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## Performance Indicators and the Deeper Foundations of Performance

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Critics of Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) argue that KPIs culture rewards the immediate production of tangible outcomes sometimes at the expense of social engagement and cooperative behaviour. The need to gain immediate outcomes in the current KPIs performance culture focuses many individuals onto forms of productivity that gain high KPIs but at what cost? What effect does this single minded focus have on developing organisational loyalties and commitments? Some scholars have suggested that a singular focus on performance indicator success may crowd out other positive social capital in institutions (Falk et al., 1999; Gächter & Falk, 2000; Falk & Fehr, 2001).

A critical question for policy makers in institutions is the extent to which the KPIs culture in organisations acts to encourage people to focus their energies on increasing the number of measurable indicators they can acquire irrespective of the intrinsic value of such indicators. What are the broader consequences of KPIs culture for social cohesion, collegiality and ethical norms that we traditionally associate with higher education institutions? Other theorists have brought our attention to the way that

the reduction of rewards to calculable benefits has the unintended effect of negating or dissipating altruistic or non competitive motivations for achievement in academia (Gächter & Falk, 2000; Frey & Jegen, 2001). Frey and Jegen argue that in many cases the reduction of motivation to extrinsic rewards, (in our case KPIs) may lead to a diminution of intrinsic motivation which may in some cases be a far better motivator for people to perform (Frey & Jegen, 2001).

What are the fundamental influences on performance in higher educational institutions? Do KPIs measure these fundamental influences and determinants of performance and the growth of performance in higher educational institutions? Or do KPIs simply pick up the immediate, the proximate and easy to measure and calculate signs of performance? The implication of much of the performance literature is that increasing performance metrics is itself a sufficient indicator of the health of long term and sustainable performance culture in an organisation. The core issue in the critical literature on performance indicators is the extent to which these indicators adequately capture intangible forms of social capital, empathy and commitment

and cooperative spirit and the extent to which performance metrics are a sufficient proxy for long term sustainable organisational performance health. In other words, a key scholarly issue is the extent to which performance indicators are too limited in the scope of what they measure (Theil & Leeuw, 2002).

**“The core issue in the critical literature on performance indicators is the extent to which these indicators adequately capture intangible forms of social capital, empathy and commitment and cooperative spirit and the extent to which performance metrics are a sufficient proxy for long term sustainable organisational performance health.”**

Does a lack of valuation of intangible values lead to a crowding out effect? In other words does the focus on measurable indicators also act to dissipate our concern with mutual cooperation and mutually benevolent activity or is it negligible in its effect on these values? Strong scholarly literature exists which suggests that KPIs culture does in fact ‘crowd out’ non tangible values and social capital. One critical issue with regard to the introduction of KPIs frameworks in higher education is the extent to which these frameworks in fact act to erode non calculative and instrumental values in higher educational institutions.

There is an important research literature on the connection and importance of social capital to institutional economic growth and development. According to Nielson (2003: 2), ‘The beneficial effects of social capital on economic performance are ascribed to mechanisms such as the following: trust lowers transaction costs; networks provide channels of information; and norms of reciprocity make voluntary collective action possible or less costly’. Lundvall et al. (2001: 31) points out that, ‘there are contradictions inherent in the economic process that threaten learning and competence building by undermining social capital’. In other words, social capital is critical to understanding innovation in organisations and underpins the successful position of an institution in the learning economy. Lundvall (2007: 37) argues that, ‘the production and efficient use of intellectual capital is fundamentally dependent upon social capital’. The core issue here is the significance of social capital to learning, development and innovation in higher education institutions.

Higher education institutions rely on social capital for their productivity, identity and internal social cohesion.

The significance of social capital to organisational performance and the performance of individuals within organisations is now well established in the contemporary research literature. To what extent does KPIs culture radically transform and challenge the motivations academics have which are rooted in their identities as scholars pursuing truth or as engaged academics engaging social justice? Akerlof and Kranton’s (2010: 4) work on identity understood in reference to a person’s social category to which they belong (such as being an academic) reinforces our understanding of motivation and actions of individuals within institutions. They argue that, ‘In every social context, people have a notion of who they are, which is associated with beliefs about how they and others are supposed to behave. These notions, as we will see, play important roles in how economies work.’ Arguably this is also true of how institutions work. Are aspects of KPIs culture in tension with academic identity rooted in the spirit of collegiality and other regarding interests? Economics literature reminds us of the critical identities that many academics have of their work and of its moral and intangible characteristics. These norms rooted in values of reciprocity and collegiality is central to why many academics became academics in the first place. They are the fundamental roots of academic performance and constitute a key ethic for many intellectuals in the academy.

**“...the current KPIs measurement tools which evaluate a very limited and narrow concept of performance do not necessarily measure or assess the deeper forms of social reciprocity and engagement which underpins the deeper and long term capacities of institutions to perform and develop over the long term.”**

If KPIs do not measure or take account of social capital then how is an organisation to assess its long term performance fundamentals other than simply accepting KPIs as the best proximate measure for this? A lack of concern for social capital and social capabilities may have a long term negative effect on long term performance and intellectual culture over time. The core aspect of all this is a recognition that the notion of academic staff as utterly independent rational calculators of self-interest is too simplistic in providing insight into fundamental performance and especially fundamental or deep performance sustainability. If we seek to understand

the deeper more fundamental basis of performance based on the cultivation of social capabilities and social capital then we need to widen the scope of how we measure and understand performance.

In conclusion, the current KPIs measurement tools which evaluate a very limited and narrow concept of performance do not necessarily measure or assess the deeper forms of social reciprocity and engagement which underpins the deeper and long term capacities of institutions to perform and develop over the long term. An individualistic and numeric KPIs framework does not necessarily provide us with sufficient insight into long term performance and organisational health. The 'Lives behind Economic Lives' (Zelizer, 2011: 1) are critical to understand in any full discussion of organisational performance.

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# Factors that Contribute to Academic Success of International Students: A Literature Review

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## Introduction

The last decade has witnessed the growing internationalisation of higher education with increasing numbers of international students pursuing their studies at universities and other higher education institutions globally. The strength of internationalisation is clear from the growth in the international student population as over the past 10-15 years international student mobility has become a significant part of the international higher education landscape with an increase of 61 per cent since 1992 as the number estimated to have reached 2.7 million in 2005 (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, as cited in Sirat, 2009). Interestingly, Bohm, Daris, Meares and Pearce (2002) have estimated that by the year 2025 the global international student population will increase up to 7.2 million. This growing number of international students not only reflects the success of internationalisation, but also highlights the need to understand and to address issues pertaining to students' academic success while studying abroad. The purpose of this paper is thus to explore this issue with a focus on the factors that are said to contribute to the academic success of international students.

success (Graham, 1987; Killen, 1994; Sansgiry, Bhosle & Sail, 2006; Woodrow, 2006). Academic research tends to rely on students' cognitive development using simplistic numerical measurements such as Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) (Norwani, 2005), Grade Point Average (GPA) (Graham, 1987; Killen, 1994; Sansgiry et al., 2006; Woodrow, 2006) and/or average time taken to complete a course and/or degree (Berg & Hofman, 2005; Killen, 1994) as the proxy for academic success.

Numerous studies have reported that GPA is an important and commonly used criterion by institutional administrators to evaluate the academic achievement of students in an academic setting (Andrade, 2006; Graham, 1987; Killen, 1994; Sansgiry et al., 2006). The GPA is defined as "studying the student performance for that particular semester" (Ali, Jusoff, Ali, Mokhtar & Salamat, 2009: 82) with a GPA of 3.0 or higher considered a reasonable academic achievement for any graduate programme (Sansgiry et al., 2006).

Despite the ubiquity of the numerical measurements of academic success, many researchers are now identifying limitations of this approach, citing the need for recognition of the holistic development of students while studying overseas (e.g., Campbell & Li, 2008; Irungu, 2010). As a result, non-cognitive indicators are now included into analyses of students' intellectual development (Irungu, 2010) referring to humanistic values such as interpersonal and communication skills, problem-solving skills, thinking skills and analytical skills (Irungu, 2010; Ooi, Kaur, & Sirat, 2010; Sansgiry et al., 2006).

With this as a background, the next section will examine what are understood to be the key factors that contribute to academic success, irrespective of how that success is measured or described.

## What Factors are Said to Contribute to Academic Success of International Students?

In general, the research literature has identified, grouped and conceptualised three distinctive and broad categories of factors that influence international students' academic success: academic, social or personal and psychological factors (McKenzie & Schweitzer, 2001; Tinto, 2005; Tseng & Newton, 2002; Zhang, 2009; Zhou & Todman, 2009).

The academic factors that are commonly cited by Western literature include individual capabilities and initiatives such as proficiency in English language (Galloway & Jenkins, 2009; Mori, 2000; Trice, 2003), making connections with teachers and peers (Campbell & Li, 2008), the development of effective

**"Academic success is an important element in international students' academic life as it measures their capability to successfully complete their academic course (Fraser & Killen, 2003)."**

Traditionally, research on international education has been based on the Western experience of international students in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and/ or the United States of America. It is therefore not surprising that any review of recent research on international students is based predominantly on Western experiences. The next section begins with a review of the ways that academic success is constituted in the Western literature.

## What is Academic Success?

Academic success is an important element in international students' academic life as it measures their capability to successfully complete their academic course (Fraser & Killen, 2003). The accepted wisdom within this literature is that grades are the universally accepted measurement of academic

learning and studying strategies (Hellsten & Prescott, 2004), the formation of study groups and engagement in classroom discussions (Campbell & Zeng, 2006; Hellsten & Prescott, 2004). Importantly, studies also find the provision of support from the institutions for international students that include information provision and library services (Choi, 1997), classes in academic writing (Choi, 1997; Sandhu, 1994) as well as facilitating the opportunities for students to meet and form study groups (Campbell & Zeng, 2006) are also contributory factors to students' success.

**"...research is clear that although personal and individual attributes of the students themselves are important, the supports and services provided by the educational institutions are also significant in their contribution to students' academic success."**

Not only is it clear that higher education institutional practice and services contribute to students' academic experience and subsequent success, but they also have a major role in addressing the second group, the social factors, that are said to impact academic success. Listed in the services and support that could be provided by universities are financial (Khawaja & Dempsey, 2008; Mori, 2000; Myles & Cheng, 2003), accommodation (Khawaja & Dempsey, 2008) and attention to student welfare and safety (Marginson, Nyland, Sawir & Forbes-Mewett, 2010). The more individual social factors include the possible experience of culture shock due to the different culture, beliefs, values and customs while living in a different country (Sandhu, 1994); as well as academic culture shock "associated with the different learning environment of an academic institution, including the education system, lecture style, assessment, relationship between students and lecturers" (Li, Chen & Duanmu, 2009: 6).

The third group of factors that may impact students' success are again of an individual nature - the psycho-social factors. These are related to any emotional adjustments experienced in response to a new place of study and country. Any psychological stress and anxiety caused by financial difficulties and/or English language difficulties will likely impact students' academic plans, goals and performance (Rosenthal, Russell & Thomson, 2006; Zhang & Brunton, 2007). Further, several studies have found that international students may feel isolated, homesick and lonely as well as experiencing loss of social status because of geographical distance from their social network and cultural differences impeding their academic success (Myles & Cheng, 2003; Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland & Ramia, 2008; Shaffer, Vardaman & Miller, 2010; Zhai, 2004).

Although the above discussion has detailed distinctive features of the experience of international students, they are not necessarily distinct and discrete and the presence of one factor may exacerbate or moderate the impact of another. For instance, it is clear that the stress (a psycho-social factor) caused by financial difficulty (a social factor) will have a negative effect on a student's capacity to concentrate on academic study (an academic factor).

## Conclusion

The paper offered considerable discussion and analysis to show that the concept of academic success for international students in higher education is a complex matter. In short, this paper recognises that within the Western literature, it is the academic, social or personal and psychological factors that have been found to influence the academic success of international students. The research is clear that although personal and individual attributes of the students themselves are important, the supports and services provided by the educational institutions are also significant in their contribution to students' academic success.

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# Developing Socially Responsible Universities

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## Introduction

Organisations, regardless of the nature of their operations, have significant impacts on their surroundings including stakeholders, the natural environment, resources, community, and the society at large. Thus, they are expected to act as “moral agents” within societies, placing their social responsibilities over personal interests and private gains (Wong & Jamilah, 2010: 594).

The concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (henceforth CSR), which assigns organisations to taking their social responsibilities into account is, to a larger extent, associated with the standards of sustainable development, suggesting that decision makers of an organisation are expected to focus on the immediate and long-term social and environmental effects of their operations. Carroll (1991), who proposed the Pyramid of CSR for the corporate sector, states that the concept of CSR may often be replaced with several other concepts including social responsiveness, social performance, public policy, ethics, or stakeholder management, but a fundamental challenge is to “define the kinds of responsibilities that management and businesses have to the constituency groups with which they transact and interact most frequently” (Carroll, 1991: 47).

**“Universities can analyse social and economic structures and needs of the community in which they are located; this will lead them to create research and development opportunities so that the local needs are met, contributing to the development of the region, and indirectly to that of the whole country and the world.”**

The Pyramid of CSR suggests that four types of social responsibilities constitute total CSR; *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, and *philanthropic*. *Economic* component refers to the fact that businesses are supposed to make profit and grow by producing “goods and services that a society wants and to sell them at profit” (Carroll, 1979: 500); *Legal* responsibilities

refer to “the laws and regulations under which business is expected to operate” (ibid: 500); *Ethical* responsibilities refer to the “expectations of business over and above legal requirements” (ibid: 500); and *Philanthropic* responsibilities are referred to as purely voluntary actions taken by business, even though society has never delivered any clear-cut message about them (ibid).

Like the corporate sector, universities must remain relevant to the society. There are considerable interconnections and interdependencies between universities and societies, resulting in contemporary relationships established between the higher education sector and their internal stakeholders including students and staff (the community of scholars), administration and management, as well as the external stakeholders comprising research communities, alumni, businesses, social movements, consumer organisations, governments and professional associations. Such interconnections and interdependencies relate to the external functions of universities namely economic and social functions that they carry out. In terms of teaching, research and knowledge fostering, these functions do have local, regional, national and international components (Jongbloed et al., 2008).

## Discussion

### Universities and Societies

Universities are required to reconsider their roles in societies and in the globalising world. They are required to evaluate their relationships with their stakeholders (Jongbloed et al., 2008) since they can insure the future of nations and the universe (Topal, 2009). Whether public or private, large or small, universities play fundamental roles in societies through fostering knowledge, educating individuals, and providing societies with intellectual and cultural capital. Thus, universities can contribute to creating sustainable societies by developing CSR agendas through which they can play more intellectual and effective roles with greater and sustainable impacts.

Universities can analyse social and economic structures and needs of the community in which they are located; this will lead them to create research and development opportunities so that the local needs are met, contributing to the development of the region, and indirectly to that of the whole country and the world. Besides, many universities, nowadays, are establishing systematic and strategic alliances with those universities and educational institutions located

in other countries, addressing international issues in the globalising worlds.

**“Providing quality education, equal opportunities for students with and without disabilities, training and graduating highly-skilled workforce, providing career guidance, are some of the examples of the legal components of social responsibilities taken by a university.”**

Attraction of international students, publications addressing global issues, and holding international conferences to exchange knowledge and experiences are some of the other paths to widen the contribution of a university to a broader context. Pursuing these fundamental missions, universities need to provide quality, efficiency and effectiveness not merely to the national community which defines the legal and historic responsibilities of universities, but also to a broader range of stakeholders exceeding national borders.

### **Universities and CSR**

Having said the importance of the roles that universities can play in societies, it seems necessary for universities to have their CSR programmes and agendas developed. Carroll’s Pyramid of CSR may be applied for developing universities’ CSR agendas. In fact, being comprehensive enough and having been widely applied in a huge number of studies which address various issues, this model is able to define the basic principles for CSR agenda of a university.

### **Economic Responsibilities of Universities**

Universities can contribute to the economic development in a society through various mechanisms. The higher education sector is potentially able to act as a driver of economic development (OECD, 2007). Universities are increasingly being viewed as an economic asset; unlike corporations, they are recognised as permanent institutions, safer for economic development programmes in societies.

There are some economic roles that universities are expected to play; these roles comprise the knowledge and skills needed by workforce of a society within the contemporary knowledge-based economies (Jongbloed et al., 2008). Besides, there are some demands put on universities to be relevant to society’s economy through developing research areas and disseminating knowledge that motivate a flourishing

growth within these economies (Enders & Fulton, 2002). As mentioned before, universities are expected to reassess their functions; they need to examine their teaching and research functions with a particular focus on the contributions that they can make to the social-economic well-being of their environment—be it the regional, national, or international (Jongbloed et al., 2008).

### **Legal Responsibilities of Universities**

Generally, there are always some principles and legislations that assign universities to meeting some legally- required social responsibilities. Social responsibilities of this type can be recognised as the basic functions that universities have within the respective society or country. Providing quality education, equal opportunities for students with and without disabilities, training and graduating highly-skilled workforce, providing career guidance, are some of the examples of the legal components of social responsibilities taken by a university.

### **Ethical Responsibilities of Universities**

Apart from the legally-required social responsibilities of universities, managers and policy makers of a university can take into account the expectations that stakeholders have of the university. It is important that universities recognise the ethical responsibilities that they hold towards the society in which they are operating. Universities can operate in an ethical way through various approaches and initiatives, some of which are mentioned below as the most important ones.

**“Universities can both financially and technically support initiatives like public education programmes, capacity building initiatives, and awareness enhancement workshops and seminars. ”**

The first and foremost step for universities to incorporate ethics in their social responsibilities is by developing community engagement programmes. There provide universities with a range of potentials to act as a good citizen. Another contribution of universities to ethical responsibilities is to develop research agendas addressing social, economic, and cultural issues within a society; this way, universities can significantly demonstrate being socially responsible.

Establishing strong collaborations with the corporate sector can be another good example of what universities can do in terms of ethically taking their social responsibilities.



Corporations can provide internship (student placement) opportunities for students and graduates of universities, demanding for retraining and re-skilling their employees (Garlick, 2000).

Furthermore, universities can develop courses related to ethics, CSR, sustainable development and some other related areas to equip students, regardless of what they are studying, with necessary information on how to consider their social responsibilities in their future career. Institutionalising ethics in the offered programmes and courses, universities can provide societies with a continual development strategy that excels short-term CSR initiatives.

### **Philanthropic Responsibilities of Universities**

Moving one step beyond the ethical responsibilities, universities can philanthropically address social responsibilities by recognising the regional, national, or international social needs they can cover; those which are not legally or ethically required. Although the first three categories are believed to be embodying ethical norms, philanthropic actions refer to those ethical and behaviours that neither law nor society members expect organisations to consider.

Universities can both financially and technically support initiatives like public education programmes, capacity building initiatives, and awareness enhancement workshops and seminars. Activities of this type are developed to meet the social needs of the community. This philanthropic participation of universities can even have students involved as the facilitators, organisers, or instructors; this can help students build their own capacities and soft skills needed for a better future.

### **Conclusion**

Being socially responsible is necessary for universities considering the huge impacts they can make on the community, country and eventually on the world. Besides, CSR can create a better legitimacy of higher education in societies that will increasingly develop stronger ties between the stakeholders and universities. The trust built by socially responsible universities can create a better reputation for them, leading to many positive changes. This can also empower universities in functioning better both in academia and social context, ensuring a sustainable tomorrow.

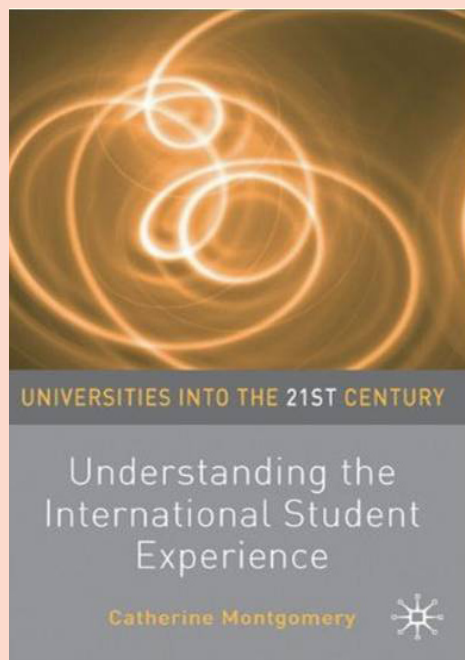
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### Catherine Montgomery: *Understanding the International Student Experience (Universities into the 21st century)*

Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2010, 158 pp.

Doria Abdullah, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia



More often than not, the university community seeks empirical and observable evidence to understand internationalisation of higher education, such as numerical values on student mobility, resource allocation and collaborative efforts with foreign counterparts, as well as social markers that differentiate an individual with another, such as skin colour, language, lifestyle and religious beliefs.

While numbers and observations may speak on the transformational changes brought about by internationalisation, it may not portray the real impact of the phenomenon. A university is a platform where cultures and languages collide within an intellectually stimulating environment; a space where all stakeholders accept, accommodate and integrate similarities and differences that come along with a diverse university population. In *Understanding the International Student Experience* (2010), Catherine Montgomery presents and highlights crucial intangible evidence which represents the real “voice” in internationalisation of higher education: the international students’ experience, particularly in academic and social settings of the university.

Montgomery reports on her qualitative research on the experiences of seven international students in a UK university in 2003. The subjects provided in-depth data to the research through semi-structured interviews and shadowing

during the subjects’ lectures and campus activities. She argues that the methodology amplifies the lost “voice” of the international students, which has been generalised by quantitative approaches in previous researches conducted involving international students. Although the data featured a small group of international students, the emerging themes, in particular the students’ contact with local students, the exponential learning in adjusting to a new environment and the students’ personal development will resonate well with other international students pursuing tertiary education in countries other than the UK.

An international student’s decision to study abroad comes with substantial investment and personal sacrifices. Their survival is dependent on practical social networks and emotional “anchor” formed among fellow international students of either similar or varied nationalities. The difficulties in settling down in the initial stages of their arrival become a common theme that bonds the international students; as such, they maintain purposeful and useful relationship with the people they have met. Such engagement builds a combined psychological, academic and social capital of the international students in a new environment and enables them to pass on experiences to other students. The author links this reciprocal relationship to Wenger et al. (2002)’s idea of “community of practice”, defined as “... a group of people who share concerns, problems and interest in a particular topic and who develop their knowledge on this particular topic by interacting with each other”.

Montgomery advocates a strong link between informal and formal curriculum towards improving intercultural interaction and experiences of international students in higher education. It is necessary for universities to acknowledge differences in learning in its diverse student population; the collaboration between staff and students in learning should strip away the stereotypes associated with nationalities and educational backgrounds, focusing instead on best practices that empower learning of the students.

International students are eager to be acquainted with local students – the friendship is much appreciated especially in their attempts at acclimatising to a new environment socially on top of English language mastery and academic support. Echoing findings from other researches, the author describes barriers the international students feel in forming relationships with local students. They believed that the relationship formed with local students is superficial and momentary, and it appeared as if it is the international students’ responsibility to approach and get acquainted with them. However, central to the

barrier are the concerns on the part of international students: their language competency, their maturity beyond that of local students, the prejudgment and stereotyping of local students, also the lack of time in strengthening their relationship beyond classroom interactions. The lack of engaging relationships with local students eventually led the international students to form closer bond with other international students, a disillusionment of the “internationalisation at home” effect much hoped for among the university community, particularly the local students. The author puts forward a question for universities which claims to be “internationalised”: are universities optimising the presence of international students in the campus to internationalise the bulk of staff and students at the campus who might not have the access to go mobile?

It is unclear how the concept of “community of practice” is extended to the relationship between the international students and the faculty members, as well as the administrative staff supporting the international students in academic and auxiliary services of the university. The roles of the faculty and administrative staff cannot be sidelined as they are contributors and implementers in the university’s internationalisation agenda, playing major role in informal and formal learning of the international student community. Nonetheless, Montgomery’s *Understanding the International Student Experience* is a gratifying read for those involved in international education, at a time where massification and privatisation reduced the value of higher education to that of a service transaction between higher education providers and students. The “voice” of international students tells more than just the status of the transaction – it elucidates the readiness, the challenges, and the opportunities all stakeholders should take note in contextualising internationalisation in higher education. The stories of international students, regardless of the number of times they are reiterated, echoes the gap which still needs to be addressed in maximising the international students’ study abroad experiences in the country.

## Global Higher Education Network (GHEN)

### Introduction

Through the National Higher Education Strategic Plan 2 Malaysia's Global Reach: A New Dimension, Malaysia plans to establish herself globally through the higher education channel. The Global Higher Education Network (GHEN) acts as the core that amasses expert higher education players from around the world to facilitate effective cooperation and collaboration which is congruent with the goal of the abovementioned strategic plan: To enhance Malaysia's global presence through reputation and contribution.

Besides fulfilling the nation's globalisation agenda, the network will aid in serving the Global Higher Education Forum (GHEF). This biennial event was established to discuss the relevance of higher education in preparing and training the workforce for sustainable development in an increasingly globalised world. However, GHEF seems to lack crucial follow-up action. Hence, in keeping track with the output of GHEF, GHEN is the key element in overcoming the problem. GHEN serves GHEF as the advisory and think tank on current developments in higher education, specialising in higher education systems and ecosystem. In addition to soliciting ideas for GHEF, GHEN seeks to strengthen existing GHEF connections and collaborations while widening participation across borders.

### Objectives

- To sustain a research base on higher education, focusing on higher education futures and alternative models and perspectives;
- To serve GHEF as the advisory and think tank on current developments in higher education, especially on the future of higher education systems and ecosystems;
- To link, connect and collaborate with existing and future partner institutions and individuals

### Membership

Membership of GHEN is open to the following entities:

- higher education institutions;
- local and international organisations (e.g., OIC, CENPRIS, etc.);
- interested individuals, researchers and academics.

### Benefits to Members

Members of GHEN may have access to or take part in the following:

- extensive networks, links and global contacts;
- bulletins, publications, write-ups, updates, videos and presentations;
- research projects;
- special issue workshops, conferences and seminars;
- consultancy;
- fellowships and scholarships;
- staff or expert exchange programmes;
- an online interactive forum; and
- a database of global experts in higher education.

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# Calling for Articles and News Briefs

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1. Manuscripts should be written in English, typed using Times New Roman 12 point font, and double spaced on only one side of A4 size paper with ample left and right margins on Microsoft Word.
2. The length of the manuscripts should not exceed 1,500 words. An abstract of about 150 words should be included.
3. Authors are responsible for obtaining permission to use any published material. The publisher shall not be held responsible for the use of such material.
4. Citations in the text should include the author's last name and date of publication, e.g. (Ashton, 2001). If quotations are used, page numbers should be indicated, eg. (Ashton, 2001: 30).
5. Endnotes may be used.
6. Include tables and figures within the text. Number tables and figures consecutively.
7. The reference list should be arranged in alphabetical order and should include only works cited in the text.

### Examples:

Altbach, P. G. (2004). *The costs and benefits of world-class universities*. Retrieved 23 October 2005 from <http://www.aaup.org/publications/Academe/2004/04jf/04jfalhb.htm>

Mahadhir, M., Ting, S. H. and Carol, D. (2006). *Learning materials and human factors: Looking at the chemistry in the genre-based approach classroom*. Proceedings of 2<sup>nd</sup> Science and Art of Language in Teaching International Conference, 'Change: Bridging Theory and Practice', 20 - 22 November, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Pulau Pinang.

Watkins, D. (1998). A cross-cultural look at perceptions of good teaching: Asia and the West. In J. J. F. Forest (Ed.), *University teaching: International perspectives*. New York: Garland.

Wolfe, R. N. and Johnson, S. D. (1995). Personality as a predictor of college performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 2, 177-185.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

8. All submissions should include a cover page containing the title, name of author(s), designation, affiliation, mailing/ e-mail address and telephone/fax number. A brief biographical note of the author(s) should also be included.
9. Manuscripts submitted must not be those already published or those which have been offered for publication elsewhere.
10. Manuscripts received will be acknowledged but not returned.
11. Submission of a manuscript will mean that the author agrees to transfer copyright of his/her article to the publisher if and when the article is published. Authors who wish to send their articles to be published elsewhere should seek the written agreement of the publisher.
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