others are under medium risk due to the population decline.

Migration as a Counterdevelopment

Only the high immigration rates have thus far maintained the annual population growth in the EU. However, from 2025 on immigration will not be enough to sustain the natural population growth, and a decrease will be observed. In some countries projected net migration reinforces population growth and in others, it reverses the trend of population decline (Austria, Croatia, Germany, Greece, Italy, Slovakia, and Slovenia). Countries receiving immigration might thus be able to maintain the higher education population. However, countries that lack natural population growth due to low birthrates and at the same time are major senders of immigrants to other countries face the severe risk of contraction of higher education institutions, stagnation within the education market as well as the labor market, and thus a decline in economic growth. Today it looks unlikely that increased immigration can fully compensate the potential loss of enrollments in higher education. Moreover, other concerns spring to mind. Are schools prepared to enroll mostly foreigners? Are university curricula responsive to immigrants' needs? Are universities ready to open their doors to foreign staff?

Demographic changes will seem to have an impact on higher education institutions, which will enroll fewer native and more foreign students and staff in the future.

A typology of projected higher education in 2050 has been developed by Mızıkacı (*From Here to There: Mileposts in Higher Education*, ed. B. Baumgartl and A. Glass. Vienna: Navreme Publications Series, 2007). According to this classification, by 2050 many countries—except for Denmark, Luxemburg, Sweden, and the United Kingdom—will hardly be enrolling only their domestic population in higher education. Due to labor migration, countries such as Germany, Denmark, Spain, France, the United Kingdom, and Ireland will continue to host second generations of migrants enrolled in tertiary education. Countries whose higher education systems are at risk include the former Eastern bloc countries, due to low birthrates and negative migration rates: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, and Croatia.

Challenges and Prospects

For the current and projected cases in eastern European countries it is remarkable that the majority of countries under risk are also "higher education export" countries, sending students and academic staff abroad rather than "importing" foreign students or staff. Moreover, the number of outgoing students is increasing every year while incoming student numbers have been declining.

In aging European societies, societal and sector needs will create and/or improve the programs and vocational training related to health and elderly issues. The health sector will need more professionals and skilled workers. Programs in fields covering elderly issues, medical care, health vocational training, public services, and lifelong learning will also gain more importance. Finally, students beyond the traditional 18-24-year student age will also be enrolling in higher education institutions.

Demographic changes will seem to have an impact on higher education institutions, which will enroll fewer native and more foreign students and staff in the future. The nonnative population in higher education will come from two sources—migration and mobility programs. This will require changes in the present structures: more flexibility and openness to the world in teaching and learning; broader access for world students and academics; differentiation in quality and excellence; managing communication and diversity; and coordination and organization at the European level. Only the higher education institutions that will provide the successful integration of immigrant and foreign students will be able to cope with the remarkable impacts of demographic changes in Europe. ■

Shifting Demographics in Sub-Saharan Africa

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According to various population assessments and projections, the world population will grow significantly in the next few decades. In sub-Saharan Africa, despite the increase in mortality caused by various diseases—in particular, AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria—several analyses and projections based on fertility and mortality rates and migration indicate that population growth will continue to increase. Indeed it is projected that Africa's share of the world population, which increased from 8.9 to 12.8 percent during the period from 1950 to 1995, will rise to more than 18 percent by 2050. This population growth will pose a major challenge to higher education institutions in terms of access.

In sub-Saharan Africa, despite the rapid growth in student enrollments in the past two decades, all the indicators used to measure the level of development of a higher education system show that higher education is the least developed in the

regions of the world. Moreover, the enrollment patterns of higher education institutions in Africa reveal a major underrepresentation of groups such as women, people living in rural areas, and learners with special needs. Therefore, one of the major challenges facing African governments is to widen access to higher education significantly enough to cope with rapid population growth and to address the needs of underrepresented groups. This challenge is exacerbated by the anticipated increase in demand for higher education that will result from the successful implementation of UNESCO's Education for All goals.

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Ensuring a 40 to 50 percent enrollment rate of the relevant population group is necessary for a country to perform effectively in a competitive world. Even though several developed countries have already achieved this percentage, in most developing countries, in particular in sub-Saharan Africa, the enrollment rates are lower than 5 percent.

In addition to the anticipated increase in traditional student enrollment rates, globalization has led to the emergence of new training needs and pedagogic delivery modes. This means that further demand for higher education will come from adult learners seeking lifelong learning, refresher courses, and study programs leading to internationally recognized qualifications. In sub-Saharan Africa higher education institutions are also compelled to train huge numbers of unqualified primary and secondary school teachers and to strengthen teaching capacity at all levels in HIV and AIDS prevention education.

Under these circumstances, higher education institutions in Africa need to revisit their policies, structures, and operations to meet the demands for access and the requirements of more diverse learners—including part-time students, entrepreneurs, primary and secondary school teachers, and students with special needs. This challenge is being addressed through revision of curricula; capacity building in pedagogy; new modes of higher education delivery; innovative open, distance and technology-mediated learning; revised or new quality assurance and accreditation frameworks; and innovative approaches to transform brain drain into brain gain.

New Modes of Higher Education Delivery

Several African countries have established open and distance education programs to respond to the increase in demand and the needs of the new types of learners. These include departments of distance education in traditional universities, the Open University of Tanzania, the Open University of Zimbabwe, the National Open University of Nigeria, and the Zambian Open University. Many other countries are in the process of setting up similar institutions. Several other higher education providers located both in Africa and overseas are offering cross-border study programs through intensive use of information and communication technologies (ICTs). These include the African Virtual University (AVU), the Francophone Virtual Campuses, the University of South Africa, and overseas universities mainly based in Australia, the United Kingdom, and France.

For example, the AVU has transformed from a World Bank project to an independent organization with 57 learning centers in 27 African countries. The AVU set up partnerships with four major institutions overseas—the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (United States), the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (Australia), the Université Laval (Canada), and the Indiana University of Technology (United States)—to develop learning resources and offer a variety of degree programs to African learners through selected African universities like the University of Addis Ababa and the University of Dar es Salaam.

Support of Higher Education and ICTs in Education

In Africa, support of higher education has been reaffirmed through two major decisions—namely the inclusion of higher education in the seven-core programs of the action plan for the implementation of the African Union Decade of Education in Africa (2006–2015) and the decision taken by the African Development Bank to establish a division of higher education, science and technology, and vocational education.

While the use of ICTs, in particular Internet and e-learning, has helped to widen access to higher education in Africa and to address the needs of new learners, there are still a number of factors hampering expansion of technology-mediated learning. These include limited infrastructure and skills and high costs of computers and software. Hopefully these issues are currently being addressed by African governments in collaboration with major ICT-stakeholders. Current initiatives being undertaken to improve ICT infrastructure and skills include construction of the East African submarine fiber cable to help close the fiber optic ring around Africa; the New Partnership for African Development e-school initiative to provide ICT equipment, skills and knowledge, and Internet connectivity to primary and secondary school students in 600,000 schools across Africa; and the One Laptop per Child project involving several African countries.

The use of ICTs, in particular Internet and e-learning, has helped to widen access to higher education

In conclusion, the demand for access to higher education will increase significantly in the next few years due to the rapid

population growth and the impacts of globalization. This situation will pose at least two major challenges to African governments—namely, developing and sustaining ICT infrastructure and skills for the expansion of technology-based delivery modes and enhancing the quality of higher education provision. The various initiatives highlighted in the previous section indicated that the challenge of ICT infrastructure and skills is being addressed adequately. The issue of quality is being approached at least through two major strategies—the adaptation of existing quality assurance and accreditation frameworks in response to the emerging delivery modes or the development of new ones and the reversal of the phenomenon of brain drain. ■

Chile: Accreditation versus Proliferation

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In October 2006, after four years of deliberation in Congress, Chile's new Quality Assurance Act (QAA) was signed into law. The act organizes an accreditation system for higher education programs and institutions and reflects a compromise between highly divergent philosophies of regulation. The left-of-center administration and its allies in Congress promoted accreditation as the responsibility of a national, public, and specialized agency. The right-wing opposition, in turn, supported a regulated marketplace of private accreditation agencies that institutions and their programs could freely choose to engage. The outcomes means that the accreditation of institutions (akin to the US regional accreditation) will be carried out by a public national accreditation commission, composed mostly of academics. Accreditation of undergraduate, master's, and doctoral programs will be undertaken by private accreditation agencies, national or foreign, licensed and supervised by the commission.

In accordance with the QAA, accreditation is voluntary, except in the case of undergraduate programs in medicine and education, for which accreditation is mandatory. If a program in these fields is not accredited, its students are not eligible for state-supported financial aid. While institutions can choose not to be accredited, a student aid law passed last year—also an example of Chile's "carrot" approach to regulation—makes accreditation of institutions (not programs) a condition for students to have access to private educational loans warranted by the government.

The Current Context

The main impetus behind Chile's QAA was a second wave of unruly expansion of higher education provision. The first boost came in the early 1990s—in part a consequence of the hasty licensing (i.e., initial authorization to operate) of dozens of new private institutions in the final months of the Pinochet regime (1973–1990). Private growth regained momentum with the turn of the new century when most private institutions were granted, after a decade of close supervision by a licensing board, full autonomy to open new degree programs and campuses without prior academic review. In practice, as private institutions achieved full autonomy, higher education provision became deregulated; public universities were never subject to any licensing requirements and operated with full autonomy all along.

While subject to regulatory oversight, private universities' expansive thrusts could be effectively reined in. However, as soon as this supervision ended, many institutions sought avidly to make up for their loss of market share by offering everything everywhere. Students matriculated in private universities doubled their numbers between 2000 and 2005. Several private universities experienced a fourfold or higher increase in the numbers of their students in the same period. Nonselective public institutions rapidly followed suit, and a sort of arms race broke out to capture students, which in the end drove overall higher education enrollments up by more than 30 percent between 2000 and 2005.

For a country whose higher education institutional base is 90 percent private, with over two-thirds of students matriculated in the private sector, and with public universities also dependent on tuition fees, the ongoing expansion of higher education is not a surprising development: students are the lifeblood of the market system. Yet even the most ardent defenders of private initiative and private funding in education had to concede that this new expansion was coming at the expense of quality, precisely when the low performance level of Chile's education, as compared to newly industrialized countries, had become one of the most salient policy concerns across the political spectrum. The context was, therefore, favorable for the introduction of some form of quality assurance for the newly autonomous private institutions and public institutions that had overextended their entrepreneurial drive.

> *Chile joins Argentina, Colombia, El Salvador, and a handful of other countries in Latin America that in the last decade have organized accreditation systems for public and private institutions.*

Accreditation as Delayed Regulation

With this new law, Chile joins Argentina, Colombia, El