 2002, a loan agreement was signed between the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) (lender) and the MOHE (the borrower). The IBRD agreed to lend the MOHE an amount equal to fifty million dollars. According to this loan agreement, the Egyptian HE strategic plan was titled Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP). One of the most important objectives of this project was to improve the quality and relevance of HE, so that graduates will have the knowledge and skills demanded by Egypt's developing and globalizing economy (WB loan agreement).

In realizing HEEP's objectives, the HEEP has been translated into twenty-five distinct projects addressing diverse areas of HE reform, these projects are being implemented in three phases until 2017, and these correspond to the

[53] www.anqahe.org/

government's five year plans. Twelve of the twenty-five projects have been bundled into six components, hereinafter called projects too, and were given priority to be funded and implemented. The Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP) is one of these main projects (figure 3-1); these main projects are:

- Higher Education Enhancement Project Fund (HEEPF);
- Faculty-Leadership Development Project (FLDP);
- Faculties of Education Enhancement Project (FOEP);
- Egyptian Technical Colleges Project (ETCP);
- Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP).

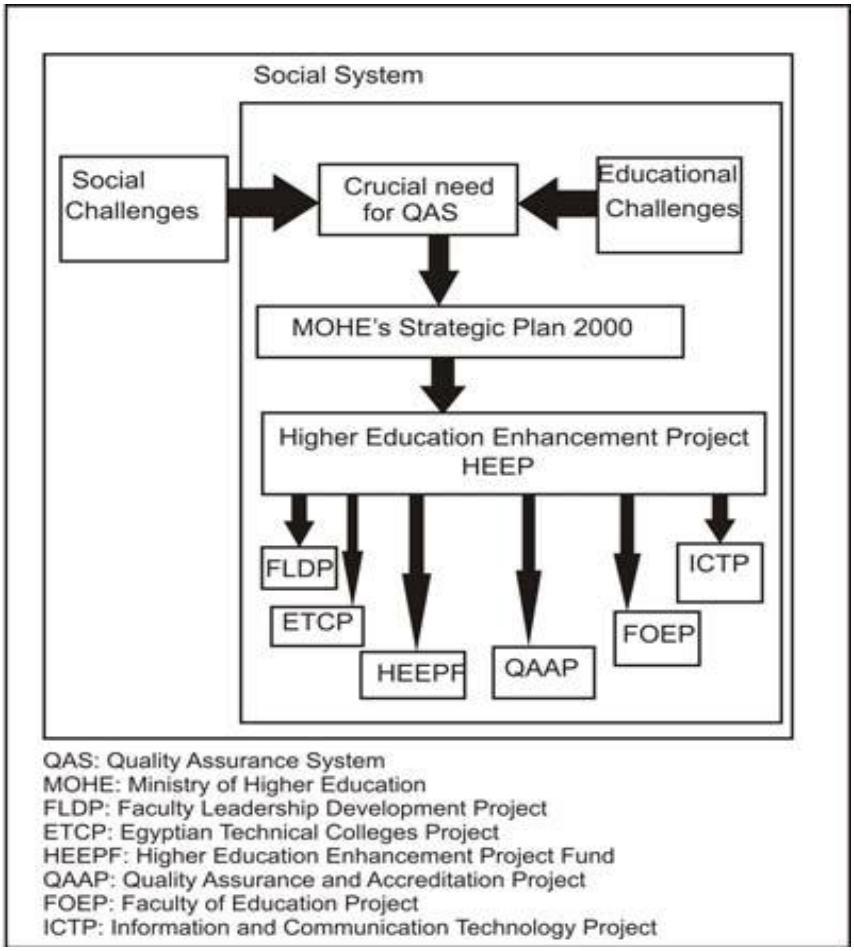

Figure 3-1: QAAP emergence as one of HEEPs

Source: Ramadan, et al., 2011, p. 342.

3.3.2 Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project (QAAP)

The QAAP's main mission is to assure quality, on-going improvement and increasingly effective performance of HEIs to gain the confidence of the community in the capabilities and efficiency of their graduates at the national and international levels, by means of supporting public universities to become accredited. Therefore, QAAP seeks to realize its mission through essential steps which are considered the beginning of establishing internal QA and accreditation system as follows;

- Establishing the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation for Education (NAQAAE); the NAQAAE was established by the preliminary law, after QAAP participation in both people's Assembly and Shura Council. The Presidential Decree was issued for its establishment in June 2006. The QAAP provided the NAQAAE with its outputs which include the following;

- The standards for institutional accreditation of academic institutions;
- The National Academic Reference Standards(NARS) for the educational programs;
- Database of peer reviewers, field visits team leaders, and technical experts and administrators trained for five years in the domain of educational quality.

- Disseminating the culture of quality in the academic community and among all beneficiaries of educational services; the QAAP realizes this objective through the following:

- Training more than 4000 staff members in coordination with the Quality Assurance Centers in Egyptian universities, to consolidate the concepts of quality in the academic community and among university leaders;

- Training more than 700 faculty members to be peer reviewers and team leaders in the field visits to various academic institutions;
- Training all managers of the 17 Quality Assurance Centers to identify their roles with the faculties in training on standards and the concepts of quality, and how to conduct self-assessment and write annual reports;
- Training more than 500 faculty members on how to draft the university strategic plans for QA, and how to design action plans for development and continuous improvement;
- Conducting a series of awareness-raising campaigns for more than 900 faculty members on how to develop and use NARS as a reference for educational programs;
- Holding meetings and discussions with different audio and visual media and newspapers to introduce the project, and holding seminars on educational QA and its relevance to society;
- Holding The First National Conference for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in 2007, attended by more than 1000 participants from the academic community and beneficiaries of educational services;
- Directors and members of the QAAP's committees have participated in regional and international conferences in Europe, US, New Zealand and Canada to find the best experiences in QA, and compare them with the Egyptian system for QA and accreditation; representing Egypt in the INQAAHE.

- The QAAP established 17 Quality Assurance Centers in public universities, some of them have been included in the administrative and financial organizational structure of the universities, and most of their directors have become members of the university council. The university centers support the Quality Assurance Centers in the public universities to produce their annual reports; they also participate in preparing faculties and providing

them with necessary technical assistance towards accreditation and on-going improvement of their programs. The QAAP trained all employees and directors of the Quality Assurance Centers on the concepts and standards of QA and accreditation;

- Developing strategic plans for QA in the public universities; the QAAP completed the strategic plans for 14 Egyptian public universities, identifying strengths and points that need improvement. These strategic plans of Egyptian universities have been evaluated by international experts, and a report has been made for each university. Each public university developed its operational plans and set its priorities to support the academic institutions to apply for accreditation from the NAQAAE, according to a realistic and clearly prioritized timeframe;
- Developing the NARS; the QAAP finalized NARS for 10 sectors in the light of international standards for educational programs, job market needs and competitiveness, as well as national needs. These sectors are nursing, agriculture, engineering, veterinary medicine, basic science, pharmacy, home economic, medicine, arts, and physical education. Moreover, the QAAP reviewed of current educational programs by related sector committees, and examined the possibility of applying NARS on the programs, so that the academic institutions would follow the standards in their educational programs;
- Establishing an internal QA system in public universities; the QAAP offered competitive projects to all faculties of public universities to apply for funds to establish an internal QA system. 150 faculties obtained these projects throughout three different cycles held during the life of the project. Moreover, 15 faculties of education were funded, to establish internal QA systems through the FOEP.

Through the QAAP monitoring teams, the national committee periodically monitored and reported on the progress of all the projects (150 projects + 15

education projects) in establishing their internal QA systems. The monitoring reports were sent to the faculties' deans and universities' presidents. 150 academic institutions were able to establish internal QA systems and prepare the required documents, which include the first annual report. The monitoring committee has developed the overall framework for the evaluation of the internal QA systems in all academic institutions, which contains the following items;

- the academic standards of the program, including: the targeted learning outcomes, criteria, student assessment, and student achievement;
- quality of learning opportunities, which include; teaching and learning, student support and learning resources;
- research and scholarly activities;
- community and environmental services;
- the effectiveness of quality management and enhancement.

The QAAP conducted 120 Development Engagement (DE) visits in 16 public universities during the improvement phase, in collaboration with peer reviewers, to give the academic institutions an opportunity to test, develop, and improve their internal QA systems, and have a DE report containing the points of strength and areas requiring further improvement to be taken into account in further improvement plans to achieve accreditation by NAQAAE. Therefore the monitoring committee conducted follow-up visits to the faculties which had previously received DE visits and were ready for a second visit, to evaluate progress in applying the QA system and the efficiency of their action plans. By June 2009, Egypt finished the first phase of QA and accreditation policy and the start of the Program of Continuous Improvement and Qualifying for Accreditation (PCIQA) in HEIs.

3.3.3 Program of Continuous Improvement and Qualifying for Accreditation (PCIQA)

The PCIQA is the second phase of the strategic plan (2007-2012), its main goal[54] is:

serving the greatest number of faculties by undergoing a developmental mechanism in the Egyptian universities. The means of fulfilling this are; making the full use of the available funds and guaranteeing its fair distribution; and upgrading the potential of faculties and universities to benefit from the allocation budget and finding alternative venues for developmental projects.

As a mean of supporting the HEIs in developing its working system as well as upgrading its institutional capabilities to comply with the QA standards and accreditation; the PCIQA funded competitive projects in the following fields;

- The Quality Assurance and Accreditation Project 2 (QAAP2);
- The Continuous Improvement and Qualification for Accreditation Project (CIQAP);
- The Development Academic Programs for Accreditation Project (DAPAP);
- Higher Education Institutions' Labs Accreditation Project (HLAP);
- Development of Student Assessment Systems Project (DSASP);
- Infrastructural Quality Related Projects (IQRP);
- Monitoring and Evaluation of New Programs Project (MENPP).

This fund is available for any public HEIs (university, faculty, department, a group of departments). The PCIQA's evaluation criteria are certain 7 standards (PMU, 2009);

[54] www.heep2.edu.eg/

- Academic excellence;

To what extend will the proposed project contribute to applying higher levels of learning domains (analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and origination) that corresponds with the international level? To what extend is the proposed project located in a suitable place that will upgrade the educational system components? To what degree is the project team qualified to achieve high academic standards? There must be cooperation and high coordination aligned with the institution's vision and mission; if more than one department are participating in the proposed project.

- Technical quality;

Is the presentation clear and well formatted? Are the project components suitable? And have been well thought of? Do the resources match with the needs? How accurate has the project scope been identified? Is it wider or narrower than needed? Are the theoretical, practical and research aspects well integrated? Is the final result achievable? To what extend will the final results be beneficial to others?

- Fulfilling accreditation requirements;

Did the project address steps and outcomes that would fulfill either current or future accreditation whether on the local or international accreditation level? Will the project produce graduates with developed skills required to develop the Egyptian social and economical aspects to meet the international standards? Will the market/stakeholders participate in offering training opportunities for the students? Will the project address essential gaps within the HEIs that could lead to closer cooperation with the industrial sector and labor market? Will it provide a wider scope of practical experience for the students? Will it provide the students with the required thinking and practical skills required for the labor market?

- Efficiency;

Will the project assist the faculty/institute to use its resources better? Will any of the equipment or resources be more productive as a result of applying the

proposed project? Will any other departments or sections benefit from the new equipment requested for the project (if any)? Will future research contracting yield extra income to the institutions?

- Sustainability;

What is the nature and extend of resource made available for the project by the faculty/institute? Is the infra structure suitable? Is there a maintenance program for the equipment? To what extend does the project comply with the faculty's/ institute's mission? To what extend will this project help in building the faculty's/ institute's self-development ability (to develop curricula, labs and maintenance)? Will the project benefit other departments/faculties? How will the project be sustained after the termination of the fund?

- Cooperation;

Is the project multi disciplinary? If so, is there any cooperation with other institutions? Is there any sort of international cooperation?

- Creativity;

Is the project new in its idea or structure or both? Does it add a new developmental dimension to the faculty's/ institute's educational system? Could the project have an effective impact on other faculties/institutes?

3.4 Globalization and QA & Accreditation policy in Egypt

As a direct effect of globalization on HE in Egypt, the regional and international organizations and financing institutions played an important role in the process of mobilizing support for quality improvement in HE and the establishment of QA mechanisms in the Arab region.

- **EU projects**

EU launched several programs in Egypt. Since 2002, Egypt participated in the Trans-European Mobility Programme for University Studies (TEMPUS)

programme. This implementation of the Tempus program fits with the beginning of the HEEP. TEMPUS in Egypt has set the standard for competitiveness in designing projects aiming at enhancing HE. The most tangible impact of TEMPUS is the inclusion of TEMPUS as a component of the strategic development plans of many Egyptian HEIs.

At the HEI level, TEMPUS is perceived as a high quality programme aimed at creating and reinforcing partnership with European high quality institutions. Many institutions have benefitted from this project in order to tackle specific issues of interest, or left the opportunity open for the innovation of staff members.

- **UNESCO role**

UNESCO has played a pioneer role in this field[55]. The recent updating of the convention calls for the shift from equivalence to recognition, which entails evaluation and a deeper look into the quality of the content studied. This in turn calls for the establishment of mechanisms for internal (institutional) and external QA in HE (at the national level). In 1998, one of the landmarks of UNESCO's efforts was the Regional Conference on Higher Education, which highlighted the necessity for quality improvement and QA in HE in the Arab Region. The following important recommendations emerged from the conference:

- Mechanisms for quality evaluation must be established
- Priorities must be focused on the development of curricula and the mode of institutional delivery
- Mechanisms must be established for teaching staff recruitment
- Staff development centers must be established and promoted

[55] Mention has been made of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diploma and Degree in HE in the Arab States, which could be regarded as one of the major contributions in this field. The original content of the Convention, which dates back to 1978 and is one of the oldest conventions among the six UNESCO regions in the world, has realized certain achievements in this field.

- Libraries and scientific equipment must be modernized
- Measurements must be established to monitor, follow up and support students during their studies
- Human resources and material capacities to perform research must be promoted

Further, in 1990s the initiative implemented by the regional office of UNESCO for the establishment of the Arab Network for Professional Development of the Teaching Staff in Arab Universities, which is based at Alexandria University, Egypt. the network was benefiting from the participation of similar centers founded in 15 countries in holding training workshops, seminars and lectures.

A similar effort has been made by two other regional organizations; Arab League Education, Culture and Science Organization (ALECSO) and Association of Arab Universities (AARU). The former issued a guide to self-evaluation for HEIs in the Arab states. This is in addition to its efforts to bring the issue of quality of education to the conferences of Arab ministers of HE, which it usually organizes. In 2002, AARU formed a committee of experts to design a detailed manual for institutional self-evaluation and accreditation in the institutions of HE. The EU has agreed to finance some of the projects that are related to quality in HE in Egypt.

3.5 The National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Education (NAQAAE)

3.5.1 Backgrounds of NAQAAE

According to Egyptian Law No. 82 for the year 2006, the NAQAAE is a public authority which characterized by its autonomy and corporate and under the control of the Prime Minister (Article 1). NAQAAE is the accrediting agency for

all Egyptian educational institutions (HE, pre-university, and Al-Azhar education). NAQAAE vision and mission as following[56];

> An internationally recognized accrediting body, known for its fair and objective decisions, its leadership in quality assurance and excellence at the national, regional and international levels, while maintaining its Egyptian identity.

NAQAAE works under the following mission:

> To assure the quality of Egyptian education institutions, continuous improvement and efficient performance, consistent with their mission statements and objectives, as well as ensuring public confidence through independent, impartial and transparent operations.

3.5.2 Accreditation process of NAQAAE

The accreditation process of Egyptian HEIs by NAQAAE consists of two distinctive phases:

3.5.2.1 The pre-accreditation phase

This phase simply is the technical support by NAQAAE's team to HEIs. Each HEI is required conducting an analysis of its year's activities in three areas covered by the institution's mission, educational programmes, research and other scholarly activity and community involvement. In each of the three areas, the analysis should review the activities in the previous academic year against the actions planned for that year to conform with the mission statement. Also, a set of action plans should then be drawn up to guide the activities for the coming academic year. These areas are as follows[57]:

- Mission

[56] Available at <www.en.naqaae.eg>.

[57] Available at <http://www.heep2.edu.eg/qaap_First%20Phase/doc/puplications/Guidlines/Annual%20fac.%20rep/Annex%20F%20_GUIDELINES%20AND%20TEPLATE%20FOR%20AN%20ANNUAL%20FACULTY%20SELF%20E.pdf>.

- Governance and administration
- Faculty staff members
- Educational programs
- Academic standards
- Quality of learning opportunities
- Quality management and enhancement
- Research and other scholastic activities
- Community involvement

Egyptian HEIs has a systematic structure for IQAS. This structure consists of two main levels; the Quality Assurance Unit (QAU) in each institution (faculty) passing by the Quality Assurance Center (QAC) in each university.

> In each of our faculties there is a QAU which is considered the main core stone for preparing the faculty to be accredited by NAQAAE. This unit follows the dean of the faculty, but of course there is a technically connection between each unit and its related center in its university[58].

Abdel Kariem (2010) summarizes, depending on his survey's result, the main aims of QAU as: establishing an internal system for quality; assist preparing the faculty for meeting the accreditation requirements; improving the techniques of academic management via increasing its ability for continuous enhancement; enhancing programs, teaching and learning plans for meeting accreditation requirements; advancing students' roles in the teaching and learning process for providing graduates with competitive abilities in the labor market; spreading the culture of quality among staffs; forming the vision, mission and objectives of the faculty; establishing an enhanced data base for the faculty; training selected staff

[58] In an interview with Reda Samour, director of QAU of Faculty of Science, Tanta University, on 20th Dec, 2011.

for operating as trainers in the quality field; and preparing the annual report and self study (p. 53). Moreover, one of my interviewees added that:

> The role of each QAU simply is preparing its faculty for accrediting through its main structure….. it consists of the faculty dean, vice-dean, director of QAU (who is in the most cases a very hard worker professor from the faculty staff), student representative union of the faculty and representative from each faculty's department[59].

The QAC's main structure consists of 12 member; chancellor, vice-chancellor for academic standards, educational programs & quality of learning, vice-chancellor for teaching and learning, vice-chancellor for research, vice-chancellor for community service, director of QAC, two experts in quality, student representative union of the university, the head of businessmen society in the University Governorate, the head of Staffs' Club and one of the graduates[60].

The QAC in each university is the formal responsible body that can make a direct contact with both MOHE and NAQAAE regarding IQAS. As director of a QAC commented;

> To gain accreditation certificate, we should do our best first to prepare our faculties. This preparation happens through our direct contact with MOHE. When a faculty needs a help… I mean financial help to make some modifications in its way for accreditation; here is our first duty to do contact with the MOHE

[59] In an interview with Rifgi Soliman, director of QAU, Faculty of Education, Almansoura University, on 27th Dec. 2011.

[60] As an example Almansoura University QAC, available at <http://muqac.mans.edu.eg/about/manage1.php>.

asking its assistance[61]. Moreover, when all our faculties be, should be, ready for accreditation… here is also our second duty to prepare our university as a whole for accreditation from NAQAAE[62].

3.5.2.2 The Accreditation phase:

This phase is operated by NAQAAE's reviewers (as in Figure: 3-2);

Figure 3-2: Accreditation process of NAQAAE (9 months)

Source: www.en.naqaae.org.eg

3.6 QA and accreditation P/KT in Egypt

3.6.1 NAQAAE knowledge base

[61] In this regard, each QAC, across the university board, would submit a report to the PCIQA management team specifying the trends and areas that have benefitted and been affected by the proposed funded project. This report should make reference to areas such as managerial development of the university/institution, development of staff qualifying, efficiency and unity of the whole system. Then the PCIQA coordinates with the supposed project management unit and the QAC to be representative of the institution (faculty). Retrieved 1st Oct. 2012, from <http://www.heep2.edu.eg/sc/EN/Monitoring_Evaluation.html>.

[62] In an interview with Tarek Fayed, Director of QAC, Tanta University, on 21st Dec., 2011.

NAQAAE knowledge base consists of knowledge acquisition sources and knowledge sharing transferring knowledge sources. NAQAAE depends on global, regional and international sources of QA and accreditation knowledge to build up its knowledge base.

3.6.1.1 QA & accreditation knowledge acquisition

NAQAAE depends on several different sources in the acquisition of QA and accreditation knowledge at national, regional international and global levels through the following:

- **Exchange of experience**

The establishment of NAQAAE, the building up its policy/standards, was by the assistance of British and American experience.

> Since our standards built up on the American and British experience, we found its level is so high for our institutions. Therefore, we now are trying to make these standards more available for our domestic level[63].

- **Agency's surveys**

In an interview with NAQAAE experts, they confirmed to me that, basically they depend on surveys such as questioners, interviews, collecting opinions during academic staff training sessions. All these kinds of acquired knowledge help NAQAAE to imagine the whole vision about what should be done for their near future.

- **NAQAAE's complain site**

One of the most important sources of knowledge related to how HEIs interact with NAQAAE policy is it's complain site.

[63] In an interview with Housain Basheir, NAQAAE, on 25th Dec., 2011, Cairo.

> We cannot contact all Egyptian HEIs directly, but through our complain website we can do it. They can express any problem they face during their evaluation, express their view about our policy or even they can ask our help[64].

- **IQAS knowledge**

One of our main sources of knowledge is that related to IQAS. NAQAAE acquire this kind of knowledge through self-study reports. Moreover, NAQAAE experts confirmed that the reviewers' tacit knowledge is very important;

> Our site-reviewers acquire a lot of knowledge that related to the real conditions of HEIs. Since we seek to make our policy more related to our culture, this kind of knowledge is really important[65].

3.6.1.2 QA & accreditation knowledge sharing/ transferring

NAQAAE share/transfer its QA and accreditation knowledge/policy depending on several windows;

- **Network knowledge;**

At global level, the beginning of QA projects in Egypt with the aforementioned Higher Education Development Project, which is being carried out and in cooperation and consultation with many international QA and accreditation agencies and organizations, especially the QAA and CHEA. The Cooperation with Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA's)

At regional level, NAQAAE share its knowledge through its membership in the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQAHE). This network was established in 2007 as nonprofit nongovernmental organization to facilitate exchange of information and disseminate best practice in QA; develop

[64] In an interview with Husain Elhefinawy, NAQAAE, on Dec. 14th, 2011, Cairo.

[65] In an interview with Housain Basheir, NAQAAE, on 25th Dec., 2011, Cairo.

and support QA agencies according to appropriate standards and strengthen links between existing quality agencies across national borders[66].

At local level, The Egyptian Universities Network (EUN)[67]: The SCU established the EUN in 1987 with a major objective of achieving the interlink among the Egyptian universities and connect them to the international academic community.

> To be more familiar with the Egyptian universities' needs, and their real capabilities, the NAQAAE tries to be in the real touch with the universities through either their formal websites or EUN[68].

- **Global projects knowledge;**

NAQAAE is a member in several regional and global projects such as the OECD's Assessment of Higher Education Learning Outcomes (AHELO).

Figure 3-3: The three Fields of AHELO

Source: OECD, 2010-2011, p. 7.

[66] ANQAHE website <www.anqahe.org>.

[67] Website of EUN <http://wcm.portal.eun.eg:10040/wps/portal>.

[68] In an interview with Husain Elhefnawi, director of Higher Education Evaluation Department, NAQAAE, Cairo, on 14th Dec., 2011.

- **The Egyptian Professors Program**

NAQAAE seeks establishing functional linkage with Egyptian international scholars for transferring the good practices and the accumulative experience of the Egyptian scholars to their educational institutions. The Egyptian Professors program has 9 areas of cooperation as follows:

Table 3-1: Areas of cooperation of Egyptian professors program

Area of cooperation	Description
Governance and Leadership	- Academic freedom - Accountability - Autonomy - Performance assessment - Change Management
Programs	- Introducing new programs - Entrepreneurship - Interdisciplinary programs - Link to labor market - Program evaluation
Teaching and Learning	- Non-traditional learning - Collaborative learning - Work based learning - Internship - Assessment of student achievement

Research	- Internal quality assurance - Joint programs - Interdisciplinary programs - Student supervision - Cross border education - Student assessment
Staff(Faculty)	- Development - Motivation - Accountability - Support
Resources	- Effectiveness and feasibility - Fund raising - Development of resources - HRD
Students	- Admission - Role in research - Student bodies - Career guidance - Alumni office
Community participation	- Interaction with industry - Community support - Community development

Source:

http://naqaae.org.eg/en/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=99

> Because we all know that we suffer brain drain phenomena in Egypt. We eager benefit of our Egyptian professors worldwide. Through this program we share their knowledge related to QA and accreditation policy through using multiple instruments[69] for disseminating of good practices:
>
> - Seminars;
> - Training Programs;
> - Workshops;
> - Opening learning opportunities for Egyptian students.

- **Conferences, seminars and workshops**

NAQAAE acquires, shares and transfer its knowledge through launching and participating in global, international, and regional conferences, workshops and seminars.

For example, NAQAAE participates in many global conferences such as the INQAAHE conference. Moreover, launching workshops with international organizations such as Sub-Regional Training Workshops on Science, Technology and Innovation Indicators, 28-30 September, Cairo, Egypt[70].

Throughout both of the acquisition and sharing/transferring sources of QA and accreditation knowledge, the NAQAAE build up its accreditation knowledge base as follows in Figure 3-4.

[69] In an interview with Professor Bashir in NAQAAE showing the website of the cooperation between Egyptian International Scholar and NAQAAE which is available at <www.en.naqaae.org.eg/index.php/component/content/article/97>.

[70] This workshop was between MOHE, UNESCO, and ISESCO members.

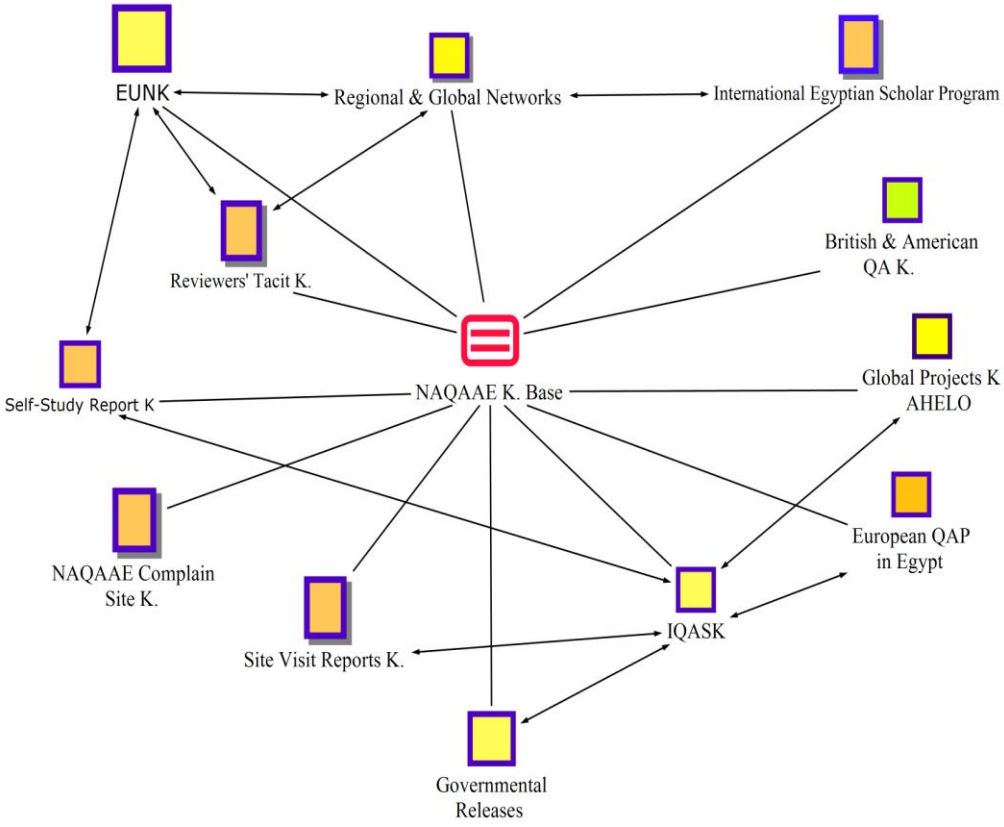

Figure 3- 4: NAQAAE knowledge base

3.6.2 Factors affecting QA & accreditation P/KT in Egypt

Discussion with academic staff and experts of NAQAAE during our interviews shows that there are four main groups of factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT in Egypt. These are first, the factors related to globalization, second, factors related to social system; third, factors related HE system and fourth factors related to the accrediting agency's nature. The three first groups of factors are complicated and interlinked (as shown in Figure 3-5).

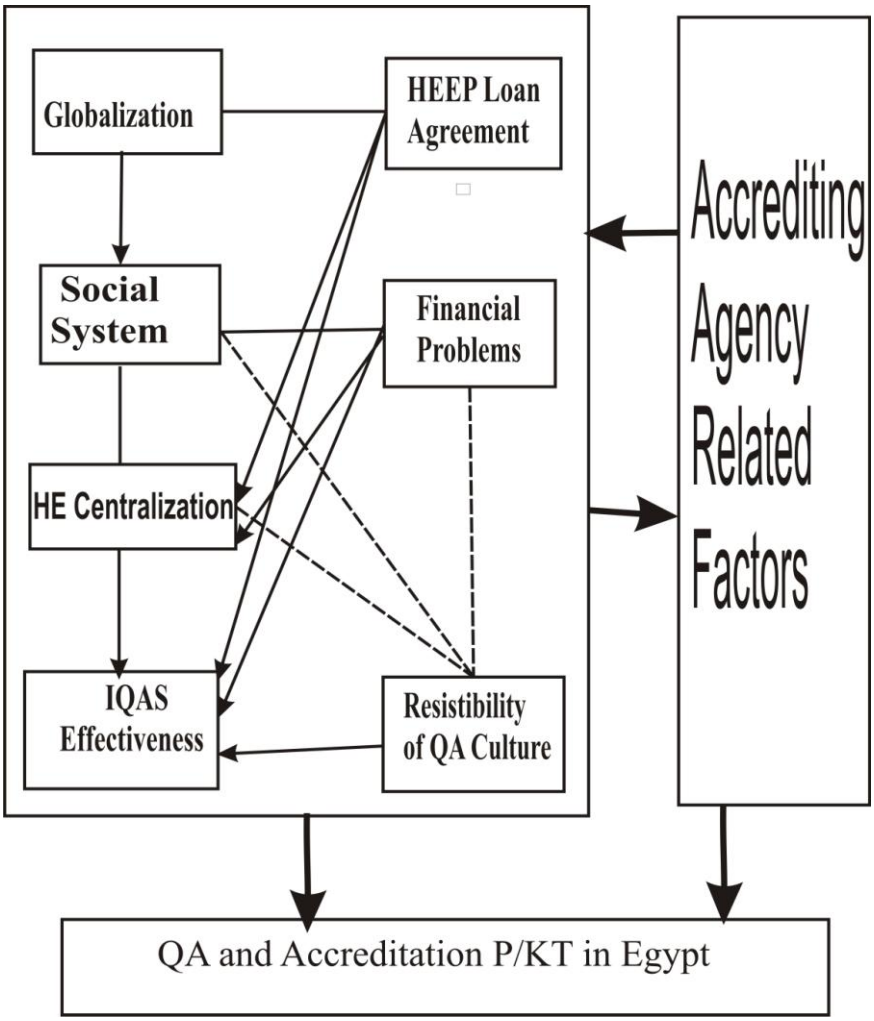

Figure 3- 5: Factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT in Egypt

3.6.2.1 Globalization factors

Globalization process acts as facilitators of QA and accreditation P/KT in Egypt in many aspects. Global and international QA projects which has implemented in Egypt such as ERASMU-Mundus, TEMPUS and AHELO are considered direct implementations of globalization effects on Egyptian HE.

The literature of globalization and its affect on QA and accreditation P/KT emphasizes that the coercive policy transfer is more commonly found in lower income countries, where external organizations such as the WB use their economic power to impose preferred policies on nations in return for financial or

practical assistance. As this indicates that, policy transfer is not just about the rational search for ideas, it is also about power. This is emphasizes that the HEEP, which is considered the real start of QA and accreditation policy in Egyptian HE, is one of the globalization effects on Egyptian HE. Most of NAQAAE experts and academic staff emphasis the start of accreditation standards was with the European and American experts in building it up.

> You can say that we totally not transfer but coping these foreign experiences. Thus we notice, after the first cycle of accrediting HEIs, that these standards are so high ranked. Therefore, now we seek our evaluation and modifying these standards according to our national needs and characteristics of our HEIs[71].

3.6.2.2 Social system factors

At the time Fahim and Sami (2011) emphasize that funding will be needed to improve the quality of education to meet the demands of a more sophisticated labour market. Financial resources of HE are limited to, mainly government funds, student enrollment fees, funds obtained from centers of excellence established in some institutions for offering community services and/or research and consultation jobs, and funds obtained from joint research activities (Said, 2001, p. 25). Within university, an adequate budgeting practice provides few incentives for efficiency or quality improvements. Almost all interviewees, from academic staff in different Egyptian universities, agree that the most cited problem effects the transferability of QA & accreditation policy is the financial problem.

> University budget which depends solely on the government is not sufficient to support the required projects and modifications for gaining accreditation status. It is hardly enough to maintain the cost of teaching and little money is available to support research in universities[72].

[71] In an interview with Housain Basheir, Director at NAQAAE, 25th Dec. 2011 .

[72] In an interview with Amira Ramadan, associate professor, faculty of Education, KAfr Elsheikh University, on 17th Dec., 20011.

In a discussion with two of academic staff who are responsible for the QAU and QAC, they states that;

> Of course we hope to transfer the foreign QA experience and accreditation standards to be applied for our national system. But as you know our faculties and universities need more and more financial support first to support our labs, buildings and even our staff. Then we could be ready to apply these global experiences and vision for accrediting our institutions[73].

One more problem, most of our interviewees cited it, is the academic brain drain. The most reasons they express for that are; low salaries and low research equipments. Most of our academic staff emphasized that the quality of Egyptian HE system cannot be realized unless the academic conditions become more comfortable and helping for more research.

Moreover, not only the financial problems and brain drain problems but also many problems HE facing such as overcrowded of students and so on interviewees stated. They emphasis that Egyptian society faces many troubles that effect HE effectiveness such as; unstable political status, 2011 revolution results, economic problems and so on.

> We now live on one of the 2011 revolution results. It is the election of university management's leaders. This of course will affect the IQAS. By other words if the academic community believes on QA culture and how much it is vital for our HE continuing and future; it will choice the leader who believe in that also. Therefore, the result is real progress and seeking for more global experience applications[74].

[73] In an interview with Profs Samour and Fayed Tanta University on 20 & 21st Dec., 2011.

[74] In an interview with Prof Rashad, Abdel Naser & Fathy, Shaker, AinS hams University on Dec., 18th, 2011.

3.6.2.3 HE related factors

- **HE centralization**

The architecture of the IQAS in Egypt, as it has been shown in the middle part of this chapter, is consists of the QAU in each institution supervised by the QAC in the university. Throughout our discussion with academic in different QAUs and QACs, they confirmed that this structure of IQAS does not have any autonomous.

And the QAU is still directly under the supervision and control of the Dean of the faculty and the board of trustee. In an interview with one of the QAC responsible, she stated that;

> How can the dean control the plans of his QAU? The QAC is responsible for monitoring the implementation of the university strategic objectives, it is obvious that close contact between the QAC and QAU ensures strong adherence to university policies and plans. I am sure that this kind of control make the contact between the both is too weak to achieve the initiated objectives[75].

- **Resistibility of QA & accreditation culture**

Resistance to change is always the constraint that any change goes to face. The majorities of our interviewees of academic staff stat that the most cited problem, facing the improvement of recent QAS in Egypt, is the resistance of many of the academic staff to the quality culture. This clearly hinders the effectiveness of the IQAS. Because, the effectiveness of IQAS is basically build up on the belief of academic staff by quality culture. In my interview with a sample of academic staff they stated;

> As you know the most of the HE system leaders is old professors. Actually, they did not grow up in the quality atmosphere. They even do not like to think about what they should do to improve their institutions. So, you can notice that the most active members in our QAAP are the young staff. You can notice that the organizer between each

[75] In an interview with Shereen Abo Warda, Director of QAC, Kafr Elsheikh University, 15th Dec., 2011.

> department and the Institution Quality Unit is the youngest academic member although we need the most experienced staff, to share their experience with other units inside the same university and with the University Quality Center itself[76].

> Recently, the staff salary is combined with their quality activity. You will notice that some staff members spend long time at the institutions without the real believe of quality needs. Just to do the salary increase requirements[77].

Dealing with this resistance is a very critical and sensitive issue that is needed for more quality improvement.

- **IQAS effectiveness**

As before there was no QA system governing the general policy for upgrading any improving through a settled action plan based on self evaluation and aiming for development, it can be concluded that the policies for improving and enhancement were not matching with the actual needs of the HEI. Most of the development plans based on the individual initiatives of some of the HE management team, heads of departments and few staff members.

Literature on the QA of HE refers to questions or *governing ideals* that can HEI leaders use to evaluate QA policies and programs on the HEI for which they are responsible. Bogue (1994) summarizes these *governing ideals* as follows;

- **Weakness of evaluation system**

The Majorities of interviewees emphasize that still the evaluation system for HES effectiveness is totally routinely system. They emphasize also that system is as a constraint factor for more quality policy. This system should be changes to match the needed level of quality of HES.

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[76] In an interview with Prof, Amira Ramadan, Kafrelsheikh University, on Dec. 17,2011.

[77] In an interview with Prof, Alaa Salem, Kafrelsheikh University, on Dec. 26, 2011.

3.6.2.4 Factors related to accrediting agency nature

- **The false independence**

Through our discussion with NAQAAE experts, they confirmed that any change to its policy must be after the permission of both MoHE and the Prime Minister.

> If we intend to make any modifications in our accreditation policy or standards, we must report this to both MoHE and the Prime Minister. And after getting this permission, we can continue in our work[78].

- **Disconnection with social system/customers**

Today, customers or stakeholders should have considerable influence in determining the perception and measures of HE quality. Fee-paying students, professional bodies, employers, politicians, and funding agencies are all voicing their particular expectations of what a degree should represent. New terms such as transparency, performance indicators, and outcome measures now figure prominently in the discussion.

Although the aforementioned perspectives, NAQAAE experts confirmed that they do not have wide channels to contact with social system. They concluded that this policy of connection is highly required to have a clear map for future, and for what they should seek for in global, regional or international connections.

- **The low experience of NAQAAE reviewers**

Our discussion with some academic staff and responsible for QAUs or QACs showed that the most claim, of academic staff, for accreditation process is using the not specialized and low-experienced reviewers.

> How can NAQAAE use reviewers who are working far from the QA area. Our HEIs full of experts who are really related to what really implemented in the HEIs, but unfortunately they are not used.

[78] In an interview with Magdy Kasem, chairman of the NAQAAE, on 14th Dec., 2011, Cairo.

So you can find that the most of academic staff do not trust in the accreditation process[79].

- **The high level of NAQAAE standards**

NAQAAE confirmed that the initiated policy or standards was really high. It means that this policy is not compatible to the recent condition to Egyptian HEIs. They also confirmed that they now are trying to make this policy more related to HEIs conditions. The recent high level of these standards is considered an obstacle for transferring more global knowledge to the NAQAAE policy.

3.7 Summary

Egypt has three main kinds of HEIs; the public institutions, the private institutions and Al-Azhar University. All these kinds are under the control of ministry of HE. This chapter shows a short history of QA and accreditation policy of Egyptian HE and how globalization affects QA and accreditation policy in Egypt, as one of the Arab countries.

QA efforts in Egypt fall under the umbrella of the three-stage HEEP (2002-2017), which was launched in 2002 with the support of the WB. In 2006, the NAQAAE was launched as the first accrediting agency for all education in Egypt. Egyptian HEIs has a systematic structure for IQAS. This structure consists of two main levels; the Quality Assurance Unit (QAU) in each institution (faculty) passing by the Quality Assurance Center (QAC) in each university.

This chapter analyzes how NAQAAE build up its QA & accreditation knowledge base depending of global, regional and international sources, in addition to the domestic knowledge related to HE culture and the results of previous accreditation cycles. All of these kinds of knowledge are codified in a knowledge base which is shown in this chapter as a chart by using MAXQDA

[79] In an interview with Shereen Abo Warda, Director of QAC, Kafr Elsheikh University, 15th Dec., 2011, Kafr Elsheikh.

program. Moreover, this chapter analyzes the different factors affecting accreditation P/KT. These factors in general are four groups; factors related to globalization, social system factors, factors related to HE system and factors related the accrediting agency itself.

Chapter 4: Case Analysis of Japan

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to examine the status of accreditation policy as the existing approach of QA in Japanese HE system. In this chapter we analyze three cases in the context of accreditation policy making of HE in Japan. The three organizations are; Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA), National Institute for Academic Degree and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE) and Japan Institution for Higher Education Evaluation (JIHEE). These cases are chosen to compare the difference between Egyptian and Japanese way in making, transferring and creating accreditation policy of HE.

4.2 Data collection and analysis

For this chapter, data was collected via the homepages, released publications of the three organizations. We also conducted 13 interviews with responsible persons in each organization. We used the qualitative analyzing method of case study through our analysis to the three aforementioned agencies. In addition, we used the MAXQDA10 software program as a qualitative data analysis tool, which supports us performing content analysis by helping to systematically evaluate and interpret our interviews textual data.

4.3 QA and accreditation policy of Japanese HE

4.3.1 Japanese HES

The modern HES of Japan was introduced in the late 19th century when the first university, called Imperial University, was established in Tokyo in 1887 aiming at modernizing Japan by improving the most advanced knowledge from overseas and by training future elite (Yamamoto, 2006). The main structure of current Japanese HE system was established in 1949 with upgrading of various types of higher and postsecondary institutions into the university system

(Yonezawa, 2003). This system consists of various categories and types of institutions that are different in their missions, functions, academic standards, prestige, status, and financing methods (NIER, 2011). Japanese HEIs include universities, junior colleges and colleges of technology. In addition, specialized training colleges offering postsecondary courses may be regards as one type of HEIs[80].

Universities (Daigaku) are intended to conduct teaching and research in depth in specialized academic disciplines and provide students with advanced knowledge. Universities require for admission the completion of upper secondary or its equivalent, and offer courses of at least four years leading to a bachelor's degree (Gakushi). Universities may set up a graduate school offering advanced studies in a variety of fields leading to master's (Shushi) and doctor's (Hakushi) degrees.

The total number of universities, junior colleges and colleges of technology is 1,233, with approx 3.1 million students attending. The total number of universities (table 3-) is 778, of which 77% are private universities as follows.

Table 4-1: Number of Japanese HEIs as of May 2010

	National	Municipal/ Prefectural	Private	Total
Universities	86	95	597	778
With graduate schools	86	81	452	619
Junior Colleges	0	26	369	395
Colleges of Technology	51	6	3	60

Source: Kono (2010), p. 5.

[80] Available at < www.mext.go.jp>.

4.3.1.1 National University Corporations (NUCs)

In Japan, a university[81] offers a four-year HE (six years for medicine, dentistry, pharmacy and veterinary medicine) and requires graduation from upper secondary schools or equivalent academic ability for admission. The graduation requirement is a minimum of four years of study with more than 124 credits (six years with 188 credits for medicine and dentistry, six years with 186 credits for certain parts in pharmacy, six years with 182 credits for veterinary medicine). Students who graduate from universities are awarded a Bachelor's Degree.

Universities are divided into three categories by founder[82]; national universities originally established by the Japanese Government, currently established by national university corporations. As of 2005, there were 726 universities in Japan; 87 of these were national, 86 local public, and 553 private[83].

National universities are ranked in pyramidal fashion especially the older ones located in major metropolitan areas, are generally regarded as the most prestigious with Tokyo and Kyoto universities sitting at the apex. Local public universities are also highly regarded. Private universities range in caliber with a handful of highly esteemed ones sitting just beneath Tokyo and Kyoto at the apex; the most well-known of these are Waseda, Keio, Ritsumeikan, Sophia and Doshisa. However, the majority of PUs are deemed as being from marginal to poor quality (Doyon, 2001, p. 445).

Since the late 19th century, Japan's government has established and supported national universities whose aims have been to train senior bureaucrats, engineers, academics, medical professionals, and lawyers destined to become leaders in their respective fields (Maruyama, 2008, p.1). These national universities, which have

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[81] A university can establish a graduate school which offers master's, doctoral and/or professional degree programs and is often located in a university. It requires a Bachelor's Degree or equivalent academic ability for admission. It may be established without undergraduate programs.

[82] Retrieved Dec 12, 2011 from Higher Education Bureau (MEXT); Higher Education in Japan, <www.mext.go.jp/>

[83] Retrieved Oct. 11, 2011 from Statistical Abstract 2006 edition 1.11 University and Junior College, <www.mext.go.jp/component/english/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2011/03/04/1302965_078.pdf>.

been established in all local prefectures as organizations targeting the improvement and well-balanced development of Japanese HE and academic research, have played important roles as local research centers.

Since 2004, all national universities have been organized as corporation aims to improve their independence and autonomy in order to revitalize education and research activities as shown in figure 4-1.

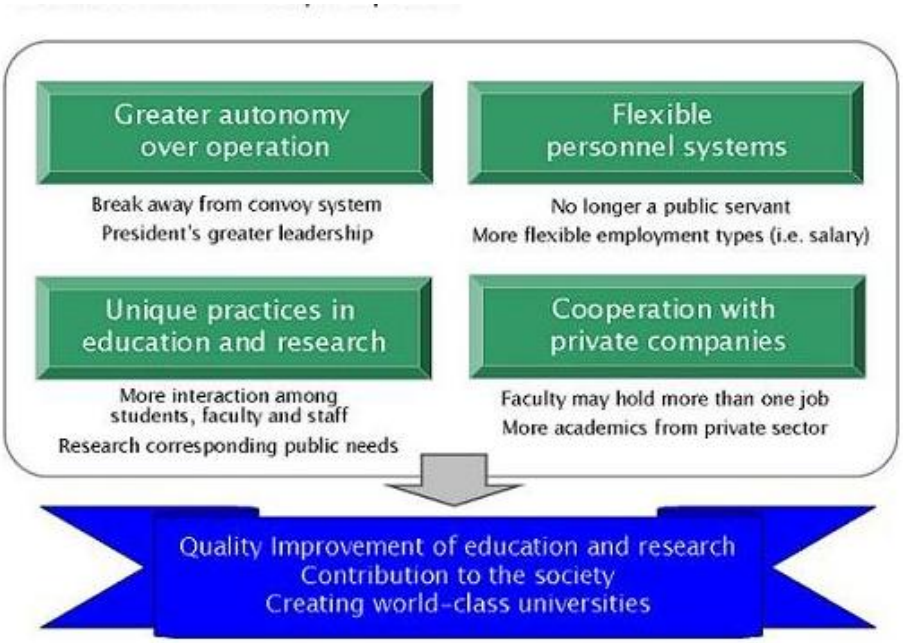

Figure 4-1: Effects of NUCs

Source: NIAD-UE, available at

<http://www.niad.ac.jp/english/unive/basic/hesystem3.htm>

Toyama (2004) states that the corporatization of the national universities contains a considerable element of public sector reform, although the Ministry of Education classes it as educational reform. According to the New Vision for National University Corporations report, three aspects for this new reform; identifying the missions and goals of universities, defining the management responsibility and giving considerable autonomy in operations through the adoption of business management tools, and introducing a mechanism to stimulate

competition between universities in addition to respecting more of the needs of students and business entities (Yamamoto, 2008).

Many dramatically changes in the governance and management system of the national universities under the NUCs that affect the evaluation of this kind of universities. Yamamoto (2008) summarizes it as; first the NUCs are at present placed in an arrangement of a multiple-principals and agent relationship which is in contrast to the former hierarchical or simple principal-agent model within the ministry. Second, much flexibility in management has been given to the NUCs in exchange for increasing accountability for their results through the medium-term plan[84], which is approved by the Education Minister. Third, NUCs have full discretionary power in allocating and using operating revenues including operating grants that basically subsidies the difference between current expenses and revenues like tuition fees.

The National University Corporation Evaluation Committee (NUCEC), under the MEXT, is responsible for performance-based evaluation of 86 NUCs and 4 inter-university research institute corporations in respect of their attainment of their 6-year mid-term plans and annual plans for education, research and management. At the same time the NIAD-UE is appointed to undertake evaluation on the attainment of mid-term objectives and the present conditions in terms of education and research[85]. Watanabe (2008) summarizes the process of NUCs evaluation (Figure 4-2) as follows:

[84] According to Article 30 of the Act, NUCs are required to set targets to enhance the quality of the teaching and research conducted, and to improve their operations and efficiency in addition to financial status, etc. Before corporatization, there was no need for national universities to prepare strategic or medium-term plans, rather just to comply with administrative laws and regulations in which a few targets for results were described.

[85] Saito, T. University Evaluation Systems in Japan. Available at <www.ias.unu.edu/resource_center/TakahiroSaito.pdf >.

1. MEXT sets medium-term goals for each corporation by respecting the ideas it put forward, and each corporation sets medium-term plans and an annual plan, based on medium-term goals.
2. Each corporation carries out its annual plans and medium-term plans during the medium-term goal period.
3. Each corporation evaluates the achievement of its goals and plans and submits an evaluation report to NUCEC, at the end of medium-term goal period.
4. NUCEC assesses the achievement of those goals and plans; NUCEC analyses four items in view of medium-term goals; improvement and efficiency of operation, improvement of financial state, self-examination activity and dissemination of information, and other important items.
5. NUCEC subcontracts the evaluation of achievement of medium-term goals for education and research to NIAD-UE.
6. NIAD-UE conducts the evaluation on each corporation's achievement of medium-term goals for education and research and submits the result to NUCEC.
7. The committee conducts overall an evaluation, respecting the result submitted by NUCEC.
8. NUCEC indicates the result to each corporation, and gives it an opportunity to state its opinion.
9. NUCEC revises the result if necessary and publicises it to the corporation and the public.

After receiving the evaluation result, each university utilizes the result to improve its education, research and other activities. In addition, evaluation results will be reflected in subsequent medium-term goals' and plans and in the allocation of resources in the future.

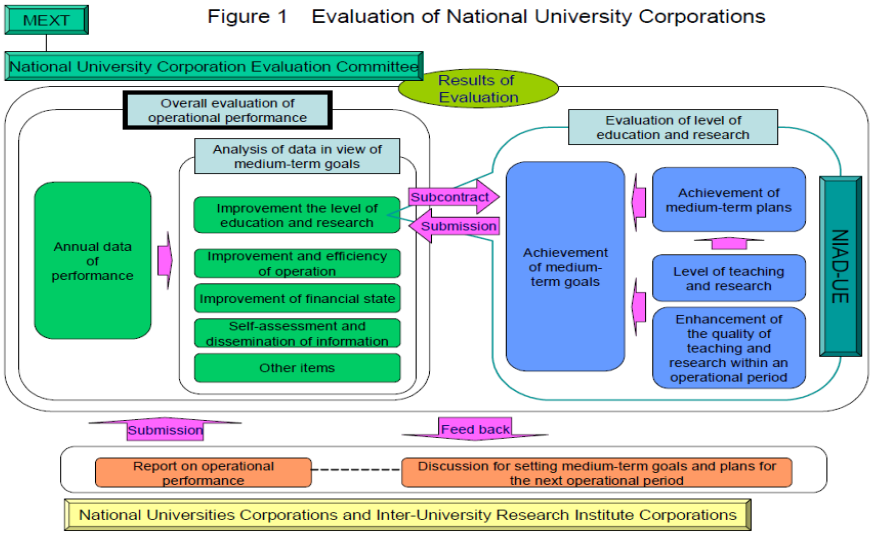

Figure 4-2: Evaluation of NUCs

Source: Watanabe (2008), p. 118.

4.3.1.2 Private Universities (PUs)

PUs in Japan are founded by non-profit school juridical persons of ambitious individuals, social reformers, entrepreneurs, and religious groups. While private institutions cover all areas of study, they have traditionally focused on the humanities, social sciences, business and law because they have had insufficient resources to provide higher cost education in, for example, natural sciences, engineering and medical sciences (Maruyama, 2008).

Morozumi (2005) divides the history of progress of the Japanese PUs into three periods. The first is the period of 1960-70, the Market-Driven Expansion, in this period, the Japanese national economy showed tremendous expansion. However, the government had insufficient financial resources to respond to this rapidly growing demand by increasing the number of enrollment of institutions in the public sector; the Ministry of Education mitigated their regulation of increasing enrollment in existing institutions and newly establishing institutions in the private sector. The second period is the Regulated Market period of 1975-90. In this period, two major problems occurred in the PUs sector: their high dependence on debt finance, and their mass-production styled low quality educational environment. Therefore, in 1975 and for the first time in the history of

Japanese HE system, the legislation Promotion and Subsidization for Private Institutions allows for government subsidies of up to 50% of the current expenditure of private institutions[86]. The third period, starting since 1990s, is the period of Deregulation and Changing Market. In this period, the concepts of *marketization* and *free competition* have been leading the university reforms, and a number of deregulations were realized. The most symbolic event in the initial phase of this period was radical revision of the Universities Establishment Standards (UES). This revision accelerated PUs' efforts to differentiate themselves in the HE market under the situation of a declining population of 18-year-olds; Figure 4-3 shows the great change of private institutions' students since 1950 in compare with both national and public institutions.

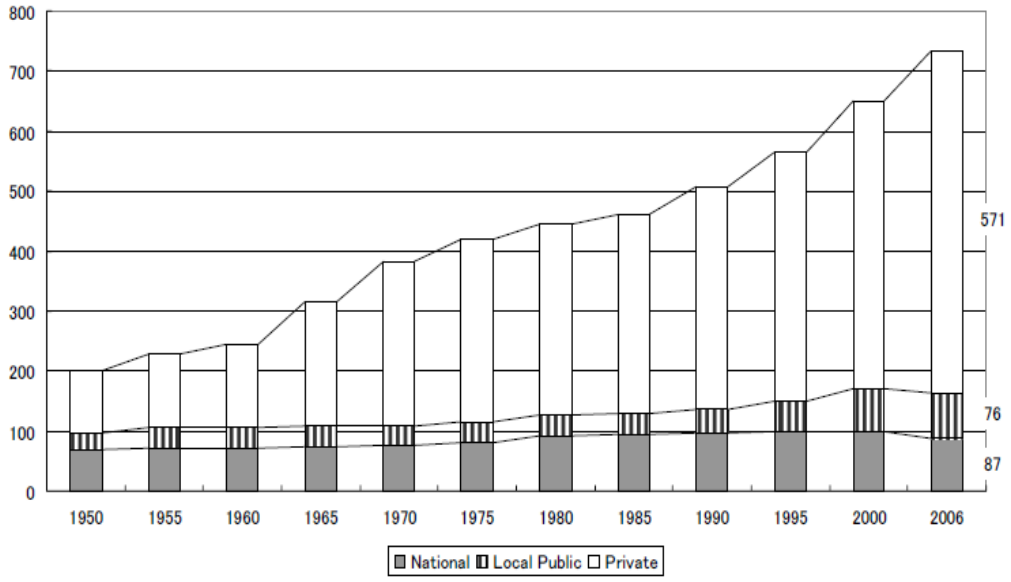

Figure 4- 3: Historical transition of student numbers by sectors

Source: MOE (1956, 1957-2001), MEXT (2002-2007).

[86] As a result, the PUs were enabled to reserve a certain portion of their income as a basic fund for future investment.

The Japanese Government has deemed the promotion of PUs as one of its important policy issues for improving PUs' quality level, these promotion efforts as follows summarized in Figure4-3 (MEXT, 2009).

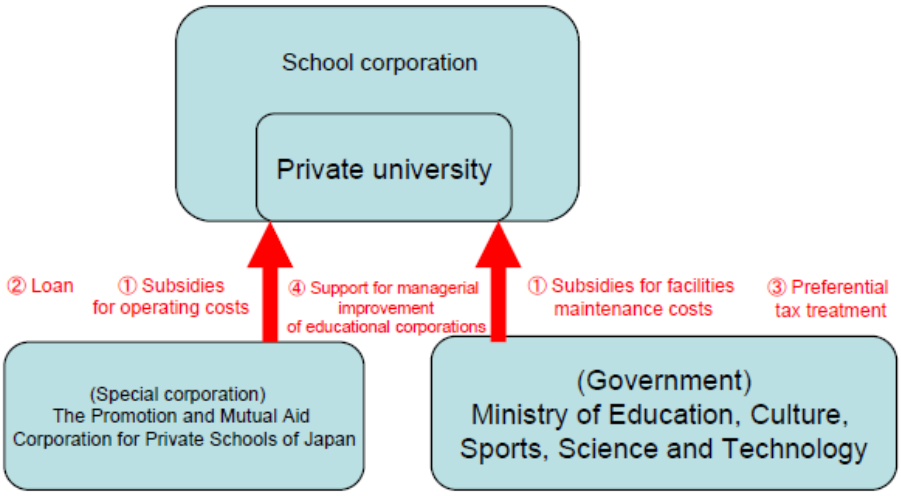

Figure 4-4: Cooperation between PUs and MEXT

Source: MEXT, 2010, p. 7.

- Subsides for operating costs (personal expenses for the teaching and clerical staff, education and research expenses, etc) and facilities maintenance costs (Table 4-2 shows the dramatically change of subsidy for the operating costs of PUs since 1970).

Table 4-2: Change in subsidy for the operating costs of PUs

Unit: 100 million yen

FY	1970	1975	1980	1985	1989	1993	1998	2003	2008	2009	2010	2011
Amount of subsidy	132	1,007	2,605	2,438.5	2,486.5	2,655.5	2,950.5	3,197.5	3,248.7	3,217.8	3,221.8	3,209.2

Source: MEXT, 2010, p. 7.

- Loans provided by the Promotion and Mutual Aid Corporation for private schools of Japan.
- Preferential tax treatment.
- Support for the managerial improvement of educational corporations.

4.3.1.3 Local Public Universities (LPUs)

LPUs are established and managed by local entities or public university corporations, and also played important roles in providing HE opportunities to local people and as intellectual and cultural centers in the local community.

From the financial management perspective, there are three forms of LPUs in Japan. The first is a division of its founder. The LPUs of this form are treated just as a line-item in their founder's general account budget. The second is a special account of its founder. This kind manages its incomes and expenses independently. The last form is the Local Public University Corporation (LPUC). Mizuta (2008) states that the institutional design of the LPUCs is based on that of the NUCs and has the same following characteristics as follows:

- Top-down management structure involving outside experts;
- Medium-term 6-year management by objectives
- Main source for operating expenditures is the block grant (p. 46).

4.3.2 Globalization and QA & accreditation policy of Japanese HES

Globalization affects Japanese QA and accreditation policy from many aspects. At the regional level, the Asia-pacific in order to improve the quality and standards of the Asian HES there has been increased regional and international cooperation in the field of QA. The need for the adoption and implementation of an agreed set of QA principles in HE for the Asia-Pacific region has derived mainly from the growing internationalization of HE. The shared set of QA principles could (Department of Education, 2008):

- Increase the international reputation of HEIs of the region;
- Demonstrate a clear engagement towards assuring quality of HE;

- Facilitate regional mobility and exchange of students, researchers and academic staff;
- Improve the economic and social development in the region;
- Build trust and confidence among the countries in the region by preserving the national character of the HES of each country;
- Increase awareness among the QA bodies of the region etc.

The aforementioned reasons are why the countries of the region decided on the establishment of the Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN) in 2005. This network has declared that its mission is to enhance the quality of HE services in Asia-Pacific region through strengthening the work of QA agencies and expanding the cooperation among them (Yonezawa, 2002).

In February 2008, more than 35 participants from 17 countries, Japan was one of them, of the region agreed on the so-called *Chiba Principles*. Designed to provide guidance to both HEIs and QA agencies these principles aim at (Toma & Naruo, 2009, p. 577):

- Continuously enhancing the quality of academic programs in the Asia-Pacific region;
- Contributing to the establishment of a strong cooperation among QA agencies;
- Complementing national quality frameworks relating to recognition of qualifications, institutions and programs;
- Creating a regional alignment in QA practices;
- Giving the possibility of benchmarking in QA;
- Facilitating student and academic mobility;
- Promoting mutual trust and public confidence in the HEIs of the region;
- Improving transparency and accountability of HEIs;
- Harmonizing the national approaches regarding QA in HE;
- Encouraging a culture of quality improvement in HE.

Starting from the basic premise that each country has created its own QA framework for HE, the Chipa Principles recognize that the prime responsibility for

QA rests with the individual HEIs. These principles comprise a set of key principles regarding the institutional QA, the QA agencies and the quality assessment (Figure 4-5).

Figure 4-5: The structure of Chipa Principles

Source: Toma & Naruo, 2009, p. 577.

At the national level, the Japanese Education ministry's goal since 1980s has been to have 100,000 foreign students studying in Japan every year by the year 2000. The Monbushô has also been encouraging Japanese universities to establish ties with universities overseas, and to offer Japanese language courses for foreign students studying in Japan[87]. Also, a number of national universities have started to offer programs with courses taught in English (Doyon, 2001, p. 456).

In July 2008, Monbushô has formulated the 300,000 International Students Plan[88], with the aim of receiving 300,000 international students by 2020. The *Global 30* project for establishing core universities for internationalization is being implemented to realize this goal by selecting measures for the internationalization of universities including the recruitment of international students, along with forming Japan's centers of internationalization.

[87] Difficulty with the language has been identified as a considerable barrier to attracting foreign students.

[88] Launching the project for establishing core universities for internationalization (Global 30). Retrieved, June 12, 2010, from <www.mext.go.jp/english/highered/1302274.htm>.

4.3.3 A historical backgrounds of QA and accreditation policy of Japanese HES

Since the 1950s Japanese HE has been accustomed to assurance for the establishment of new universities and colleges. Thus QA policy as such is not a new responsibility for Japanese HEIs. They can be expected to use their experience with the input oriented establishment accreditation to meet expectations of the new QA system satisfactorily (Newby, 2009, p. 92).

Therefore, in 1976 the Japanese Ministry of Education has been aware of the need for educational reforms in response to social and economic changes that have occurred since the 1950s. Accordingly, it set up the Central Council for Education (Chuo Kyoiku Singikai), as a governmental advisory committee responsible for investigating possible reforms (Urata, 1996).

However, in 1947 the Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA) was set up as a non-governmental organization for the accreditation of the new post war universities, drawing upon the US accreditation system as example.

4.3.3.1 Establishment-Approval System

In 1956 the Ministry of Education enacted the *Standards for the Establishment of Universities* (SEU)[89] (Daigaku secchi kijun) (Itoh, 2002, p. 14). The approval by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology is required in order to establish university. The SEU as a ministerial ordinance stipulates that it shall contain the minimum standards in order to establish a university. Its structure can be divided into four elements (MEXT, 2009) as follows;

[89] The SEU prescribed in detail the organizational conditions for establishing and running a university, such as the required space (school grounds and buildings) per student, the student-staff ratio, and the library holdings per student, as well as the pedagogical conditions, such as the names of schools, and departments, the organization of the curriculum, and the courses that should be offered (Amano & Pool, 2005, p. 696).

- Regulations concerning the basic framework such as qualifications for admission, duration of study, and organization;
- Regulations stipulating the minimum standards for human and material resources such as faculty, facilities and equipment;
- Regulations stipulating the norm for educational activities in university;
- Regulations for taking courses and requirements for graduation.

The Council for the Establishment of Universities and School Corporations is the responsible for examining the application documents. This Council consists of 400 scholars, who are mainly faculty members of national and private universities, so university establishment approval can be regarded as a peer review evaluation (Maruyama, 2008) (Table 4-3 shows the change in numbers of approvals and notifications of establishment of universities, junior colleges and graduate schools since 2002).

Table 4- 3: Change in numbers of approvals and notifications of establishment of universities, junior colleges and graduate schools

Established in	FY2002	FY2003	FY2004	FY2005	FY2006	FY2007	FY2008	FY2009	FY2010
Approval	291	277	196	127	126	110	87	78	66
University establishments	17	15	17	14	10	10	10	11	5
Junior college establishments	3	0	2	1	2	2	1	4	0
Graduate school establishment	13	25	20	19	12	11	9	8	8
Notification	1	1	276	265	356	243	258	235	222
Total of approvals and notifications of establishment	292	278	472	392	482	353	345	313	288

Source: MEXT, 2010.

Upon approval, the Advisory Council for University Establishment and School Corporation comprising experts shall conduct an inspection under these minimal standards for university establishment of the University Establishment Standards. Appendix G shows the checkpoints for inspection upon university establishment. This resulted in a combined system of voluntary institutional

accreditation by a 'membership organization' (JUAA) and strict government regulations for the establishment of universities (Amano & Pool, 2005).

Yonezawa (2002) & (2007) state that in the late 1980s, a new type of debate concerning university evaluation started. The model generally referred to at that time was that of the American system rather than the newly starting European quality assessment systems. At the time, the existing governmental authorization system was regarded as a type of British chartering, with the American-type regular-based accreditation system referred to as a preferable future model for the Japanese university evaluation system. Up to then, the JUAA had not implemented any cyclical accreditation process; once a university became an accredited member, it was able to hold member status without time limitations. Only around one-third of Japanese universities had been accredited, mainly because there was no effective sanction for non-accredited universities.

By the beginning of the 1990s, Japanese universities have been in the process of significant reform, often called "the third wave" in the history of Japanese HE. The SEU were extensively revised, giving universities and colleges the green light to make major changes in their curricula, academic standards, and hiring procedures (Regur, 1991, p. 31). This gave universities much more flexibility to reform themselves. These revised standards included the following:

- A process of self-evaluation, which was also to be made available to the public, allowing universities to access how well they are achieving their goals;
- A loosening of strict government control over the organization of academic units and curricula;
- An easing of the restrictions which limited the hiring process of faculty members and the responsibilities they are allowed to maintain outside of their departments;
- A simplification in the calculation methods used to determine the credit-hours students need to graduate. The revisions eliminated the requirement that students need 36 credit hours of general education courses in their first and second years;

- A call for faculty development (FD) in order to increase the quality of course content and teaching methods;
- A call for an expansion of courses in order to enhance foreign language and information-processing skills;
- A call for seminar-type classes and the use of teaching assistants (Doyon, 2001, p. 455).

These reforms were fundamental and covered broad areas such as the important of the quality of undergraduate education and to introduce quality control[90], the expansion of graduate education, and the introduction to evaluation systems. Three main types of evaluation schemes were stipulated by laws for all HEIs; *Self-Assessment, Certified Evaluation and Accreditation, and National University Corporation Evaluation*[91].

4.3.3.2 Self-assessment

The real origin of evaluation of Japanese HE was the Deregulation of University Act in 1991. Thus the items of self-monitoring and *self-assessment* of university were stipulated as a task which they should strive to conduct, due to the deregulation of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities. According to self-assessment, all universities, junior colleges, and colleges of technology must chick the conditions of their own activities, discover areas of excellent or in need of improvement in achieving objectives, and strive to improve their quality. The 1998 report of the University Council recommends introducing an external or third party evaluation system. By 2000, 92% of universities had implemented some type of self-monitoring and evaluation, and 83% of national universities and 24% of private universities had also implemented external evaluation by organizing external review committees' under their own initiative (MEXT, 2001).

[90] Keio University's new campus at Shonan Fujisawa (SFC) was a successful example which introduced quality control in its faculties of Policy Management and Environmental Information.

[91] Retrieved from <http://www.niad.ac.jp/english/unive/basic/qa.htm>

4.3.3.3 Certified evaluation and accreditation system

The Quality Assurance and Accreditation System (QAAS) which came into force from 2004 requires that all universities in Japan are to undergo an accreditation process, once every seven years by certified agencies (MEXT, 2009) as it shown in School Education Law;

> To improve the quality of their education, research and other activities, all universities, junior colleges, colleges of technology and professional graduate schools are obligated to be evaluated by a quality assurance agency with the authorization of the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. For universities, junior colleges and colleges of technology, the overall conditions of their education, research, organizational management, and facilities and equipment must be evaluated at least once in every seven years. For professional graduate schools (such as law schools), the overall conditions of their curriculum, facilities and other education and research activities must be evaluated at least once in every five years according to the institution's goals and objectives (School Education Law, Article 109, Article 123).

The minister of education's recognition is given only to the accrediting organizations that fulfill the following requirements (Mori, 2009, p. 75):

- The organization must demonstrate that its standards and procedure for evaluation are reliable enough to grant or deny accreditation;
- The organization must have mechanisms that ensure a fair and appropriate procedure for accreditation;
- The organization must provide opportunities for an institution being evaluated to appeal anything in the accreditation decision report to its publication;
- The organization must have a financial basis sound enough to allow evaluation for accreditation;
- Recognition of the organization must not have been rescinded by the minister of education within the last two years;

- The organization must demonstrate that it is free from any obstacles to fair and appropriate decision on accreditation.

Mori (2009) states that these requirements have some points in common with the criteria for the recognition of accrediting agencies by the US secretary of education.

Table 4-4: Certified accreditation agencies in Japan

Universities	• Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA) • National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE) • Japan Institution for Higher Education Evaluation (JIHEE)
Junior Colleges	• Japan Association for College Accreditation (JACA) • NIAD-UE • JUAA
Colleges of Technology	• NIAD-UE
Professional Graduate Schools	• Japan Law Foundation [Law Schools] • NIAD-UE [Law Schools] • JUAA [Law Schools] • The Alliance on Business Education and Scholarship for Tomorrow, a 21st century organization (ABEST21) [Business] • JUAA [Business] • Japanese Institute of International Accounting Education (JIIAE) [Accounting] • Japan Institute of Midwifery Evaluation (JIME) [Midwifery]

Source: Higher Education Bureau, MEXT, from www.mext.go.jp/english/highered/index.htm

4.3.4 Internal QA system (IQAS)

In Jun. 2001, the MEXT put forward *A Policy for the Structural Reform of Universities* (Toyama Plan). It included the reorganization and merging of

national universities, starting the progress of NUCs and the plan for top 30 universities (Erlin, 2008). In Jan. 2002, MEXT renamed the plan as *the 21 Century Centers of Excellence (COE) Program*, this program aimed to cultivate a competitive academic environment among national, private and public universities by introducing a principal of competition through third-party assessments and giving targeted supports to the creation of world-standard research and education bases (COE).

As part of the government's effort to reform HEIs and based on the fundamental base funding is the most powerful instrument available to government for steering and changing HE systems and institutions (Goedegebuure et al., 1994, p. 334). The MEXT[92] funded the applicants Ph D-level departments of graduate schools including collaborating departments and university-attached research institutes based upon their plans for establishing a COE of the world's highest level within their graduate schools or research institutes (Erlin, 2008). The 21st Century COE Program of Japan stipulates that the assessment system and the allocation of resources should be closely connected through a fair and open competition. The assessment procedure includes interim and posterior assessment. The funded projects under this program continue for five years, and their performance is assessed at the second-year, to point to and verify their progress and determine whether continuation is warranted. The assessment of these programs is conducted by the category-specific subcommittees through document reviews, hearings and panel reviews; and when necessary, onsite inspections are held[93].

Moreover, for HEIs to be independent and more autonomous, they must have an IQAS directed towards reform and improvement through self-study (Figure 4-6 shows the relationship between self-study and certified evaluation process). They

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[92] The designation or nomination is to be done through the objective, fair and unbiased valuation by the 21st Century COE program committee that is composed of the knowledgeable and expert members and managed by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS).

[93] Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. 21st Century COE Program. Retrieved Oct. 20, 2008, from< http://www.jsps.go.jp/english/e-21coe/05.html>.

must engage in active QA based on self-study results rather than simply yield to accreditation from the national government or a third-party. Society entrusts universities with the right to admit student; organize curricula; grant credits; confer academic degrees, based on the premise that they can guarantee quality. The HEI itself is most responsible for an IQAS that ensures their future and secures social trust.

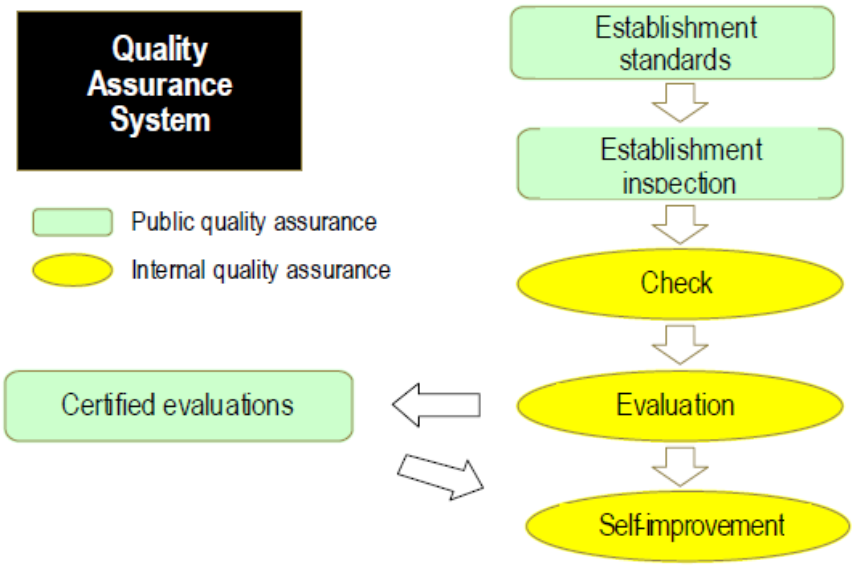

Figure 4-6: The Japanese IQAS

Source: JUAA, University Accreditation Handbook, p. 3.

Self-study verifies whether performance meets targeted goals; what the problems are if goals have not been achieved; finding the root of the problem and taking positive action for solutions. When HEI constructs an IQAS, it is essential to clarify goals, make diligent plans and efforts to realize these goals, and steadily improve quality based on appropriate feedback from checks/evaluations and reform. For the IQAS to function effectively, the Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) cycle should continue to rotate effectively at universities. Each time this cycle is implemented, it leads to improvement and reform, forming an upward spiral (Figure 4-7).

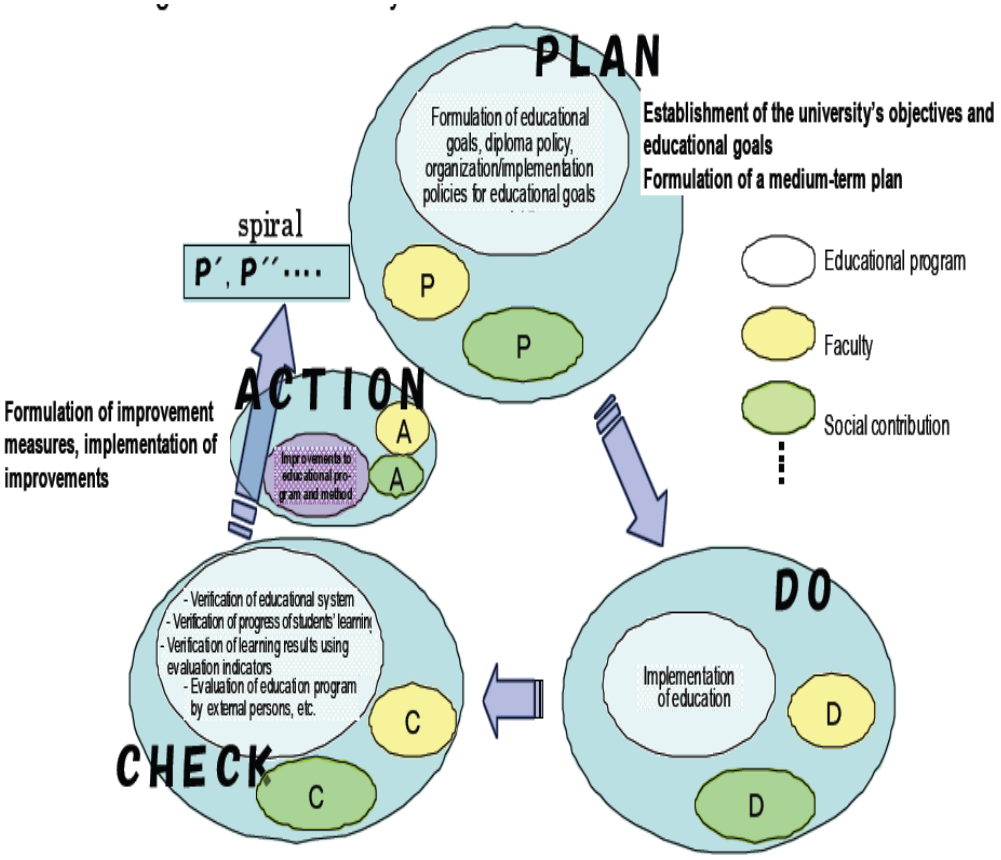

Figure 4-7: The PDCA cycle

Source: JUAA, University Accreditation Handbook, p. 5

The recent three cases, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE have specialized standard on IQAS in HEI standards to evaluate whether the IQAS is functioning effectively at each HEI. The perspectives for evaluation in each stage and the perspectives for an operation system which facilitates the improvement cycle to function properly. Each case of the accrediting agencies that will be analyzed in the following section of this chapter built its own standard scheme to evaluate whether the IQAS of each HEI is functioning effectively.

4.4 Case 1: Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA)

4.4.1 Backgrounds of JUAA

The Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA) is an independent organization established in 1947 during a time when reforms of the education system were taking place under the strong leadership of the US Civil Information and Education Section[94] (Mori, 2009, p. 72), and under the sponsorship of 46 national, local public and private universities[95]. The Ministry of Education (then Monbusho) had already maintained an authorized process of establishing pre-war universities, especially with regard to private ones. Under the idea of university autonomy, the US occupation government supported the practice of voluntary assessment by JUAA, and University Standards were utilized for authorizing new universities (Yonezawa, 2007, P. 96).

In 1950, after Japan regained its independence, the Ministry of Education set up its own Standards for University Establishment, upon which JUAA's accreditation process became a completely non-governmental voluntary organization (Baba & Hayata, 1997). Therefore, in 1951, JUAA started accrediting universities by granting membership to those satisfying the University Standards[96], the University Standards have served as criteria for voluntary qualitative improvement. As of 1996, JUAA adopted a new evaluation system founded on self-study implemented by each university; this was designed to shift emphasis on developing the distinctive mission and objectives of each university (JUAA, university accreditation handbook, p.1).

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[94] An organ of the General Headquarters of the US Occupation Force.

[95] JUAA, Toward the Improvement of Higher Education Quality. Retrieved May 2012, from http://www.juaa.or.jp/

[96] These standards were used by the Ministry of Education as criteria for approval of university establishment until the Ministry stipulated the Standards for Establishment of Universities in 1956.

In 2004, following the establishment of the national mandatory QA scheme: Certified Evaluation and Accreditation System, JUAA was certified by the MEXT as the first Certified Evaluation and Accreditation Agency for universities.

4.4.2 JUAA membership

JUAA is a membership-based organization, consisting of four-year national, local public and private university members. Its membership is divided into two categories; full membership and associate membership as it shown in Table 4-5 as follows.

Full members are those universities that have obtained their accreditation status through evaluation by the JUAA's standing Accreditation Committee. But the associate members are those institutions that support the establishment of JUAA, its project and activities, this kind of associate membership can be obtained without evaluation.

Table 4-5: JUAA Members as of June, 2007

	National universities	Local public universities	Local public university corporations	Private universities	Corporate universities	Total
Full members	27	21	11	262	0	321
	31.0%	40.4%	43.5%	45.4%	0.0%	43.0%
Associate members	48	12	5	167	0	232
	55.2%	23.1%	20.8%	28.9%	0.0%	31.0%
Non-member universities	12	19	8	148	7	194
	13.8%	36.5%	33.3%	25.6%	100.0%	26.0%
Total number of universities	87	52	24	577	7	747
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: JUAA, retrieved March, 2012, from http://www.juaa.or.jp/

4.4.3 JUAA evaluation standards

JUAA has set up and improved various standards for upgrading the qualitative standards of HEIs which contain; universities, junior colleges, law schools, schools of public health, business schools, intellectual property studies

and professional graduate public policy schools. In 2004, JUAA issued *University Standards and Explanation* which is differing a great deal from its US counterparts. They insist on the uniqueness of the university within society and its honorable mission

> ….contribute to academic progress and social advancement through the cultivation of capable human resources, creativity, and the utilization of new knowledge and technologies, and the succession and development of academic culture giving full respect to academic freedom (JUAA, 2004, p. 2).

The standards for all previous mentioned HEIs are the criteria for JUAA to accredit them and at the same time the guidelines for HEIs to maintain the proper level of their quality and attain further qualitative improvement. These HEIs are sharing the following standards[97][98];

Standard	Explanation
1-Mission and Goals	HEIs must define appropriate goals based on their own mission for the objective of cultivation of human resources and other objectives in education and research, and must make them public
2-Educational and Research Structure	HEIs must establish necessary structures to carry out educational and research activities based on their own missions and goals
3-Faculty Members and Faculty Structure	HEIs must clarify the ideal images of faculty members and the policy for organizing faculty structures in order to realize their own missions and goals, and use these as a basis to develop their faculty structures
4-Educational Program,	HEIs must specify educational objectives and use them

[97] JUAA, *University Standards and Explanation*, Revised on May 12, 2010, Enforced on April 1, 2011, from <http://www.juaa.or.jp/>.

[98] For universities, there are more 2 standards related to their IQAS and for their social cooperation.

Instruction and Outcomes	as a basis to clarify their diploma policy and curriculum policy in order to realize their own missions and goals. Universities must also follow such policies to develop and enrich their educational programs and instructions to achieve sufficient educational outcomes, and confer degrees appropriately
5-Student Admissions	HEIs must stipulate proper admission policies in order to admit students in a fair and correct manner in accordance with their own mission and goals
6- Student Services	HEIs must provide satisfactory services for learning support, student support and career path support so that students can concentrate on their studies
7- Educational and Research Environment	HEIs must develop and manage appropriately a learning environment and an educational and research environment that enables students to study and faculty members to carry out educational and research activities in a necessary and sufficient manner
8-Administration and Financial Affairs	HEIs must carry out appropriate administration and management in accordance with written rules and regulations in order to exhibit their function smoothly and sufficiently. HEIs must also establish the appropriate organization for clerical work, as well as establish and manage a necessary and solid financial base in order to support, maintain and improve education and research
9- Self- study	HEIs must consider appropriate ways to conduct their self-study process
10- Accountability	HEIs must have internal mechanisms to reach accountability and to make internal quality improvements according to their accountability results.

4.4.4 JUAA accreditation process

JUAA accreditation process for all kinds of HEIs that it accredits consists of the same steps as follows;

Self-study by HEI

HEI applying for university accreditation must conduct a self-study on the evaluation items based on its standards. The results are compiled and submitted in a self-study report, basic institutional data and other materials corroborating the report.

Document analysis and site visit

After receiving materials such as the self-study report from each HEI, the JUAA conducts a document analysis and site visit to review the HEI comprehensively.

Presentation of HEI accreditation results (committee's draft)

The HEI committee judges conformity with its standards, and drafts the HEI result (committee draft), which contains strength advice or recommendations, and sends this result to each applicant HEI for opinions. If opinions regarding the HEI results (committee draft) are presented, the HEI accreditation committee considers the opinions and then finalizes the HEI result.

Notification of HEI accreditation results to HEI

After the Board of Councilors and Board of Trustees approve the HEI accreditation result, it is promptly sent to the applicant HEI and published. If an appeal is made by HEI denied accreditation or awarded accreditation with limitation, the appeal committee will review it.

Response by HEIs in relation to HEI accreditation

Since the HEI accreditation by the JUAA aims to continuously support HEI improvement and reform, HEI that have been given advice and recommendations are required to submit a progress report within 3 years regarding the measures that have been adopted in response.

After JUAA receives progress reports from HEI, the progress report review subcommittee reviews the reports. If progress is insufficient, HEI is asked to

submit another report. The state of improvement explained in the second report will be verified at the next HEI accreditation review.

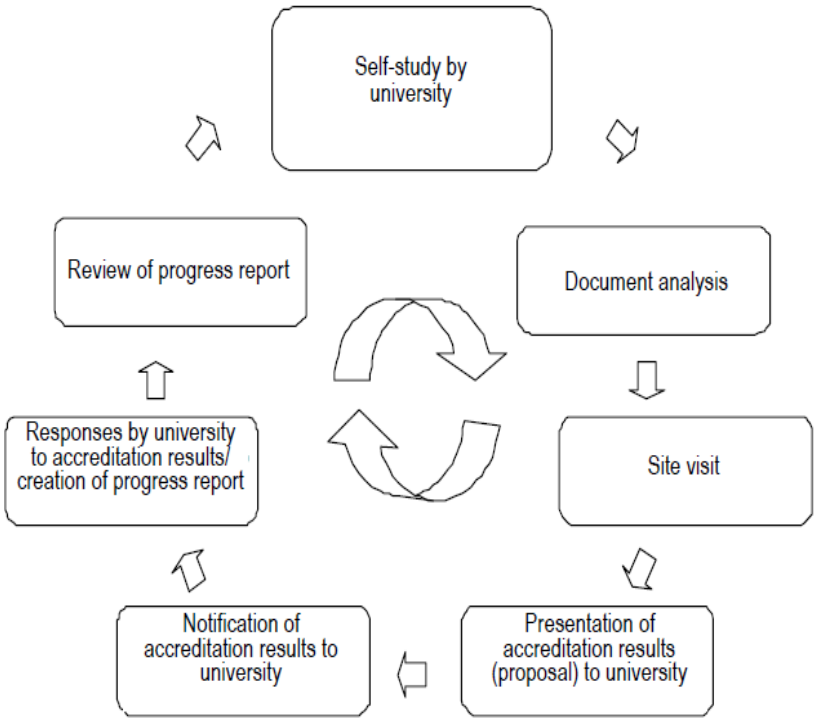

Figure 4-8: JUAA accreditation process

Source:

http://www.juaa.or.jp/en/images/accreditation/handbook_university.pdf

4.5 Case 2: The National Institute for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE)

4.5.1 Background of NIAD-UE

The NIAD-UE was established based on the Act of General Rules for Incorporated Administrative Agency and the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation Law.

In 1991, the University Council[99] made its recommendation that the system of self-review and self-evaluation of activities at each university and college should be introduced for the purpose of improving university education and research. As a result, the Ministry of Education started external or third-party review system by the establishing NIAD-UE. In 2001, the newly created NIAD-UE, comprising approximately 100 academic and non-academic staff recruited mainly from national university staffs and faculties (Yonezawa, 2007), started to evaluate the activities of national universities with the following mission and purpose:

- To evaluate the adherence of university education and research programs to set academic standards;
- To award degrees to individuals who have studies not as matriculated students of universities (Yamamoto, 2006, p. 4).

Table 4-6: A historical sketch of NIAD-UE

April 1986	The National Council for Educational Reform, in its report "The Second Report on Educational Reform, proposes to examine the possibility of establishing an organization which grants academic degrees through assessment of academic achievement for the promotion of lifelong education.
July 1989	The committees for graduate education and university evaluation of the Council for Higher Education reports the necessity to establish such an organization.
June 1990	The preparation committee for the organization is formed and its office is located at Graduate University for Advanced Studies.
February 1991	The Council for Higher Education publishes "A Report for Founding of the Organization which Grants Academic Degrees through Assessment". The preparation committee publishes "A Report on Agenda of the National Institution for Academic

[99] The University Council was an advisory organization to the Minister of Education.

	Degrees".
July 1991	The National institution for Academic Degrees is founded
March 1992	The first NIAD degrees are awarded
October 1998	The Council for Higher Education in its report "A Vision of Universities in the 21st Century" proposes to establish a third-part organization for university evaluation
April 1999	The preparatory office and the preparatory committee for founding a national organization for university evaluation are established in NIAD.
February 2000	The preparatory committee publishes " A Report on Founding a National Organization for University Education".
April 2000	NIAD is reorganized as a new entity charged with carrying out the evaluation of universities in addition to its degree-awarding functions.
March 2002	NIAD publishes the first university evaluation results for the trial university evaluation period.
May 2003	The English name is changed from National Institution for Academic Degrees (NIAD) to National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE).
January 2005	NIAD-UE is certified by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology as an evaluation and accreditation organization for universities, junior colleges, and law schools.
July 2005	NIAD-UE is certified by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology as an evaluation and accreditation organization for colleges of technology.

Source: NIAD-UE, 2011, p. 2.

4.5.2 NIAD-UE mission and objectives

The NIAD-UE's mission, in the domain of QA, is to contribute to the further development of Japanese HE. In order to raise the quality of HEIs (universities, junior colleges and colleges of technology) and interuniversity research institutes,

NIAD-UE conducts evaluation of teaching conditions and research activities at these institutions. To accomplish this objective the NIAD-UE is engaged in many activities[100]:

- Evaluation of education, research and other activities of universities and other institutions and provision of the evaluation results to the targeted universities and institutions and the general public;
- Researches on the evaluations of education, research and other activities of universities and other institutions, and researches on the assessments of the learning results necessary to award degrees;
- Collection, filing and dissemination of information concerning evaluations of education, research and other activities of universities and other institutions and information concerning various learning opportunities at universities; and
- Evaluations of education and research activities at national universities and inter-university research institutes, based on requests from the National University Corporation Evaluation Committee, held in the MEXT, and provision of the evaluation results to the committee, each university and inter-university research institute evaluated, and the general public.

4.5.3 NIAD-UE evaluation standards

NIAD-UE set up 11standards to evaluate the overall condition of universities, particularly focusing on their educational and research activities. Each standard is a companied by viewpoints[101] that assist the analysis of the university in the line with the standards. These standards as follows NIAD-UE, 2009b).

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[100] Retrieved from <http://www.niad.ac.jp/english/about/rofniad.htm>

[101] NIAD-UE defines viewpoints as "the reference points and example data listed under each evaluation standard for subject institutions to refer to when implementing self-assessment" (NIAD-UE, 2011, p. 84). NIAD-UE refers to these viewpoints when judging whether an institution's performance meets the standards or not. Universities may create their original viewpoints which may better suit their characteristics.

Standard	outline
1-Purpose of the university	The university should have an explicit institutional purpose based on its ethos of founding, its history, and its environment.
2-Education and research structure	The conditions of the university's basic units for education and research, its committees, and other systems necessary for the conduct of educational activities.
3- Academic staff and education supporting staff	Whether or not the allocation of academic staff is appropriate for fulfilling the university's purpose identified at the standard 1.
4- Student admission	The condition of the university's student acceptance. Does the university set a clear and publicly disclosed admission policy that fully reflects the university's educational goals? What student it seeks in terms of ability and aptitude in light of them? And what policy it is taken in selecting students.
5- Academic programs	This standard covers the three main programs; Undergraduate, graduate, and professional degree programs. These programs should not only meet the standards required of all universities as set in the Standards for the Establishment of universities, graduate schools, and professional graduate schools, but also embody the educational goals of the university.
6- Effectiveness of institutional performance	It is essential that the educational goals of the university are clear in what knowledge, skills, and etiquettes it intends its student to gain and cultivate through their educational activity. While it is important that the university's activities are

	successfully implemented as planned, it should be the students who primarily benefit from the outcomes.
7- Student support	The university should have clear goals established for student support, allocate and manage appropriate staff and facilities of both enough quality and quantity. University should be positive in seeking the needs of both general students and students with special support requirements.
8- Facilities	Whether the university equips its students and staff with necessary facilities required for the effective operation of education and research structure and the implementation of the academic programs. Lecture rooms, laboratories, and IT infrastructure are adequate in capacity and are equipped with the functions necessary to the discipline. In addition, a library should be managed and maintained, and its resources should be systematically collected, organized, and made available for practical use.
9- Internal quality assurance system	Does the university, in fulfilling its purpose as stated in standard 1, has adequate and effective systems in place or not to continuously maintain and enhance the quality of its education? For example, the focuses would be on the appropriate conduction of research and development of teaching materials and methods, faculty development, training programs and workshops to improve the teaching quality of education supporting staff and academic assistants.
10- Finance	The university should have a stable financial basis. If the university's income largely depends on tuition fees, it should have certain and concrete measures to secure a stable student enrolment. The university should

	preserve adequate capital assets to be able to respond appropriately to unexpected changes in external factors or emergencies. University should have, and should implement, clear plans and policies in order to manage, allocate its income in a way that reflects its purpose.
11- Management	This standard focuses on the institutional-level implementation of self-assessment on the university's activities and outcomes, the development of a monitoring system for making continuous improvements, and the public disclosure of the self-assessment results. The university is also responsible for providing the information on the condition and outcomes of education and research to the public, to facilitate the use of its outcomes.

4.5.4 NIAD-UE accreditation process

NIAD-UE conducts accreditation process according to the following methodology (NIAD-UE, 2009a):

- Universities conduct self-assessment and produce a report according to the guidelines for self-assessment. Self-assessment is based on the analysis, in the line with each of the NIAD-UE's 11 standards and accompanying viewpoints, of the conditions of education and research at institutional level or, where necessary, the level of faculty/academic unit of graduate school. In principle, the university is required to comment on all viewpoints in the report[102].
- NIAD-UE's process

[102] In addition to the designated viewpoints, the university may create original viewpoints where necessary in the light of its purpose. Also good practices and improvements that the university appraises itself of are also identified in the self-assessment report.

NIAD-UE's method of the evaluation is based on document analysis and site visit by the subcommittees. Document analysis examines the self-assessment report and submitted references as evidence, and the data NIAD-UE has collected, in according to the evaluation manual. Site visit is the stage to interview staff/students and inspect university's faculties, based on the guidelines for site visit, in order to scrutinize in greater depth and verify issues which could not be determined during the document analysis.

The final findings of the document analysis and site visits are summarized by the subcommittees. The main committee reviews these findings and creates a draft result[103].

- NIAD-UE judges whether the university as a whole meets each standard or not and gives the reasons for its judgment. Where appropriate, the conditions at unit level are also reviewed for reference. The standards are generally accompanied by a number of viewpoints, but judgments will not be led by the analysis of a single viewpoint.
- When it is judged satisfactory of the standards but improvements are desirable, or when good practices are identified, they are described in the final report.
- When the university is judged to meet all 11 standards, it will be given the status as a qualified institution. When any one of the standards is not being met, the university is judged as unsatisfactory. These results are made public.

[103] NIAD-UE notifies the draft result to the universities to provide them the opportunity to make remarks/objections prior to its finalization. If an objection is made against a failing judgment, an examining panel is set up under the main committee to address this issue. The main committee then finalizes the result.

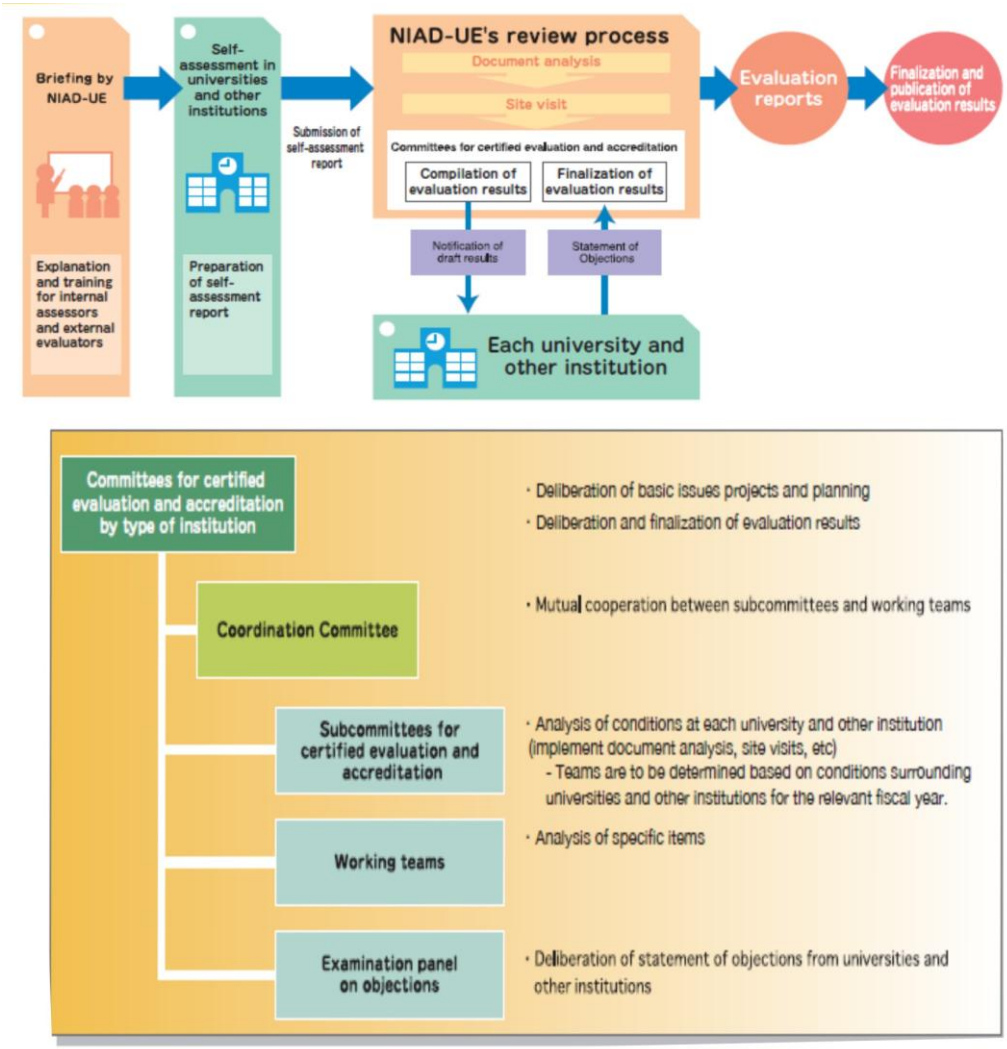

Figure 4-9: Outlines of NIAD-UE accreditation process

Source: NIAD-UE, 2011, p. 4.

This process of certified evaluation takes place once each academic year (Appendix: H). Universities may apply for the next evaluation and accreditation process after an interval of at least five academic years. However, this does not apply to universities that are judged failing the standards. NIAD-UE conducts supplementary review is for universities that judged to be failing in one or more of the standards. Universities may apply for this supplementary review within two years of the evaluation year. Then, when this standard(s) is judged to be qualified, this result will be combined with the satisfactory results of the other standards, and made public as meeting all standards at institutional level.

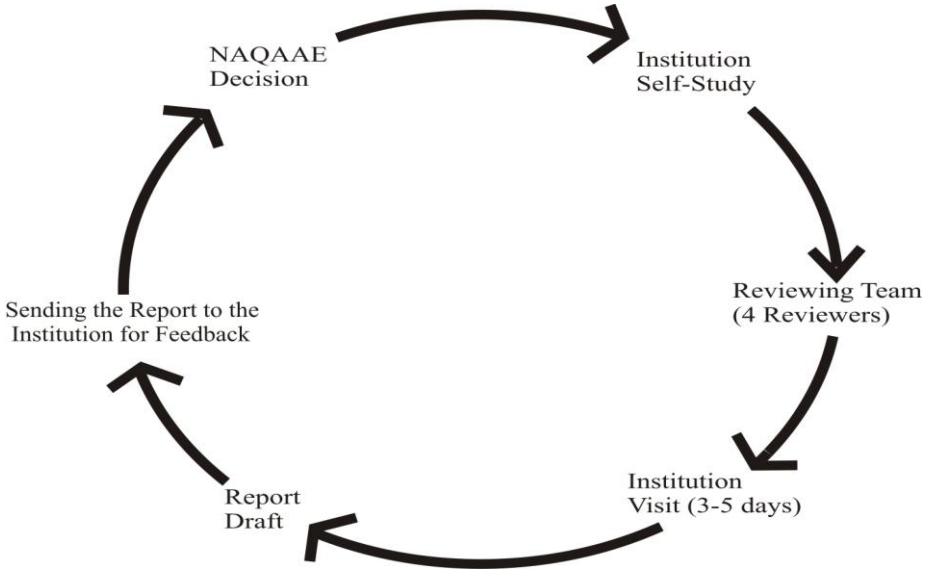

Figure 4-10: NIAD-UE accreditation process

4.6 Case 3: Japan Institution for Higher Education Evaluation (JIHEE)

4.6.1 Backgrounds of JIHEE

In July 2005, JIHEE was certified by the Minister of MEXT as an institution to evaluate universities. And by March 2010, JIHEE was certified to evaluate junior colleges and fashion business professional graduate schools. Moreover, lately, by the middle of 2012, it was organized as a public interest incorporated foundation.

The evaluations conducted by JIHEE are implemented in accordance with three main objectives for the purpose of contributing to the further development of the HEIs in Japan. These evaluation objectives are[104]; first, the evaluation of the

[104] Available at <www.jihee.or.jp>.

overall situation of HEIs, including educational and research activities, on the basis of *evaluation standards* developed by JIHEE taking into consideration the analysis of results of self-study/evaluation, to verify the self-study/evaluation and to support the HEI efforts to strengthen QA of their own initiative. Second, JIHEE seeks providing support that enables HEI to attain the backing of the general public through appropriate disclosure of their educational and research activities. Third, JIHEE assist and promote the autonomous development of educational and research activities on the strength of each institution's unique character and distinctive quality through evaluation that considers the institution's individuality and different features. JIHEE conducts its accreditation process depending on 9 basic fundamental policies as follows[105];

- Evaluation on the basis of evaluation standards provided by JIHEE
- Evaluation focused on the status of educational activities
- Evaluation based on consideration of the character and special features of each institution
- Evaluation that contributes the improvement and enhancement of each HEI
- Evaluation on the basis of self-study reports
- Evaluation based on peer reviews
- Qualitative assessment oriented evaluation
- Communication oriented evaluation
- Developing a highly transparent and reliable evaluation system

[105] Available at <www.jihee.or.jp/en/evaluation/univ_guidelines.html#sec00>

4.6.2 JIHEE evaluation standards

JIHEE considers its evaluation standers as a way that enables voluntary and positive self-evaluation of HEIs in accordance with their mission, goals and educational objectives. These standards propose a minimum of common, basic items to allow institutions to develop their own standards and points evaluated covering the scope set in their mission and goals.

JIHEE has four groups of standards which cover the whole educational, research and administrative activities at each HEIs. These four main groups of standards are;

- Standard 1. Mission, goals and educational objectives
- Standard 2. Learning and teaching
- Standard 3. Management, administration and finance
- Standard 4. Self-inspection/evaluation

Each standard set forth by JIHEE consists of the *points evaluated*, *perspectives for evaluation*, and *examples of evidence*.

4.6.3 The JIHEE accreditation process

JIHEE accreditation process is designed to analyze the results of self-inspection/evaluation of the overall educational and research activities of an institution and determine the level at which the institution as a whole satisfies the evaluation standards. JIHEE depends on distinctive steps for conducting the evaluation process (Appendix: K) as follows (JIHEE, 2008):

- **Hosting of explanatory meetings for describing the process of self-evaluation to institutions undergoing evaluation;**

JIHEE hosts explanatory meetings for the personnel in charge of self-evaluation for each of the institutions that apply for JIHEE evaluation to

explain the evaluation system, the method of evaluation and how to create self-evaluation reports.

- **Institutional self-evaluations;**

Institutions intending to undergo evaluation will implement a self-evaluation[106] and create a self-evaluation report based on the Guide to Filing Application for University Faculty Specific Certification and Evaluation provided separately by JIHEE.

- **JIHEE evaluation process;**

JIHEE conducts comprehensive evaluation of each standard described in the self-evaluation reports submitted by each institution, including the details of the perspectives of evaluation which is provided by the School Education Law and the University Establishment Standards, to determine whether the institution overall meets these evaluation standards and to make decisions recommending *accreditation*, *deferral* and *unsuitable* for accreditation in accordance with judgment standards provided separately.

Moreover, the JIHEE also provides a descriptive assessment of the state of affairs of the evaluated institution to satisfy the obligation of accountability to society. In addition to illustrating the strong points deserving special mention regarding the unique activities of evaluated institutions. The descriptive assessment of weak points and problems is including advice for reform and improvement.

- **Presenting Opinions:**

[106] In the process of self-evaluation, for each standard, the overall status of the educational activities of the institution shall be analyzed on the basis of each standard and perspective of evaluation.

JIHEE provides HEIs with two possible opportunities to present their opinions regarding its accreditation process. The first opportunity gives institutions the chance to respond to the draft of the inspection report submitted by the evaluation team. The second opportunity is provided prior to the finalization of evaluation results, when a second draft of the evaluation results of the evaluation team is provided to the evaluated institution. Then JIHEE role is to conduct a review of all submitted opinions (JIHEE, 2008a).

Each interviewee was asked his/her experience about the current accreditation policy making process and how this process relates and services the quality of Japanese HE. Interestingly, the responses were very similar between the participants. Therefore, we joined the analysis of the three cases to indicate the main features of Japanese accreditation policy.

4.7 Knowledge base of certified agencies in Japan

In this part of this chapter, we show how the three certified agencies, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE, build up their knowledge base. The three cases depend on their QA& accreditation knowledge base to conduct both of recognition process and accreditation policy process. Therefore, firstly, we will show the resources of the agencies to set up these knowledge bases depending on knowledge acquisition and sharing/transferring techniques. Then we will show what factors affecting accreditation policy process as a whole and especially about P/KT.

4.7.1 QA and accreditation knowledge acquisition

The three cases depend on several different sources in acquiring their knowledge as follows;

- **IQAS knowledge**

Self-study reports knowledge;

In general, for the three cases, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE, the self-study reports provide a foundation for peer or external-review (evaluation) team. In

addition to self-assessment feedback is really important not only for the certified evaluation organization but for the institution itself. For example, Mulvey (2010) states that Miyazaki Kokusai Daigaku has used feedback from its assessment review to being investigating clear delineations of level-and learner-appropriate learning outcomes for its classes.

> Of course, the primitive source of our accreditation knowledge is the institution self-study report itself. This report gives us a whole vision about the institution research and education activities and whole institution's equipments[107][108].
>
> Because JIHEE organization is consider the newest one and the specialized one for private universities, so, now, we depend basically on the institutions self-study reports to build our database. This database is our tool for any future modification in our policy[109].

- **Site visits reports K.**

The site visits reports are a widely used follow-up on the self-study reports; site visits and self-study reports are closely connected. Site visits includes observations by experts of a certified evaluation organization according to the site visits protocol. The three organizations use this tool in acquiring more knowledge related to HEIs.

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[107] Most interviewees state this. For more of them explained that; self-study monitoring and evaluation technique is considered one feature of Japanese QA history since it was initiated as a way which enable MEXT to evaluate the already established HEIs.

[108] In contrast with the three organizations experts' that self-study report is considered very important. In an interview with both Prof. Iiyoshi, T. & Prof. Otsuka, Y., Center for Promotion of Excellence in HE at Kyoto University, they concluded that this self-study evaluation reports in HEIs just routine work. They said for example, for academic staff the filling out his part of evaluation sheet does not need real work or in other words, does not require efficient and sufficient work in his lecture room.

[109] In an interview with Ito, T., JIHEE, Tokyo, on 27th July 2012.

- **Round table discussion with members;**

In a case of a membership structure organization such as JUAA and JIHEE, members, faculties or schools, have a role in providing the organization by their opinion. As an answer to my interview question to JUAA expert; does the membership structure, your organization follows for HEIs, have a role in modifying or reviewing your organization standards? He said;

> Of sure, the members pay fees for this membership. That is clearly means that they should have a role in making our working policy/ standards. But what really happens that, after we make a revision to our standard/s, we invite the members to a discussion, a round table discussion. As a result, they agree about it because they feel that they did a role in making such a policy. We here in JUAA consider our membership structure is a unique structure, because we started as a first Japanese independent organization by this membership structure[110].

- **Agency's surveys (questionnaires, interviews etc.)**

The agency surveys are typically produced in connection with an evaluation procedure.

> After its first cycle of certified accreditation, NIAD-UE conducted multi-choice, five-levels, written questionnaires at HEIs (universities and junior colleges) subjected to institutional certified evaluation and accreditation from 2005 to 2008. [111]

This questionnaire covered a wide scope, from the content of evaluation and accreditation to methods and outcomes after the evaluation and accreditation process Table (4-7a) and Table (4-7b).

[110] In an interview with Suzuki, N., JUAA, Tokyo, on 31st May 2012.

[111] In an interview with Prof Kurita, NIAD-UE, on 30 May 2012, Tokyo.

Table 4-7: questionnaire results[112] of institutions subjected to institutional certified evaluation and accreditation

a- About NIAD-UE's certified evaluation and accreditation report regarding activities of teaching and research, etc

Question	5	4	3	2	1
Adequate for assuring quality	19	74	7	0	0
Useful for making improvements	22	68	10	0	0
Helps gain and encourage understanding and support from society	16	57	24	3	0
Gives new perspectives	9	44	47	0	0

b- What kind of impact or effects do you think NIAD-UE's certified evaluation and accreditation results would have on activities of teaching and research

Question	5	4	3	2	1
Help gain an overall assessment	25	65	10	0	0
Help identify future issues	19	74	7	0	0
Raise awareness in the education and research activities of academic staff	7	51	40	1	0
Encourage improvements in the institution's overall management	7	66	25	1	0
Encourage improvements	13	69	16	1	0
Assure quality	15	59	26	0	0
Help gain understanding and support from students	4	29	63	3	0
Help gain widespread understanding and support from society	4	44	47	4	0

[112] The collected answers were 68 out of 70 evaluated institutions (97%). Figures represent the percentage of the total number of evaluated institutions that responded to the survey. 5: strongly agree˜

> In the beginning of establishing our JIHEE organization, actually the PUCs request this establishment because the unique nature of PUs in Japan. In our beginning we conduct surveys for all intending members. These surveys and interviews aimed at having a whole vision about what these institutions seek for in the QA way. Moreover, these surveys made us able to have our first edition of our standards[113].

- **Governmental releases/ performance indicators (PIs) (statistical data):**

Ewell (1999) distinguishes four kinds of statistical data measuring performance and used for policy making purposes:

1) *Hard statistics* consist of direct counts of things that can be relatively unambiguously enumerated. Examples include numbers of students and graduates, numbers of employees, age and replacement value of buildings or expenditures by line item. Data like these are routinely compiled by system administrators and government agencies on a census basis and few issues are generally associated with their basic validity and integrity. However, they are rarely used explicitly as performance measures, because they reflect little more than increase in scale;
2) *Ratios and indices based on hard statistics and measures:* the majority of current performance indicators consist of statistics calculated from two or more census-type measures. Common examples include faculty workload measures, cost-per-unit-of-output measures (such as, cost-per-credit), retention or completion rates or cost by institutional function. Although based on manipulations of hard statistics, numerous issues of definition and calculation are generally associated with such measures. Such definitional issues may profoundly affect the validity of the statistic and the appropriate uses to which it can be put.
3) *Second-order statistics* consist of measures of some underlying trait or condition that cannot be directly counted. Prominent examples in the realms of performance measures include student satisfaction, which must be measured by survey or interview or student learning outcomes, which

[113] In an interview with Takakura, S. JIHEE, on July 27th, 2012, Tokyo.

must be measured by an examination or assessment. The use of such measures requires inference as well as data collection and manipulation, adding an additional set of issues when such statistics are applied to resource allocation or other kinds of policies. … Virtually all such datasets are incomplete and require statistical interpretation to render them meaningful.

4) *Judgment calls* ... are not statistics at all but reflect the outcomes of often complex qualitative evaluation processes. Examples include whether or not the HEI has established an adequate institutional assessment process, the degree to which it has an acceptable strategic plan or affirmative-action process, whether it offers a high percentage of classes that employ active learning approaches or whether it operates an effective system of post-tenure review. The interpretation of such indicators is particularly important in order to obtain an appropriate judgment, since judgment calls are largely qualitative.

All the three agencies' experts confirmed that, they basically depend on the different governmental releases in building up their QA & accreditation knowledge base. For example, the yearly updated data related to student numbers, HEIs numbers and their classifications, different primitive statistics.

4.7.2 QA & accreditation knowledge sharing/ transferring

- **Networks knowledge**

As Stone (1999) notices that regionalization dynamics such as Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation may represent new for a for policy transfers intra- and extra-regionally. The majority of interviewees focus on the role of regional and global QA & accreditation networks as a main tool in acquiring and sharing their own knowledge and experiences with others from foreign countries.

JUAA has full-membership in the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE), and the Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN). Also, JUAA disclose JUAA's accreditation results to

the international community through INQAAHE and APQN networks[114]. Figure (4-11) shows the networking of Quality Assurance and Accreditation Agencies (QAAs) in Asia-Pacific Region.

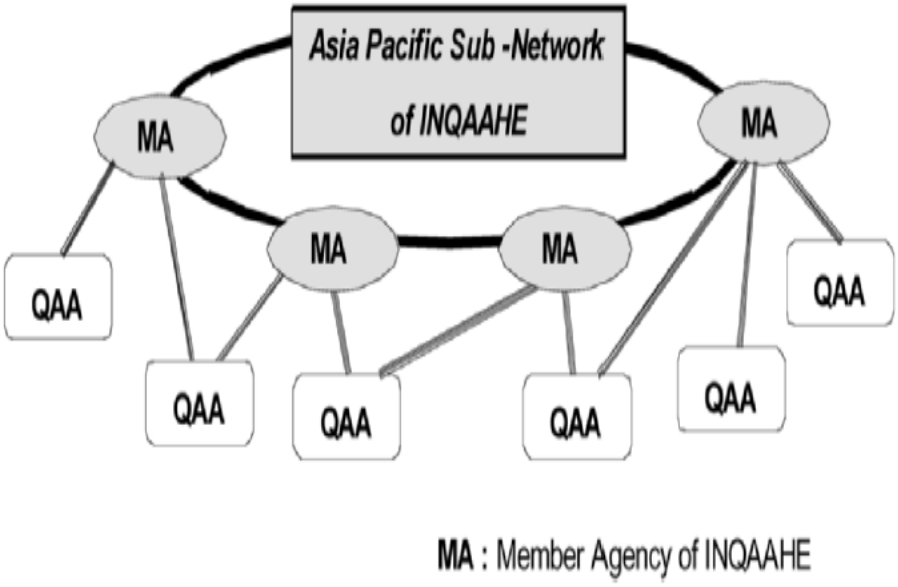

Figure 4-11: Networking QAAs in the Asia-Pacific region

Source: Hinaga (2004), p. 41.

> I am one of experts here in NIAD-UE who always joins INQAAHE[115]. Through its annually conferences, symposiums, workshops and even during meals, my discussion with experts worldwide gives me very deep understanding about many things related to how would national system of accreditation works in a global HE world[116].
>
> JIHEE, as a just new organization seeks developing itself fatly. One of its recent main aims is to join these global and regional networks specializing in QA and accreditation area[117].

[114] Retrieved from <www.juaa.or.jp>.

[115] International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE), homepage <http://www.inqaahe.org/index.php>.

[116] In an interview with Kawaguchi, A., previous president of NIAD-UE, on May 30, 2012.

[117] In an extended interview chatting with a JIHEE expert, on July 27th, 2012.

- **Organizing and sharing international conferences, seminars and workshops;**

In 2002, JUAA hosted an international symposium in cooperation with INQAAHE.JUAA and NIAD-UE experts confirmed joining QAA through their participation in its international conferences, seminars, and projects.

> Of course, we seek joining the specialized QA international conferences, workshops, meetings and seminars. But because our organization still so new, we do not have real participation in these global communities. We really need that. Our agency is having unique characteristics, since all its members are the private institutions. All over the world, the private institutions have this unique prestige, because it seek profit and the same time and with their increasing number beside the great number of students they have, around 80% of Japanese students enter private HE institutions. So, I think our role is so great for our society, to accredit this kind of institutions. Therefore, we of course will share and transfer our knowledge with same specialized communities through the international and global conferences, workshops and seminars[118].

- **Communities of Practice (CoP) k**

The three agencies share and transfer their knowledge through CoP. These CoP have many forms such as;

- The monthly meeting between experts of JUAA and NIAD-UE.
- The regular meetings between JUAA's evaluation sub-committee members and research sub-committee members.
- The membership of JUAA in the University Council with MEXT's policy makers, other stakeholders of HE and members of NIAD-UE and other agencies[119].

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[118] In an interview with Prof Ito, JIHEE, on 27th July, 2012, Tokyo. .

[119] In an interview with Prof Kawaguchi, NIAD-UE, on 30 May 2012, Tokyo.

- The regular meetings between JUAA's evaluation sub-committee members and research sub-committee members.

- **Global, regional and international projects k.;**

All of the interviewees confirmed that the recently policy of MEXT seeks develop internationalization of Japanese HES through engaging in both global and regional projects. As a part of this engagement, QA and accreditation policy is transferred among the participating countries.

> The recent policy of MEXT is to enforce its internationalization policy through the Asia-Pacific region. It is easy to notice that in the MEXT homepage. Previous president of NIAD-UE, Shinichi Hirano was one of the members of the Japan-China-Korea Committee for Promoting and Exchange and Cooperation among Universities[120], this meeting was held several times since 2009. This committee meeting aimed at discussing quality-assured exchanges.
>
> - Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN);
> - OECD's AHELO project;
>
> As a result of the first cycle of NIAD-UE's accreditation process, we found that there is a missing standard/s "*Students Learning Outcomes*". And according to our research department findings, this trend is really the most important area should be evaluated. Therefore we add it to our second-cycle accreditation process[121].

The OECD has invited a group of organizations with an interest in HE to join the AHELO Stakeholders Consultative Group[122]. It is a channel through which information about AHELO can be presented to, and discussed with these organizations and a forum where those stakeholders can expose and formulate ideas about how the study can be implemented. Members of this group include,

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[120] In an interview with Kurita, K., NIAD-UE and discussing regional networks effect. The meeting Available at < http://www.mext.go.jp/english/highered/1303550.htm >.

[121] In an interview with Kawaguchi, A., Previous president of NIAD-UE, on May 30, 2012.

[122] Available at <www.oecd.org>.

among others, international associations of QA agencies (Appendix: E), students or universities.

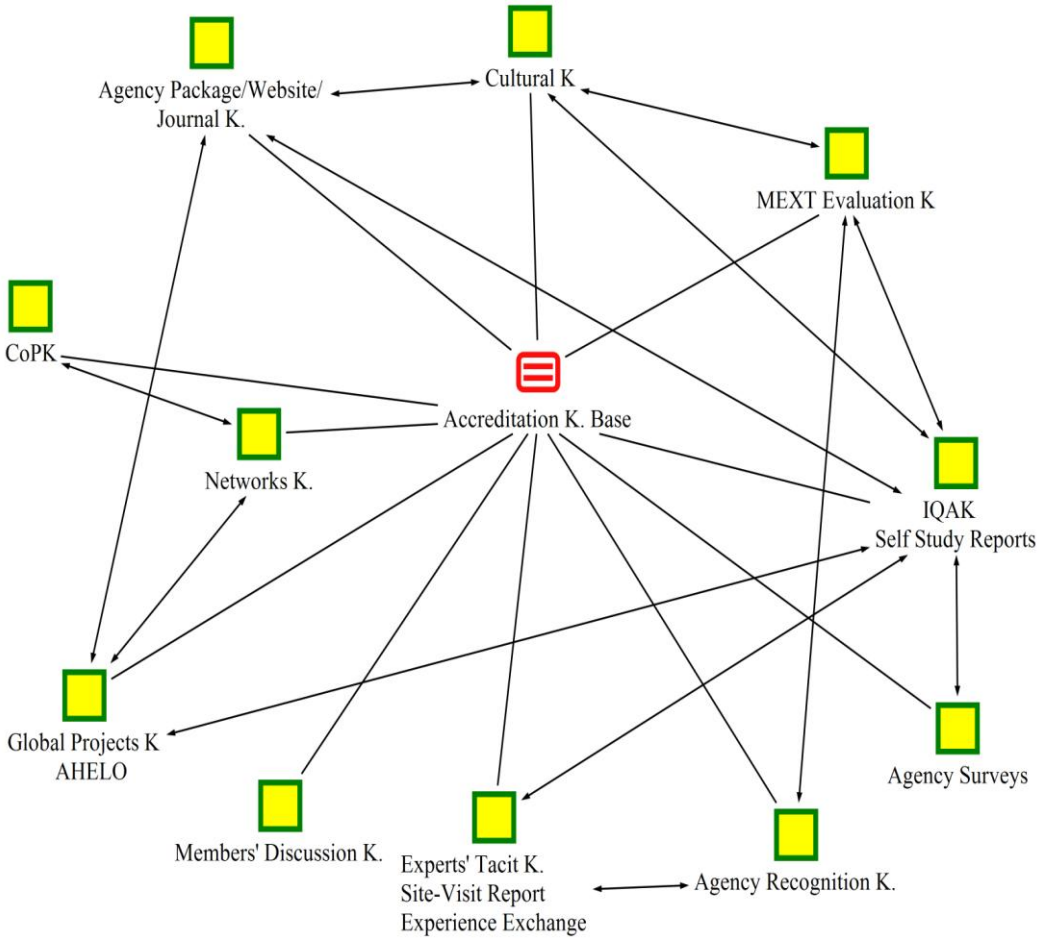

Figure 4-12: Accreditation knowledge base in Japan

4.8 Factors affecting QA & accreditation P/KT in Japan

Literature review, chapter 2, shows different factors affecting P/KT in general. In discussing these factors such as, characteristics of knowledge, organizational structure, organizational culture, trust, and so on with interviewees, they totally agree that these factors are affecting accreditation P/KT also. But the majorities confirmed that these factors are considered primitive factors that facing any kind of policy transferring. They confirmed that the accreditation policy has a unique nature.

> We are sure that our duty is really so difficult. Do you imagine how difficult it is? Our organization is responsible for the future of both Japanese HEIs and the future of their students. The matter is really complex, not easy[123].

It has the educational nature that is related to a huge numbers of HEIs and also a huge number of students. The majority confirmed that since the accrediting organization is not working separately and away of both HE system and the social system, this means that it's working in transferring the accreditation policy is also affecting by the nature of both; HE system and the social system.

Based on our analysis of collected data; we can say that there are four main groups of factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT in Japan as a whole; globalization factors, social system factors, factors related to the Japanese HES and factors related to the nature of accrediting agency nature. The first three main groups of factor are interlinked and complicated (as shown in Figure 4-13) Therefore, these factors affected QA and accreditation policy in a complicated manner and affected acquisition, sharing and transferring of this policy.

4.8.1 Factors related to globalization

The majorities of our Japanese interviewees emphasize the role of globalization in pushing up the transfer of accreditation policy. They all join the idea that world university reputation and the Japanese internationalization policy in both economy and HE are the main factors of globalization in accreditation policy. Moreover, they emphasize the leader role of Japan in the East-Asian countries is also another factor that push Japan for more benefit from European and American accreditation policy in enhancing its accreditation policy quality.

[123] In an interview with Mori, Rie, NIAD-UE, Tokyo.

4.8.2 Factors related to social system

Since the social system customers, politicians, parents are dissatisfied with the performance of HE, including the declining number of quality graduates. It is the customers, students and parents legislators, politicians, and taxpays who demand that HE eliminate waste and provides a quality product.

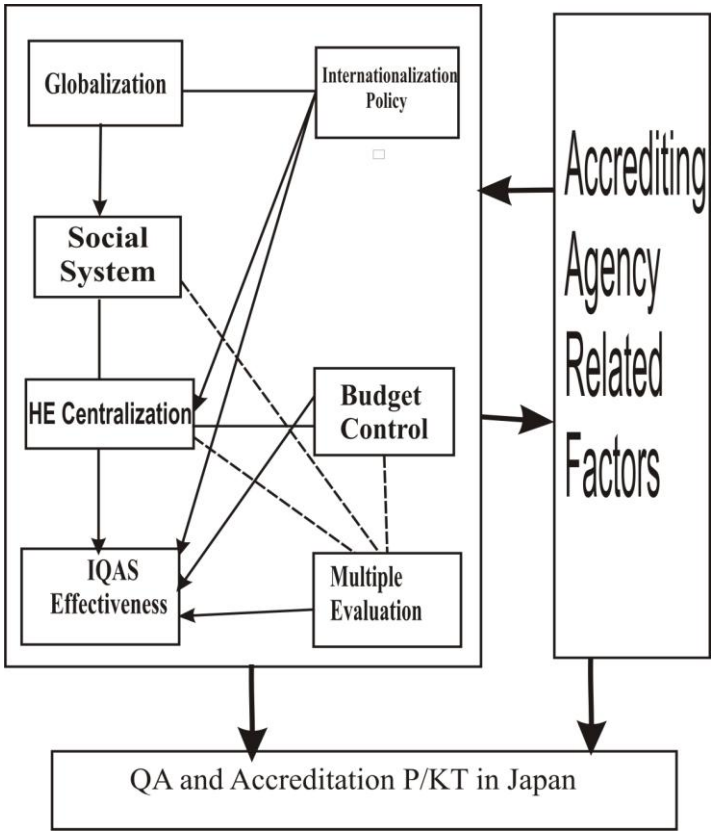

Figure 4-13: Factors affecting QA & accreditation P/KT

The HE's accountability refers to an obligation to their supporters, and to society at large, to provide assurance that they are pursuing their missions faithfully, using their resources honestly and responsibly and meeting legitimate expectations (Frazer, 1992).

The mechanism that HEIs use to show their accountability is the QA practice. QA in HE encourages quality education development assures society of the

standard of education provided by HE, establishes institutional accountability, and provides a transparent administration.

The majority of our interviewees of JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE believe that the right of social system to have this kind of accountability cannot be realized without their roles in accreditation process.

> Since about 80% of our HEIs are private. This means that student pay to have the educational service. Based on this our role is to provide the evidence to our social system that these HEIs are assured enough for more effective service. This wouldn't be happened without our depending on our accreditation process. Moreover, this pushes us more and more for developing our service to be matching with the international level[124].

4.8.3 Factors related to Japanese HES

- **HE centralization and the accreditation obligation**

Japanese literature shows that private HEIs financial resource allocation is partially based on the evaluation results by the third-party agencies and the national one depends greatly on the governmental funding (NIAD-UE, 2009d). What emphasizes that the NIAD-UE was reorganized in 2000 to manage this function (Sonuma, 2002, p. 122). This kind of MEXT centralization affects the IQAS. In one of our interview with some academics at Kyoto University, they point to:

> The HEI may be put some kind of easy achievable internal goals or plans that could ensure the effectiveness of its IQAS. Moreover, in some cases this approach of HEI self-study does not reflect the reality of HEI nature, only to looks more fit[125].

[124] In an interview with both, Toshihiro Ito, Sho Takakura, JIHEE, on July, 27th, 2012,Tokyo.

[125] In an interview with both Toru Iiyoshi and Yusaku Otsuka, Kyoto University, on April 26th, 2012, Kyoto.

This means that MEXT centralization affects by one way or another effectiveness of IQAS self-study. Since each accrediting agency considers the self-study report the main source of its knowledge base, thus, the system of accreditation inputs will be affected.

- **The multi-evaluation system**

Since establishing of NUCs and PUCs, each HEI is requested to conduct several evaluation processes. Some related to their corporations, other related to MEXT evaluation conducted by the NIAD-UE and the last related to the third-party evaluation process.

The majority of our interviewed academic staff emphasize that this is too much for institution to conduct. Moreover, they emphasized that, the staff need saving their time and efforts for more progress and development to themselves and to their institution.

- **The effectiveness of IQAS**

The three accrediting agencies, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE, build up their own standards to evaluate whether the IQAS is functioning effectively at each HEI. These standards are formulated to evaluate each stage of the plan-do-check-act cycle as follows:

In the planning stage (plan);

- Are polices and goals of HEI appropriately specified?
- Is there a concrete action plan to realize such policies and goals?
- Is there a method to execute the action plan?
- Do the constituent members thoroughly share understanding of matters in (1) to (3)?

In the action stage (do);

- Have concrete subordinate goals based on the plan been established?
- Has each of these subordinate goals been made clear at the organizational/individual level?
- Are steady activities being executed based on the subordinate goals?
- Are creative measures being implemented to motivate constituent members to achieve goals?

In the check/evaluation stage (check);

- Are checks and evaluations on the actual state of activities constantly being conducted?
- Are checks and evaluations being carried out based on objective data and materials?
- Are checks and evaluates being conducted from the perspective of making comparisons with policies/goals/plans?
- Are creative measures being taken to increase the reliability and validity of reviews and assessment?

In the adjustments/improvements stage (act);

- Are policies and goals being reexamined based on the results of checks/evaluations, and are the improvement measures necessary for plans and methods being established?
- Are appropriately organized analyses being conducted on whether the points for improvement meet the manner of setting policies and goals, and whether the cause of problems lies in the plans/methods or in the implementation of activities?
- Are problems areas and flaws that became clear based on reviews and assessments being dealt with appropriately?

- Have procedures and methods linked to reform and improvement of check/evaluations results been specified?

In the development of an administrative system that facilitate efforts to enhance quality system;

- Are awareness for the HEI's responsibility in enhancing its quality been raised?

- Does the administrative operation system aim at solid realization of educational goals?

- Does the administrative operation system clarify roles and responsibilities for QA?

- Does the administrative operation system support continuous quality enhancement?

The majorities of our interviewees confirmed that the ability of HEI to answer these questions clearly and positively is considered the degree of its IQAS effectiveness. The accrediting agencies consider that the higher degree of IQAS effectiveness of HEIs as a pushing motivator for more transferring accreditation policy.

4.8.4 Factors related to the nature of accreditation agencies

- **Agency's false independence**

Mori (2009) emphasizes that although the Japanese accreditation system was modeled after the US system in many aspects, it is designed to work under a greater extent of governmental monitoring. Under the law, a certified agency must report to the MEXT on the results of its evaluation of each university and must keep the Ministry informed of the changes made to its criteria and methodology of evaluation; the Ministry is authorized to request the agency to submit report with relevant documents on its evaluation activity, and when it finds impropriety or unlawfulness in the activities, it may direct the necessary improvements be made.

The Ministry holds the ultimate power to revoke its certifications in case of serious failures on the part of the agency (Hokama, 2005, p.4).

Our accrediting agencies', JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE, interviewees emphasized that their agencies are working under the control of MEXT supervision.

> Our agency is only a private and independent agency in the financial matters. But to adopt any new policy according to our internal recognition process, we not should but must have permission from MEXT.

- **The internal meta-accreditation only**

All the accrediting agencies in Japan have only the internal recognition process. Some interviewees have the same idea of external recognition process to help the accrediting agency getting more accuracy level in its policy.

- **Disconnection with customers, social system and between each others**

Although most of interviewees see that it is a critical to have a strong tie with customers, they emphasized that some have a weak connection with customers, students and parents, and some such as JIHEE does not have this kind of connection.

JUAA and NIAD-UE emphasized that they gain this kind of connection when our site peer reviewers have interview with students through their review schedule.

Although Japan has many accreditation agencies for HEIs, during my discussion with experts in the three cases, they emphasized that they do not have a share goal for working. The three cases start lately to have a kind of meeting every one month to share their views and discuss the future of accreditation policy in Japan.

- **The less awareness of customers and social system**

Most of Japanese interviewees emphasized that because the accreditation term still new for Japanese society, they do not feel the support of either customers or social system interties. The most believe that by the time they will gain this kind of support.

4.9 Summary

The main structure of current Japanese HE system was established in 1949 with upgrading of various types of higher and post secondary institutions into the university system. This system consists of various categories and types of institutions that are categorized according to funder into three main groups, national institutions, public institutions and private institutions.

Since the 1950s Japanese HE has been accustomed to assurance for the establishment of new universities and colleges through the Establishment-Approval System. Followed by the self-monitoring or self-assessment that required all HEIs must check the conditions of their own activities and strive to improve their quality according to these plans. Japanese QAAS came into force in 2004 that requires all universities in Japan to go on accreditation process one every seven years by one of the certified agencies. The IQAS of each HEI is build up on the PDCA cycle, and the role of the accrediting agency is to check the effectiveness of this cycle.

This chapter also covers the three cases; JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE through analyzing how they build up their knowledge base and what are factors affecting QA and accreditation policy in Japan.

Chapter 5: Comparative Case Analysis

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter we present the overall conclusions of this study. First, the major findings are summarized through answers to the research questions. We then discuss the theoretical implications of such findings and present the model of accreditation policy making process. Followed by some implications for practice are considered, where we provide some suggestions for accrediting agencies and policy makers. Finally, we conclude the study with suggestions for future research.

5.2 Fundamental similarities between Egypt and Japan in QA and accreditation policy

Egypt and Japan have many aspects in common in QA and accreditation policy of HE:

Responding to globalization

The two countries have initiated their key construction projects, which reflect that these two countries have made similar reactions when facing similar forces and problems against the background of globalization.

The convergence of the QA and accreditation knowledge

There are the same convergence of the QA and accreditation knowledge and general goal between the two countries. But due to different development status and governing patterns of HE, there are many differences in beneficiaries, accreditation procedures, funding scale of QA programs and performance assessment.

Ownership and planning for accreditation policy

Based on earlier case analysis discussions in chapters 3 and 4, we have seen that all the accreditation systems in our case studies are run by one or several external agencies. The initiative for setting up accreditation may come from the government or from one of its already-existing buffer agencies (as was the case in Egypt), or it may be an initiative of the HE community or of one of its representative bodies (as was the case in Japan).

We can say that, if the government has ownership of accreditation, it may be conceived as control-oriented and geared towards accountability. If the ownership is the affair of the HE sector, often through their collective bodies, then it is understood that the system has a higher chance of becoming more improvement-oriented.

In all our case studies, these agencies are in charge of planning and organizing the accreditation process and developing a methodological framework. In some systems, such as in Egypt, accreditation agency plays a substantive role in the accreditation procedure, such as taking part in the site visits or being in charge of training external experts. In all cases, however, there seems to be a clear distinction between the role of the agency and the external visiting team, which is a very important element for the credibility of the accreditation system.

Our case studies illustrate that accreditation agencies are semi-autonomous agencies in both Egypt and Japan. "Our organization, JIHEE, is dependent only in its financial management because it is under the control of MEXT policy"[126].

The obligatory accreditation status

Accreditation process is obligatory for all kinds of HEIs in both Egypt and Japan by the NAQAAE in Egypt and one of the certified agencies in Japan.

Accreditation methodology is similar to global methodology

The global methodology used for accreditation is amazingly similar among the four case studies. There is nearly always a phase of eligibility testing, which

[126] In an interview with JIHEE expert, Tokyo, on July 27th, 2012.

functions as a filter to admit institutions or programmes for accreditation according to a set of minimum quality criteria that are checked at this first stage. The eligibility is followed by a self-study and peer review phase that culminates both a decision over accreditation, and most commonly with preparation and sometimes publication of a qualitative report.

Evaluation based on pre-determined and transparent criteria

As has been defined in literature review chapter, accreditation process should base on predefined standards that refer to a core definition of quality of HE. These standards differ in both institutional and programme, and cover different areas in education, administration and research.

Standards for accreditation are usually accompanied by guidelines or manuals. Guidelines refer to the official documents that clarify the general standards as well as their sub-categories, and are considered to be statements of official quality standards. In our case studies, accreditation agencies are responsible for standards setting and for developing formalized documentation such as guides and manuals. These standards are usually developed in co-operation with other stakeholders. In Japan cases of JUAA and JIHEE, their members who have an annually membership have a great participation role in standards' making and modifying. In case of JIHEE, the first accreditation standards it settled were a translation to the UES that MEXT already follows in giving permission for a new institution or programme.

> In our first accreditation cycle, which is just finished this year, we depended basically on UES standards. From now on and with the beginning of the second accreditation cycle, we started to modify our standards based on our evaluation to the global standards and our first cycle accreditation evaluation[127].

[127] In an interview with Takakura, S. & Ito, T., JIHEE, on 2012/07/27 on Tokyo, Japan.

Accreditation process based on a combination of self-study and peer review

The institution or programme undergoing the accreditation process in both Egypt and Japan is asked to do self-study and report how well it meets the standards established or criteria identified by the agency. The level of detail and nature of the criteria used in self-evaluation process (quantitative or qualitative) may nevertheless vary from one accreditation system to the other.

In all cases the site visit is usually composed of an external visiting team but may also include professionals or members of other public administrations. The external visit is very important step in the accreditation process, since it is also an internationally accepted methodology for external QA and expected to provide the objectivity needed for an accreditation decision. The integrity of the members is extremely important and the composition itself can affect assessment. In many countries, the institution can express its opinion on the selected members. In Egypt and Japan, once site visit will be done, the site visit team makes arrangements with the institution and a suitable date for a visit is fixed. General procedure is to introduce the guidelines to the external visiting team via short training or by distributing the handbook for the assessment. Information during the on-site visit is mainly collected via interviews with the staff, student and management, and through an assessment of institution's various documents.

The aim of the site visit depends on the evaluated unit (institution, department, faculty or programme), but the aim is mainly to verify the truthfulness of the self-study evaluation as well as to take a close look at issues that may not have been emphasized by the institution that could be essential to quality assessment. The site visit is not based on external observation, but rather on discussions and interaction between the peers and people involved in all institutional activities. Therefore, it is clear that the site visit promotes the clarity of the self-evaluation process and the team has the opportunity to come to a different conclusion.

The result of accreditation

In the two countries accreditation implies by definition a yes/no decision. This is expected to operate as an incentive for institutions to strive for improved quality in order to enhance their status for next accreditation process.

The final decision

The final decision to grant or withhold accreditation is based mainly on the self-evaluation report, the external report, and on the institution's comments on the external evaluation.

Public disclosure of the outcome

In all our cases, there is an element of public disclosure of the outcome, although the extent of public disclosure varies. In Egypt, disclosure is of only the final outcome. While in Japan, the NIAD-UE makes the report available while the JUAA and JIHEE announce only the accreditation status.

Incentives linked to accreditation

The accreditation system is often connected either to some funding incentive or to other kinds of benefits to the institution, such as more institutional autonomy. In addition to financial benefits, all case studies indicate that accreditation enhance institutional status and is ever more important in a context in which institutions are becoming more market-sensitive and in which stakeholders are increasingly becoming customers.

QA & accreditation knowledge base

All our cases build up their accreditation knowledge base depending on domestic, international, regional and global sources of QA and accreditation knowledge. This knowledge base is the core stone for their reviewing, evaluation and recognition processes.

Some QA and accreditation knowledge acquisition, sharing and transferring sources

Our findings shows that both Egyptian and Japanese accrediting agencies have common sources of QA and accreditation knowledge which are used in building up each agency's knowledge base. These sources are; the IQAS

knowledge, the experts' tacit knowledge, sharing and managing global, regional or international conferences, workshops or seminars, the CoP knowledge, joining global projects, agency's surveys and networks knowledge.

Some factors affecting QA & accreditation P/KT

Study findings show that the same three main groups of factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT; factors related to social system, factors related to HE system and factors related to accrediting agency's nature. These factors differ in their details and in how they affect the acquisition and transferring of QA and accreditation knowledge. Some of these factors are working as pushing up factors for more transferring. Others are pushing down factors; hinder transferring more accreditation knowledge. The most common factors between Egypt and Japan are the factors related to accrediting agency's nature such as; the disconnection with customers and social system, the false independence and the monopoly recognition or meta-accreditation process.

The internal monopoly recognition or meta-accreditation process

In all cases, the meta-accreditation process is managed internally and only by the effort of each accrediting agency. This matter differs that American meta-accreditation that managed by external either governmental or private agencies such as CHEA or USDE.

5.3 Fundamental differences between Egypt and Japan in QA and accreditation policy

The initiated idea of accreditation process

The accreditation idea in Japan is not exported as our historical analysis shows in chapter four. The idea of accreditation or third-party evaluation is considered the natural evolution idea of self-evaluation process that was already exists before starting the third-evaluation mechanism. But the initiated idea of QA

and accreditation process in Egypt was a really new idea that was transferred with the HEEP policy.

Accreditation duration

The accreditation is always temporary and its duration varies in the two countries.

The multiple required evaluation vs. the weakness of evaluation

In Japan, valuation activities take so much time and energy from all who are involved in notably administrators, faculty members and universities' presidents[128]. However, in Egypt, majority of our interviewed academic staff blamed the weakness of the evaluation mechanisms. Most of them mentioned that these mechanisms basically are routinely written reports that do not basically linked with actually improving plans.

Direct-link with funding vs. no-link with funding

In Japan, the result of evaluation is used to curtail the budget if the university failure to achieve its mid-term goals. This might push university to protect itself by settle its objectives in specifying rather than in challenging objectives. In Egypt, till now there is to tie between the evaluation status and ministerial financial support for HEIs.

Some factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT

Findings of this study show that there are some differences between Egypt and Japan in the pushing up and pulling down the QA and accreditation P/KT. These differences in the factors related to social system and HE system due to the national differences between the two countries. For example, most Egyptian HEIs suffer financial problems which hinder the effective implementation of QA plans therefore it these problems are considered pulling down factors. Another example

[128] For each university, preparing mid-term goals and plans, conducting self-monitoring and self-evaluation every year and again every six years, and for national university, the extra tasks after the corporatizations after 2004.

is the QA and accreditation culture resistibility; our findings show that one of the most problems facing QA policy in Egypt. This resistibility comes from the fact that most aged-academic staff who is responsible for management and leadership positions does not believe in the QA culture and how can this culture improve Egyptian HE future. As a result, they do not work effectively and their institutions' IQASs are not working effectively.

Globalization effect

Depending on our findings, globalization has different effect on QA and accreditation policy in the two countries. Although globalization has the same affecting pulling up factor for more QA and accreditation P/KT in the both countries, the details of this effect are different.

In Egypt, the implementation of the HEEP was one of the globalization effects in Egyptian HE. This project is considered the real beginning f the QA policy in Egypt, followed by the translation of American and British experience/ standards in establishing NAQAAE. So we can say that in the beginning of QA policy in Egypt, globalization, WB loan, affected directly the Egyptian QA policy through the translation theory. In Japan, the situation is different, globalization push Japan for more international and regional communities for more QA and accreditation policy improving.

Chapter 6: Conclusions

Dietrich Goldschmidt draws a conclusion that each country should take measures and solve problems in accordance with its own national conditions and circumstances even in the similar global context (Van de Graaff et al., 1978, p. 184).

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter we present the overall conclusions of this study. First, the major findings are summarized through answers to the subsidiary research questions (SRQs), and the major research questions (MRQ). Then, implications of such findings are discussed from the viewpoints of theory and practice. Theoretically, this chapter presents a theoretical model of accreditation policy that discusses our theoretical implications of such findings. Some implications for practice are considered, where we provide some suggestions for policy makers. The fourth section of this chapter explores some limitations of the present study, followed by the final section which provides directions for future research.

6.2 Answers to the research questions

The major findings from previous chapters are summarized as follows, through answers to each of the subsidiary research questions and a synthesis in the answer to the major research question.

SRQ1: How do accrediting agencies acquire, share and transfer knowledge of QA and accreditation policy in Egypt and Japan?

The analyses done in the chapters three and four show that all the accrediting agencies in Egypt and Japan build up their QA and accreditation knowledge base based on many different mechanisms of knowledge acquisition, sharing and transferring.

We analyzed the collected data from the Egyptian NAQAAE case and the Japanese three cases of agencies, JUAA, NIAD-UE, and JIHEE. We found common QA and accreditation knowledge resources between Egyptian and Japanese accrediting agencies. By order of importance these are, HE culture knowledge IQAS knowledge, agencies surveys, network knowledge, communities of practice knowledge, governmental releases, the agency's knowledge package, sharing and organizing conferences, workshops and seminars and global and regional or international projects of QA.

When we analyzed in depth the four accrediting agencies, we found some differences on these resources. In Egypt, the NAQAAE depends mainly on its complain site, also the Egyptian International Professor Program and American/British consultants.

SRQ2: What are factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT in Egypt and Japan?

The data analyses show that the accreditation knowledge acquired, shared and transferred by accrediting agencies in Egypt and Japan are affected by three main factors (Figure 6-1) that differ in the details of these factors. These three factors are; social system factors, HE system and accrediting agency's nature.

In Egypt and Japan, the factors related to both social system and HE system are complicated and interrelated factors. Our data analysis shows that these two sets of factors cannot be separated.

In Egypt these factors affecting acquisition, sharing and transferring QA and accreditation Knowledge, that related to social system and HE system, are (Figure 6-1); the globalization, HE centralization, financial problems, HEEP loan agreement, IQAS effectiveness, the absence of evaluation systems and QA and accreditation culture resistibility. The factors related to the accrediting agency's nature are; the false independence, the monopoly internal agency's recognition process, the customers' disconnections and complain of using not experience experts.

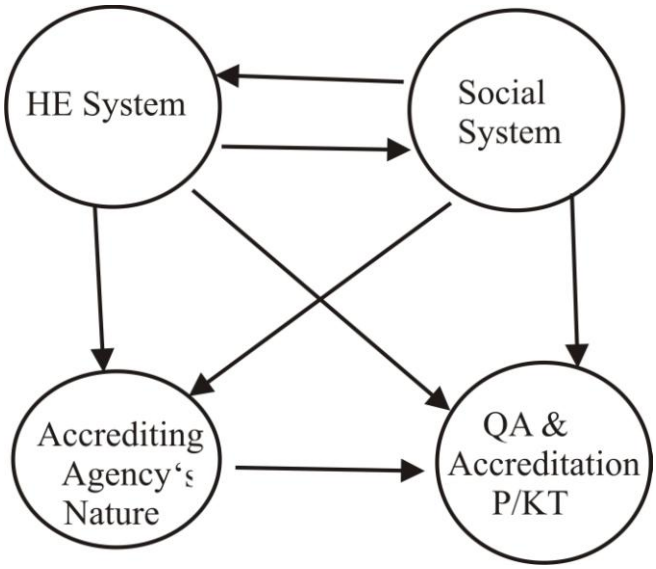

Figure 6-1: Factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT

In Japan, the factors affecting emulating, sharing and transferring QA and accreditation knowledge, that related to social system and HE system are; globalization, HE centralization, the multi-evaluation system and effectiveness of IQAS. The factors related to accrediting agencies nature are; the disconnection with social system and customers, the poor connection with other domestic accrediting agencies, the false independence and the monopoly internal agency's recognition process.

SRQ3: What are similarities and differences between Egypt and Japan in accreditation policy?

Based on our analyzed data and our findings showed in chapter five, although there are a lot of similarities between Egypt and Japan in the accreditation policy process in general and in the perspective of accreditation P/KT in particular, there are also some aspects of difference between the two countries. These fundamental similarities and differences are shown in details in chapter 5.

The similarities between Egypt and Japan are:

- Responding to globalization;
- The convergence of the QA & accreditation knowledge;
- Ownership and planning for accreditation policy;
- The obligatory accreditation status;
- Accreditation methodology is similar to global methodology;
- Evaluation based on pre-determined and transparent criteria;
- Accreditation process based on a combination of self-study and peer review;
- The result of accreditation;
- The final decision;
- Public disclosure of the outcome;
- Incentives linked to accreditation QA and accreditation knowledge base;
- Some QA and accreditation knowledge emulating, sharing and transferring mechanisms;
- Some factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT;
- The internal monopoly recognition or meta-accreditation process.

The fundamental differences between Egypt and Japan are:

- The initiated idea of accreditation process;
- Accreditation duration;
- The multiple required evaluation vs. the weakness of evaluation;
- Direct-link with funding vs. no link with funding;

- Some factors affecting QA and accreditation P/KT;
- Globalization effect.

MRQ: How is accreditation policy process being made in Egypt and Japan?

Policy process literature suggests that there is some sort of system that translates policy ideas into actual policies that are implemented and have positive effects. Easton (1979) argues that public policy process is the product of a system that is influenced by and influences the environment/scenario in which it operates. In general literature identifies two main stages of policy process; the agenda setting & formulation and implementation stage.

For accreditation policy process, the system that translate accreditation policy ideas into actual policies is consists for three main actors; accrediting agency, ministry of HE and HEI.

The accrediting agency in both Egypt and Japan is the actor which is responsible for agenda setting and formulation of the accreditation policy. This process is under the control of ministry of HE. The implementation of the formulated policy conducts in HEI. At the same time, this policy is a case to be shared and transferred by other interested global, regional or international accrediting agencies. These two main stages are decomposing into phases. All of these phases are working in form of cycle.

During the process of agenda setting and formulation, the accrediting agency acquires, shares and transfers accreditation policy through global, regional and international mechanisms. The acquired and transferred accreditation knowledge is codified to the agency knowledge base. The feedback of the implementation stage at HEI that accrediting agency receive is considered inputs for the following accreditation policy process.

6.3 Theoretical implications

The literature review chapter and the major findings of the study suggest that the accreditation policy process in both Egypt and Japan is a multiple phase's process which depends basically on the QA and accreditation P/KT mechanisms. The responsible for this process is the accrediting agency under the control of Ministry of HE in each country.

Although some attempts have been done to explore the role of KT in the public policy field, there is no model in this research field that presents how this happens during the accreditation policy process of HE. The recent study tries to respond to that void in the literature by proposing the EEII model in Figure 6-2. We suggest that the accreditation policy process consists of four phases that form both the formulation and the implementation process of accreditation policy. These phases are reiterating in a spiral way within the QA and accreditation KT process.

The accreditation policy process based on KT perspective is composed of: emulation, evaluation, integration and internalization phases. The first three phases, which undergo in each accrediting agency, are based on each accrediting agency knowledge base.

6.3.1 Emulation phase

Emulation term is defined as "an effort or desire to equal or excel others" and has synonyms such as "imitation" and competition[129]. In his book provocatively titled "Copycats: How Smart Companies Use Imitation to Gain a Strategic Edge," Shenkar (2010) argued how imitators can save on various investment costs first movers must make and avoid costly errors by observing and learning from others' trials. In developmental psychology, Tomasello (1990) refers that emulation involves recognition and reproduction of the goal of the observed behavior, as

[129] Dictionary.com.<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/emulation>.

well as the specific actions that brought about that goal (p 275). Want & Harris (2002) emphasize that learning by emulation would require more effort and might give flexibility in terms of knowledge acquisition. At the same time, emulation might provide results only over a considerable period of time.

Therefore, we use the term "emulation" to emphasize that accrediting agencies entering the field of QA and accreditation of HEIs for the long term tend to learn by emulation, but might initially imitate the incumbents to help them build baseline -knowledge base- competence and get into the race. Once these agencies are up and running it would start building capabilities that would help them develop their own knowledge base. Each accrediting agency, in Egypt or Japan, builds up its accreditation knowledge base that represents the sum of knowledge that each agency possesses. That stock of knowledge is essential not only for starting the periodical evaluation process in Egypt or the evaluation of each accreditation cycle in Japan, but also in sharing and transferring the QA and accreditation knowledge.

The start of the accreditation policy process requires the emulation of foreign QA and accreditation knowledge throughout a kind of comparison between those foreign policies and the domestic policy.

The knowledge base sources vary that cover all kind of knowledge that each agency acquired, shared and transferred through different global, regional, and international ways of contacts. In addition to the feedback of the previous accreditation cycle which is considered another input for this knowledge base. This means that the acquired global, regional or international QA and accreditation knowledge transferred to the local/ institutional level through the evaluation phase. Because, of sure some of the acquired knowledge will be inputs for making or modifying the recent policy.

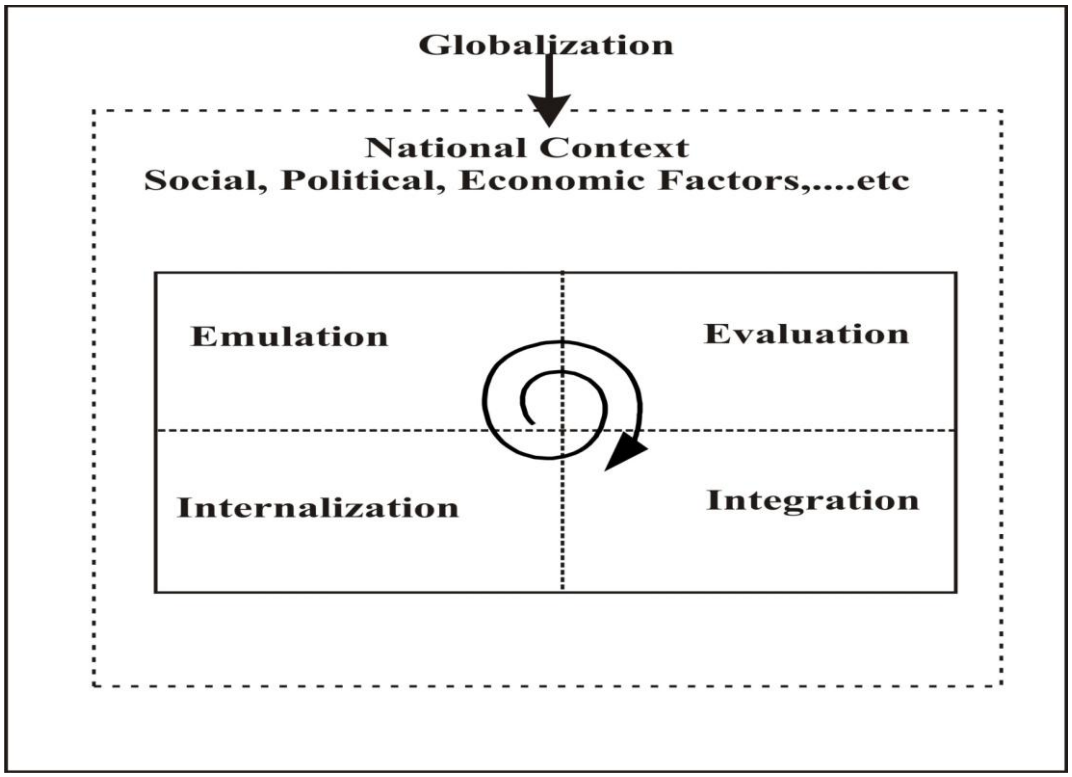

Figure 6-2: EEII model of accreditation policy process

As a result of the emulation phase, each accrediting agency can gain the following benefits. First, to play an enhanced role in providing information on performance to enhance accountability and control by results of its policy, as an acquired foreign experience. Second, each agency can figure out its recent policy or standards defects. Third, each accrediting agency can now seek policy learning and improvement of these defects through the following sequencing phases.

6.3.2 Evaluation phase

The second phase of the accreditation policy process is the knowledge evaluation phase. The analysis of the whole case studies shows that each agency depends on the knowledge evaluation phase as an evidence-base for its policy making process. Thus each accrediting agency is seeking two main forms of evidence that required in the policy making process to improving accrediting agency's effectiveness. The first is evidence to promote *the internal accountability* in terms of results-evidence that each agency is working effectively.

The second is evidence to promote *improvement* through more effective policies and standards- evidence, through the recognition phase, of how well such policies and standards work in future circumstances. Matching with the view the evaluation evidence of what works is to be provided through substantially increased research and evaluation programs in government departments and greater use of pilot projects to test out new approaches (Martin & Sanderson, 1999).

In Egypt and Japan, the evaluation phase is when the accrediting agency discovers a defect of its recent policy or in any of its standards, as a result of the emulation phase. The accrediting agency's Board of Directors forms the evaluation committee of peer reviewers according to the specialized area of standards.

. In Egypt, the NAQAAE's Specifications and Quality Standard Setting Department is the responsible for reviewing and evaluating the recent NAQAAE policy and standards with support of the research department. In Japan, each accrediting agency has an evaluation department that is responsible for conducting that evaluation by support of research department.

Our case analysis explores that each accrediting agency depends on one or more of pilot projects in evaluating and testing its recent policy. These piloting projects cover academic interviews, conducting questioners in addition to depending on the others different knowledge base resources.

In Egypt and Japan, the evaluation committees are composed of members from among those who are specialized and experienced in studying and setting these standards. These committees involve representatives of the concerned ministry or agency, stakeholders and beneficiaries. Among stakeholders and beneficiaries are; undergraduate students and graduate students. The evaluation committee definite role is to evaluate the accrediting agency's recent policy, stand up on the defect sides, and find solutions and to suggest an alternative policy or standards instead of the defected ones. The evaluation committee depends mainly on three main sources of help; first, the emulation phase results which figures out how other polices are working and how can the domestic policy benefits from it;

second, agency's knowledge base as a main source of accreditation knowledge and third, the research department support of each agency. In addition to these sources of knowledge, the recognition committee members depend also on their tacit knowledge and experience in this field.

The Information Department at NAQAAE case or the Research Department at JUAA, NIAD-UE or JIHEE is considered a partner in the evaluation process with the evaluation committee. This department provides the evaluation committee with research reports of foreign experiences related to the area of policy or standards defects. These research reports are reviewed, discussed, approved or rejected from the evaluation committee according to their own view. The committee utilizes all these sources of QA and accreditation knowledge to reach its own suggested policy or standard/s.

Since P/KT is not an independent process but is a part of the wider policy process and shaped by such a process (Wolman, 1992, p. 44). Moreover, since each evaluation committee depends on the coded QA and accreditation knowledge for each agency, this is means that the transfer of global, regional and international QA and accreditation knowledge is being occurred in this phase. At the end of this phase, the evaluation committee submits its final suggestions or modifications in a report to the accrediting agency's Board of Director.

6.3.3 Integration phase

In the knowledge integration phase, we propose that each accrediting agency, through its Board of Directors, finalizes the new proposed and modified accreditation policy or standards through integrating the new proposed policy and the recent policy.

In Japan, before each agency, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE, can issues its new suggested policy or standards, it contacts the MEXT and gets permission for issuing the new proposed policy. In Egypt, the NAQAAE reports the suggested modified policy or standards to both the MoHE and the Prime Minister and cannot issue its final issue unless it gets the permission from both.

After getting this permission, each accrediting agency issues its new proposed policy. As a result, first, this new policy is ready to be implemented or tested through the next phase, the internalization phase. Second, the agency now is able to share its new policy with others at global, regional or international level through its QA and accreditation sharing/transferring mechanisms. Moreover, its new proposed policy or standards is/are considered available for others to be shared and transferred too. Hence, the EEII model suggests that the local accreditation policy is ready from now to be implemented at institutional level and shared and transferred at global, regional or international level of accreditation policy.

6.3.4 Internalization phase

This phase is the last one in our suggested EEII model. We use the term Internalization to emphasize that the new issued policy is accepted by the society and becomes a feature of its HES. In this phase the new issue of accreditation policy is implemented, in each HEI seeking accreditation certificate, to ensure that the accreditation mechanism is functioning effectively, efficiently and equitably.

The Internalization phase contains of the same steps of accreditation process in both Egypt and Japan;

- HEI requests accreditation certificate from one of accrediting agencies;
- HEI conducts self-study and submit its report to the accrediting agency;
- Accrediting agency conducts document analysis for self-study report;
- The peer review and site visit to HEI;
- Accrediting agency's final decision.

The internalization phase is considered the real testing of the new accreditation policy at the real field. This means that the accreditation policy process cycle has already finished. As a result of this phase, each accrediting agency acquires new knowledge not only through the document analysis of the submitted self-study reports, but also through the tacit knowledge of the site reviewers that has been acquired during site visits and staff/student/administration staff interviews. These all kinds of acquired knowledge are considered new inputs to be coded and added to each accrediting agency knowledge base.

The link between national context and knowledge has already been explored in many hundreds of articles and books but only a little looked at the role of culture in KT (Thiessen, Hendriks, & Essers, 2007). We use the term ”national context” that consists of different factors such as social culture factor, political factor, economic factor etc. to emphasize that the differences between our cases of Egypt and Japan ,in building up their own QA and accreditation policy, depend on these main factors.

The findings show that the Egyptian and Japanese context, which is highly affected by globalization factors, influenced the policy making of the four cases. First, social factor, the more maturation of each country's by the role of HE in its global competition, the more pushing of accrediting agencies' in adopting more globally competitive policy of QA of its HE sector. Second, economic factor of the QA and accreditation policy push or hinder the accrediting agency in making its policy. For example, the main source of pushing Egypt to have its own policy of assuring and accrediting HEIs was the WB main loan. Third, the political factor, to emphasize that the changing in the political considerations and rules of HE ministry in each country always followed by changing in accrediting agencies' QA and accreditation policy in the two countries.

6.4 Practical implications

6.4.1 Implications for policy makers

The independence of the accreditation organization in issuing its own standards is crucial. Our case studies demonstrate that it has become good practice for accreditation agencies to have sufficient level of autonomy both from governmental bureaucracy and the academic community. In all our case studies, the agencies operate as a buffer between the government and the HE sphere. In an interview with one of JIHEE experts, he stated that:

> Unfortunately, it is really not good to say that yes we are an independent organization but this is only from the financial aspect because if we are under the control of MEXT. For example, if we need to improve any item of our accreditation policy, I mean any

standard, we should, no not should, we must take agreement permission from MEXT first[130].

In an interview with one of the Egyptian academics,

The need for both governmental meta-accreditation processes. Accrediting agencies in both Egypt and Japan needs a kind of governmental evaluation for its policy to match with the country's future planned policy.

6.4.2 Implications for accrediting agencies

The setting of standards, standards now related to inputs concerns, but accreditation systems are also progressively trying to embrace the output standards to a greater extent. This is often done with difficulty due to measurement problems. Therefore, the setting of standards and clear guidelines for assessment are crucial for a well-operating and transparent accreditation system[131].

In Egypt, the accreditation standards should be revised and to be well balanced between the seeking national approach and the borrowed approaches for accreditation[132].

The choice and training of external peers should be conducted with care given their important role in applying the quality model. It is important for each accrediting agency in Egypt and Japan to establish a database of experts. Such a database should include those who were taking part in a peer visit and provide to

[130] In an interview with JIHEE experts, Tokyo.

[131] In Japan, NIAD-UE, starts this year in its second accreditation cycle, considers and added learning output as one of its main accreditation components.

[132] This is depends on, on one hand, the 1998 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education recommended the development of comparable and internationally recognized quality standards in order to push the convergence process forward. On the other hand, the Bologna Declaration of 1999 states that the approach of individual nations to QA must be respected and that any dimension in accreditation arrangements must rest on national systems.

be adequate assessors. It is also important to provide peers with an external site visit manual in order to conduct visits and data collection in a transparent way.

*Accreditation must be a voluntary proces*s. Only when the institution is motivated and committed change can accreditation operate as a development tool for HE. Strong academic commitment is needed for accreditation to become an instrument for quality enhancement. Egypt case shows that only a small proportion of institutions or programmes manage to become accredited.

Turning from monopoly meta-accreditation to the multiply meta-accreditation. In Egypt and Japan, the accrediting agencies should turning their recognition or meta-accreditation process from the internal one only, which depends mainly on the agency's internal evaluation, to multiple meta-accreditation process that may contain governmental and private recognition of the accrediting agencies as the American accreditation model.

6.5 Research limitations

Although we believe that this research has filled an important gap in the research of both HE and P/K areas. This research has some limitations. First, this study focused only on three accrediting agencies in Japan, JUAA, NIAD-UE and JIHEE.

Because of the time limitation, we conducted only 29 interviews with both accrediting agencies experts and academics. We think it would be better if we boarded the number of participants. Also, we omitted some extended telephone and e-mails interviews.

6.6 Suggestions for future research

Interviewees in this research voiced many conceptions, interpretations and various notions about QA and accreditation policy in Egypt and Japan. This is not a surprising finding that QA of HE has a complex nature. Moreover, a large majority of interviewees expressed their desire in studying the IQAS at the Institutional level.

Therefore, in order to understand quality and accreditation process additional research is needed. We suggest a list of proposed research which developed from the interviewees:

First, research on the IQAS in both Egypt and Japan, since our research findings shows that the effectiveness of the IQAS is one of the most cited factors which affects the transfer of QA and accreditation policy.

Second, we suggest conducting public opinion surveys about quality in HE to show how public look to the recent quality trend in HE in both countries. Besides, shows what the public is looking for HE quality in the globalized world.

Third, we suggest conducting a comparative study between other countries which differ in the governmental control. For example, we suppose between one of these two countries, Egypt and Japan, and USA in the context of accreditation policy transfer.

Moreover, it is important to emphasize that our research interviews offer only one set of views of the QA and accreditation policy. Other positional perspectives are likely to differ and triangulate with other views. For example, different perspectives would include those from political, bureaucratic, and union policy actors at the national level, as well as views from more global and more local levels in the policy networks.

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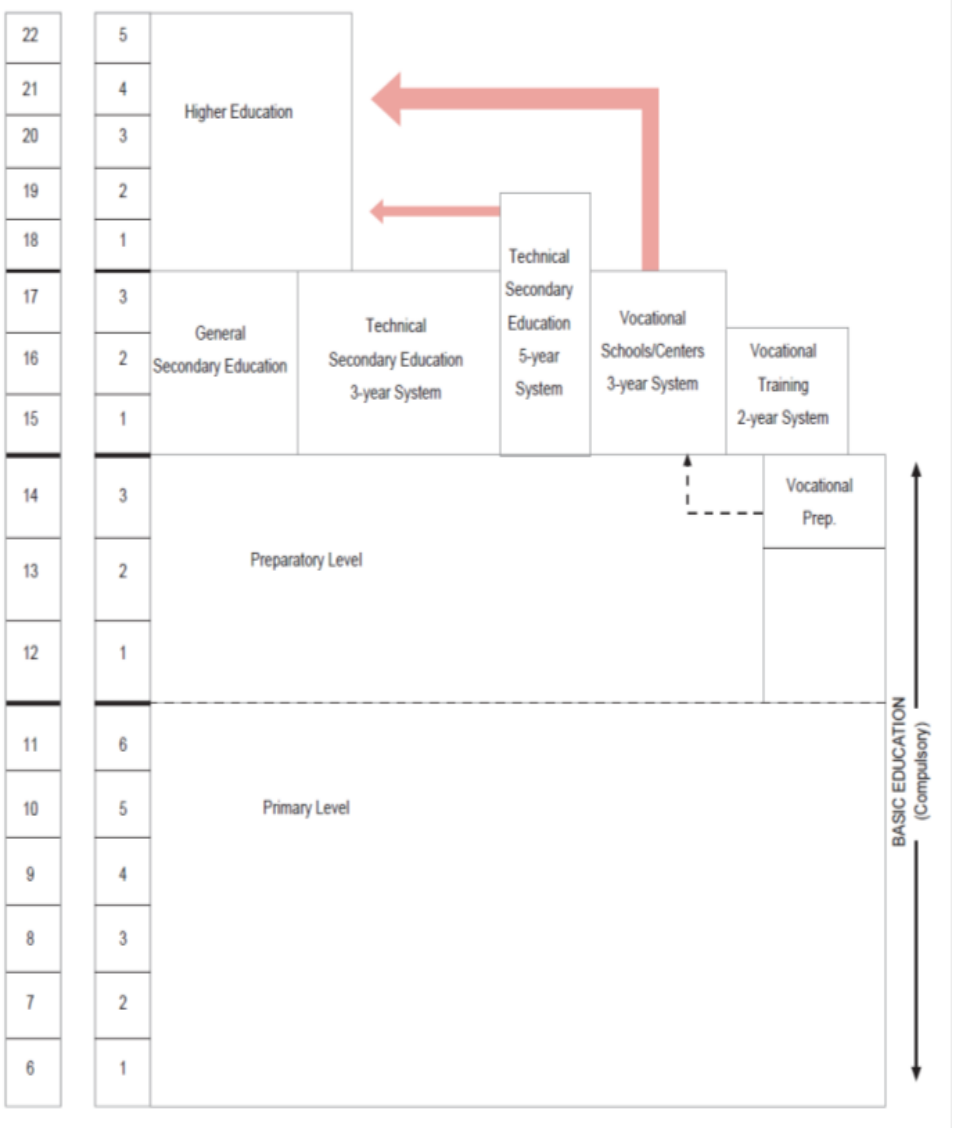
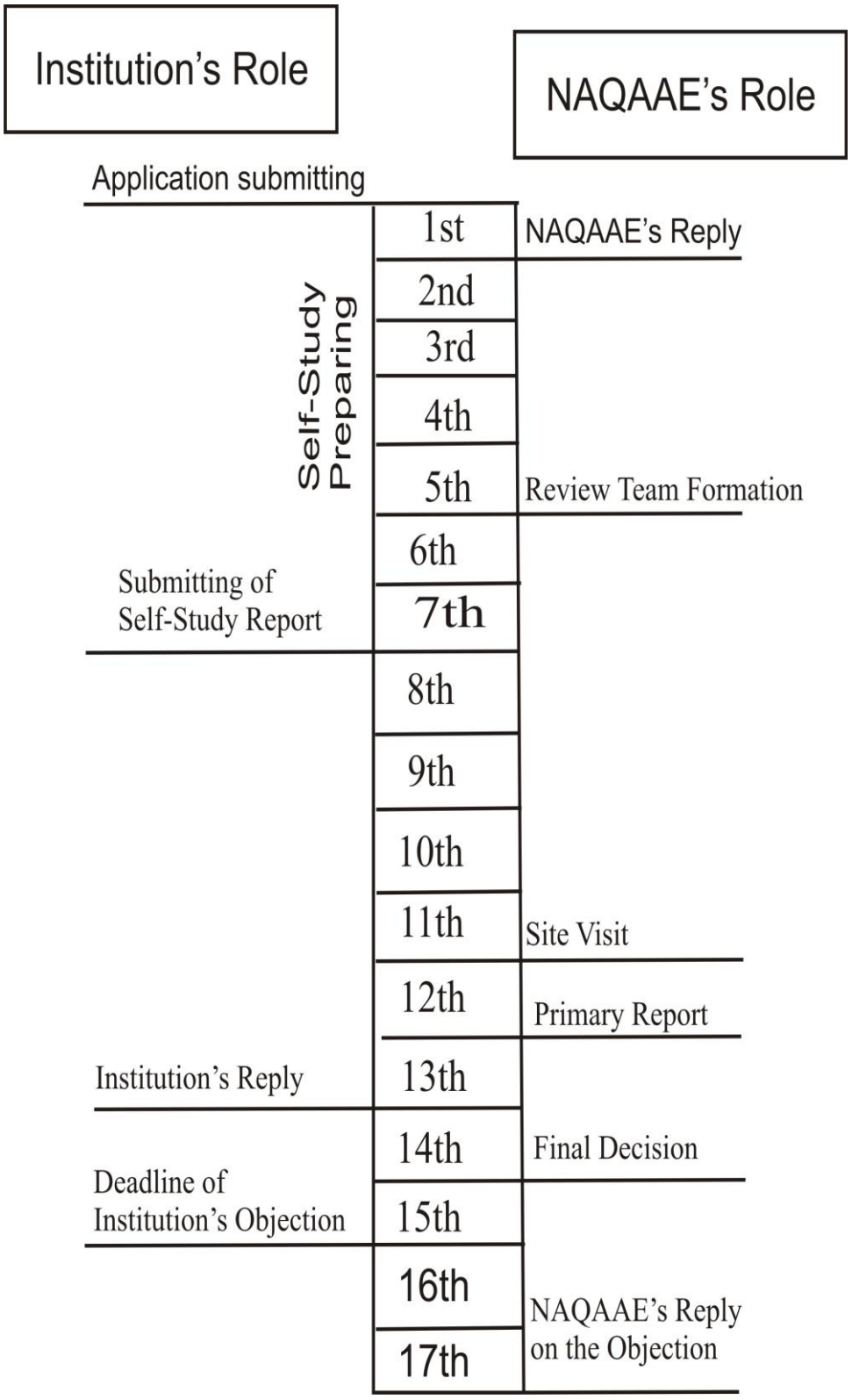
Appendices

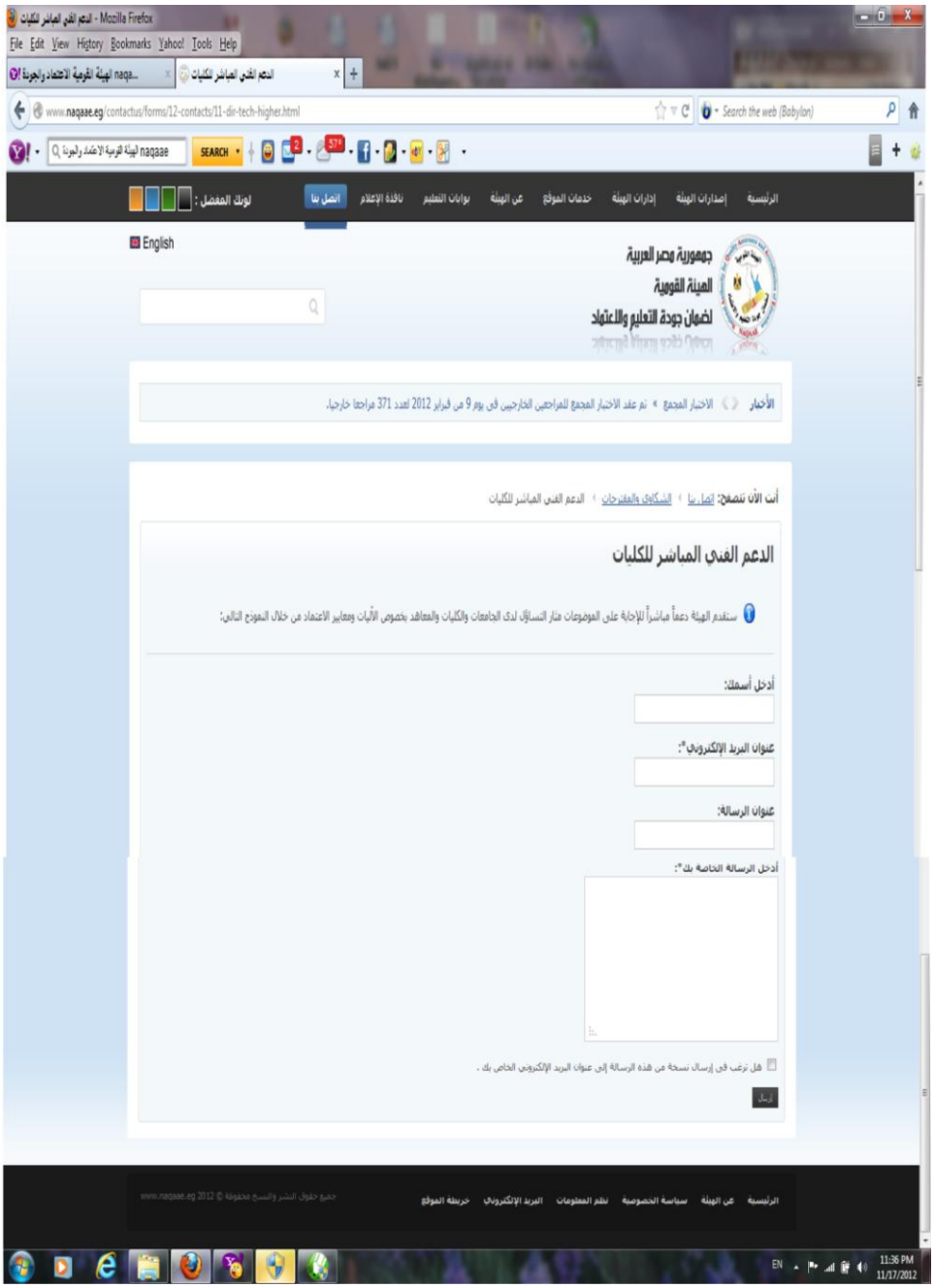
Appendix A: The educational system in Egypt



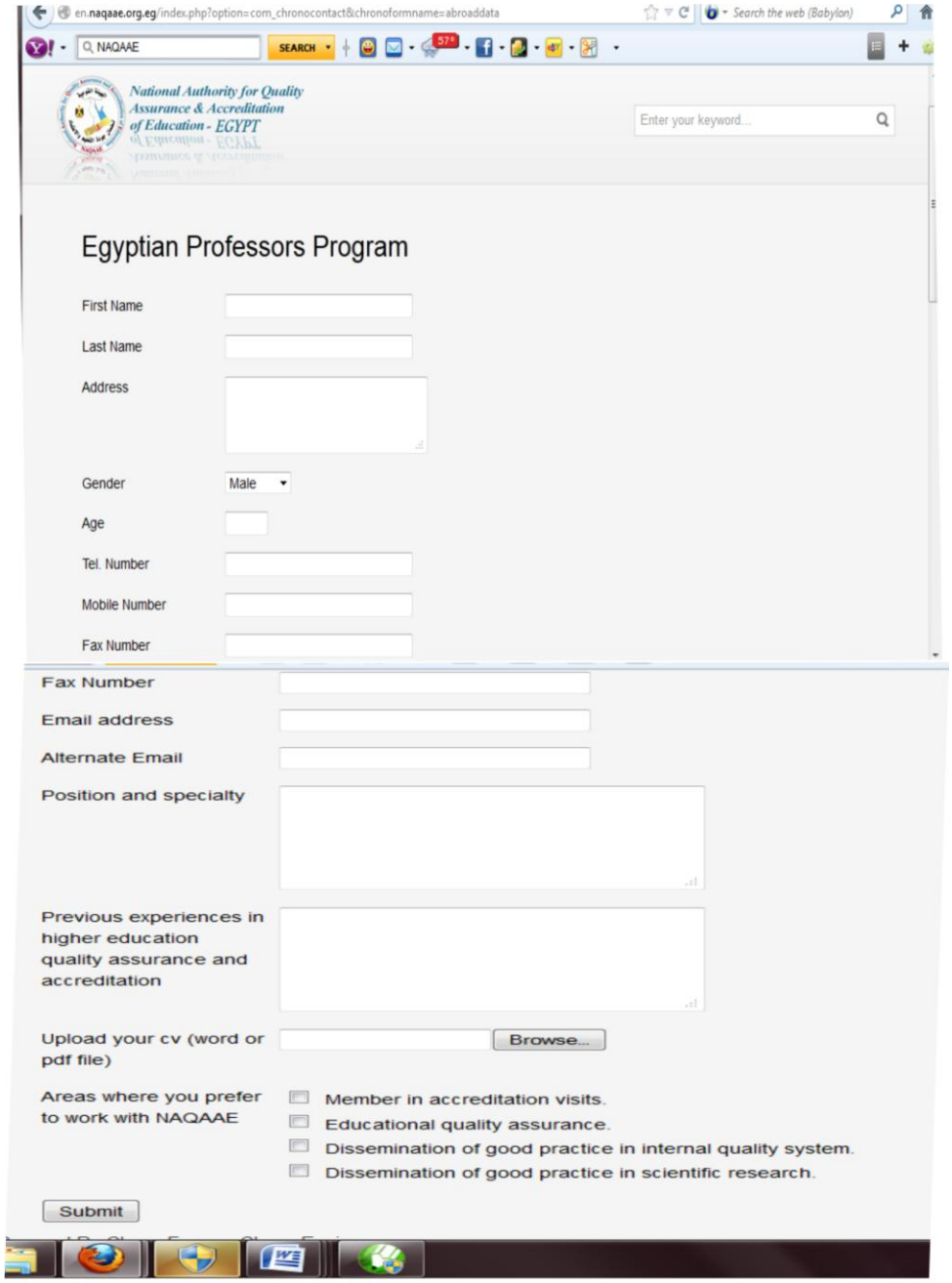
Appendix B: NAQAAE accreditation schedule



Appendix C: Complain site of NAQAAE



Appendix D: Egyptian professors program site

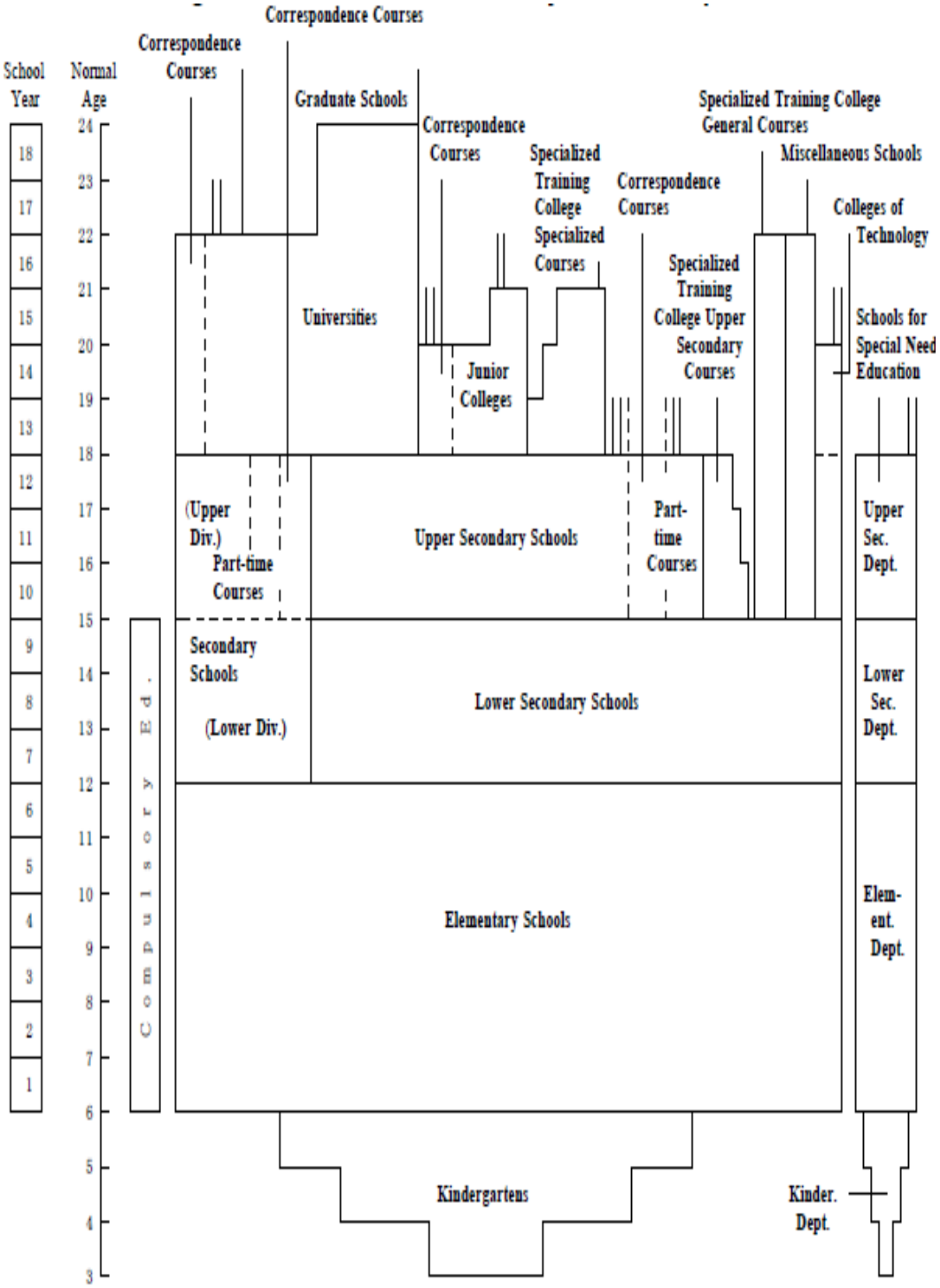


Appendix E: AHELO stakeholders' consultative group – member organizations

Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U)	www.aacu.org
American Council on Education (ACE)	www.acenet.edu
Association Europeenne des Conservatoires, Academies de Musique et Musikhochschulen (AEC)	www.aecinfo.org
Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN)	www.apqn.org
Business and Industry Advisory Committee to the OECD (BIEC)	www.biac.org
Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation	www.gulbenkian.pt
Council of European Employers of the Metal, Engineering and Technology-Based Industries (CEEMET)	www.ceemet.org
Coimbra Group	www.coimbra-group.eu/
Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA)	www.chea.org
Education International (EI)	www.ei-ie.org
European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA)	www.enqa.eu
European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE)	www.eurashe.eu
European Economic Association (EEA)	www.eeassoc.org
European University Association (EUA)	www.eua.be
European Students' Union (ESU)	www.esib.org
The Higher Education Authority (HEA), Ireland	www.hea.ie
The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE)	www.hefce.ac.uk
International Association of Universities (IAU)	www.iau-aiu.net

International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE)	www.inqaahe.org
Lumina Foundation	www.luminafoundation.org
European Society for Engineering Education (SEFI)	www.sefi.be
Riksbankens Jubileumsfond	www.rj.se/english
The Spencer Foundation	www.spencer.org
Trade Union Advisory Committee to the OECD (TUAC)	www.tuac.org
Union of Universities Latin America and the Caribbean (UDUAL)	www.udual.org

Appendix F: Japanese school system



Appendix G: Checkpoints for inspection upon university establishment

[Purposes and objectives of establishment]

- Whether the aim foe university education is clear, and whether that aim is sufficiently planned with considering the prospect of recruiting students and the expectation shared by the neighbors.

[Curriculum]

- Whether the subjects required to accomplish the purposes and objectives of the establishment have been provided and the curriculum has been systematically organized.
- Whether teaching methods (lectures, seminars, experimentation etc.) are carefully designed to accomplish the purposes and objectives of establishment.

[Faculty]

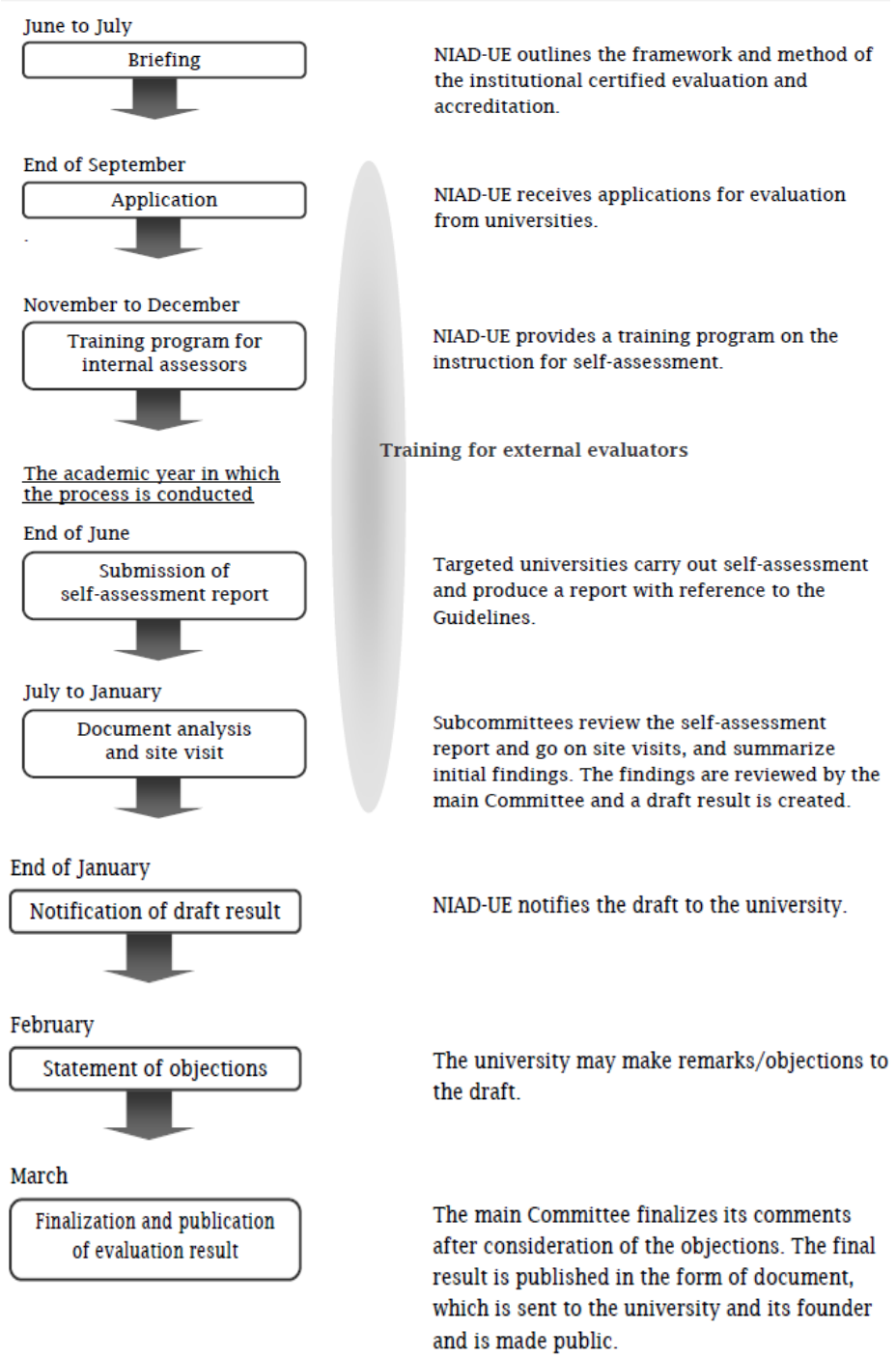
- Whether professors required to accomplish the purposes and objectives of establishment have been sufficiently assigned.
- Whether full-time professors have been assigned to subjects deemed priority areas from an educational perspective.

[Names (names of universities etc), names of academic degrees, etc, facilities and equipment, self-evaluation, FD and other matters]

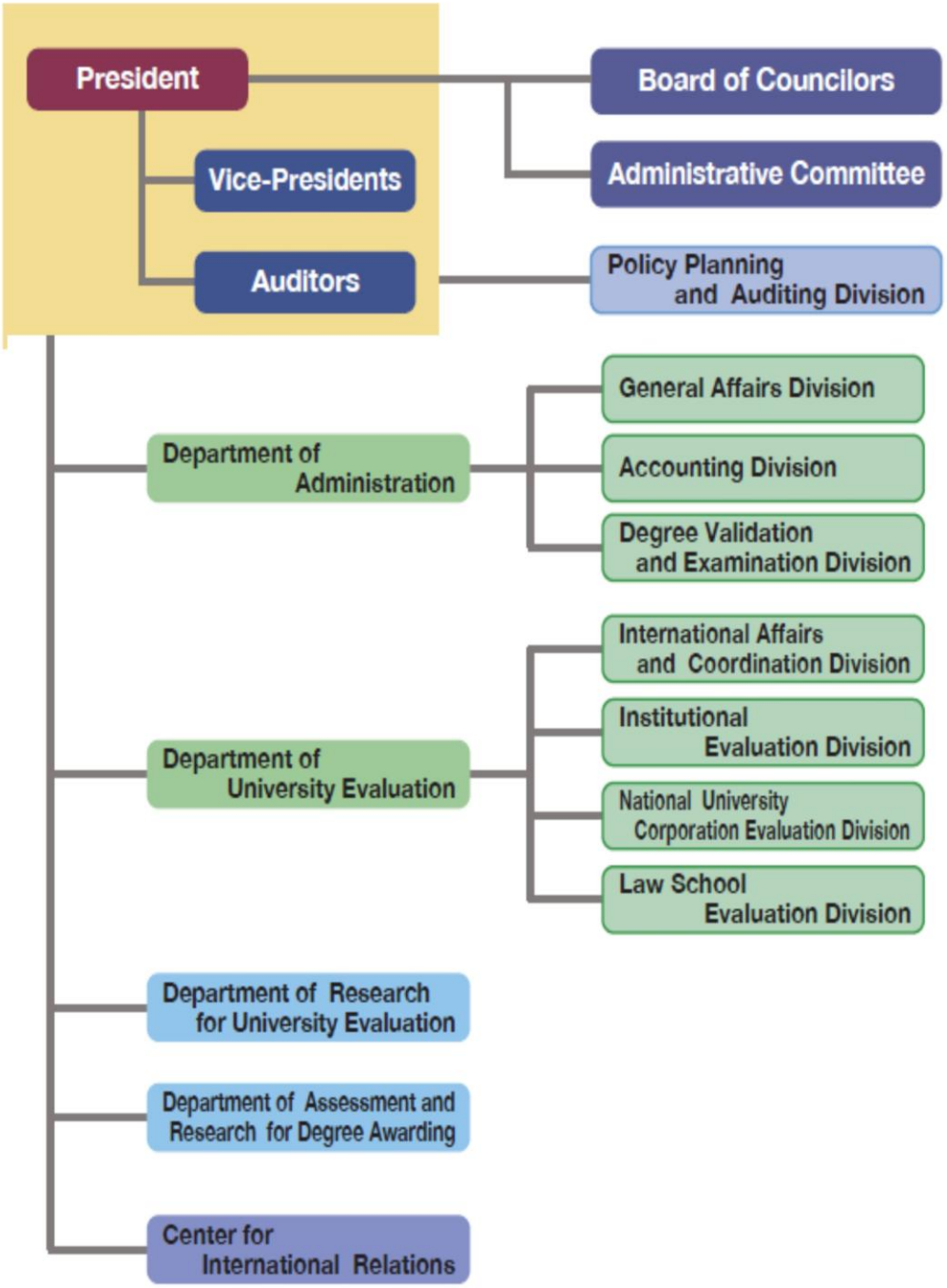
- Whether facilities and equipment, including school buildings, have met standards and verification that none of them are hampering education and search.

*For universities to be established by school corporations, as well as the above points, financial plans etc. are also to be inspected.

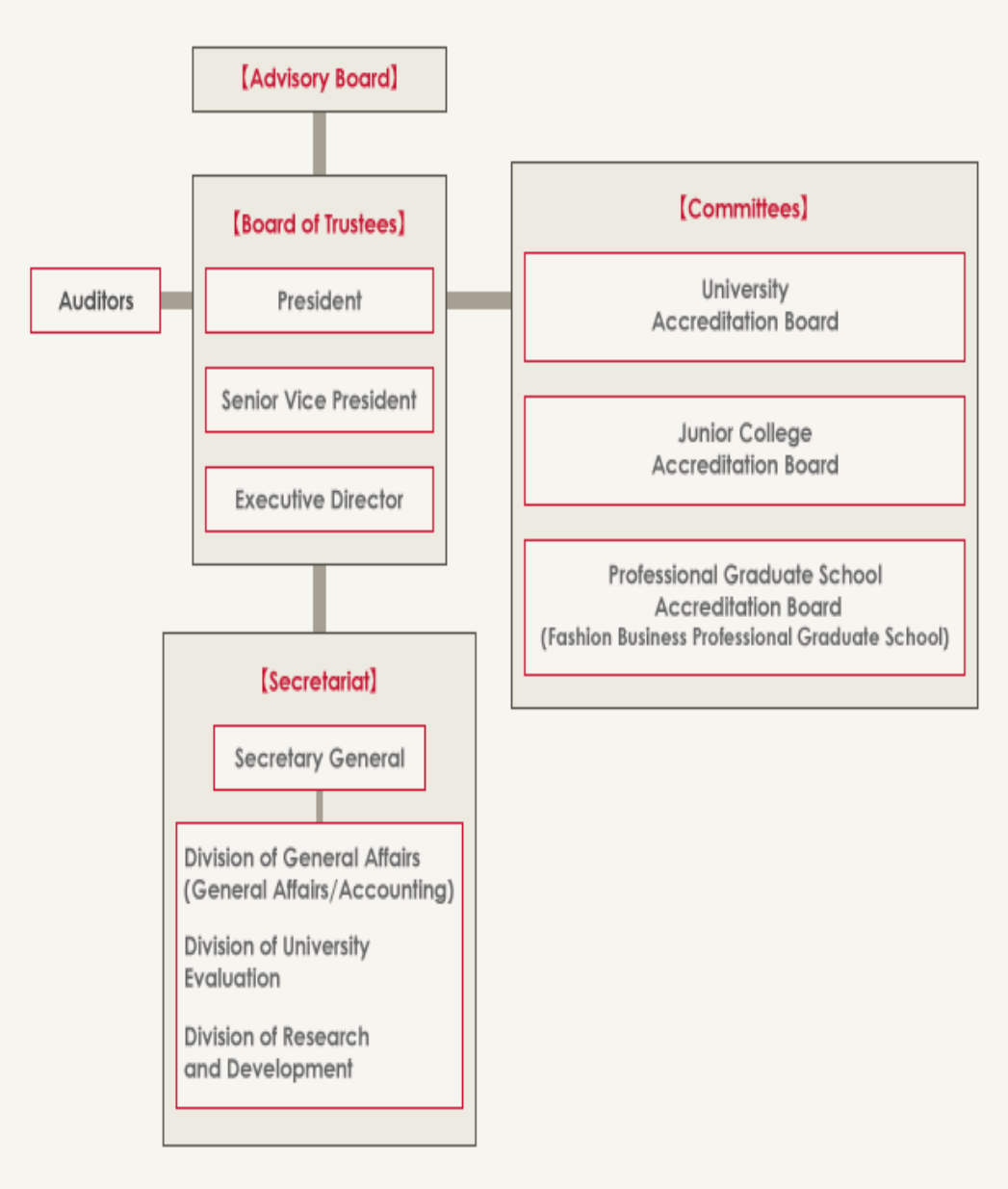
Appendix H: NIAD-UE evaluation schedule



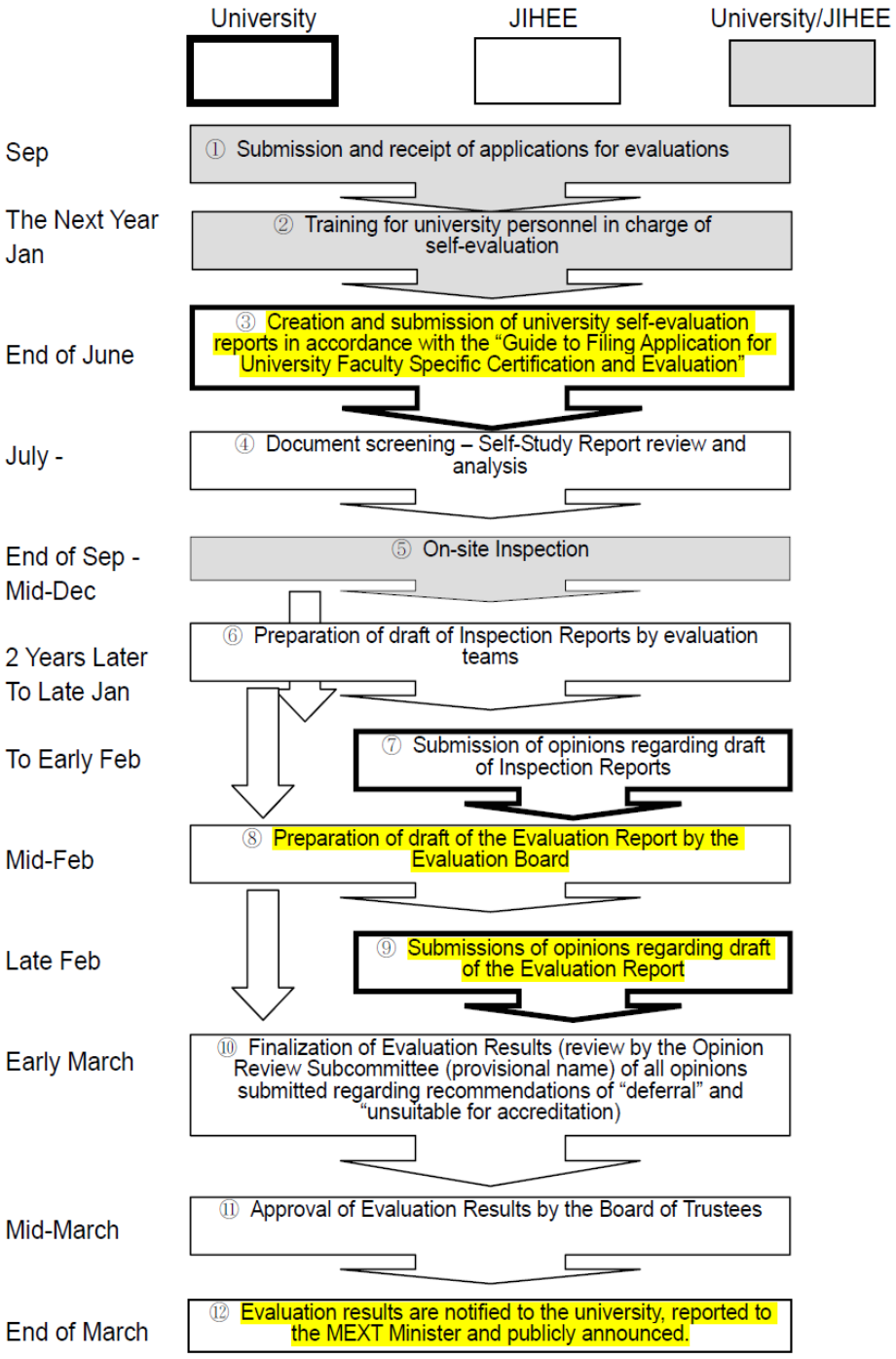
Appendix I: NIAD-UE organizational chart



Appendix J: JIHEE organizational chart



Appendix K: A Basic schedule of JIHEE accreditation process



Appendix L: Egyptian Interviewees' List

NO	Interviewee's Name	Position	Organization/ Place	Date	Time
1-	Naryman ElNashar	Director of International Cooperation Department, National Authority of Quality Assurance and Accreditation on Education (NAQAAE), Egypt	NAQAAE, Cairo	12 Dec., 2011	9:00-10:00
2-	Magdy Kasem	Chairman of the NAQAAE's Board of Directors	NAQAAE, Cairo	14th Dec., 2011	10:00-11:00
3-	Husain Elhefnawy	Director, Higher Education Evaluation Department, (NAQAAE)	NAQAAE, Cairo	14th Dec., 2011	11:00-12:00
4-	Shereen Abo Warda	Director of QAC, Kafr Elsheikh University	Kafr Elsheikh University, Kafr Elsheikh	15th Dec., 2011	10:00-12:00
5-	Amira Ramadan Abd Elhady	Head of Department of Comparative Education and Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Kafr Elsheikh University	Kafr Elsheikh University, Kafr Elsheikh	17th Dec., 2011	10:00-11:00
	Abd Elnaser	Professor, Comparative	Ain Shams	18th	11:00-

6-	Rashad	Education Department, Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University	University, Faculty of Education, Roxy, Cairo	Dec., 2011	13:00
7-	Shaker Fathy	Professor, Comparative Education Department and Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University	Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University, Roxy, Cairo	18th Dec., 2011	13:10-14:20
8-	Magda Mohamed Refaat		NAQAAE, Cairo	19th Dec., 2011	11:00-12:00
9-	Adel Abd Elfataah Salama	Head of Comparative Education Department and Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University	Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University, Roxy, Cairo	19th Dec., 2011	12:45-13:30
10-	Reda Helmy Samour	Director of Quality Assurance Unit, Faculty of Science,	Tanta University, Algharbeya	20 Dec., 2011	12:00-13:30
11-	Tarek AbdElmoneim Fayed	Director of Quality Assurance Center, Tanta University	Tanta University, Algharbeya	21st Dec., 2011	10:00-11:00
12-	Housain Basheir Mahmoud	Director of HE accreditation department	NAQAAE, Cairo	25th Dec., 2011	10:00-11:00
13-	Soad Abd Elnaby	Former Director of QAU, Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University	Faculty of Education, Ain Shams University, Roxy, Cairo	25th Dec., 2011	15:00-16:00

14	Alaa Salem	Former Director of QAU, Faculty of Science, Kafr Elsheikh University	Kafr Elsheikh University, Kafr Elsheikh	26th Dec., 2011	10:00-11:00
15	Asmaa Moustafa	Director, NAQAAE & General Manager of Quality Assurance and Accreditation Center, Almansoura University	Almansoura University, Almansoura	27th Dec., 2011	13:00-14:00
16	Rifgi Ibrahim Souliman	Director of QAU, Faculty of Education, Almansoura University	Almansoura University, Almansoura	27th Dec., 2011	14:00-15:00

Appendix M: The interview questions for Egyptian

اجراءات المقابلات الشخصية للمساعدة فى اجراء بحث علمى

التاريخ/

ا.سم/

الوظيفة/

العنوان/

مقدمة

فى العصر الحالى يواكب التعليم العالى ليس فقط فى مصر و انما فى كل بلاد العالم تحديات صارخة انما هى نتيجة طبيعية لما يشهده العصر من سمات عولمة الاقتصاد و لما تبعه من تحديات التعليم العالى، فالتعليم العالى وسيلة لانجاب قادة المجتمع و ثروته البشرية. من هذا المنطلق تبرز أهمية سياسات ضمان جودة مؤسسات التعليم العالى و اعتماده فهى الضمان الوحيد لتصدى لتحديات العولمة و أيضا مواكبة العصر الحديث.

عنوان البحث

سياسات ضمان جودة وإعتماد التعليم العالى: دراسة مقارنة فى كل من مصر و اليابان

الغرض من اجراء المقابلات الشخصية

ان اجراءات المقابلات الشخصية مع كل من المتخصصين فى ميدان جودة التعليم العالى و اعتماده، و كذلك مع ممثلين عن الهيئة القومية لضمان جودة و إعتماد التعليم فى مصر بمثابة أداة لجمع معلومات تتعلق بكيفية وضع و صياغة سياسة جودة التعليم و كيفية اعتماده و ذلك من منطلق تأثر التعليم العالى بسياساته و مؤسساته بعولمة التعليم العالى و مبدأ الاتفاق المعنوى.

سرية المعلومات المجمعة

يشهد الباحث أن كافة المعلومات التى سيقوم بتجميعها من خلال المقابلات الشخصية ستكون سرية للغاية، هذه المعلومات انما هو بمثابة وسيلة تساعد الباحث فى عمليات التحليل للسياسات المصرية فى نطاق ضمان جودة التعليم العالى و التوصل الى مؤيد لنظرية يفسر هذه السياسات.

جزاكم الله خيرا وجعلكم ذخرا لمصر من الاجيبة

Farida Ibrahim Mahmoud Ramadan

Doctoral Student

Prof. Dr. Umemoto Katsuhiro laboratory

School of Knowledge Science

Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology

923-1211 Asahidai 1-8 Nomi Ishikawa - Japan

Tel:0081-761-51-1711 Fax:0081-761-51-1777

Email: s0960207@jaist.ac.jp or farida_ramadan@yahoo.com

Tel. 00818030450300

محاور المقابلات الشخصية

1- بالنسبة لوضع و صياغة سياسة جودة التعليم العالى واعتماد فى مصر

ما الخطوات التى تم من خلاله وضع وصياغة سياسة جودة التعليم العالى واعتماده؟

ما مراحل اعتماد مؤسسات التعليم العالى؟

ما عناصر الاعتماد التى تشمله السياسة الحالية لجودة التعليم العالى فى مصر؟

ما دور الهيئة القومية لجودة التعليم و اعتماد فى صنع هذه السياسة و صياغتها؟

كيف يتم تواصل الهيئة مع كل من وزارتي التعليم العالي ووزارة التربية والتعليم بشأن تعديل وتجديد صياغة الحالية للسياسة الحالية؟

هل هناك دور لمنظمات تطوعية لاعتماد التعليم العالي؟ وما هي هذه المنظمات؟

هل النظام القائم لضمان جودة واعتماد التعليم في مصر، من هيئة قومية تتبع لوزارته ثم مراكز الجودة بالجامعات والوحدات الكليات كفاءة لتطبيق سياسة اعتماد التعليم العالي؟

كيف يتم الاستفادة من نتائج تطبيق سياسة التعليم العالي واعتماده كغنية مرتجعة لتجديد واعادة صياغة السياسة المقترحة؟

هل يسهل هذا النظام من اجراء عملية اعتماد مؤسسات التعليم العالي؟ وكيف؟

ما الصعوبات التي تواجه صياغة وتطبيق سياسة جودة التعليم العالي واعتماده في مصر؟

كيف يمكن التغلب على هذه الصعوبات؟

هل هناك اختلاف في سياسة اعتماد مؤسسات التعليم العالي الحكومية والخاصة؟ وما هي؟

ماذا يحدث لمؤسسة التعليمية التي لم تنل شهادة الاعتماد في الوقت المناسب؟

2- بالنسبة للاستفادة من الخبرات الاجنبية

الى أيهما تقترب سياسة جودة واعتماد التعليم العالى فى مصر من وجهة نظركم هل للنموذج الامريكى أم للنموذج الاوروبى؟

هل تقوم الهيئة بالاستفادة من الخبرات الاجنبية فى اعادة صياغة سياسة التعليم العالى فى مصر؟ كيف؟

ما هى أقرب خبرة أجنبية من وجهة نظركم لظروف مصر الحالية؟

3- بالنسبة للرؤية المستقبلية

فى ظل التغيرات السياسية التى تعيشها مصر فى الفترة الحالية تبعات لثورة 52 يناير وما تبعها من اختيار القيادات الجامعية عن طريق الاقتراع المباشر..... هل سيكون لذلك تأثير على السياسة الحالية لجودة التعليم العالى واعتماده؟ كيف؟

يعيش العالم فى ظل نظام العولمة وما نشاهده من تبعات فى النظام الاوروبى لجودة التعليم الاوروبى العالى وتطبيق نظام موحد لاعتماد مؤسسات التعليم العالى الاوروبى..... هل التعليم العالى المصرى فى رؤيته المستقبلية سيشهد مثل هذا النظام فى ظل الاتصال مع الخبرات العربية و الاسلامية كماليزيا و غيرها من الدول.

Appendix N: Japanese interviewees' list

No	Interviewee's Name	Position	Organization/ Place	Date	Time
1	Toru Iiyoshi	Professor	Center for Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Kyoto University http://www.highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/	26th April, 2012	12:15-14:00
2	Yusaku Otsuka	Director	Center for Promotion of Excellence in Higher Education, Graduate School of Education, Kyoto University, Kyoto http://www.highedu.kyoto-u.ac.jp/	26th April, 2012	14:00-14:30
3	Akiyoshi Yonezawa	Ph.D. Associate Professor	Graduate School of International Development , Nagoya University http://www.gsid.nagoya-u.ac.jp	7th May, 2012	13:00-14:30
4	Toru Hayashi	Research Assistant Professor	Center for Graduation Education Initiative, Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (JAIST), Ishikawa	14th May, 2012	15:00-16:30
5	Kayoko Kurita	Ph.D. Associate Professor	Department of Research for University Evaluation (NIAD-UE), Tokyo	30 May, 2012	13:00-14:00

			http://www.niad.ac.jp/index_e.html		
6	Akihiko Kawaguchi	Former Vise President of NIAD-UE	NIAD-UE, Tokyo	30 May, 2012	14:00-15:00
7	Jun Kudo	Executive Associate Director	Division of Accreditation & Higher Education Studies, Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA), Tokyo	31st May, 2012	13:00-15:00
8	Norihiko Suzuki	Senior Managing Director	JUAA, Tokyo		
9	Rie Mori	Associate Professor	NIAD-UE Tokyo	18th, June, 2012	13:00-14:30
10	Goda Tetsuo	Director for HE policy	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (MEXT), Higher Education Bureau, Tokyo	27th, July, 2012	10:00-11:00
11	Akiyama Takuya	Deputy director for HE policy/ Senior specialist for university evaluation	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (MEXT), Higher Education Bureau, Tokyo	27th, July, 2012	11:00-12:00
		Director,	Japan Institution for Higher	27th,	13:30-

12	Toshihiro Ito	Division of University Evaluation	Education Evaluation (JIHEE), Tokyo	July, 27th 2012	14:30
13	Sho Takakura	Vice President of Tsukuba Uni. And Former President of Meikai Uni. Senior Vice President of JIHEE	JIHEE, Tokyo	27th, July, 2012	14:30-15:30

Appendix O: The cover letter and interview questions for Japanese

Ramadan, Farida
Ph.D. student
Prof. Dr. Umemoto Katsuhiro laboratory
School of Knowledge Science
Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology
923-1211 Asahidai 1-8 Nomi Ishikawa - Japan
Tel: 0081-761-51-1711 Fax: 0081-761-51-1777
Email: S0960207@jaist.ac.jp or farida_ramadan@yahoo.com

(Date) Time: Organization's Name:
Address:

Object and Benefits

Participation in a research project about quality assurance（QA）and accreditation policy of Egyptian and Japanese Higher Education（HE）sector .Results from this study will be used for making a theoretical model of how QA policy is made from knowledge/policy transfer perspective also to give recommendations to educational policy makers of both Egyptian and Japanese HE.

Introduction

The researcher is conducting three case studies on the QA and accreditation policy making, as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, at Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology. The purpose of this study is to explain how the QA and accreditation policy is made from knowledge transfer process. You are invited to participate in this study by taking part in an interview. Your cooperation is very much appreciated. Thanks in advance for your willingness, valuable time, and effort in participating in this study.

Thank you very much for helping with this important study.

Sincerely

Ramadan, Farida

1. How does your organization acquire Knowledge related to QA policy to help in modifying the Japanese policy of QA, knowledge acquiring?

2. How can this organization internally create a suitable QA policy for Japanese HE sector, knowledge creation?

3. How does this organization cooperate with MEXT and other certified organizations in the QA policy, knowledge sharing?

4. How does this organization affected by globalization in its policy?

5. What kinds of problems are facing this organization in adopting other countries' policy of QA?

6. How can this organization overcome these kinds of problems?

7. How does this organization look for the future of QA policy of Japanese HE sector?

Appendix P: Regularly used websites

Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQAHE)	http://anqahe.org/
Asia-Pacific Quality Network (APQN)	http://www.apqn.org/
Egyptian Universities Network (EUN)	http://www.eun.eg/wps/portal
European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education	http://www.enqa.eu/
Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA)	http://chea.org/
Information and Communication Technology Project (ICTP)	http://www.ictp.org.eg/wps/portal/
International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE)	http://www.inqaahe.org/
Japan Institution for Higher Education Evaluation (JIHEE)	http://www.jihee.or.jp/en/index.html
Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA)	http://www.juaa.or.jp/en/about/index.html
Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology- Japan (MEXT)	http://www.mext.go.jp/english/
Ministry of Higher Education- Egypt (MOHE)	http://www.egy-mhe.gov.eg/
National Center for Faculty and Leadership Development (FLDP)	http://www.ncfld.org/
National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation- Japan (NIAD-UE)	http://www.niad.ac.jp/english/index.html
National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Education- Egypt (NAQAAE)	http://naqaae.eg/
Quality Assurance Agency- UK (QAA)	http://www.qaa.ac.uk/Pages/default.aspx
Strategic Planning Unit- Egypt (SPU)	http://mhe-spu.org/new/
Supreme Council of Universities- Egypt (SCU)	http://www.scu.eun.eg/wps/portal
United Nations Educational , Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)	http://www.unesco.org/new/en/
UNESCO/ International Bureau of Education (IBE)	http://www.ibe.unesco.org/