urban or semiurban locations. The establishment of rural institutes and agricultural universities was an exception to this trend.

In India, there is a positive correlation between localities that are poorly endowed in terms of HEIs and low enrollment. In the 1970s, public policy paid special attention to the establishment of HEIs in rural, underdeveloped, and hilly areas to reduce rural–urban imbalances in higher education development. However, the proliferation of private HEIs (PHEIs) offset public initiatives to reduce regional inequalities. With the decline in public investment in higher education in the 1980s and onward, the private sector became active in establishing HEIs in urban and semiurban locations, especially in professional and technical subjects.

Concentration on Higher Education Institutions

The authors developed a concentration ratio measure to assess inequalities in the distribution of HEIs. This measure takes into account age group (18–23); total enrollments in higher education; number of institutions per region; average size of institutions; and GER.

Regional disparities in the distribution of HEIs have widened. For example, the number of institutions per 100,000 inhabitants varies from seven in Bihar to 56 in Telangana. While the number of HEIs have increased in all states, the rates of growth vary. In other words, the increasing regional inequalities in the provision of higher education are due more to variations in the rates of growth of institutions than in an absence of growth.

Regional inequalities in higher education development have widened and social inequalities continue to be high, while gender inequalities are narrowing down.

In most states, the concentration ratio is positively correlated with the GER and inversely correlated with the average size of institutions. These findings imply that states with a high concentration of HEIs have larger institutions and higher enrollment in each institution. This is not surprising, given the high and positive correlation (0.84) between the number of HEIs and higher secondary schools whose graduates create increased social demand for higher education.

A further analysis indicates that states that have a higher share of private, unaided institutions also have a higher density of HEIs. The increase in the number of PHEIs has contributed to an increased concentration of HEIs in the states. On the other hand, states that predominantly depend on public institutions a have lower concentration of HEIs. These trends show that the market response to growing social demand for higher education is a reason for increased concentration of HEIs in urban areas.

The analysis based on 635 districts found that there is high concentration of HEIs in some districts compared to a low availability of HEIs in other districts. The analysis showed 17 districts without a single higher education institution and 191 districts with a very low concentration ratio—these districts must pay urgent attention to the need to open new HEIs. Fifty-four districts must establish general HEIs, 121 districts need technical HEIs, and 16 districts require both types. Right behind, some 293 districts are also in need of establishing HEIs to cover the needs of their populations.

Utility of Concentration Ratios

The overall conclusion from the analysis is that there is concentration of HEIs and an urban bias in higher education development in India. Nearly 75 percent of the districts are deprived of HEIs, either partially or fully. Establishing new HEIs in line with the prioritization indicated by the concentration ratio may help the country to level off existing inequalities in the provision of higher education and to reach a more balanced regional coverage. ■

The Internationalization Agenda of African Universities in the Next Decade

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The internationalization mission of African universities has evolved from initial failed attempts to more recent efforts to ground internationalization in the strategic vision of the institution. In this article, we review how internation-

alization should be approached by African universities in the next decade and how a greater focus on the third mission of universities, community engagement, could allow them to harness internationalization to enhance their capacity and make more contributions that are meaningful to the needs of their society and economy.

The Early International Mission

The concept of internationalization is not a new one for African universities. One of the main events following the establishment of universities in sub-Saharan Africa as independent countries in the 1950s and the 1960s was the UNESCO Conference on the Development of Higher Education, held in September 1962 in Antananarivo. One of the key topics discussed at that conference was "the national and international mission of an African university." Back then, the conference recognized the benefits of internationalization for African universities as "increasing their chances of collaborating with other universities in Europe and in Africa as well as helping their students to have a world-class training which would enhance their ability to compete with graduates from across the world."

In practice, however, the internationalization agenda of African universities was not fully pursued, chiefly because most postindependent governments pushed for the "Africanization" of university curricula and other key activities in the context of their nationalist agenda. It is only in the late 1990s that the concept of globalization became relevant for national governments. The emergence of the world university rankings after the launch of Shanghai Jiao Tong University's Academic Ranking of World Universities in 2002 gave more meaning to the need for African universities to pursue an international agenda, explaining why it has become a core mission since then.

Internationalization Efforts since 2003

After 2003, universities in Africa began to develop an international mission and to establish offices of international programs for that purpose (for example, at the University of Ghana, the University of Ibadan, the University of Nairobi, and the University of Dar es Salaam). Initially, these offices were essentially in charge of coordinating the mobility of students and staff. They also worked with international donors to gain funding, for instance, for research centres.

In recent years, to improve on their internationalization efforts, African universities have given more importance and responsibilities to their offices of international programs by upgrading them: examples include Stellenbosch University, which has an office of the deputy vice-chancellor international, the University of Dar es Salaam with its "directorate for internationalisation," and Kenyatta University and its "centre for international programmes and collaborations." These universities have expanded the duties of these offices to spearhead their advancement through closer engagement with alumni and foreign embassies (to secure cooperation with donors and universities in these embassies' countries).

Since the early 2000s, when a number of universities in Africa began to develop their internationalization agenda, their efforts have yielded positive results in the research area. According to Web of Science data, the first 50 most-cited articles from top African universities in Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, and Tanzania were in their majority coauthored with researchers from universities in industrialized countries. In addition, universities in Africa are now developing joint master's and doctoral degrees with international partner universities.

Internationalization is not one-sided, with African universities always looking up to the West for collaborations, partnerships, and support.

Furthermore, it is interesting to observe that, while the internationalization agenda of most African universities in East, West, and South Africa have focused on North American and European universities in their linkages, traditional universities in South Africa (the University of Cape Town, Stellenbosch University, and the University of the Free State) have sought to internationalize by establishing African regional centres as a means to improve scholarship and regional development in Africa. For example, Stellenbosch University has set up the African Doctoral Academy, and the University of Johannesburg partners with regional bodies such as Southern Africa Development Cooperation (SADC).

Internationalization is not one-sided, with African universities always looking up to the West for collaborations, partnerships, and support. Universities and national governments, especially in Europe, fund cutting-edge research, postgraduate studies, and other university projects with African universities. An example is the German government's WASCAL research program, which has created 10 graduate schools in West Africa, contributing to the education of the next generation of African scientists and policy makers in the field of climate change and land management. Accomplished faculty head research chairs at select African universities. For instance, Dr. Peter Weingart, a professor

emeritus of sociology and science policy at the University of Bielefeld, Germany, holds a South African research chair in science communication at Stellenbosch University.

In the past five years, a growing number of universities have articulated a clear internationalization strategy to improve their international collaboration efforts. For instance, the University of Nairobi, the University of Dar Es Salaam, and the University of the Free State have embedded their internationalization agenda into their new strategic plans. The University of Ghana underwent an international evaluation by the International Association of Universities to help improve its internationalization efforts.

What Is Lacking in the Internalization Agenda

From the foregoing, it is evident that many African universities have reaped substantial benefits from their internationalization policies. However, flagship universities have difficulty when aligning their internationalization activities with their mission and vision and when seeking to contribute to national and regional development. Their internationalization agenda is not sufficiently focused on the science, technology, and innovation targets of regional bodies such as SADC and the African Union. International collaborations should be leveraged to fill capacity gaps and help African universities to increase their engagement with local and regional communities.

Internationalization in the Next Decade

In order to fully reap the benefits of their internationalization agendas established over the past two decades, African flagship universities need to evaluate the impact of these agendas in terms of accomplishing their vision and mission. A good example to follow is the University of Ghana, which has documented the lessons learnt and used them to develop a new internationalization strategy. Internationalization strategies should be fully aligned with African-wide and regional development plans for higher education.

African universities should seek to build strong partnerships with reputable regional research networks to improve their capacity to do research and publish in recognized journals. This would involve working closely with diaspora networks and connecting with African academics attached to universities in industrialized countries. In addition, internationalization should facilitate partnerships that can provide capacity building for good governance and leadership, with careful attention to transparency and accountability.

The internationalization agenda of African universities should not just follow a global trend, but be part of the institutional strategy and contribute to the overarching goals set out in the vision and mission of each institution. As such, internationalization efforts must not remain hidden in internationalization offices, but be part of all major initiatives and operations of universities, with the full commitment and active participation of all academic actors. ■

Engaging the Ethiopian Knowledge Diaspora

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Despite the absence of precise data, there is a general consensus that Africa has a massive intellectual resource in its diaspora, which can help boost its effort to improve higher education. For instance, in 2012, the UN reported that, according to a conservative estimate, there were about 1,600 individuals of Ethiopian origin with doctoral level training in Canada and the United States alone; this number has no doubt increased since. Other popular destinations of the Ethiopian diaspora, such as the United Kingdom, Germany, Norway, and Australia, may present comparable cases. In contrast, at the very same time—in the 2011–2012 academic year—there were only about 1,100 Ethiopian academics with doctoral level training in the entire Ethiopian public higher education system (6.2 percent of the total teaching staff).

The contribution of the African diaspora in areas of knowledge and higher education has long been far below its potential. Among other things, two factors can help explain this inadequacy. First is the spiteful political relationship between members of the intellectual diaspora and repressive regimes in their respective home countries. This prevents the diaspora from engaging, particularly with public institutions. Second, there is no well-articulated diaspora engagement strategy and institutional support system that emphasizes knowledge and technology transfer. The limited engagements that exist remain informal and fragmented. The Ethiopian case mirrors the hope and despair of many African countries in similar situations, reflected in institutional frailty and a need for political reforms.

Political Momentum

The nomination of a new prime minister in April of 2018 changed the dynamics of the relationship between the Ethiopian government and the diaspora. The new prime