NORRAG NEWS

NORTHERN POLICY RESEARCH REVIEW AND ADVISORY NETWORK ON EDUCATION AND TRAINING (NORRAG)

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SPECIAL THEME ON

KNOW LEDGE, RESEARCH & INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

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EDITORIAL

Kenneth King

The first item to note in this brief page is that many of us have lost with Patricio Cariola's death a source of inspiration for our work in educational networking. His life long friends, Beatrice Avalos and Emesto Schiefelbein, capture aspects of what made him so special in their moving paragraphs after this editorial. But we in NORRAG owe him a very special debt for encouraging us at a time in the late 1980s when he had many more pressing matters in hand.

In his own work he saw the importance of maintaining, during a very lengthy period of authoritarian rule in the Southern Cone, the role of critical commentary on education, and of providing through the REDUC network of documentation centres a key source of up-to-date information and analysis for research and policy.

It is entirely fitting in this issue of NN dedicated to understanding knowledge management' and knowledge sharing' to recognise that, bug before these awkward terms were first used, Patricio was the knowledge and information manager par excellence. He had a knowledge policy' that was not at all centred only on building up the institution of CDE and its staff, in Santiago, for whom he was responsible, but, as we have said, he was concerned to create, across Latin America and the Caribbean, an institutional resource for education of extraordinary scale. But it took very considerable bugtern fund-raising efforts to maintain this far-flung resource. Fortunately, Patricio was also a fund-raising manager of consummate skill, and when there was a project for which he felt passionately on behalf of the poor of Latin America, or for building boal capacity, it was virtually in possible to say no.

Patricio was never a recipient' though he secured a great dealof funding for Chile and for Latin Am erica. Donors' always felt they were in a genuine partnership relationship rather than giving him aid. There was complete symmetry between him self and those he worked with in the North - whether researchers or funders. He genuinely felt that the knowledge production of his staff, and the range of what was achieved through REDUC was not Southern knowledge', but was as relevant as any research in OECD countries. Hence his export of REDUC to North America and to Europe, and in part to Africa.

Thus it was that NORRAG's relations with Patricio and with other leaders in REDUC was not some speciallink with a Southern network'. But a relationship with equals, where it was a realtwo way know ledge transaction. It was for this reason also that Itook part of my own sabbatical in 1984 in CDE - one of the most memorable months of my academ is career.

It is an interesting footnote that it was Patricio and CDE that first brought two of the current NORRAG folk together, at a meeting in Santiago on apprenticeship. KK found that he had been put into the same room as a young Frenchm an called MichelCarton back in 1980. A good bit of social networking amongst Europeans by Patricio and the beginning of a long friendship between Micheland me.

Other Items

A good number of the articles in this issue are linked to an international meeting that NORRAG, DSE and the Centre of African Studies organised with the support of Wolfgang Gmelin in Bonn in April 2001. The expanded version of the arguments presented here can be found in the book to be launched at Oxford in September (see below).

As an expression of the New NORRAG', it is symbolic that this will be the first issue of NORRAG NEW S to go on the web. We shall try and monitor what this means for the dissemination of NN. In another dimension of dissemination, we have now, through the good work of UED, managed to put all issues of NORRAG NEW S on to a single CD-ROM. Right back to its beginnings in Stockholm and in Edinburgh in 1986. We would appreciate your feedback.

NORRAG is playing a key role in two majorm eetings in September. One of these is its on-going work with a large number of donors in the Working Group on International Cooperation on Skills Development, which is set alongside a major SDC conference, on the linking of Skills, Work and Knowledge in Interlaken (see the Meetings section).

The otherm aprevent that NORRAG has participated in every two years is the UK Forum 's Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development. It is running from the 19th to the 21st of September, and it too is on a theme that is close to the focus of NN28. The theme is *Knowledge, Values and Policy*. As usual there will be an Annual General Meeting of NORRAG, and a chance formembers to meet our new President, Ingemar Gustafsson of Swedish Sida, as well as members from Europe and around the world. Speaking as the Chair of this year's Oxford Conference, I would urge many of you to try and attend. We have a superblist of plenary speakers, including the new Director of the IEP, and the new Director of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

You can of course register on the web, but a copy of the registration form is included with this issue of NN.

On Friday 21st Septem ber, we shall bunch the book on *Know ledge*, *Research and International Cooperation* which is the outcome of the DSE/NORRAG/CAS international conference, hosted by DSE in Bonn in Aprilthis year.

Geneva July 23rd 2001

FATHER PATRICIO CARIOLA, S.J.

He left us in the afternoon of June 20^{th} after a long struggle with liver cancer and with enough time to say goodbye to almost every one of the friends in Chile and beyond whom he made throughout a lifetime of dedication to the tasks of education.

Patricio as many of us called him was a bver of people and a trem endous pusher for change that could have a meaning in people's lives. Im et him as he was returning from doing a Master's at Harvard University and engaged in the struggle to modernise Catholic schools in Chile while at the same time lending a hand in the educational reform that begun its course in 1965. He soon saw that if there was to be educational change in Chile there would be need for institutional work geared to that purpose. And that is how his main creation the Centre for Research and Development of Education (CDE) came into being. From this Centre he saw the need for networking and linking people and institutions engaged in education, and thus he was a the heart of the Latin Am erican Research Meetings that took place in the late sixties and early seventies. When the Research Review and Advisory Group came into being in the late seventies, Patricio was in a position to link this worldwide network to the bcal research and documentation activity he had set up in the early 1970s - the Latin American network (REDUC). Because of this rare quality of being the friend of the hum blest person in a Santiago or Antofagasta area and at the same time a man of the widerworld, Patricio was the only Chilean who was officially invited to be part of the Jom tien Conference on Education for All. Chile recognised him with the National Prize in Education in 1999.

While his contributions to educational change were enormous, Patricio was also a man of courage and trem endous byalty to the many friends he had. He stood up for those persecuted in Chile during the military dictatorship to the point of going to prison for helping som eone in need. At CDE he harbored some of the best minds in the educational field during the dictatorship period who were able to develop and produce, and later contribute to educational change in democracy. He was there when any of those he knew and cared for needed him. This was my experience and that of so many others in Chile and other parts of the world. We will miss you terribly, Patricio, and we thank God for the gift of knowing you and learning from you.

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Patricio Cario la was telling us not too bng ago, with a complicit smile, that his main contribution was to transform ideas and hopes into "business and products" with the critical support of many people. But he did not realize that his life and work were going to be praised by representatives of all political parties in Chile, thus helping to pave the way for a more congenial national life. He was exceedingly grateful for the many people that helped him to launch and develop the large number of projects promoted during his life. In the final months of his stay in the hospital he tried to say thanks to each one of

his byalfriends, but his weakened condition did finally make this difficult. He offered many people, in Chile and abroad, the chance to engage in one of his program mes (carefully selected for each person among his myriad of activities) for in proving opportunities especially form arginal people to share and live a better life.

But one especially remarkable and unexpected outcome was the meeting of the Chilean Senate held in July 10. All political parties (in a country that has been split in sour factions for three decades) voted to mourn his departure. Few people in Chile would have believed that such a meeting could be held, even Patricio him self (in spite of his contagious optimism). Such an optimism helped him to win many up-hill battles, including his 20 years combat with cancer. Looking backward, we must admit that it is almost a miracle that he made CDE operate in Chile for 40 years, that REDUC was developed to share efforts in more than 20 countries, or that he extracted a consensus from Latin American participants in their regionalmeeting, to carry with him to help shape the final declaration in the Jom tien World Conference.

But still, Iwant to highlight this important battle won after his death. Senators of the main four political parties paid hom age to his contribution to better understanding of hum an beings. It was the first time in the last twenty years that such a consensus was reached in Chile. It is a promising sign that a new period of understanding and respect for our neighbours and countrymen is once again developing in Chile.

Santiago, 22nd July 2001.

KNOW LEDGE DEVELOPMENT IN THE AGENCIES

DILEMMAS OF KNOW LEDGE, VALUES AND POLICY DEVELOPMENT CO-OPERATION

KNOW LEDGE, POWER AND POLITICS: THE WORLD BANK AND EDUCATION

MANAGING WHOSE KNOWLEDGE FOR DEVELOPMENT?

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THE SOCIAL THEORY OF KNOW LEDGE AND KNOW LEDGE FOR DEVELOPMENT: IS MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING POSSIBLE?

DILEMMAS OF KNOWLEDGE, VALUES & POLICY IN DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

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A new discourse and architecture of know ledge are visible in much of this issue of NORRAG NEW S. We have deliberately attempted to bok at this discourse in several different contexts — in aid organisations (of all kinds), in universities (North and South), and in networks. But the principal focus of this section of NN28 is the development agency. The implication is that the know ledge revolution is somehow changing the nature of these organisations. In front of our eyes. After all, they have know ledge management (KM) projects, chief know ledge officers, and aspirations towards new forms of know ledge sharing (KS). But has the know ledge discourse really introduced a new way of working? Does know ledge now drive agency policy, or NGO policy?

These questions take us back to some of the most time-honoured questions in the relationship between knowledge and policy. With some of these issues, networks like NORRAG and REDUC have been involved. The original Research Review and Advisory Group (RRAG) was founded on the premise that the synthesis of existing research findings in the South - for policy - was eminently feasible. The mechanism for doing this was termed a State of the Art Review of existing research. REDUC, the Latin American network for the documentation of education whose founder and lifeling supporter, Patricio Cariola we remember in this issue, was also dedicated in the early 1970s to creating the institutional memory on education for the improvement of policy. And just two years ago the Gobal Development Network claimed at its launch that The network's goal is to generate and share knowledge related to development, by sponsoring activities that increase the capacity and effectiveness of policy and research institutes world-wile'.

Overall, I suspect it has been som ewhat more common for research to aspire to influence policy, and to be 'policy-oriented' than for policy to claim to be research-based. But it is probably also true to say that research has been obliged by the conditions of much of its funding to claim a policy orientation, especially in recent years.

Equally in the sphere of policy, there has been a very recent interest in the idea of evidence-based policy. But generally during the 40 or so years in which there has been form aldevelopment aid, it would be hard to claim that aid priorities have been evidence-or know ledge-based. The main shifts in aid - e.g. towards high levelman power creation, towards basic needs, or towards more aid for the poorest, or towards a greater market orientation - have been principally driven by the politics of the different bilateral donor governments or by the UN's changing priorities, or those of the World Bank, the MF and the regional banks, and not at all by research knowledge (see also Klees in this section).

This is not to say that there have not been a smallnum ber of occasions, notably in the W orld Bank, where education policy would appear to have been influenced by particular pieces of research (e.g. that 4 years of education 'm akes a difference' to agricultural

productivity, or on rates of return to different levels of education investment). But several of these have been notoriously contentious, and it may well have been the case that even these best known examples of apparently knowledge-based policy were in reality situations where research legitimated a policy direction that had already been taken on other than research criteria.

It is probably true to say that the bulk of the really large shifts, both in education sector policy, and in aid policy more generally have been driven by the larger politics of the OECD-DAC countries them selves, or North-South or East-W est relations. Thus in the education sector, the agency retreat from support to higher education in the developing world in the late 1970s was not evidence-based; nor was the rise and - later - fall of non-form alleducation in the early and late 1980s; nor was there good evidence that there should be a retreat from agency support to public sector vocational education and training in the early 1990s.

More generally, the enthusiasm by the West for good governance and multiparty democracy in the South appeared very suddenly after the elimination of the global influence of Russia and the Eastern bloc with the fall of the Berlin Wall. A few years later, and after a cluster of world conferences, there appeared the International Development Targets, sanctioned by the OECD-DAC. But it would be impossible to demonstrate that these targets are in any real sense knowledge-based. [The two education targets - on basic education and on girls' education - are even in contradiction with each other]

The meason for this excursion on know ledge and policy is to raise just a small question mark around the very mecent agency pre-occupation with their becoming know ledge agencies. It may well be true of GTZ that it is a know ledge-based company and that it intends to use its development know ledge accumulated over 26 years [See Bergmann in this issue]. But formany bilaterals and multi-laterals, they would need to take a very deep breath to claim that they had been know ledge-based organisations over these almost 40 years.

Whether driven by particular socialorm oral comm imments in the case of NGOs orby a view of their comparative advantage linked to particular sub-sectors for different bilaterals, the history of the last 4 decades of aid would be extremely hard to summarise as evidence-based, even for a single agency, and even for a single sector within any agency, such as Education or SocialDevelopment. Who could possibly argue, for example, that the particular choice of partner countries for a bilateral agency is research or knowledge-based?

Of course, it could be argued, at another level, that the whole enterprise of air has been know ledge-based from the very beginning. In so far as air was concerned with the transfer of know ledge and expertise from North to South through technical co-operation, training abroad, and institutional development, air has been involved with what Tilak, in this issue, calls a one-way know ledge transaction.

But that fundam ental and long-standing aid belief in the transfer of know ledge and in the development of knowledge in the South seems much less than what the new discourse about knowledge is about. That initial conviction led directly to the priority for university development and the creation of high levelmen appower in the 1960s. But the m echanism s for organising the transfer of such expertise North-South (like the Inter-University Council in the UK) were extremely light weight - just a handful of adm inistrators, The same is true form any of the other aid agencies in the 1960s and early 1970s; they were not them selves know ledge-rich or policy rich. Rather they were in the business of facilitating the twinning or partnership between existing expertise in the North and in the developing world. The only exceptions in these early decades were the great foundations, Rockefeller and Ford. They could certainly claim to have been know ledge-based organisations. But, as Aklilu rem inds us in this section, even the W orld Bank had very scarce knowledge resources - at least in the education sector - until the late 1970s. Consequently, the very first policy documents and policy papers of most aid agencies had little pretension to be knowledge-or evidence-based. By contrast, the aid policy papers of the 1990s and early 2000s are on one levelm uch m one know ledge-based and they draw on a rather extensive comparative experience (see Jam ilSalm in this issue).

But the current agency preoccupation with knowledge management and knowledge sharing, and with becoming knowledge agencies' seems much more ambitious than ensuring that policy is more evidence-based. It is, first of all, about the agency itself becoming more of a learning organisation'. This seems harm less enough though it does mark a shift towards staff development for the agency itself, and may point to the influence of private sector corporations on these organisations (see also Whiffen in this issue).

Second, it seems to imply a synthesis of the potentially enorm ous know ledge base of the agency accumulated over the past 20 or 30 years. This may seem a sensible objective, and especially when the new information technology may appear to make this more easily do-able. But in reality, the search to synthesise lessons learned over several decades or best practice in hundreds - even thousands - of projects may prove elusive. It is especially problematic when it is recalled that the decisions on so many of these projects and program mes were not them selves driven by evidence, but by the rapidly changing politics and policies of the time. The notion that there is a vast data base in all donor agencies - including NGOs - just waiting to be tapped for a series of clear lessons is almost certainly a delusion. The study by the Nordic Africa Institute of learning in development co-operation is not at all optimistic about the quality of what might be synthesized - even including the formal evaluations of aid projects (see Wohlgem uth in this issue). For one thing, much of the analysis sitting in donor files is highly donorcentric, and has paid insufficient to what is being learnt by the recipient.

A third challenge is that the synthesising of the most accessible knowledge (the reports, appraisals, reviews etc) would have untapped the famous tack knowledge that all knowledge management approaches acknowledge to be crucially important (see McGinn), and would almost certainly pay insufficient attention to the specificity of the boalcontext in which the project or program me was implemented.

This is not to say that it would not be invaluable for agencies to be more reflective about what they have been doing in different sectors and sub-sectors. But I suspect that an honest account of changing policies over time in almost any sphere of aid would point up more the messiness of the policy process than the chance to gamera rich harvest of lessons for future application.

Recognition of people-to-people learning as crucial

What is intriguing about the whole ediffice of know ledge management in development agencies that has been constructed in the last few years is that almost every institution has come up with some recognition that the absolutely core value in know ledge management is a mechanism for sharing insights amongst like-minded groups. Whether termed communities of practice, them atic networks, professional associations or them atic groups, all know ledge management (KM) seems to have ended up with some system for know ledge sharing (KS). Bellanet, the agency that has spent the most time thinking about know ledge management and know ledge sharing in development organisations, has concluded some of its review of good practice by the rather humbling reminder that The best know ledge transfer mechanism is face-to-face contact. (See Song in this issue).

What is so in portant about this almost trite conclusion is that, if we don't underline this, there is a realdanger, given the hype about digital potential, of thinking that LTs will take care of everything. So it is worth stating again that in all the schemes for knowledge management, networking amongst people remains absolutely crucial. In GTZ there are some 32 such professional groupings; in the World Bank over a hundred, and so on.

But what is insufficiently discussed with the emergence of these communities of practice are fundamental questions about who is a member. There is a natural tendency for agency staff to think of them selves as the first members, and for this then to be extended to a select number of external members. What the extraordinary capacity of CT really does make possible are a series of fundamentally different approaches to the ownership of the aid process.

The greatest tem ptation in the brave new world of know ledge m anagement and know ledge sharing is to focus on the core group in agency headquarters and the main field offices. By contrast, in some countries, e.g. in Sida and also in JCA, there is some exciting thinking about how to make a really large part of the domestic constituency feel part of and take ownership of the aid process (See Matsunaga in this issue).

Most important of all, there is the challenge of making key elements amongst the so-called recipients in the developing world, a regular part of these new knowledge sharing professional communities. It is surely a paradox at a time when communication has been easier and potentially more inclusive than ever before that the greatest continuing challenge to the aid community is the lack of ownership of aid processes by the South.

The architect of the W orld Bank's KM/KS system, Steve Denning's best known 'story' is of the Government of Pakistan asking the W orld Bank field office for a piece of crucial advice on highways. Through the highways them atic group, an answer is returned to the

Government via the Bank within 48 hours, and it draws on expertise in the Jordan and Argentina W B offices, as well as from the highway authorities of South Africa and New Zealand. It is an interesting illustration of connectivity and commitment both inside and outside the Bank once a network is operational. But it also raises a couple of interesting questions, by in plication. The key persons in the Government of Pakistan could them selves have been part of this community of practice. The building of the expert group is itself a valuable step, but clearly, once built, it could be run from outside the World Bank.

L is a model that is suggestive for other expert groups (agency-non-agency, North-South), even if highways expertise is very different from student bans, or modalities of skills development.

The mutine incorporation of Southern policy makers and professionals as members is a continuing challenge for all groups, including NORRAG, that aspire to North-South knowledge sharing.

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KNOW LEDGE, POWER, AND POLITICS: THE WORLD BANK AND EDUCATION

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We live in a society obsessed with "knowledge"—there is endless talk of the knowledge society, the knowledge revolution, knowledge management, etc. Since James Wolfensohn became president of the World Bank ("The Bank" as they call them selves) he has tried to transform it into the global "Knowledge Bank." Admitting that the small amount The Banklends cannot make a difference in education, poverty, or development, the new sales pitch is that "cutting-edge knowledge" and the dissemination of "best practice" can. But what knowledge is disseminated, what is it based on, whose interests does it serve, and what difference will it make?

Debates about Education Knowledge

In the 1960s and 1970s, The Bank moutinely and strongly recommended investing in the expansion and improvement of education, health, and other social services in developing countries. All levels and types of education needed additional resources, from primary to higher to nonformal. Financing could be achieved through progressive income taxes and greater external aid. Then, almost overnight, in the early 1980s, it was decided that countries could not increase taxes to finance social services, that most public monies should go into primary education, and that, at all educational levels, the key problem was not lack of resources but bad management. In provements could be made at low or no cost by eliminating waste, privatizing, and finding more cost-effective ways of providing education (e.g., distance education).

This turnabout, in the space of a few years, was clearly not a result of new social science know ledge but the result of the election of Reagan and Thatcher. The changes in Bank policy followed the Reagan/Thatcher ideological agenda for education and were put in place because the U.S. has almost complete control of The Bank. The change in leadership at the Bank put their "know ledge" machine in motion to support their new agenda: e.g., to show that taxes should not be raised; that privatization yields better outcomes; that investing in any form of in-service or pre-service teacher education has little payoff; and that low-cost efforts, like supplying more textbooks or requiring more exam inations, have the biggest payoffs.(1)

In the U.S. and otherwealthy countries, findings like these about the effectiveness of schools and school resources are hotly contested. What is the impact of alternative approaches to bi-lingual education? to testing? to teaching reading? to changes in class size? to governing higher education? While the pretense of "objective" know ledge is maintained everywhere, in wealthy countries the existence of alternative political perspectives that have sufficient power to support alternative research leads to no agreement on these supposedly scientific questions.

Debates about Development Knowledge

Education know ledge, of course, is no more problem atic than other know ledge. Where did the know ledge supporting neoliberalism and its structural adjustment programs (SAPs) come from? that small governments are best? that privatisation, unfettered free markets, and export promotion are the best way to growth and poverty reduction? This was not the know ledge that dominated the 1970s. On what basis did this change, again almost overnight, in the early 1980s? Whose know ledge is it that the success of the so-called Asian tigers was due to investment in education and free markets? Why was other research-based know ledge ignored that says the (limited and unstable) successes of these countries was due to a government-led, not market led economy, to repressive regimes giving a stable climate for foreign capital, and to the accident of being geographically situated next to the fastest growing market in the world, China?

Based on what know ledge was it decided that the neoliberal "development" policies of The Bank and The Fund (as the MF calls itself) must now begin with a pintly prepared "Poverty Reduction Strategy?" Why do the results of this supposed change in policy still bok exactly like SAPs, except for the rhetoric in which they are wrapped (Klees, 2001)? Based on what know ledge has the Bush administration now decided that the know ledge underlying the directions of The Bank and The Fund have gone too far to the left?! U.S. Treasury Secretary Paulo Neillhas been going after The Bank because, in his view, it is too focused on poverty. The focus should be on growth and that will take care of poverty. (2) The U.S., which in practice also controls The Fund, just appointed Anne Krueger, a Stanford economist, to its No. 2 position. Krueger has said she believes the MF has been paying too much attention to poverty alleviation and that there is no point in giving debt relief to poor countries because they will misspend it (Blustein, 2001). How can one claim that this political imposition of new "know ledge" is objective?

Debates about the Nature of Knowledge

The issues raised above are clearly not specific to education and development knowledge. In the social arena, the "knowledge paradigm" has been a consistent failure. That is, the idea that knowledge will help us get out, at least in part, of the inherently political nature of making collective choices has actually served to further obscure the politics by which these choices get made. The failure of this knowledge paradigm can be seen clearly in boking at the changes in three fields that underlie it—policy science, program evaluation, and research methodology. (3) In the 1950s and 1960s, all three fields were put forth as based on the "rigor" of the natural and physical sciences. All were focused on the scientific gathering of objective, quantifiable data that would yield the knowledge essential to policymaking.

The narrowness of the information gathered, the inapplicability of the methods recommended, and the failure of these enterprises to yield any agreed-upon know ledge soon broke the paradigm, certainly in theory and, at least partially, in practice. A good introduction to research methods course once focused exclusively on quantitative experimental and survey research but now examines a whole variety of qualitative methodologies as well as critical alternatives like action, participative, or feminist research methods. Policy science has dropped the "science" label and explicitly recognises the limits of so-called rational models and expertise, often with explicit attention to the need formore democratic, participative approaches to policy analysis and choice. Program evaluation has gone from a field oriented only to testing and measurement to one in which there is considerable attention given to the socially constructed nature of evaluation studies, the need for the evaluator to be a negotiator between different stakeholders, and the need to give voice to those with little power. These fields are not simply saying that decision-making is political. We all believe that. They are all saying that knowledge is political (4)

Conclusions

There is no "Know ledge Bank," only an "Opinion Bank," and, worse still, an opinion bank with monopoly power. This Monopoly Opinion Bank (Icannot help myself—henceforth, The MOB) may not be the only source of know ledge in education in developing countries, but they are the predominant producer and arbiter of what counts as know ledge. If there were applicable anti-trust legislation, their research enterprise would be broken up. The MOB's defence is that their know ledge "management" (George Orwellives) systems are trying to incorporate all know ledge from all their partners. The MOB explicitly heralds the whole world as its partners—countries, other aid agencies, NGOs, other civil society organisations, indigenous people, the poor of the world, etc. They claim to be listening to and working with all these partners and distilling best practice from all their experiences (Sam off and Strom quist 2001). This is neither possible nor sensible nor true. Know ledge is contested within and am ong all these groups, and The MOB distils the know ledge it wants to promutgate.(5)

The idea of a central repository of "best practice" is frightening. Simply the proposition is am azing. This could never be done in the North. In agine if an institution in the U.S. said it was orwanted to be the central charinghouse for distilling all ideas about

educational or economic best practice. It would be laughed at. While a belief in the knowledge paradigm is as dominant in the U.S. as it is elsewhere, given the recognition that conflicting views are all supported by research, no one would trust any institution to be a central knowledge manager or broker.

While the metaphor is problem atic, we are engaged in know ledge wars. Most critics of dominant ideology and practice feelthat they must generate alternative know ledge to have a voice, sometimes even to survive. NGOs are, in effect, forced to do studies to justify their programs or to show the ham fulleffects of other programs or policies, e.g., user fees. The funding they get to do such studies is often provided by The Bank or institutions with similar ideologies, as part of these institutions' efforts to show that they even partner with their critics. But the resources NGOs get to do these studies are minuscule. The studies must be done under the canons of traditional research, which, aside from being substantively problem atic as above, are in possible to carry out with so few resources. Moreover, no matter how "good" the study, if The Bank or other agencies do not like the results, they can easily refute them with their own much more expensive research. Academ its with a critical view and alternative research institutions are in much the same position. Against the juggemant of the politically dominant research establishment, we face a Sisyphean task.

What to do is the subject of another paper. Obviously there are no easy answers. A task of Sisyphus or not, contesting dominant know ledge needs to be done. But we need to do so more collectively and on a much larger scale. Each of us should not be doing research and evaluation in isolation but through networks focusing on key questions. We need to work more with groups and movements that are engaged in critical practice. We need to de-legitim ise dominant "science" more budly and show its ideological bases in public forums. We need institutional action as well. There is no reason for The Bank to do research at all. (6) The Bank can easily lend money without it and base their lending not on some intrumentalist notion of furthering economic efficiency or some promise of future equity but on direct criteria of social justice—whether grants and bans further hum an rights, directly benefit the poor, the excluded, and those discriminated against, and stimulate and are governed by meaningful participation. Finally, the struggle at hand is clearly with a much larger mob than The MOB. The knowledge paradigm is breaking, abeit slowly, and we need to help that along where we can.

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MANAGING WHOSE KNOWLEDGE FOR DEVELOPMENT?

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There are striking parallels between the knowledge and the globalisation discourses. The question "which and whose knowledge?" may be put also to globalisation. Undoubtedly the frame conditions of the two discourses have a bt in common. The in perialmessage "Scan gbbally - Re-invent bcally" is based on the same belief in the superiority of free m arket forces. Localknow ledge based on bcalactions is used selectively taken from its social contexts to enhance the effectiveness of the qbbalscheme. Local researchers who willbe together with the global researchers at the core of the World Bank-initiated GbbalDevelopm ent Network are considered valuable because they can combine knowledge of bcalconditions with the learning derived from global experience. The know ledge m anagem ent schem es of the developm ent agencies even though they m ay have m issions that differ from the pure market philosophy are ultimately in line with the paradigm: how can operations be run more effectively? And these operations are supported -almost determined -by instruments which are part and parcel of the global m arket structures as if there were no particular boalsites or nations or cultures. The regulations under which GATT, W TO or NAFTA are operating are those which consider the world at large as a freely accessible econom ic arena protected by manifold rights. Development' is relegated to an epiphenomenon of this global process.

Development, however, is a complex dialectical process moted in the cultures of societies. Meaningful and useful knowledge is produced and reproduced in such social contexts not by re-inventing boally what can be gathered from scanning a central global knowledge bank or by replicating best practices. Local problem perceptions and solutions have to be part of boal settings and processes.

Universities and development organisations are indispensable producers of useful knowledge by mediating between boalneeds and experiences and the general knowledge available. Co-operative networks of such problem-oriented knowledge producers will be capable of challenging the mainstream development and scientific thinking by opening up spaces for pluralistic dialogues across national and cultural boundaries. Development agencies which want to live up to their missions to contributing to a more just and equitable world are called upon to support such spaces.

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KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT IN THE CORPORATE SECTOR:
MPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

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In the comporate sector as elsewhere, the message today is that our most important resource is not land, labour or capital but know ledge. Self-evident as the

in portance of know ledge may seem to be, how best to learn and utilise it is a controversial issue in the corporate world. This paper reviews recent studies and opinion about know ledge management practices in public and private corporations, and then boks briefly at their in plications for educational reform.

Although comporations have invested heavily in know ledge, results have often been disappointing and sometimes negative. Despite extensive research, the comporate world still has not solved the problem of know ledge utilisation. A major source of uncertainty in research on know ledge management flows from the complexity of know ledge. Some authors distinguish between explicit know ledge that is codifiable and transferable, and tacit or implied know ledge. The former generally is identified through communication and is called "objective" and "declarative". The possession of tacit know ledge generally is recognised in performance and is called "subjective" and "procedural". Know ledge about individual persons or things is called "component" know ledge, and distinguished from "architectural" know ledge which focuses on linkages among persons and things. Component know ledge can be transferred in discrete units outside of context, while architectural know ledge cannot.

Collective tacit know ledge is touted as the most secure and strategically significant kind of organisational know ledge. The assessment of know ledge use and in pact is difficult because process or operational know ledge (most often tacit) is used (and therefore detectable) in multiple sites over time. The designers of know ledge management systems face a daunting task. Tacit know ledge is difficult to transmit and the dialogic processes most helpful in stimulating and sharing tacit know ledge resist system attisation. Tacit know ledge is critical in the success of know ledge management, but is not transferable across organisations. On the other hand, explicit know ledge is of little use to decision makers operating in different contexts.

Explicit and tacit know ledge correspond to the two kinds of learning: acquisitive or in itative, and experiential in the form er the learner attempts to modelor copy the sym bols and behaviours associated with someone else's know ledge: "best practices" discovered elsewhere are used as an instruction book. Experiential learning, on the other hand, occurs inside the firm or in its interactions with other organisations. Know ledge is transferred (and therefore is explicit) in acquisitive learning; in experiential learning it is produced by the learner and primarily tacit. Know ledge gained through experience is superior, not only for its fit to context, but also because it facilitates further innovation. Shared know ledge is essential for a firm to be able to develop new ways of defining and solving problems, thereby creating new technological know ledge. An effective know ledge management system must therefore be concerned with horizontal as well as vertical processes of know ledge transfer.

Internal Knowledge Management

Firm s that do their own research are more innovative than those that use a centrally-bcated research and development unit. Firm s best able to integrate their own knowledge have 1) high levels of internal communication; 2) high levels of common knowledge; and 3) management capability to access and use the special knowledge employees have.

Knowledge Management Amongst Firms

The linking of firms within an industrial sector is referred to as clustering, networking, strategic alliances or joint ventures. Networks allow small and/or isolated firms to increase their technological knowledge not only through their own limited research and development expenditures, but also by absorbing knowledge produced elsewhere.

Learning From External Sources

Networking can include external partners in the process of sharing know ledge, such as universities, research centres or firms in other sectors. The bilateral relationships of the joint venture become trilateral relationships that fostermeta-learning. Meta-learning is enhanced by a firm's or network's construction of "websofmeaning" that make sense out of the learning that is occurring. This sense-making links new know ledge with structures and operations consistent with the firm's or network's identity or mission, itself subject to changes through learning. Innovative organisations, that is, those that produce know ledge, see them selves as creating value, and seek to bring tacit and explicit know ledge together despite the tensions that involves.

Know ledge about the best practices and curriculum reforms of other systems can help solve short-term problems and improve learning outcomes. After a one-shot input, however, staff turnover and memory decay result in performance declines. Furthermore, routines built on transfers of explicit knowledge from outside reduce the use of internally-generated knowledge that is contextually appropriate.

Implications of this for other sectors - such as education

The lesson from the corporate sector is that schools require both explicit and tacit know ledge, acquired and learned by doing, but that the integration of that know ledge should occur within the school, and not externally. In practice that means that:

- -know ledge "needs" should be determ ined bcally and not externally;
- -bcalknowledge management capacity takes priority over external capacity;
- —training in sense-m aking within communities of practice must accompany training in knowledge assimilation.

Escuel Nueva was an example of such a knowledge management approach in a developing country. RuralCobm bian teachers were trained to share with others their tack knowledge about effective teaching practices. The result, overtime, was a significant improvement in competencies and student performance. The experiment ceased to be a learning system, however, when the teachers' knowledge was formalised and codified into an official curriculum.

The lesson to be inferred from advances in the corporate world is that in provement of a national education system requires increasing know ledge capacity in botal schools while also pursuing their integration with others. In provement of education know ledge management capacity in an international agency may improve an agency's competitiveness, but have no benefit for schools and ministries of education. The more an agency develops its own internal coherence and consensus, the more tacit will be its know ledge, and the less able it will be to help others with their own problems. If,

however, an agency defines itself as part of a larger system, then it can work with others in construction of shared knowledge that benefits all. Agencies contribute most to improvement in ministries and schools not by telling them about someone else's best practices, but by enabling them to have and identify effective practices of their own.

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THE RISE OF THE KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT FASHION: A CONSEQUENCE OF THE DECLINE OF THE DEVELOPMENT IDEOLOGY?

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Know ledge management is very fashionable (for how long?) in the development cooperation agencies. After not even a decade of discourse on learning organisations, know ledge has to be managed so that the Know ledge Economy/Society develops itself as the main engine of the GlobalWorld/Village in which we live. Such a vision would be very stimulating, had two dimensions of this new step in the 'progress' of humanity been explored beforehand. Firstly, the so-called Know ledge Economy is totally dependent on the further exploitation of the world's natural resources: computers and satellites' production is using more and more raw mineralmaterials from Central Africa and Latin America; secondly the very nature of the Know ledge concept being used by the promoters of the Know ledge Society is far from being explicit. We shall not develop the first argument: industrial ecology is providing enough data about the new dimensions of social exploitation, which is embedded in the over-exploitation of nature.

The discussion about Know ledge is more difficult because it is more ambiguous than the recent refusalby G.W. Bush to accept the Kyoto Agreement. Know ledge is an imm aterial capital, which can appear as having a single definition. According to P.Drucker (1989)

"Know ledge as normally conceived by the "intellectual" is something very different from know ledge in the context of know ledge economy or know ledge work... Know ledge, like electricity or money, is a form of energy that exists only when doing work. The emergence of the know ledge economy is not, in other words, part of "intellectual" history as it is normally conceived. It is part of the history of technology which recounts how man puts tools to work". This vision is quite different from the one of E.Morin (1999) who refers to the necessity of conceiving Know ledge as a component of a world marked by Complexity, i.e. which is different from the one we are still using to analyse reality by referring to four principles: order, specialisation, reduction and linear causality. The type of Know ledge Morin is talking about is then obsert to the French term,

'Connaissance' than to 'Savoir'.

Our hypothesis is that, when we talk of Developm ent Know ledge, as in the 1999 World Bank Developm ent Report—the title of which in French is Savoir au service du dévelopmem ent—we refer to Drucker's definition of Know ledge and to the type of Know ledge Morin is criticising when he proposes Connaissance Com plexe as an alternative. In the W B vision, Know ledge is a new technology which has to be managed in the fram ework of a non complex world entirely run by the Market Order. As G. Rist (1997) puts it: "Growth" or "developm ent" are not them selves questioned but there

seem ed to be otherways of achieving them —especially through a return to the self regulating market'. Globalisation as a new faith has blankly replaced the ambiguous ideology/belief of development conceived as "a moral duty to help the poor and work for everyone's happiness" in the fram ework of modernisation.

Developm ent agencies are consequently faced with some contradictory objectives and tend to resemble what Wohlgem uth has termed the "old-fashioned department stores", since they have to deal with poverty, growth, ADS, environment etc etc. Are they really in a position to learn and to manage Knowledge if they cannot—as state administrations—take a clear stand about the type of society and consequently Connaissance and Savoir they want to give priority to?

As bng as Knowledge is going to be more and more seen as a marketised commodity, the more dynamic approach of Knowledge Sharing (instead of Management) will meet its limits. Calling upon all kinds of Knowledge by using multiple networks is more interesting than the technocratic/antidemocratic banking vision of KM. One can nevertheless wonder whether the non-rival rous and non-excluding intrinsic characteristics of Knowledge as underlined by the "new" Global Public Goods approach are compatible with Knowledge Sharing.

One may finally wonder whether the GbbalPublic Goods perspective itself is compatible with today's dominant socio-economic perspective: a "free" access and distribution of Knowledge is in contradiction with the necessity to keep in the private domain of firms the knowledge which allows them to gain some new markets by continually launching some "new" products. Some people think that such a way of doing is in fact preventing creativity and innovation. An assessment of Knowledge Sharing in ten years time will allow us to say whether it was an ideological feature or a scientific step.

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REVERSING THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPMENT: ACTION FIRST & TALKING LAST

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The importance of knowledge has been fully acknowledged in thetoric through World Bank documents stretching at least as far back as the BellReport of 1978 (for the Education Sector). This report was a landmark in making the Bank more aware of its own in-house need to build education research capacity in education. However, the Bank's attention to this issue has been disappointing and desultory in reality. The reasons for this need to be considered and their in plications for the future of development co-operation. Not just for the Bank but for other agencies. The wider context of these challenges is as follows. They need to be addressed before they can deal sensitively with the new attractions of becoming knowledge agencies'.

Developm ent co-operation faces a num ber of crises:

- A crisis of vision. A serious and honest reflection on the past two or three decades of existence does not present a useful or exciting road m ap for the development of education.
- A policy fram ework crisis. The literature is replete with segmented priorities, distorted priorities, priorities that appear and disappear as fashions do in the West.
- A leadership crisis at the donor agency level. There is an absence of people with competence and compassion, with a broad experience in political economy and exposure in the realities of poverty and in poverishment.
- A crisis of regular agency staff a m ost serious and pervasive issue. Here lies the question of experience; com petence; com m itm ent; duration of service; and the prevalence of the wrong incentives to staff, etc.

How can they be addressed? Here are some pointers:

- The focus of developm ent should be on the people.
- Development workers should come primarily from the indigenous people.
- There should be no support to any country whose leadership, style of government, preoccupation is not to help its own people.
- Prioritise on strengthening the networking of boal, regional and national research and management capacities including the revitalisation of higher education institutions.
- Then strengthen the policy and practice of sharing know ledge inform ation and communication technology at all levels.

Finally, are the current multilateral institutions capable of reforming them selves to provide and accommodate the ever-changing world conditions and meet the needs of poor people? If international institutions are being questioned based on their past track record; and if local institutions persist in being weak and fragile; if the political scenario continues its usual one-sided dominant behavior, then we need to ask which kinds of institutions both at national and international levels would better serve the people? What kinds of institutions and combinations of national and international institutions might better fit and provide effective service to those that need the help? Answers to these kinds of questions should precede the rush to become knowledge agencies.

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THE SOCIAL THEORY OF KNOWLEDGE AND KNOWLEDGE FOR DEVELOPMENT: IS MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING POSSIBLE?

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Know ledge has recently become one of buzzwords of development. Indeed, its emergence onto centre stage in development thinking has been so rapid that many meetings have been convened to seek to understand better the relationship between know ledge and development. As development co-operation agencies are practical organisations at their core, such meetings, and wider discussions, have tended to focus primarily on how to use know ledge more effectively for development. However, the agencies' shift to thinking about know ledge also highlights their crucial role in know ledge

production, analysis and dissemination. It is in this light in particular that it may be significant that there seem to be major differences in the ways that knowledge is understood between agencies' accounts and those of social theory. Social theory has always had the concept of knowledge as an important element of its activities. However, it can be argued that a series of new accounts in particular areas of social theory, in combination with overall trends at the epistem obgical and onto begin amount to a new theory of knowledge.

This paper is not an attempt to provide an authoritative literature review of this new theory. In particular, it is predom inantly based in a Northern literature and lacks a detailed reading of the Southern literature in this area. Rather, it is an attempt to reflect on accounts from areas of study that have focused on know ledge theories and practices as a way of informing debates about agencies' use of know ledge as concept, practice and product. From this exam ination, a number of dissonances between these two broad sets of accounts emerge that might merit further agency thinking, given the importance of know ledge to their current model of development. In any such further thinking, there would be a need for greater reflection of Southern voices than has been attempted in this paper.

A first set of issues is clustered around the gap between understandings of know ledge and development at the macro level. There are apparent theoretical differences between an implicit emphasis on linearity and universality, on the agency side, and context and complexity, on the side of social theory. The current emphasis on targets is closely related to this point, as is the widespread agency use of the logical fram ework approach. Whilst agencies may understandably prefer single narratives and predictability for planning purposes, there is a strong case to answer regarding the failures of aid projects as a result of poor mapping of problems and solutions.

A second set of issues is to do with policy and power. There is very great divergence between policy sociology and agencies' theories—in—use of how policy works. This may be particularly significant as the policy focus of agencies continues to grow. Putting so much emphasis on policy could be very counter-productive when it often appears that policies have very little to do with subsequent practices. Part of the problem here lies with some agencies' assumptions about consensus and the role of stakeholders and civil society in policymaking. Such assumptions clash very strongly, for instance, with the accounts produced by many scholars of African political systems and processes. For the greater plausibility of agencies' claims to have a preferential option for the poor, a more sophisticated reading of power would also be vital. Again, this is heightened by the new knowledge focus, given the close relationship of knowledge and power in contemporary social theory.

A third set of issues is grouped around the specifics of the shift towards the know ledge agency and know ledge for development. Given the arguments about the know ledge-power melationship, there is a widespread, almost primordial, meaction from social theorists (and the many NGOS whose staff have some background in the social disciplines) that attempts to increase the impact of the know ledge of powerful organisations are likely to meinforce their power further. In particular, there is concern that agency views of what constitutes development will increase in their influence,

notwithstanding the strong agency emphasis on partnership. There are also concerns that the growing interest in knowledge for development is a diversion from a more grounded approach to the developmental needs of the South. The existing literatures on aid effectiveness and on learning in agencies also point to the likelihood of major practical constraints on the ability of agencies to develop their own internal knowledge use as far as they desire. In particular, tensions between disbursement and learning; and between the need for time for learning and the ever-greater work loads will be difficult to reconcile. Moreover, the growing decentralisation of agencies also may have serious in pacts on knowledge and learning strategies. Agencies have begun to be more vocal in their commitment to supporting Southern knowledge capacity after their failings of the past two decades. However, they face a challenge here in dealing with an issue that has strong ideological and political components existing alongside the technical aspects. Finally, there may be merits in an improved relationship between Knowledge Agencies' and Knowledge NGOs', that ends the latter group's suspicions of agency strategies of co-option or marginalisation.

KNOW LEDGE SHARING: INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION

KNOW LEDGE AGENCES':

MAKING GLOBALISATION OF KNOWLEDGE WORK FOR THE NORTH OR THE SOUTH?

KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT/KNOW LEDGE SHARING FOR SOCIAL

JUSTICE - THE SOUTH AFRICAN CASE

THE WORLD BANK AND KNOW LEDGE

KNOW LEDGE SHARING:

NSDE N, NSDE OUT, OUTSDE N, OUTSDE OUT

KNOW LEDGE BASED' INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION:

DO WE WANT IT? DO WE NEED IT?

KNOW LEDGE: A CORE RESOURCE FOR DEVELOPMENT

SHARING WHOSE KNOWLEDGE? THE GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT NETWORK AND THE DIFFUSION OF DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

REFLECTION ON GDNet AS GDN BECOMES INDEPENDENT

KNOW LEDGE AGENCIES':

MAKING GLOBALISATION OF KNOWLEDGE WORK FOR THE NORTH OR THE SOUTH?

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The intriguing world of know ledge m anagement or know ledge sharing in the agencies offers a number of issues for further research, and a few challenges to those directly involved in the area of agency know ledge sharing, whether in multi-laterals, bi-laterals or NGOs.

By far the largest intellectual hundle, as the agencies scram ble to become learning organisations, is the agency-centricity of their knowledge preoccupations. With just a very few exceptions, we would argue that these initiatives appear to be being carried on for the immediate advantage of the agencies and their own staff development, and only down the line might they incorporate the natural partners of aid organisations in the developing world.

We have hinted that the meason for this m isplaced focus on the agency has been the temptation to megand the development agency as just anothermultinational firm rather than as a unique organisation mandated to help develop something other than itself.

The result has been that the agencies have not started on know ledge m anagement with the dram atic know ledge deficits of the South, nor with the key question of how know ledge m anagement could assist know ledge development in the South. A continuation along their present trajectory will arguably be counter-productive; it could make agencies even more certain of what they them selves have learnt, and more enthusiastic that others should share these insights, once they have been system atised in the North.

The agencies' current know ledge focus has not been system atically evaluated, nor have the various assumptions underpinning their know ledge management (KM) and know ledge sharing (KS) strategies been seriously intercogated.

An alternative approach is stiller inently possible, since the exercises in knowledge management are stillvery much at the exploratory stage in most agencies. But it really consists of turning the present approach to the knowledge agency on its head.

Instead of asking yet more questions about how lessons learned by the agency could be further synthesised, we could start at the other end and ask how joint involvement in agency knowledge projects could better build knowledge in the South. To do this effectively, it would be essential to have a much more elaborate account of knowledge bases and knowledge systems in the South.

Instead of wondering how to ensure that Northern research and policy directories, data-bases, training systems could be placed more conspicuously on agency webs, or even on the Developm ent Gateway, agencies, with their unique mandate to develop the South, could ask many more conditioning questions about how Northern expertise could be obliged much more symmetrically to partner the South.

This is a question that has not been system atically applied to the enorm ously rich Northern know ledge resources on the South. And these are not just the agency databases and know ledge networks but also the very considerable Northern NGO resources of know ledge on the South. How can they be leveraged more effectively so that know ledge development occurs somewhat more symmetrically in the South?

The new preoccupation with knowledge management in the North must be situated in the context of the brave new world of the internationalisation of the trade in educational services. It must also take account of the aggressive internationalisation of higher education in the North, and the continuing challenges to the sustainability of research knowledge in the South. Knowledge management in the agencies happens to coincide with a continuing reduction in overallaid to the developing world, and not least with massive reductions in the aid-supported opportunities for the poorer countries of the South to have access to research training in the North (see NN27 passim).

The value of the new knowledge management and knowledge sharing concerns is that they should require organisations to rethink their working assumptions about North-South networking, North-South partnership, and North-South knowledge solidarity.

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KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT/KNOW LEDGE SHARING FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE: THE SOUTH AFRICAN CASE*

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As an African country, South Africa faces a number of challenges in common with other countries on the continent. However, in contrast to many of its neighbours, South Africa has a relatively well-developed industrial and technological infrastructure and a reasonably functioning higher education and science system supported by the state. This makes it difficult to generalise about knowledge management/knowledge sharing on the continent on the basis of developments in South Africa. Nevertheless, some of the trends emerging in South Africa, especially since 1994, have resonance for knowledge management/knowledge sharing on the continent.

Know ledge management/know ledge sharing in South Africa has evolved along different trajectories linked, on the one hand, to the preservation or modification of apartheid and, on the other, to the struggle to resist and overcome it and replace it with a democratic alternative. There are two distinct traditions of know ledge generation and capacity development for policy purposes in the country.

In the apartheid era, the state sought to use the public architecture of higher education and research systems as well as a range of in-house research initiatives and special projects of government departments to provide it with policy relevant data and know how and post facto legitimations of apartheid policy. Part of the process of building a strategic knowledge infrastructure included research capacity development support for Afrikaner academics and Afrikaans universities. The liberation movement both abroad

and in South Africa also invoked knowledge resources to mobilise against apartheid and to investigate policy options to replace it. Many initiatives to explore alternative policy fram eworks were supported by aid from foreign government and foundation sources.

Following the first democratic elections in 1994, the South African government embarked on a process of policy restructuring, producing White Papers and numerous other policy documents with the assistance of local and international experts, the participation of stakeholders in varying degrees, and with financial and technical assistance from foreign governments, and agencies and foundations (e.g. USAD, CDA, Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation to mention a few).

An enorm ous amount of policy support activity (especially research and training) is taking place in many of South Africa's 36 public higher education institutions, 9 science councils, 5 national research facilities and numerous research institutes linked to universities, non-governmental organisations, the labourm ovement, etc. Apart from research and development supported by the private sector, foundations and foreign aid, the government spends 0.75% of GDP on research and development and has sought to redirect knowledge development to national priorities through new statutory from eworks and steering mechanisms.

All of Government's new regulatory fram eworks for higher education, research and training signal the commitment to move beyond the north/south divide created within the country by apartheid, largely along race and gender lines. The new policies seek to create a new trajectory for knowledge development, knowledge sharing, knowledge management and knowledge utilisation away from the preservation of privilege for a racially defined minority to social justice for the majority of the population.

Higher education and the science and technology system have seen the publication of White papers which require greater responsiveness to development priorities on the part of know ledge systems, institutions and organisations as well as greater efficiency and accountability with regard to the expenditure of public funds. The connection between know ledge resources, know ledge capabilities and national social and econom ic development is made strongly and often in government's position. The challenge to higher education and the science system is explicitly identified in the W hite Papers - to ensure South Africa's successfulentry into a globalised knowledge economy on the basis of increasing capacity to produce, access and apply knowledge which is both technical and social This may very well result in the further marginalisation of large numbers of bw skilled and in poverished black people unless balanced by appropriate access and training opportunities. At the level of policy fram eworks, however, the comm itm ent to hold together the often conflicting in peratives of equity and social justice, efficiency and com petitiveness is still evident. This balancing act is becoming more precarious and the social justice priorities more ambivalent in the implementation phase of those very same policy fram eworks.

Since the m il nineties a num ber of interventions have been put in place by government-funded research support organisations like the Hum an Sciences Research Counciland the Foundation for Research Development to enhance knowledge generation, build individual and institutional research capacity in order to increase the number of black and women researchers and develop sustainable institutional environments, build research teams with

experienced and new researchers, facilitate more multidisciplinary, problem—solving research which cuts across disciplinary and institutional boundaries, promote knowledge diffusion and dissemination, and link academics and researchers with industry, government and civil society.

A number of bilateral agreements between South Africa and other countries as well as foundation supported collaborations between boal and foreign higher education institutions have also made funding available for collaborative research and training activities. These interventions are not even a decade old and their full in pact is still to be evaluated but some trends may be useful to note for South Africa and for the GDN as well

- Both government and the aid community have signalled a preference form one applied research linked to develop ent themes. The shift to applied research and to know ledge for policy development has led to a decline in funding and capacity for basic research. The shift to multidisciplinary focus areas is weakening the maintenance of disciplinary competencies. Both these shifts are threatening in the long term to sustainable and continuing capacity for knowledge generation, diffusion and innovation. Short term gains in forging a stronger knowledge/policy nexus may be detrimental over time to a more comprehensive and sustainable notion of knowledge based development
- In a policy hungry conjuncture, government and other organisations have involved experienced academ its and researchers in policy development, usually operating within tight time frames and in specialised areas of expertise. This has not been conducive to capacity development to grow new layers of expertise which is more representative in race and gender terms. There are also perceptions of too many foreign experts involved in policy development processes. Capacity development gains in a very busy policy landscape in the last few years have probably not been as significant as expected and policy processes have probably over-burdened and over-stretched the small number of black and women participants who find them selves recycled onto multiple policy and restructuring treadmills. Capacity development programmes for individuals which really build sustainable quality are labour intensive and take time to show results beyond the purely quantitative increase in race and gender involvement. They also need to be linked to the building of institutional and systems capacity.
- In a context where research collaboration and team work are strongly punted, the participation of foreign and boalknow ledge producers in joint projects has not always proceeded on the basis of a clear understanding of how intellectual property rights are to be decided, especially in contexts where the bulk of the funding comes from the country of origin of the foreign scientists. South Africa is taking steps to better regulate intellectual property rights issues, particularly in relation to indigenous knowledge systems and research on the country's biodiversity resources. This will in turn require monitoring and protective capacity at boal and international levels to be meaningful
- Refocusing the higher education and research architecture in South Africa for em ancipatory ends required an approach to capacity building that did not

compromise on quality. The initiative to link quality and equity remains an ongoing challenge, requiring a balance between race and gender linked capacity development with building new capacities in the entire system (including those of historically advantaged researchers). It soon became clear that a deficit model of capacity development was not sufficient and that the new knowledge and development environment required in new and experienced researchers and in the system as a whole, some of the following competencies - sound training in basic and applied research, ability to test know ledge options from other country/system contexts and assess their relevance and applicability to bcalneeds, ability to draw on and integrate the work of professional science com m unities and other non-professional communities of practice, ability to work and innovate in a multidisciplinary environm ent, ability to do and use quantitative and qualitative research, and perhaps most importantly for those involved in policy research - to perform enough critical social science to enable citizens to judge and engage with chosen developm ent trajectories.

The second term of office of the ANC led government has put enormous emphasis on delivery and the speedier in plementation of policy. The arena of acute need is no longer research for policy development but information and capacity to implement and monitor policy frameworks and take corrective action where necessary. This raises the question of what kinds of know ledges and skills are necessary for effective policy in plementation. The broader question is what kind of know ledges and know ledge uses do we have in mind when we use the expressions Know ledge Management/Know ledge Sharing. Know ledge management and know ledge sharing in an era of policy in plementation will clearly have to involve the reconciliation of expert know ledges underpinning national policies with local community know ledges in contexts of in plementation. The success of policy in plementation will clearly depend on the creative and confident use of the new know ledges which flow from such a reconciliation.

By way of conclusion, Iwant to ask four questions which the GDN must address:

- what are the necessary and sufficient conditions for effective know ledge m anagement/know ledge sharing in the South? (which goes beyond new discourses from the North obscuring old practices).
- know ledge developm ent and research and policy capacity m ay provide the necessary conditions for developm ent in the South but what are the sufficient conditions for know ledge based developm ent to succeed?
- will/can the GDN engage with the sufficient conditions that pertain to power relations within a gbbalpolitical economy!
- how does the GDN plan to connect to and build on the many decades of work on knowledge generation and capacity development by south based organisations like CODESRIA? (beyond the inclusion of individuals associated with such organisations).

* [This is a shorter version of a paper written for the panelon Building Policy Research Capacity in the New Era of Knowledge Sharing', GDN Tokyo, December 2000-Ed.]

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THE WORLD BANK AND KNOW LEDGE*

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- *[Excerpted from bngerpaperby Steve Denning forNORRAG/DSE/CAS conference.Ed.]
- The scene before knowledge management: the early 90s
- 1. The World Bank supposedly owned development knowledge
 For the first 50 years of its existence, the World Bank was devoted to lending for
 development projects. There was a widespread perception that the World Bank itself was
 the place in which most development knowledge was located. World Bank staff did their
 best within the constraints to maximize client ownership of development projects, but in
 reality, as in science, there was practically no possibility of pursuing a project that did
 not comply with the existing World Bank paradigms. As Kuhn might say, "No alternative
 is available to him while he remains in the field".
- 2. The paradigms were sometimes of questionable reliability

 Projects were developed within existing paradigm seven in situations where the staff and the client knew that the prevailing paradigm was highly unreliable, if not downright wrong. Notorious instances of the phenomenon occurred in the field of economic adjustment where operations containing a few important measures were expected within a miraculously short time frame to return whole economies to a strong growth path, despite a backlog of decades of economic mism anagement. When as expected the operation failed to achieve the promised economic growth, reports would be written trying to find the reasons for the shortfall. Itonically, the one cause that the evaluation report was not allowed to discover was frequently the real reason namely a faulty paradigm. Such activities often seemed to be less about knowledge, and more about complying with a certain accepted theology. It is usual to criticize the World Bank for these practices, but in fact, the scene was little different from modern science, or what occurs in any large modern corporation, as described above.
- 3. The paradigm hassles the borrower

In this environment, each project had to comply with the relevant paradigm. When a problem appeared, the paradigm generally required that there be a study or a covenant to show how the problem was being addressed. Staff couldn't just say that there was no time or realpossibility of resolving the problem in the context of that particular project. In practicular ms, as in Kuhn's scientific environments, no alternative was available to staff "while they remained within the field". In these situations, World Bank staff would have to explain to borrowers that making an operation seem to comply with a given paradigm was part of the price of doing business with the World Bank. Frequently, the borrowers came to see this process as a significant hassle. Those borrowers who could

find financing elsewhere without complying with the intrusive theological requirements in plied in the paradigms often went elsewhere. Those borrowers who had no other options were obliged to submit to the hassle of complying with them.

4. Sharing knowledge within the World Bank: self deception:
In all of this, there was a striking unwillingness to be brutally honest about what was going on. One obvious area was that of risk: There was a great deal of criticism of the Africa Region in the early 1990s about the failure rate of projects in Africa. It was no answer to these critiques to say that the environment in Africa was inherently risky. The inevitable reply was that the failure rate was too high: all projects were expected to succeed, reflecting the fact that the risk sections of project appraisals were all written so as to in ply that all risks associated with the project were being in some way deal with. Multipear efforts were undertaken to persuade the management to change these risk sections so as to quantify the actual risk of the project failing but these efforts failed, in large part because such an explicit discussion of real risk would destroy the illusion of a risk-free operation that was in plicit in the prevailing paradigm.

B. The Bank: The scene after knowledge management: the late 90s

1 Explaining the idea of knowledge sharing

It has been described elsewhere how difficult it was to communicate the idea of knowledge sharing to an organization focused essentially on lending. In practice, the organization was only able to understand the change by referring to examples from outside the organization. If a health worker in a tiny town in Zambia could get the answer to a question on how to treat malaria from the website for the Center for Disease Control in Atlanta, Georgia, then why couldn't the World Bank share its knowledge with the world? This type of example sparked the in agination of managers and staff, and in October 1996, President Wolfensohn publicly announced a commitment to sharing knowledge.

2. The basis of knowledge sharing: community

Like other organizations, the W orld Bank discovered that know ledge sharing only happens on a significant scale when communities of practice are brought into existence. Over the period 1996-2000, over a hundred such communities were fostered in the World Bank, covering virtually every aspect of the organization's activities. These communities, known as them atic groups, helped practitioners connect with other practitioners and find answers to questions. They also provided the basis for the practitioners to collect relevant knowledge and display it on the World Wile Web.

3. External members of communities

A strking aspect of these know ledge-sharing communities was the growth in the number of externalm embers. Many communities had more than a hundred externalm embers, some as many as several hundred. The benefit was that someone in South Africa could

¹ See Stephen Denning, *The Springboard: How Storytelling Ignites Action in Knowledge-Era Organizations* (Butterworth Heinemann, 2000, Boston).

help solve the problem s of som eone in Pakistan, and vice versa, with a huge net increase in the knowledge available to solve problem s.

4. Learning from clients:

The presence of externalm embers in the communities of practice has meant that a great deal of learning from borrowers and between borrowers has occurred, in ways that were unthinkable in the early 1990s when the Bank itself was perceived as the repository of knowledge. The extent to which this happened varied somewhat between communities, but the phenomenon is widespread.

• The use of knowledge collections

As the Bank's know ledge collections became available on the Bank's external website, it was increasingly possible for outsiders to get same access to know ledge resources that World Bank staff them selves had access to. Some of these collections were high quality. Others less so. The challenge continues to upgrade the quality of the collections.

6. Research at the World Bank

The research group at the World Bank, known as DEC, hasn't changed much under successive Chief Econom ists. The group is academ it and intellectual in orientation, with objectives and incentives largely related to the production and publication of learned papers. Individuals are involved in operations, but overall, the management of DEC has kept itself separate from operations. From the outset, DEC did not take much interest in know ledge management, as it regarded itself as the owner of true development know ledge, and it didn't seem to want to ditty its hands with anything so operational. DEC remains dominated by economists: There is still only one sociologist on the entire research staff, with significant risks to the distortion of know ledge generated, which is obviously multidisciplinary in nature. One can in agine what would happen to a piece of research showing that the problems of development are non-economic in origin and that a wider array of disciplines are needed: it is barely conceivable that such a piece of work would be proposed (who would propose it?), or carried out (who would do it?), or if carried out, that it would be regarded seriously by economists whose careers are linked to preserving the economic orientation of the research department.

C. The World Bank and knowledge: The challenges ahead

1. Completing the transition to knowledge sharing

It was only gradually apparent to World Bank management as to how large a challenge they had undertaken in turning a large bureaucracy into an agile knowledge-sharing organization. Initially, it was thought that it might be complete in months, then years, and finally, it was realized that it might take a decade or more to complete the transition. Even after four years of effort, only just over half World Bank staff are active members of communities of practice. And some of the communities of practice function much less effectively than others. So a considerable challenge entails simply completing the transition and making knowledge sharing second nature of every staff member at all times.

• Fostering local knowledge-sharing communities

Many of the com m unities of practice that have emerged have grown quite large with several hundred W orld Bank staff and several hundred external m embers. Further growth of these com m unities is likely to be counter-productive, and so attention is now shifting

to fostering bcalknowledge-sharing communities that can be linked to and networked with the gbbalknowledge communities.

• Integrating knowledge activities in the World Bank
Given the multiple activities and actors in the knowledge arena, without any central
integration, attention is being given to coordinating the various initiatives to ensure that
there is more synergy than competition between knowledge sharing in operations,
learning programs in the World Bank Institute, research in DEC, the global development
gateway in EG, research in the Global Knowledge Network, distance learning in the Global
Learning Network and so on.

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KNOW LEDGE SHARING: INSIDE IN, INSIDE OUT, OUTSIDE IN, OUTSIDE OUT

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This paper sets out a classification of different know ledge flows from , to and without developm ent agencies. The first two categories essentially relate to what has become known as "know ledge m anagement" within and between development agencies, derived from the private sector model of know ledge management. The third is a hybrid category, relating to the flow from development agencies to others, but also the flow from the outside world, particularly the world of development research, to development agencies. The fourth is about how the development community should promote know ledge sharing for development from and to those with relevant know ledge. In particular, it is about how we should go about providing what have become known as global public goods (of the know ledge variety).

As regards "know ledge management" of the N-N/N-OUT variety, Iam not sure it is helpfulto labelit in this way. Many "know ledge m anagem ent" activities, for instance the cultural change in DFD with respect to learning from researchers (or at least entering into meaningful interaction with them), have happened without an explicit "knowledge m anagem ent" program m e. At least in DFD, seniorm anagem ent is rather am bivalent about the explicit introduction of know ledge m anagem ent as a program me, or more in portantly as a key organisational priority as seem s to have occurred in some other agencies (e.g. UNDP, CDA, World Bank). The term can be off-putting, suggesting the latest m anagement fad, and thus using it promiscuously may be counter-productive. Rather the attitude of m anagement is pragmatic and outcome oriented. What is the organisation going to gain in effectiveness by doing "know ledge m anagem ent" things? Given that m anpower resources are constrained, could we not achieve more by putting our effort elsewhere? In particular, it is likely that demonstrating concrete results through facilitating constructive dialogue across organisational divides will be seen as m ost productive in generating positive outcomes for the organisation e.g. through prom oting multidisciplinary approaches or through reconciling central policy priorities with the operational imperatives of country programmes. The evangelical thrust of know ledge m anagem ent purists is not very appealing to m anagem ent, although m any of the cultural changes in the organisation that are claim ed by know ledge m anagem ent

advocates are certainly desired at the coalface. Thus, know ledge m anagement is important, but we need to be clearly focused on ends rather than means if it is to thrive in the development agency environment (as, one supposes, in the private sector).

Related, we do not meally have evidence of the success of know ledge m anagement in development agencies. Rather it is, as in much of management theory, a question of the advocates claiming a particular approach is the secret of success. For instance in the World Bank, who has seriously tried to evaluate the in pact of the know ledge management initiative? There was a report a couple of years back, but this was by the high priests of know ledge management private sector style. How could we attempt to learn from the World Bank's experience? We certainly should because it would be instructive for others embarking on this road.

As regards the OUT-OUT models of know ledge management, the key question relates to the priority that should be assigned to the provision of global public goods (in this context the generation of know ledge and the mechanisms for sharing it equitably) and then how the burden of that provision should be financed. The imbalance is that the global players are on the whole not well positioned to provide the grant resources required for this purpose, while the bilateral players, who have grant funds available, do not necessarily see this role as a high priority. Moreover, there are tensions between the multilateral and bilateral players as to the nature, orientation and mechanisms for providing them. Sorting out these dilemmas seems to meahigh priority. The possibilities opened up by the use of the Internet, and the rapid advances in science in areas relevant to development, mean that this kind of global knowledge provision could be critical in helping achieve targets for poverty reduction in developing countries.

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KNOW LEDGE-BASED' INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION: DO WE WANT IT? DO WE NEED IT?

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"Know ledge-based aid" is in vogue today within the international cooperation community, led by the World Bank (WB). WB's decision, in 1996, to become a "Know ledge Bank" made explicit the evolution of its role over the past few years into an institution that provides both expert advice and bans - in that order of importance, as the WB explicitly states.

North-South international cooperation has always been "know ledge-based". Knowing, and transferring such know ledge to "developing countries" under the form of technical assistance have been the core mission and the raison d'être of international agencies. (It may be new, however, from a bank perspective, since banks are supposed to provide money, not ideas). What is also new is the increased global concentration of economic and symbolic power (information and knowledge) and of the means and resources to access, synthesize and disseminate such information and knowledge.

How ever, without fundam ental changes in North-South relationships and international cooperation patterns, as well as in know ledge and learning paradigms, there is little hope that the announced "know ledge society" and "lifeling learning" will bring the expected learning revolution and a more equitable distribution of know ledge. On the contrary, we are experiencing a major epochal paradox: never before have there been so much information and know ledge available, so varied and powerful means to democratize them, and so much emphasis on the importance of know ledge, education and learning. But never before has the banking education model been so alive and witespread on a global scale: education understood as a one-way transfer of information and know ledge, and learning understood as the passive digestion of such transfer. Many enthusiastic global promoters of "know ledge societies", "new networking" and "lifeling learning" dream today of a world converted into a giant classroom with a few powerfulglobal teachers, and millions of passive assimilators of information and know ledge packages via telecentres, computers and the litemet.

Why would "developing countries" continue to want "knowledge-based aid"? It has been ineffective and costly, it has increased dependency and foreign debt, it has not allowed these countries to develop their own hum an resources and to identify their own ideas, research, thinking, alternatives, models. And it has not allowed them to learn along the way about their mistakes.

Does the South meally need such aid? Most, if not all, countries in the South have the competent professionals and knowledgeable people needed to engage in meaningful and effective education policies, program mes and reforms. Moreover, if qualified and committed nationals (and non-nationals who end up sharing these characteristics and ideals as their own) have two in portant advantages over non-nationals: they know the language and share the boalhistory and culture, and they bove their country. Motivation, empathy, ownership, a sense of identity and of pride, a sense of being part of a collective—building project, all these are key ingredients of effective and sustainable policy making and social action. There is an important difference between living in a country, and visiting it on technical missions. External advisors and consultants may leave ideas, documents and recommendations, but it is those facing everyday realities who finally do the job. Separating and differentiating the roles of those who think and recommend, and those who implement and try to follow recommendations, remains the key form ula for non-ownership (or for fake ownership) and thus for failure.

If the North and international agencies really want to assist the South, they must be ready to accept the need form a prshifts in their own thinking and doing. It is not just a matter of more of the same, or even of in proving cooperation mechanisms and relationships. What is needed is a different kind of international cooperation, operating under different assumptions and rules, to be discussed and devised together with the South, in professional dialogue. "Partnership" yes, but not for business as usual.

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KNOW LEDGE: A CORE RESOURCE FOR DEVELOPMENT Katharina Thumheer, Helvetas, Zurich Em ail: katharina.thumheer@ helvetas.ch

Recently, know ledge has become a popular term. Its usage is closely linked with new economic trends and the rapid developments in the field of information and communication technologies (LTs). By connecting the term know ledge with new technologies an additional divide emerges between Northern and Southern societies, urban and rural areas, wealthy and poorer social groups. According to the criterion of access to LTs, societies worldwide are perceived as being separated into "information-haves" and "information-have-nots".

Working to overcome inequalities is the basic aim of international co-operation. The relevance of know ledge to that end has been recognised for a long time. It is therefore a logical consequence for development agencies to consider whether (and in what ways) applying LTs within projects may yield greater benefits to the local population. Helvetas and the Swiss Agency for Development (SDC) wished to stimulate a discussion among development organisations in Switzerland and jointly launched the meeting on "Knowledge - a core resource for development". Held in Berne in March 2001, some 100 participants explored the usefulness of LTs for development endeavours and learned from the experiences gained in other countries.

In discussing know ledge and the role of LTs, the m eeting concentrated on three dimensions:

- The Socio-politicalD in ension of Know ledge, the Impact of CTs and the Digital Divide
- Hamessing Know ledge in the South and for the South
- Know ledge as an OrganisationalResource Managing Know ledge.

The event began with a plenary session dealing with the Socio-politicalD in ension of Knowledge, the In pact of LTs and the DigitalDivide. The four guest speakers pointed out a discrepancy between a high dem and for LTs expressed by various NGOs and the reluctance of some donors to accept these wishes as priorities in development schemes. Thus, discussing the relevance of new LTs for the development of societies touches upon old, well-known questions in development discourses: Who is in control of the resources? Who actually defines the needs of the would-be beneficiaries? If the people concerned have their say, what do they consider as relevant? What conditions need to be guaranteed so that any technology introduced meets the requirements of an appropriate technology?

Entitled Hamessing Knowledge in the South and for the South, the second part of the meeting took a closer bok at two projects in which LTs play a prominent role. First, an initiative in South India provided ample illustration of the opportunities for boal residents if LTs are applied to meet their needs. Another example was given of a project in Cameroon in which Helvetas gained valuable experience from utilising the Geographical Information System (GE) to analyse complex data. Both presentations described LTs' congruency with participatory processes and the concept of appropriate technologies.

Finally, the meeting deal with Knowledge as an Organisational Resource - Managing Knowledge. Knowledge has become a crucial resource for organisations, demanding as comprehensive a cultivation system as possible. Here, ETs were discussed as instruments to organise expertise and insights gained by members of development agencies. These technologies provide new options promising more efficient operations, yet when applied in small organisations, specific limitations must be considered.

[Helvetas, the Swiss Association for International Co-operation, and the Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation (SDC) jointly organised a Swiss Meeting on Global Knowledge Sharing and Information and Communication Technologies in Berne, Switzerland, March 20, 2001. The documentation on this meeting is now available. Downbad from the Internet at www.helvetas.ch/km/workshop or order a print-version from Helvetas, St. Moritzstrasse 15, P.O. Box 181, CH-8042 Zurich.]

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SHARING WHOSE KNOWLEDGE? THE GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT NETWORK AND THE DIFFUSION OF DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

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There are many research and analysis networks in existence but none so grand in design as the GbbalDevelopm ent Network - a gbbalcoalition of institutes, think tanks and developm ent researchers. The GDN motto is: world-class localknowledge forworld-class localsolutions'. The GDN is designed to allow greater scope for home-grown' policy, inform ation-sharing and enhanced research capacity in and between developing countries (www.gdnet.org).

The main sponsor of the Network is the World Bank. Although there are other supporting agencies, the GDN is an example of how the World Bank is recreating itself as the Knowledge Bank'. The GDN is founded on seven regional research networks, again sponsored by the World Bank, and largely composed of economic policy institutes.

More generally, the GDN is one manifestation of the globalisation of development knowledge's where research is spread internationally. Through think tanks, research institutes and universities, societies adapt or synthesise global forms' of knowledge to suit local circum stances. There is also a promising reverse effect in the extent to which these organisations are able to feed grass-roots knowledge' back into international organisations and donor agencies. Former World Bank Chief Economist, Joseph Stiglitz (2000) advised the GDN partner institutes:

Prudent counsel is to scan globally for best practices but to test them boally since local adaptation often amounts to reinventing the best practice in the new context. The Knowledge Bank can scan globally; the GDN partners have to reinvent locally.

This objective is one of the clearest global policy aspirations for the GDN whereby the research community has the intellectual infrastructure to construct channels of communication between the political and the research worlds thus facilitating the flow of knowledge into policy. The transfer of knowledge itself is equated as a mode of development.

One in portant platform of thinking behind the GDN is that it is a vehicle for a global public good'. Know ledge is a public good but so also is the dissemination of that know ledge. That is, diffusing know ledge about successful (and failed) policy experiments and innovations of one country may be of benefit to many other countries. Placing know ledge' as central to the development process is a profound re-conceptualisation of development not only in the World Bank but in other multilateral aid agencies that adopt similar language. One implication is that the creation, management and transfer of know ledge becomes the primary axis for international co-operation on development. While the importance of know ledge in development is not to be denied, it is necessary to clarify:

- 1. How knowledge is conceptualised or what constitutes knowledge;
- 2. The social and political context in which knowledge is produced, evaluated and transferred.

The public good approach is an apolitical view of know ledge where issues of power and hegem only are not considered. The spread of ideas and policy can be coercive. Conditionality is the most obvious example of the compulsion to conform to a set of internationally determined standards and best practice. Moreover, the simple exchange of know ledge does not confront or circum vent deep-rooted asymmetries of power that exist in developing countries that may confound effective or appropriate utilisation of know ledge.

Within the GDN, the dominant conceptualisation of what constitutes knowledge is research undertaken by suitably qualified experts in recognised institutional contexts—that is, in research institutes. Institute structure itself is often of a secular Westernised character. Local knowledge is reproduced in a western form at. It is a 'codified' form of knowledge that results in 'sharing' almost exclusively between intellectual, political and economic elites who share a common professional language. Moreover, the dominant character of the current network participants entails that knowledge is from ed predominantly by the methods and models, professional norms and standards of economists.

The GDN presents itself as a technically and politically neutral, non-state actor. However, the knowledge that is generated and transferred - research results, data, information about best practice', etc. - is strongly flavoured by the values of the post W ashington Consensus. This policy paradigm involves political choices in favour of certain policies such as privatisation, liberalisation, deregulation and public sector reform overhin with new concerns about transparency, engagement with civil society and boalownership of

development policy. Presented as civil society organisations (sometimes inappropriately given close connection to government in many countries), institutes are 'partners' with which World Bank officials can interact to meet these goals.

A bcalinstitute, or a regional network, acts as amplifier of World Bank values, perspectives and priorities. Political them es and policy approaches are reinforced by the multiplication of institutes at a domestic level and through building regional networks to share information, spread policy lessons and consolidate international consensus. The GDN is primarily an initiative allowing the World Bank to meet its own agendas regarding home-grown policy', civic engagement and partnership, and top-down knowledge sharing.

Reference

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REFLECTING ON GDNET AS GDN BECOMES INDEPENDENT

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On July 25,2001, the doors to the newly independent GbbalDevelopm ent Network (GDN) opened. After two years of gestation inside the World Bank, the GDN is now officially registered as an international nonprofit organization boated outside of the World Bank buildings in Washington, DC.

This is an exciting time for the GDN, but it is also filled with anxiety about what the future might hold. Is the GDN prepared for a life of its own, away from the comfortable trappings of the Bank? As the form erm anager of the GDN's Internet initiative, GDNet, I would like to briefly reflect upon what we have built over the past year and how it positions GDNet for the future.

New Leadership

When the GDN moves outside of the World Bank, it will also take with it the GDN et project which has, up until now, been managed by the World Bank Institute. This is why I am writing as a "past" manager. Soon there will be a new manager for the GDN et initiative, and new ly engaged leadership in the form of GDN's Director, Lyn Squire.

With new leadership for GDNet also comes the uncertainty of the project's future direction. However, there are positive signs that the momentum will continue. The GDN Board, at its recent meeting in May voiced overwhelming support for GDNet. A small committee of the Board was formed to provide support and guidance to the initiative. It also boks quite likely that the GDN will continue working with the Institute for Development Studies, UK (DS), a key partner in placing GDNet where it is today. Both of these developments bid well for the future of GDNet.

Strategic Directions

GDNet's ongoing consultative process has generated a number of key strategic directions. These directions were recently discussed and generally supported by a small group of web managers (the core of GDNet's community) gathered in Brighton, England in March.

A few major them es em enged from the discussions. First, the GDNet web site (currently managed by DS) should become a "shop window" for featuring the latest and greatest work of research institutes in developing countries. Second, in order for these institutes to actively contribute their materials to GDNet, they would need capacity building support — especially for their internet activities. Third, the work of this community of institutes would best be featured through "regional windows," managed by a leading institute within each region.

This ambitious agenda has the potential form aking a major contribution in making developing country knowledge accessible to a global audience. There are related initiatives already on the playing field, so it will be up to GDNet future management to carve out the most effective niche and engage community members in ways that are most beneficial to them.

Community Engagement and Promising Partnerships

The pibting phase of GDNet has revealed a high level of enthusiasm for the project within its core constituency, research institute web managers. These individuals have used the prototype system actively, provided feedback, engaged their colleagues and contributed to the strategic direction of the initiative. This participation is quite encouraging, but the continuation of this momentum is key to the future of GDNet.

In order to test the waters in some areas which have emerged as priorities for GDNet, a number of pibt partnerships have been developed. The Community of Science (access to funding opportunities), International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications (access to peer reviewed journals), International Institute for Sustainable Development (web management capacity building) and European Association of Research and Training Institutes (integrating web databases) have all been engaged in the GDNet process and their resources can contribute much to GDNet's success in its next phase of operation.

In Conclusion

The potential of cyber technologies is just beginning to be tapped as a means of sharing knowledge about development. Developing countries are still quite limited in their ability to mean the benefits of this new medium, but they are actively exploring all options and pushing the frontier whenever possible. GDNet offers a promising avenue for research institutes to make the Internet work for them. Im hopeful that they will recognize this opportunity, and the new GDN will deliver to the best of its abilities.

FITING KNOW LEDGE TOOLS FOR DEVELOPMENT?

NETWORKING KNOW LEDGE WITH THE SOUTH:

THE ESSENTIAL ART OF PURSUING

KNOW LEDGE PARTNERSHIPS

CHOOSING THE RIGHT TOOLS FOR KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT

TEAR FUND AND KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT:
WHERE WE ARE IN JULY 2001

FROM ACCESS TO ICTS TO
KNOWLEDGE SHARING AND EMPOWERMENT

OXFAM GREAT BRITAIN'S
KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

COMMENTS ON KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DONORS AND THE SOUTH

PUTTING UNTAPPED KNOWLEDGE TO USE
IN INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

ICT ENABLED KNOW LEDGE NETWORKING IN THE SOUTH FOR EMPOWERMENT AND GOVERNANCE

KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT FOR DEVELOPMENT ORGANISATIONS

NETWORKING KNOW LEDGE WITH THE SOUTH: THE ESSENTIAL ART OF PURSUING KNOW LEDGE PARTNERSHIPS

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Poised as we are on the brink of another chasm of underdevelopm ent, the gaping "digital divite", it is high time for a moment of reflection on the method of bridging the gap without plunging into the abyss. Perched on one side is the North with a proliferation of tools, building the know ledge bridge according to its own methodology, linked to satellite tracking but taking only to itself; and the South on the other brink, with a pirated model because it cannot afford BillGates' licensing fees or the high cost of online telecommunications, possessing the innovative knowledge but not the access or resources to construct its own model, and unable to breach local telecommunications policies. The only way to communicate effectively is to build from both sides, managing from both sides to create an integrated knowledge network.

Creation of know ledge and making of policy take place at many levels: bcaland national, sub-regional and regional, global If we are to hamess these processes effectively we must actively involve all levels in both the process and ownership of the process. This is no longer a cliché about democratic development, but a necessity to global development. Globalization is, first and foremost, about global access to information, and second, the means of using that information to generate opportunities.

The continued investment in Northern tools development, although in portant, is not the only way forward, without an equitable response to supporting Southern innovation and knowledge sharing. Knowledge is about opening up, about seeing, stretching, building linkages between ideas and practice, to bridge knowledge, policy and development.

The potential for equitable partnerships has never been better. Technology is crossing borders and continents, offering an unprecedented opportunity to poolour know ledge resources for sustainable global development. Together we can build bridges across chasms of underdevelopment, but there are many rocky places and slippery stones, and this requires tolerance, patience and well-targeted resources for capacity building, connectivity and access, to broaden participation and awareness.

Due to the rising costs of all other forms of communication, and ease of usage, the email and intermet access are rapidly becoming an appropriate technology for knowledge networking. Though still inaccessible to most people, the connectivity rate is rising rapidly and a number of organizations are strengthening skills, access and awareness for partners, including NGOs, university departments, parliam entarians and media.

The major challenge now is to ensure that boal, national and regional know ledge is accessible, that Southern as well as Northern know ledge perspectives are available; and that together, these components from the basis of global know ledge. If that is to occur within a reasonable time frame, South-North know ledge partnerships are the key. The nurturing of these partnerships requires a balance of commitment, vision and resources.

An emerging example still to be assessed is the World Bank's Global Development Network (GDN) and associated website GDNet, which is attempting to build a global network of researchers and research institutes, and provide knowledge networking tools for researchers. GDN and GDNet are in many ways opposite forces in the democratization of development knowledge. The structure for GDN is unipolar and centralized in the North, and its predetermined approach risks exclusion of the independent thinkers of the South. GDNet, through the World Bank Institute, has been trying to initiate a more inclusive process that generates credibility and enthusiasm in the South as well as the North, while facilitating encounters that carefully encourage a broad range of perspectives. This nascent partnership if nurtured carefully could provide a model for equitable knowledge networking at global level. But there are many rivers to cross.

There continues to be little consideration among Northern modellers for the reality of the Southern institutions, which have little staff time or resources to divert to re-inputting m aterial into new data bases to conform to the form at of tools developed and in plem ented by one Northern agency. This must be a more inclusive process, and for the South where hum an and technical resources are in short supply, it must build on existing work toward the massive and priority task of facilitating access to Southern knowledge resources. The Northern agencies seem unable to see that they are creating a diversion of lim ited skills to cope with their model of a global network, through access "incentives" that require duplication of work through re-inputting existing information in their format. This means extra staff time and effort in creating entries and abstracts, with no clear indication on how the service will be sustained as m em bers from the South will find it difficult to maintain the updating of the GDNet database unless it is value-added to their norm alwork. Hwe are forced to channel limited staff time through duplication of work, we will have to choose national or regional over global objectives. A global network will not be a service if it becomes a burden, and if only those regional institutions developed and resourced by the W orld Bank are able to participate.

There is a realdanger again of underdeveloping the South in much the same manner as before, and suppressing Southern initiative. The challenge is to consider the needs and know ledge of the South when offering technology tools developed by the North to share Northern know ledge resources, and when seeking a definition for "quality". This has been difficult to pursue, with development funds supporting one Northern agency to offer and adapt its own model, with little consideration for Southern (or even other Northern) innovation. That agency is funded, while others are expected to donate their time. This will not be resolved through one-off training workshops introducing Northern tools hastily put online, but by a concerted and serious effort at working together, supported with adequate resources, to develop an suitable, sustainable methodology and model

Inform ation and communications technology is so very appropriate to the South, where know ledge that is being generated is not easily disseminated, and where access to know ledge is more possible now than ever before. But networks and gateways designed in the North are not taking account of Southern innovation, which we've seen for example from Chile on workspaces and Brazilon data bases; and often relevant Northern innovation is not given appropriate attention, support and Southern exposure. An example of the latter is EL@ND, the European Library Network for Development, created by a network of development institutes, which has developed a mechanism for access and searching of multiple electronic libraries existing in different countries and languages.

One bridge generated in the South but unable to build at present is the African Development Policy Network (ADPN), envisaged as a bose network of think tanks and policy institutes committed to sharing knowledge resources, but currently lacking resources of any other kind to nurture its own development. Constructed to date only to the level of interimexecutive, this is one Southern response that has emerged to meet the challenge of globalization of knowledge and should be nurtured. It has the potential to become what Kofi Annan advocates as a "bose creative coalition".

Know ledge networking should take account of building and strengthening these South—South and South-North linkages, and sharing skills that will enable know ledge sharing. Our hom epages and websites in the South are chasing too few skills, and even fewer design skills for smart access. So users often prefer to access the Northern sites which may be prettier and easier to navigate but don't contain Southern inform ation, thus ever-widening the "digital divide".

We need more skills—sharing opportunities but also support for innovation, of the type strengthened through links with One World Europe and Bellanet in Canada. The latter has offered to place a technology specialist in a southern institution for at least a year and hopefully more, to work with other partners and networks in southern Africa. This method of skills—sharing will be more effective, not taking one person to the north for a workshop but bringing expertise to the South that we need to accelerate the process of accessibility of knowledge resources. That is a partnership model that should be nurtured, supported and expanded. Knowledge will be shared in both directions, the Southern partner gaining skills for technology access, while the Northern partner gains insights and knowledge access. We very much need to create a critical mass of technical expertise in the South because at present, the limited expertise is being swallowed by international institutions even in their boal operations.

A technology problem to overshadow all others in the South of course, is access, with unstable telephone lines, and the high cost of online time and of software licenses. This prohibits access for a number of smaller organizations and individuals unless they become e "pirates". Internet is easily accessible and cheap, virtually free, in North America, while elsewhere we are ham pered by high online telephone charges. New solutions need to be found, and are already available to be found, for example through alternatives to the telephone such as the microwave technology that is being used to link refugee camps through small radio towers, which is also what SARDC uses to link its four locations, and by direct satellite links which, though still prohibitively expensive, are growing less costly.

Instead of wringing our hands about lack of electronic access in nural areas, we should work together, North and South, to organize broader access. This is not insure ountable and not necessarily resource heavy, but requires innovative solutions and vision to accompany resource flows.

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Introduction

GTZ is at the beginning of its work concerning know ledge m anagement. Know ledge m anagement belongs to the toolkit of the modern company in a globalised economic setting. It is meant to enhance business results.

Know ledge is defined as information to which a clear-cut meaning in a given context is attached - W hat Works W hy In W hat Situations? Data and Information are not yet know ledge but constitute indispensable elements.

Know ledge m anagement means to manage (1) the sources of know ledge and information, (2) the know ledge bearers and know ledge resources, (3) the supply of know ledge, (4) the demand for know ledge, and (5) the infrastructure for know ledge processing, storage and communication.

Knowledge Management in GTZ

Very early, GTZ produced m anuals in most sectors of activity that documented and synthesised successful approaches. Findings were disseminated through seminars.

The current working definition of knowledge management in GTZ is a process definition:

- To define know ledge objectives,
- to identify and process know ledge generated by the projects,
- to store it so that it is easily available in the field and at Head Office,
- to synthesise and to assemble it as technical co-operation packages or products.
- to bring it to bear on the international discussion and on new projects,
- to be aware of current issues in the international discussion on development,
- to know how the dem and of major clients for technical co-operation develops,
- to use allthis know ledge for the developm ent of GTZ's portfolio.

Know ledge Managem ent as a Strategic Project

GTZ runs five strategic projects. One of them is know ledge management; the others are personnelhum an management, strategic marketing, quality management and innovative projects. Through know ledge management, GTZ intends to use its development know ledge accumulated over 26 years. GTZ' is a know ledge-based company. Its sole assets are (1) know ledge about development and successful technical co-operation, and (2) the people who possess it.

The Use of Know ledge in GTZ's W ork

There is a marked contrast to the mode of operation of the Development Banks. The Banks' knowledge requirements are greatest during ban preparation and appraisal in GTZ's work, most knowledge is needed, acquired and generated during project in plementation.

GTZ combines features of a centralised hierarchy and an inverted organisation. The centralised element is GTZ's PuE-department (Planung und Entwicklung - Planning and

Development) where about 110 long-term sector specialists work. Here is the locus of GTZ's long-term, accumulated professional knowledge. The inverted-organisation feature is the fact that most of the work is done by highly qualified professionals. In 1999, a total of 10,800 staff, both nationals (86%) and expatriates (14%), worked in about 4,300 projects. They are given a lot of autonomy in project work, encouraged not to use blueprints. The concept of "best practice" is not a GTZ-concept. Each project is a potential site of knowledge generation.

GTZ's activities can be sum m arised by the following categories:

- Conceptualwork (project concepts, new products, new advisory services in technical co-operation, sector and country developm ent concepts, etc.)
- Planning (program m e or project planning),
- In plem entation,
- Quality assurance (quality m anagem ent, project m onitoring),
- Marketing.

They are linked to certain kinds of know ledge as shown in the table below:

Kind of Know ledge	Conceptual Work	Planning	In plem entation	Qua lk y Assurance	Marketing
Dem and for advisory services	x				х
(objective) need for advisory services	x				х
Innovations in a given sector	x				
New developments in projects	x				
Resource requirem ents and costs		X			x
Sustainability of a given approach		X			
Structure and duration of a process of TC		X			
Effects and impact and their main factors	x	X			x
Detailed technical know-how			X		
Exam ples of products and services			x		
Quality norms			x	x	
Context factors of successful advisory work			x		
Sources of know ledge	x	Х	x		

Weak Points in the Previous Use of Knowledge

- 1. There are no in-built mechanisms that ensure that existing knowledge is considered before a new project starts nor that such knowledge is boked up and used during project in plementation. Use of such knowledge relies on individual initiatives. In addition, existing knowledge is hard to retrieve.
- 2. Localdevelopments, experiences and innovations are not systematically documented. There is no compelling reason for staff to do so, and so far, there is no mechanism that ensures that the existing documentation is collected.

ActualPriorities

GTZ's approach to know ledge m anagem ent addresses these shortcom ings At the m om ent, it focuses on the first steps of the know ledge m anagem ent process.

Took

In order to define know ledge objectives, the tool of choice is a professional portfolio analysis. It portrays in detail the professional aspects covered by a given group of projects. It is a tool for "knowing what one knows".

The main emphasis has been to develop tools for identifying, acquiring and processing relevant knowledge generated "in the field". The approach to identify and acquire knowledge is "debriefing", a structured discussion between project staff and sector specialists at Head Office. It is meant to be brief and cannot go into much depth but would provide hints on where to "dig deeper". A number of instruments have been developed in draft form for various debriefing occasions in the form of guidelines for discussions.

- Knowledge maps,
- SW OT analysis (Strengths W eaknesses Opportunities Threats),
- The advisor's diary,
- A project's learning history,
- Methods to capture detailed knowledge,

Other instruments are guidelines on how to use Project Progress Reviews for institutional learning and the Comparative analysis of similar projects.

The main instruments for knowledge management are professional associations grouping professional staff working in similar projects in a given region. GTZ's policy has defined knowledge management as their main function. There are 32 such associations covering nine broad sectors.

Tools for storing and retrieving knowledge do not yet exist in a systematic way. There are a certain number of differently structured electronic databases that will enter a master knowledge base. This knowledge base will be user-friendly and accessible through GTZ's Intranet, but partly also through the Internet.

Conclusion

There is an enorm ous wealth of inform ation and knowledge that is constantly being generated in technical co-operation projects. It could be of use to our partner countries and institutions and could in prove our own work if used to the full.

Managing this wealth is a huge challenge. This challenge will have to be met through the creative use of the resources that we can muster both in the field and at Head Office.

There are no universally recognised approaches, methods, instruments and procedures for knowledge management. Knowledge management in development co-operation presents opportunities for initiative and inventiveness. These opportunities need to be fully used.

TEARFUND AND KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT: WHERE WE ARE IN JULY 2001

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The following is a potted history of Knowledge Management (KM) at Tearfund. This approach has been adopted from that of British Petroleum and then it's just been a case of seeing what works and what doesn't and being prepared to learn as we go! We are very keen to share thoughts, iteas, insights, successes and failures with people - all of these have contributed to where we are now.

Know ledge Management (KM) arrived at Tearfund as a conscious concept in the Spring of 1999. Following early discussions with a handful of key players, a Learning Review ' (Tearfund jargon for Learning After') was tried in the early Summer within the International Group of the organisation. This was well received and so severalmore were delivered in the following weeks, though still in an ad-hoc manner where opportunities presented them selves.

There was an initial focus on disaster response since this generally took the form of discrete and well-known projects involving players from different teams. However, other areas of activity also started to be reviewed in the same way, though still with a focus on the International Group. This was helped by the fact that KM was included as a feature of the ongoing, and organisationally accepted, RP (International Research Project) project which was about bringing change to the International Group of Tearfund. It definitely helped to piggy-back on to a change project already established in this way.

By spring 2000, it was clear to many key players in the organisation that the approach (adopted from BP) had potential and there was talk about form alising the process into a corporate project and assigning dedicated resource to lead it. This translated into a full time KM project leader in post from 1st September 2000.

It was also recognised that the project requires a smalland agile KM project team consisting of the critical elements: Knowledge Management Specialist; Information Management Specialist; Information Technology Support; Leadership Team Champion.

In addition, it is also recognised that this team requires a larger Steering Group to provide accountability, challenge, support and advocacy across the wider organisation. At the time of writing, this Steering Group has met three times.

TORs for the project as a whole are in place, as are TORs for the Steering Group.

There is an initialem phasis on understanding and applying the concepts in the corporate Tearfund first, and then working with our Partners to become a wider learning network. We also wish to include Tearfund's Supporters and the Poor in the process too. In fact, some Partners are already linking up into Communities of Practice and identifying lessons for conscious re-application, though this is far from widespread at the moment.

The KM Project Team has so farm et with all 30 teams across the organisation. This has been done to understand what their perceptions of KM are, and, based on those, to hear what their expectations are too (these expectations are recorded and sum marised - this way it can be demonstrated back to the organisation how the same issues frequently come up). Having heard the expectations, the KM project team then introduces the team to the main KM models and concepts and also asks for a team member to act as single point of contact for later KM communication with the team. The intent is to meet with the remainder of the teams within the next couple of months. Every 6 or 8 weeks, the KM specialist sends round an informal new sletter to all the team KM contacts to let them know key developments.

A simple spreadsheet has been put in place to track the number of learning processes taking place around the different parts of the organisation. This is showing that the rate of activity is typically 1-3 perweek. This doesn't sound much but it soon adds up (we are presently at 110). Initially, all such processes were being facilitated largely by one person and hence it was easy to track even if less desirable from the development of the organisation's point of view. As learning processes start to occur around the organisation, which is a good thing, it is becoming harder to keep track of them all. This is ok provided the lessons them selves are always stored in one place by everyone. This process in any case only measures simple activities - that's not a bad thing but it's not sufficient. We have recently used the NTRAC questionnaire approach to measuring the extent of KM embedding via 8 key dimensions.

We are also trying out the concept of Learning Exit Interviews' with people who are bearing the organisation. We've done a few of these now and they seem to work quite well. It has also proved popular with people who, intuitively, can see that large amounts of very valuable knowledge leave with people when they walk out of the door on their last day.

Tearfund does not have an Intranet, though one is intended to be in place within the next year or so. Whilst the absence of this technology has helped the organisation to focus on KM as being very much a people and process (not technology) led initiative, there is no doubt that the availability of web technology would better enable and facilitate the processes, storage of lessons and connecting of people and their knowledge. In the meantime, we are using a basic folder system on a server. It's less than ideal, but is the technology that is presently available and with which the organisation is familiar.

We have recognised that Inform ation Management (M) and professional Librarianship is a big issue with a big and valued tradition in the sector, and the arrival of KM has needed to recognise this. In Tearfund, we have spent a great deal of time and energy debating this and we believe we have a clear distinction between the two areas in a manner that shows both are required to energise the other.

It is quite in portant that KM is not seen as a separate and distinct function performed by a specific team or those folk over there'. Instead it is critical that the set of outboks, behaviours and processes that make up KM are applied by all teams, projects, groups in the organisation as part of their Business as Usual.

We are aware that KM is much more than just capturing and re-using lessons and communities of practice. In fact, its application leads to implications and influence allover

the organisation both in terms of teams / departments and topic / subject areas. For example, it links to perform ance measurement, change management, personnel management, values and vision, training, strategic planning. We are still grasping with the enormity of all this and how to manage it.

We have gained a bt of support from BP, and also from a smallconsultancy (Knowledge Transform ation International or KTI largely made up of form er BP KM folk). The KTI website is at www.ktransform.com and much useful help can be found there.

WE CAN OFFER

Reflections around what we have done so far in getting early traction / buy-in for KM into the organisation in terms of culture, process and technology etc. Most of this has gone ok but we've had the odd upset too!

WENEED HELP WITH (PLEASE!)

Thoughts from others on how to use an Intranet to really help foster and drive a learning culture;

In plem enting Com m unities of Practice in a single office.

If you wish to help us or ask us any questions, please contact:

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FROM ACCESS TO ICTS TO KNOWLEDGE SHARING AND EMPOWERMENT

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Though the international development community is putting the spotlight on the "digital divide", working hard to find ways to ensure that everyone in the world will soon have access to inform ation and communication technologies (LTs), and though a growing number of development agencies are adopting Knowledge Management (KM) practices within and working on knowledge sharing across organizational boundaries, a true knowledge revolution is still far away on the horizon.

While know ledge management approaches stream line know ledge sharing processes, they also tend to smooth over the question of what is being managed, and to what end. The risk of advancing a comporate KM approach within development organizations is that it will spread without sufficient consideration of its in pact on poor and isolated target communities in developing countries. Another danger is that existing communication approaches which offer significant potential for know ledge sharing that is adapted to these real needs and circum stances of poor communities in developing countries will be displaced by the new modes that are not necessarily participatory or empowering.

The key challenge for the future is not so much to retreat and abandon KM, but rather to bok at the role of know ledge from the ground up and see where KM tools and practices fit, don't fit, or can be adapted to be be becaused. There is a need to refocus on the know ledge needs of developing country communities. At the moment, the focus of KM initiatives seem s to be development agencies. While the know ledge needs of development agencies are certainly in portant, the in pact of such KM initiatives will remain limited if the know ledge and know ledge needs of developing country communities are neglected.

Empowerment may come, not so much when a community has access to LTs, not when development agencies manage know ledge more effectively, but rather when a community is able to handle its own know ledge more effectively and to access outside know ledge for its own benefit.

The them es highlighted in this short piece are further developed in a paper entitled "New Technologies and Knowledge for Sustainable Developm ent: The Empowerm ent Challenge," to be published in the forthcoming volume of Knowledge and Society (Summer 2001).

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OXFAM GREAT BRITAIN'S KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME:

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The purpose of this paper is to brief non-Oxfam people about what Oxfam GB are doing and planning in the Knowledge Management field. Please contact Margaret Pickering with any queries or comments.

Background

Know ledge Management is one of a series of strategic initiatives now incorporated and phased within Oxfam GB's Strategic plans (2000-2005). Excellent Know ledge Management is essential to maximising the effectiveness of the organisation and Know ledge itself is a powerful resource that Oxfam can create, structure, apply and make available externally. The Oxfam GB approach is pragmatic. The program me has been broken down into sub-projects that can deliver demonstrable benefit and generate case studies and techniques that can be scaled up for the whole organisation.

We are boking for a permanent and pervasive transform ation in our behaviours that will be seen in:

- The way we apply know ledge in making decisions and choices.
- The value we place on creating, m anaging, dissem inating and using know ledge.
- The attention we give to 'packaging' know ledge so that it can and will be used, analysing who, when, how and forwhat that know ledge is intended.
- The expectations we have of one another, both in terms of preparedness to seek and
 use knowledge (maintaining a learning posture) and our willingness to collaborate and
 to share.

Know ledge Managem ent is about creating, managing, applying and sharing both explicit know ledge (that exists typically in documents, databases and as part of processes) and

tacit knowledge (embedded in people and their experience) in order to 'm ake a difference' in overcoming poverty and suffering. Strategic Change Objectives (our fram ework for achieving change) will help us to organise knowledge and ensure there is real alignment between our Knowledge Management investment and our organisational purpose. The role of technology is to support effective knowledge management by;

- facilitating com m unication,
- em bedding expected practice (our know ledge about how to') into system s,
- enabling m anagers to abstract inform ation from data through use of reporting and other tools.

Technology can support, but not deliver, effective Knowledge Management.

We have recently completed Phase 1 of a study to bok at our overseas partners' use of electronic communications technologies - specifically the use of email and intermet. This is

to inform our strategy on mechanisms for sharing and delivering knowledge with our partners throughout the world. While over 85% of our partners have phone lines, less that 50% have an email address and fewer currently have access to intermet, although access to intermet is expected to increase significantly over the next 18 m on ths.

Sum mary of progress on Oxfam KM project to date:

The Oxfam GB Corporate Management Team approved a three-year plan in May 2000. A core group, accountable for the program me has been appointed.

For planning purposes the work has been split into a number of strands of activity;

Activity	Progress to November 2000		
Building a body of expertise about best	On-going. Relationship with		
practice Know ledge Managem ent and building	com m unications and m onitoring and		
links with other NGOs in the north and south	evaluation work is strong. Communities		
and businesses with whom we may learn.	of Practice seen as key.		
Designing ways to develop the Knowledge	W orkshops will be pibted in the new		
Managem ent com petency of managers	year. (Schedule for delivery and further		
(Know ledge Managem ent is already a 'core	training interventions are not yet		
com petence ' in our com petency fram ew ork)	decided)		
Exploring what our involvement should be in	Oxfam are discussing with Oxfam		
sponsoring or contributing to Internet Portal	Internationala letter to the W orld Bank		
sites (m ost notably the W orld Bank's Gbbal	expressing interest and concern.		
Developm ent Gateway).	We continue to explore role of Portals		
	in our com m unications strategy.		
Sponsoring one or several Know ledge	W ork has started, boking at KM (and		
Management Initiatives' within Oxfam that will	barriers to it) in our Hum anitarian Work.		
yield benefit in their own right and provide	We are planning to bok at		
useful learning experience.	effectiveness and scalability of our		
	Landrights site:		
	http://www.oxfam.org.uk/hndrights/in		
	dex htm		
	and of e-m all facilitated networks with		
	partners around the world.		

Activity	Progress to November 2000
Developing Com m unities of Practice	CoP are seen as very in portant. We
	are boking at ways to strengthen the
	inform alCoPs that exist and to develop
	new ones, particularly in area where we
	feelwe have a lack of Know ledge.
	Various ideas under consideration
Publishing Team Strategy	Incorporating initiatives within our
	publishing area to facilitate learning,
	know ledge sharing and develop
	channels for publishing southern
	research in variety of form ats.

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COMMENTS ON KM AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DONORS AND THE SOUTH

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In principle, know ledge m anagement addresses key problems facing most of the Third World: the effective use of know ledge is key if scarce hum an resources are to be optimized. And the generation, management and sharing of know ledge can be one of the most in portant developmental objectives for almost any country, and for any donor.

However, there are some issues that arise in the way know ledge management is discussed, particularly among the donor community that should be raised and addressed:

- 1. KM is a highly democratic concept, but to be most effective it needs to be defined by, driven by and geared towards users. This takes planning and a deep understanding of what is needed by different users, in term s of speed, timeliness, accuracy and comprehensiveness. What is needed by a senior planner may be quite different from what an extension officer or a researcher may require.
- 2. Time m atters; the correct answer that is late is no answer. But the definition of time, and of correctness, is quite variable. Again, what a researcher needs to know versus a senior policy maker can vary extraordinarily. The trick for KM systems is to figure out how to build upon economies of scale in terms of technology while maintaining the differentiation that is required at the level of the user. "Cost effectiveness" can mean quite different things to different users; not every know ledge user needs material in real time, or on the web.
- 3. KM is NOT the same thing as new and in proved inform ation systems; at its heart KM is about the quality of the inform ation, not quantity. Being able to access all of the world's web sites is not in itself know ledge management; being able to craft a definition of what one needs to know, and then being able to find the 2 or 3 best fits for the answer, is most more in portant.

- 4. This implies that analysis and the sifting of knowledge from information may be far more valuable to invest in than simply improving the flow of unsifted information.
- 5. KM among the donor and academ is communities is usually discussed in terms of its in pact on development. However, KM 's in pact internally on the ability of organizations to meet their targets should not be downplayed; KM can help the success of parliaments, factories, agriculturalmarketing coops, donors, contractors etc.
- 6. Donors clearly need KM to get their own internal work done, but KM as a developm entalengine must reside, almost by definition, in the hands of the users. These users are not just in the South, but what links them is not the hierarchical perspective generated by the donor-recipient, grantor-grantee relationship, but rather the peer to peer relationship defined by the subject at hand.
- 7. Donors and countries SHOULD be able to argue that program s that try to upgrade KM as it is used by the public and private sectors are powerful developmental objectives in their own right, and not just internal processes.
- 8. To be most effective, KM must be driven by the issues and sectors being addressed, not primarily by IT or telecommunications specialists. It might be instructive to bok at the makeup of the participants at various KM meetings to see if in fact there is the type of mix that would adequately capture the users' perspectives).
- 9. That implies that the KM community both among the donors and in the South should embrace, and be integrated with, sectoral specialists or other user needs.
- 10. Know ledge m anagement is essentially a "flow" and not a "stock" concept, but it's essential that there is also some learning over time. Given the sector focus, this implies that organizations within these sectors maintain an ability to keep, generate and weed know ledge.
- 11. The public sector, NGOs and donors should embrace the experiences of the corporate world in terms of KM, even if the scale is not necessarily correct.

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PUTTING UNTAPPED KNOWLEDGE TO USE IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

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1. Japan's international cooperation program can be characterized by two them es: significant involvement of the "domestic sector" of society, and the relatively limited role of those who specialize in foreign aid, such as consultants, expatriates, or NGOs. Government ministries, bealgovernments, and various private organizations primarily engaged in domestic affairs are mobilized on a non-profit and temporal basis to work with Japan's international cooperation program. These organizations are able to offer the knowledge they have gained through the process of modernization and post-war recovery.

They are also able to share their valuable know ledge on current issues with their counterparts in partner countries while also learning from them. Naturally, under Japan's international cooperation program, dem and-driven two-way know ledge sharing has a better chance of succeeding than does supply-driven know ledge transfer.

- 2. Rapid progress in CT willenable Japan's "domestic sector" to be a more active participant in international cooperation programs. To facilitate this process, JCA has started two major initiatives, namely a knowledge management program and a distance learning program. Both are currently in the final stage of preparation. The former is designed to accumulate knowledge dispersed throughout the "domestic sector". Although the program will start as a closed system to boost the productivity of JCA's operations, at a later stage it might cover several hundreds of partner organizations in developing countries. The latter, tentatively called the "J-net" program, is to introduce distance learning as a serious tool of Japan's technical cooperation. As a part of a comprehensive CT package announced by the Japanese government at last year's G-8 summit in Okinawa, six distance learning centers—the first batch of thirty such centers—will be put into operation by next spring.
- 3. Less possible that these two programs will be combined in due course, and that they will transform the modalities of Japan's international cooperation program profoundly. Some expected changes are as follows:

Through the process of developing the content of distance learning, the currently dispersed and underutilized know ledge of society could be system atically researched, compiled, and digitized for international cooperation. The capacity of "domestic-sector" organizations to share their know ledge with foreign counterparts could also be greatly enhanced through this process.

The best resource persons of society, who are simply too busy to travelabroad, could be mobilized to participate in technical cooperation through the distance learning program. Consequently, the focus of Japan's international cooperation program could be shifted toward the areas of policy and institutions. It could activate know ledge sharing and cocreation between Japan and its partner countries.

Access to Japan's know ledge, which is presently limited to a relatively small number of people (such as project counterparts), could be opened up to a wider circle of people in partner countries. A possible consequence of this may be that old-fashioned trainer training or the "through-the-government" approach might become obsolete.

4. As one of the few societies that have adapted foreign systems and institutions skillfully in the modern era, Japan has a huge store of know ledge that can be shared with developing partners that are struggling to find their own way in this era of globalization. Fortunately, a large part of Japan's international cooperation program is supported by the "domestic sector", which is the primary source of know ledge in society. JCA is committed to making their still largely untapped know ledge available to developing partners so that they can go on to gain further know ledge on their own.

ICT-ENABLED KNOW LEDGE NETWORKING IN THE SOUTH: FOR EMPOWERMENT AND GOVERNANCE

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The advances in inform ation and communication technology are re-structuring the global social economic equation—shifting from income divide to know ledge divide. By definition, Inform ation and Communication Technologies (LT) are a diverse set of technological tooks to create, disseminate, store, bring value—addition and manage information. Interestingly, LT, when used as a tool for amalyamating local know ledge incubated by communities with information existing in remote databases and in public domains, heralds the formation of a new class of society—the Know ledge Society. Know ledge thereby becomes the fundamental resource for all economic and developmental activities in the know ledge society. The process of synthesis of local know ledge with the global pool of know ledge, with the scope for enrichment, lays the genesis for Know ledge Networking.

Know ledge Networking breaks the conventional barriers to the flow of inform ation and know ledge across geographical barriers, between rich and poor, between men and women. It opens up a new way of interactive communication between government bodies, NGOs, academ is and corporate institutions, and the civil society. This process enables communities to take appropriate steps to recognise and document the know ledge they possess, and in focusing this know ledge in a wider social domain to bring directed change.

Individuals and communities in developing countries stand to benefit trem endously from the inmads hid by LT in the domain of knowledge networking. The comparative advantage for developing countries, especially those in the South Asia region, is its richness and diversity of the hum an resource capital Creation of knowledge societies starts with the incubation of knowledge in hum and minds - a process dependent both on the individual and the external environment.

Developing countries need to recognise and value their hum an resources capital and capitalise on it to the task of am assing wealth of know ledge which works for the poor and promotes social equality. The wealth of know ledge, in turn, will create opportunities for developing countries to emerge from dependence on low-cost labour as a source of comparative advantage, increasing productivity and incomes. A venues therefore need to be created for know ledge incubation to be supplemented by capacity-building support and enabling policy fram eworks which provide opportunities to people to use the power of know ledge for propelling their growth. See Know Net Initiative at http://www.know.net.org which aims to create the capacities of developing countries to benefit from IT-enabled Know ledge Management and tries to recognise the value of know ledge possessed by them.

The pertinent question is therefore not whether they stand to benefit but how do they benefit and what are the mechanisms to ensure that the benefits accrued in the developing countries do not remain restricted to mere trickle-down effects? At the very conceptual level, LT enabled knowledge networking has the potential to link each and every individual around the globe in a star topology digital network. This mechanism opens up endless possibilities for knowledge-sharing and could be used by people in creative ways, both to communicate with other people who are online, and also to disseminate

inform ation to people in the outside world who are not online through the use of convergence and hybrid technologies such as community emails, community radio broadcast, tele-centres, new sletters, videos etc. Essentially, this mechanism creates spaces in which communities could overcome the constraints of social seclusion, mobilise resources and support, reach out to new markets, and open up avenues for life-long learning. We could broadly classify the spaces in which knowledge models function or impact under the spheres of Empowerm ent and Governance.

The empowerment sphere centres around the intrinsic nature of know ledge networking models to be based on the principle of inclusion and participation rather than on the principle of exclusion. Information hosted on the know ledge networks is meant to be in the public domain for open access to all Know ledge networking leads to distribution of know ledge which in effect leads to redistribution of power in the society. A small shopowner in Africa has as much right to act over information available on the digital space as a big conglomerate in Europe. There is a free-flow of information. It allows individuals and communities to assimilate know ledge products by collating information from different and alternative sources and adding a local value to it. Know ledge therefore no longer remains confined but gets distributed for concerned action through a continuous process of value-addition and custom isation.

The governance sphere is an outcome of the potential of knowledge networking models to function beyond the confines of information flows and emerge as alternate institutional models for developmental promotion. See Digital Governance website at http://www.digitalgovernance.org which aims to explore innovative CT enabled Governance models. By focusing on innovative Knowledge Networking Models, people can broaden the scope of their actions and address issues which were previously beyond their capacity. For example, knowledge networking for influencing decision-making strengthens the democratic processes and brings recognition of the powerheld by each individuals it enables the decision-making mechanism to be provided to every individual without being confined to the bureaucratic stratigicketed approach of the more formal institutions. These models change the very nature of government-public interface by forcing greater accountability and transparency in the governance processes. A ternative mechanisms to carry out these tasks would take a bt more time, resources and effort.

Know ledge networking models designed for the South thrive on innovations, custom isation and people's participation. The stress in the design of these models has so far remained restricted to mere digitisation of available information and automation of processes earlier done manually. This is certainly a welcome step but there is also a need to explore the specific tasks which can only be performed through such models. If an agency takes up innovative approaches to know ledge networking in the area of boalgovernance, ecom merce, e-advocacy, e-income generation activities etc. then there is no limit to the benefits that would accrue to communities in the developing countries. Innovation rather than re-invention is the approach that needs to be the followed for setting up know ledge networking models.

KNOW LEDGE MANAGEMENT FOR DEVELOPMENT ORGANISATIONS

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The rapid proliferation of inform ation and communication technologies in the last 10 years has dram atically increased our ability to access, share, and disseminate information and to communicate with almost anyone we choose. In the industrialised world, this increased ability has contributed toward an escalation of the pace of change in general. Faster responses and global access have meant that deals can be struck or broken in the time that it once took to send a single letter. Demand for faster reactions was not long in following this emerging potential.

Large corporations were the first to feelthis need form one flexibility and faster adaptation to changing markets and situations and, it is from large corporations that the 'practice' of Knowledge Management or KM emerged in the early 1990's. While there are many definitions of KM, we choose to define it as a body of practices and approaches that assists organisations (especially large organisations) in dealing with the increasing pace of change.

In 1999, Bellanet (an organisation whose mission is to promote collaboration and knowledge-sharing within the international development community) began to investigate Knowledge Management as an issue that might have some relevance for international development organisations. In 2000, in collaboration with a number of bilateral and multilateral agencies, Bellanet organised two international workshops on Knowledge Management for Development Organisations (http://www.bellanet.org/km). The goal in setting up these workshops was two-fold: to discover the level of interest in and current use of KM by development organisations; and, to see whether lessons learned from applying KM in the corporate world could be germane in a development context.

It em erged from those workshops that:

- most bilateral and multilateral institutions have some sort of Knowledge Management exploration underway;
- m ost people don't have the same definition for the knowledge' let alone knowledge
 m anagement';
- the language of composite KM often doesn't translate well into the development world:
- development organisations that embrace KM see it as having an impact beyond their organisations and are keen to explore how KM may be integrated into development program ming;
- development organisations that embrace KM see Communities of Practice as the most effective KM approach.

Because KM refers to such a wide body of approaches and because large software companies have sought to exploit interest in KM by renaming many of their products "Knowledge Management Tools", some people have interpreted KM as yet another technological ham mer in search of a nail. This is exacerbated by the fact that (as mentioned above) KM is in some degree a response to technological change.

On the contrary, success stories from organisations in plementing KM are mostly to do with changing organisational culture, about valuing individuals, about in proving communications. Successful KM strategies emphasise that:

- Know ledge is largely in people's heads;
- Know ledge is largely socially constructed and often highly contextual;
- Know ledge doesn't lend itself easily (if at all) to brute force extraction and codification;
- In attempting to improve knowledge sharing, it is equally important to focus on how knowledge moves within an organisation as opposed to focusing on what knowledge to share; and,
- The best knowledge transfer mechanism is face-to-face contact.

Based on the above, it is easy to see how lessons from the KM world might inform development practice. At Bellanet, it has helped us shift focus away from developing large repositories of knowledge (or what we once called knowledge) to building communities of development practitioners and developing the skills to facilitate knowledge-sharing within those communities. It has helped us to understand that communities them selves are living knowledge repositories that are farm one relevant and sustainable than any database.

If wilely taken up, this focus on community and on empowering communities of "knowers" could have a significant in pact on how development work is carried out. Creating communities where development decisions evolve from broad social interaction would be a positive step towards more balanced decision-making and more effective learning.

CHALLENGES OF SHARING KNOW LEDGE BETWEEN SOUTH AND NORTH

DEVELOPMENT CO-OPERATION IN EDUCATION AND INFORMATION SHARING: THE POOR RECORD OF DONORS

KNOW LEDGE DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL AD

A BRIEF HISTORY OF KNOW LEDGE PERSPECTIVES IN JICA

KNOW LEDGE SKILLS, CRAFT AND TRAINING:
THE NORTH-SOUTH CHALLENGE

KNOW LEDGE CAPACITY BUILDING IN SOUTH AFRICA:
GLOBAL AND LOCAL STRATEGIES

BUILDING NORTH-SOUTH KNOW LEDGE CAPACITY

LEARNING IN DEVELOPMENT CO-OPERATION AS PART OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF KNOW LEDGE

DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION IN EDUCATION AND INFORMATION SHARING: THE POOR RECORD OF DONORS

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Now more than ever there is increased expressed interest by donors in involving recipients of their support in the making of decisions related to the design, in plem entation and evaluation of donor-supported projects. However, it is not clear that donors are any more serious in promoting consultative decision-making than they were before advances in information technology made such processes even more possible. Many of the factors militating against information sharing can be traced to the donor countries and the organizations that represent them in the recipient countries, although African countries do bear some of the blame for this state of affairs. Whether one is boking at the activities of donors at the home country or the national recipient country level, there are enough reasons for one to question the genuineness of their commitment to learning from the recipients of their philanthropy.

May be because most donor agencies are largely staffed by large num bers of career bureaucrats who have limited experience with recipient countries or because these pen pushers are merely following their governments' orders, the home office of the donor country more or less decides what has to be supported. The views of the respective organizations' regional, national and field staff are often of little consequence. In most cases, visiting donorm issions callon their field offices and m inistries of education almost as a formality. Most consultations that take place are in the form of persuasion. This is the case because most missions only aim at legitimizing donor ideas. In addition to the headquarters' staff, these m issions are largely comprised of teams of consultants many of whom are relatively young and inexperienced on third world realities. Some of these individuals portray them selves as brilliant whiz kids, notwithstanding the fact that they often "steal" many boalideas. Because of their condescending attitude in front of their hosts, their ability to access the centers of power in the recipient countries, their m astery of the spoken and written English word and their general projection of an in age full of confidence, they tend to be easily convincing to a majority of often polite, som etim es subm issive and agreeable governm ent em playees. They waste no opportunity to rem ind their counterparts of "what we agreed with the Minister", "during our meeting with the Cabinet" "as the Perm anent Secretary for Education agreed with us", etc. which tactics are meant to get their quick approval of their ideas. Sometimes they are actually not boasting given the well-known fact that some m ission leaders and consultants can m eet even Heads of State, let abne Cabinet Ministers and Perm anent Secretaries, without prior appointments. Unfortunately, such a high level consultative process may have limited effect in situations where middle level personnel are the real movers of governm ent policy.

This approach by donorm issions, plus the fact that these teams are in recipient countries for rather brief periods of time contribute to limiting the extent of any informed, two way consultation processes. Thus some very critical decisions, even on boal situations are frequently made at Capital cities following an average of two-week consultancy missions. Some are however, made in expensive sea and lakeside resorts,

again rather hastily since these venues have other attractions for visiting and local counterparts. Interestingly, even when those about whom decisions are being made happen to be residing in areas where these meetings are held, they are rarely represented. Even more significant in this era of democratization is the fact that these missions tend to have little or no time for non-governmental stakeholder groups, including religious organizations, NGOs or private educational providers and members of the opposition. What others may be doing is regarded as irrelevant to their own agenda.

In addition to the ministry officials, visiting missions sound out relevant project in plem entation units' (PUs) personnel However, not much frankness could be expected from these donor creations due to the advantaged position of their employees. PI officials take home severaltimes the salaries paid to their counterparts in the m ainstream governm ent departm ents. PIU em ployees however, represent only one group of "com prom ised" governm ent em playees. Others include upper and m id-echebn leaders and participants in ongoing relatively well-paying donor projects or those promised overseas scholarships or visits. Even the possibility of attending one more workshop is a good enough incentive for som e governm ent em ployees in view of the fact that a oneweek perdiem can equal their month's salary. Fear of being left out of the next workshop therefore leads to a situation of there being few, if any "trouble makers". Sadly, given that many of these officials represent the cream of their respective government departm ents, their honest views on issues are a big bas to inform ed project designs and in plem entation. Even more critical during this era of Inform ation Technology (II) which donors are constantly rem inding governments about, few donors are putting any money into strengthening the IT capacity of government ministries, and/or regional and boal leveloffices. Yet interlinked government departments are more likely to promote enhanced capacity for im plem enting relevant developm ent projects.

Effective consultation is further limited by the absence of donor coordination in the area of inform ation sharing. And although they have the capacity to do so, they do not do m uch networking either. Many donor representatives tend to com m unicate little with their counterparts. This explains why donor coordination remains a major problem more than two decades since it became part of their agenda. Also in portant is the lack of harm onization of donor funding and reporting procedures. For example, while donors are investing a bt of resources toward the promotion of sector wide approaches (SW APS) and other sectoral type initiatives having agreed on the need for basket funding, som e eventually backtrack on such agreem ents ostensibly because it is not in keeping with their reporting procedures. Again, little coordination of effort can be expected in these kinds of situations. But duplication of efforts is often compounded by the generally poor institutionalm em ory am ong the donor groups. The inability of donor representatives to bcate even their own past reports is a very wellknown fact, neverm ind the kinds of resources spent to support donor docum entation system s. W here such reports exist, such as those generated at the conclusion of visiting m issions, they are mainly circulated am ong the donor organizations and rarely to the relevant government departments. The extrem e situation is where donor organizations do not get back in touch at all with relevant government officials regarding the likely action to be taken by the supporting donor organization.

Finally, it is now common knowledge that many of the "blueprints" emanating from organizations such as the World Bank are not subjected to any serious scrutiny by governments for whom they are written or targeted. Instead, a network of international civil servants, consultants and scholars are asked to comment on drafts prepared by donor agency staff or consultants they are subjected to commentary through international conferences and journals, all of which are not accessible to those constituencies most affected by the proposed reforms. Nevertheless, one has to come to terms with the fact that discussions with stakeholder groups can be quite resource and time consuming. However, some minimum level of such meetings cannot be avoided.

Donor representation in the recipient countries does not necessarily prom ote a better climate for consulting with the recipient government and other officials. This is because m any of these representatives will take little, if any initiative, perceiving their role more as that of supportive staff to the home office bosses, to which most owe their appointments. Despite the fact that in some cases, field staff are not necessarily answerable to headquarter staff, they often treat the latter with reverence because they can negatively influence perceptions of the program s overwhich field staff preside as well as them selves personally and professionally in the headquarter circles. Few field staff are willing to risk such an eventuality because of the many privileges they enjoy in the recipient countries. The same insecurity may explain their tending to flatter the ruling elites in the countries where they are based and explains som ewhat what appears to be lack of courage to challenge these elites even when they are clearly in the wrong with regard to their actions or pronouncements on donor supported projects. For example, few donor representatives are willing to make a case for cost sharing openly, if they believe that those in power in the recipient countries are not supportive of such reform s, this stance is more for political survival reasons rather than professional considerations. Likewise, few if any field donor staff will dare interact with those seen to be opponents of those in power even when such opponents are in agreem ent with donor stands on say transparency in governance. There is simply too much to be lost.

Enhanced consultations with locals by donor field staff is limited by the fact that field staff are tied to adm inistrative responsibilities revolving around preparing for visiting m issions, including scheduling theirm eetings with governm ents, organizing hotel accomm odation and field trips, and their own routine meetings with senior government officials. This leaves them with little time to understand the local situation outside the center especially given that there is always a supply of bcalconsultants to gather some of the information they need. Even the more interested field staff, however, are handicapped by their inability to communicate in local languages. This greatly proscribes their capacity to seek the views of the most disadvantaged groups for whom they claim to be speaking. The presence in some field offices of bcalprofessional staff does not appear to make much difference, as many such officers have been made more or less assistants to the international staff. In many cases, the views of these staff are regularly overboked, so much so that many such staff resign from their jbs out of frustration. An additional barrier to improved consultation is that meetings in field offices are frequently conducted in the languages of the donor countries to the utter neglect of the locals who m ay have limited or no capacity to communicate in the language of the donor countries. This is particularly the case where the donor is not from English or French speaking countries.

The commercialization of development aid has placed additional obstacles in the way of information sharing. This is particularly the case where donor organizations work through contracting private, profit—making companies to implement their development projects. Sometimes these companies use their prior experience and contacts with donors and recipient countries to initiate projects for which they stand to gain a higher profit despite their not being priorities in the countries for which they are to be implemented. In their search for profits, many of these consulting companies go directly to potential donors and promote projects, which they then come to sell to governments. The consultation processes, which take place under these circum stances, are much less than the formalized ones, which can result in insider deals, even where there was supposed to be an "open" bidding process.

Know ledge sharing is further restricted by the unwillingness of missions and local donor staff to benefit from research conducted by universities and NGOs that are not supported by them . Reference to university research outputs and gray literature from NGOs and the use of university staff as resource persons for donor work is much less com m on than that of international consultants and donor literature. In fact, some donor personnel tend to be distrustful of bcally generated data even where they happen to be the ones who have supported its information system design and its collection or when there is really no more reliable database. Even where there are research-coordinating com m ittees in m inistries of education, these are rarely consulted by donors and often dism issed as incompetent, even in cases where the bcals manning these committees m ay have been recipients of advanced degrees from the donor countries. Where they need research data, donors are quick to sponsor their own projects irrespective of the availability of similar data elsewhere. They often see this as an opportunity to contract for duplicate research to be done by donors or contract agency researchers. In situations where donors are boking for quick fix type solutions, there is not much effort put in state of the art reviews of available literature and sometimes it boks like "the problem is one of spending money and not how much money is available for the task". Regrettably, universities and smaller NGOs do not them selves do enough to get their research efforts and capacities known to potential users including governments, despite the income generation potential of som e of these initiatives.

National workshops have traditionally been in portant avenues for promoting information sharing on new and completed donor initiatives. Unfortunately, workshops have sometimes been turned into personal income generation opportunities by civil servants and university academ its that have also "to alleviate their own poverty". As a result, some donors are shying away from using them for introducing or disseminating findings on project successes or failures. Regrettably, fewer workshops also mean less consultation especially because they are one of the few ways of having a captive audience of key government officials. In any case, the average cost of \$5000 to \$10,000 formost such gatherings pales in comparison to the hundreds of thousands expended on often poorly informed international, and all too often second class consultants. It is mainly due to limited consultation that many proposed policies, especially the more sensitive ones such those relating to cost sharing initiatives, have failed to win the support of the majority of those directly affected by their in plementation, including students and their parents. Similarly, teacher reform efforts also fail largely because there is little attempt made to organize consensus-building

m eetings with those likely to be affected by these reform s. A major oversight on the part of donors promoting fiscal austerity programs therefore is working only through governments as if these are the only (or even more important) ones with a vested interest in their implementation or lack of it.

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KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL AID

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International aid is not a new phenomenon. Aid for education is also not new. Many developed countries, international organisations, and developing countries have been involved in the 'education aid-business' for several decades. The recent interest in know ledge-based aid' presupposes that most aid policies until now have been not necessarily know ledge-based. One may get rightly such a feeling, noting the adoption of same kind of methodologies, framework, terms, conditions, aide memoires, reviews, appraisals, reappraisals, pre-determined policy prescriptions, etc., in the aid programmes, whether the programmes are in Sub-Saharan Africa, or in South East Asia or South Asia or Latin America and whether they refer to energy, power, infrastructure or education, health or poverty. So while aid is not new, know ledge based aid may sound new. The realization of the need for know ledge-based aid is new and in portant.

The base of the know ledge of various aid organisations is highly uneven. Some of the international aid organizations are not necessarily know ledge-building or learning institutions. For example, the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, the African Development Bank, etc., are primarily lending organizations. For them lending is not an instrument of learning; in fact, it is the other way round. It may be too much to expect these lending organizations to become Know ledge Banks' or learning organizations.' On the other hand, there are some organizations, which are not primarily lending organizations. They may provide various types of assistance—monetary or technical, including research—to developing countries. For example, UNICEF, UNDP, UNESCO etc. are those that can be considered as having more interest in learning and building a know ledge base. The third group of organizations such as CDA, SDA, SDC, JCA, ODA/DFD, and DSE, may try to balance their interests in aid and learning. Sometimes they may take more interest in lending, and sometimes more in research and development and thereby in learning.

On the whole, developing countries m ight judge that m any of these aid (m one particularly lending) organizations rarely learn from their experiences; they know very little about developing countries; and refuse to learn m uch from developing countries. This m ay be because of the familiar arrogance of the aid organizations that know ledge transfer is necessarily a one-way transaction - from the aid organizations or developed countries to developing countries. The aid organizations are thus viewed as "anti-learning" in nature

and culture. Sim larly aid organisations may think that there is no know ledge base existing in developing countries, or if there is, it is insignificant and not much useful.

A good and sound know ledge base is in portant not just for aid organizations, but also for the aid receiving developing countries. It is critically in portant for both. The costs of having no strong know ledge base could be serious for aid organizations in terms of inefficient, uneconom is or unviable investments of monetary resources. But the costs for the developing countries could be farm one serious in terms of social, econom is and political dimensions. Hence developing countries should be more concerned about building up their know ledge base on aid policies, mechanisms and their in pact.

Therefore, governments may have to assume a more important role in building a critical, sound and sustainable knowledge base, as the risks involved are higher for them. International organizations may supplement, and can only supplement, the efforts of the domestic governments. Developing countries may be in a better position to develop critical, useful and relevant knowledge bases than foreign countries or international aid organizations. As the World Bank also admitted in the World Development Report (1999), "it is knowledge created in developing countries them selves that usually is most important."

International cooperation in the area of research takes several forms, in portant ones of which can be noted as: (a) research by the international organisations, (b) funding of research to be conducted by native researchers and research organisations; and (c) pint or collaborative research. Research of type (a) is largely conducted by the international organisations them selves, and/orthrough consultants hired by the international organizations. International cooperation in research, particularly in the area of education development and policy, which largely takes the form of research by consultants may actually displace public funding of research. It also sets new research agendas. The short term needs and compulsions of international research also contribute to negating the value of long-term research on the one hand, and to the building of sustainable capacities of the universities and research institutions, on the other. As a corollary to research conducted or sponsored by international organisations, domestic research generally gets devalued. The devaluation of bcalmesearch is influence not only by the international organisations, but also by the boalgovernm ents and research community in the country. There can also be a great shift in the research paradigm: research may no bngerm ean the creation of know ledge or a search for absolute truths, as espoused by bng traditions in research in sciences -social and physical sciences; it may be more concerned with pragm atic aspects of feasibility. Research on how to do (know-how) replaces intellectual and academ is research. The distinction between information and research becomes very thin. A large part of research conducted under the fram ework of evaluations has contributed to this phenom enon. Despite all this, international organisations can play an important and positive role in helping developing countries to build a strong and sustainable knowledge base.

While international cooperation is very in portant, developing countries should make serious efforts in developing and strengthening their own research. They can stimulate more critical, objective and socially relevant research, promoting research in universities

and institutions of higher education, developing networks of universities and research institutions within countries and outside, and through sound and meaningfulpolicies of funding research. In short, based on the principle of comparative advantage, it can be suggested that knowledge development should be the main responsibility of governments in developing countries, while knowledge management could be the task of the international aid organisations.

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A BREF HISTORY OF KNOW LEDGE PERSPECTIVES IN JICA

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- In the process of national modernization after the MeijiRestoration in 1868, Japan invited 850 foreigners who made a trem endous contribution, developing legal systems, training hum an resources in various sectors for the purpose of catching up with the European countries. Japan has also had the experience of receiving hum anitarian aid such as food and other basic necessities after World War II And with bans from World Bank, Japan developed the vitalpart of economic infrastructures. Japan's ODA has deep roots in such past experiences.
- JCA, as the implementing organization of Technical Cooperation of Japan's ODA programs, has been consistently supporting hum an resources development, creation of social and economic infrastructure, and national development to permit the autonomous and sustainable development of developing countries. This has gone along with the basis of support, with the encouragement of self-help, and with contribution to human resources development. Aid has had a real use to people as well as strengthening the country-specific approach. Our motto is human development, national development, and bringing people together, thus people have center stage in JCA's cooperation.
- Technical training in Japan is the basis of JCA's operation and this aim s to transfer specialized know ledge and technology. Fields of training cover a very broad spectrum, ranging from know-how such as business administration, quality control, and environmental administration, to technologies such as construction engineering. Training in all these fields is provided at JCA's International Centers throughout Japan. Through the cooperation of national and regional public bodies, private research/training centers, universities and other institutions, it has proved possible to support more than 100,000 people. This has really become a nation—wide network, working and thinking together.
- Since JCA has many program s as took of technical cooperation, it has sought to
 implement those which are carefully designed and related with each other. The
 intention is that all the roads to reaching hum an resources development of partner
 countries should be explored and be coordinated.

Taking a general view of the world today, the rapidly changing international situation has resulted in the emergence of new aid requirements involving peace building, transfer to the market economy, environment, HW/ADS, poverty and so forth. Gbbalization which is leading with the support of Information and Communication Technology is going on but at the same time there are new planning approaches such as sector wide approaches, the comprehensive development framework/poverty reduction strategy papers which are another feature of the aid community. In order to meet with the current requirements, JCA has implemented organizational reforms to deal with each of the problems peculiar to specific countries and regions by finding the appropriate path of development applicable in each case.

Furthern one, as a part of know ledge m anagement, JTA is expecting to commence very soon the sector and issue-wise network to integrate necessary know ledge and information to cover not only JTA itself but also communities outside of JTA, including overseas experts and volunteers. We have also organized working groups for the purpose of operational and organizational reforms. This should further strengthen the country and region specific approaches, result-oriented operation, integration of all available know ledge and information, recruitment of qualified personnel, decentralization and efficiency. It should speed up people's participation. There are 7 taskforces consisting of JTA staff involved, and new ideas and suggestions have been forthcoming. All these efforts are still continuing.

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KNOW LEDGE, SKILLS, CRAFT AND TRAINING: THE NORTH-SOUTH CHALLENGE

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Looking at a different sphere of know ledge and skill than that which is covered in the usual accounts of know ledge-and-skill-for-development may provide us with a different lens on the issues. The examples are drawn from the world of the crafts/arts.

Unlike know ledge-and-skills-for-development programmes - whose starting assumptions are that the South has a deficit of know ledge and skills - in the world of the crafts/arts, the South cannot be characterised as waiting for Northern assistance in order to become developed. The South clearly does not have a skills deficit in the arts/crafts sphere.

Nevertheless, despite an essential sym metry in crafts/arts expertise between practitioners in the North and the South, the return on the skills and finished products of the South suffers the same negative terms of trade as if they were unprocessed raw materials. Despite fair trade initiatives, Southern arts/crafts go for a song, while Northern arts/crafts are generally marketed in specialist boutiques/galleries.

The pathways to crafts/arts expertise are diverse, whether in the North or the South. They can encompass combinations of the form aland the informal, family-based and college-based approaches. The role of the formal school, however, in both supporting and eroding skills and crafts is worth underlining.

ETs offer dram atic opportunities to market and even exhibit crafts/arts at a distance. But there is potentially a major digital divide here, since the Northern crafts/arts can utilise the existing IT facilities of museum s, exhibitions and e-commerce, while the Southern crafts/arts sphere remains largely unconnected.

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KNOW LEDGE CAPACITY BUILDING IN SOUTH AFRICA: BOTH GLOBAL AND LOCAL STRATEGIES

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One of the challenges faced by the new ly democratic South Africa was to bring new staff into government departments, especially those who had been involved in the struggle against Apartheid. Such people did not, by definition, bring years of experience to the work of government administration. Hence new, often intelligent and committed, but inexperienced people found them selves working with procedures and systems that were far from second nature. This would have been difficult enough, but this situation was overhald with a complete overhaulof the legislative architecture of the society. There is barely a single area of government policy that has not been changed since 1994.

At the same time the country as a whole was experiencing a massive brain drain. In an article published in the South African Sunday Times new spaper, on 25 March 2001, the CentralBureau of Statistics was quoted as saying: "as many as 1.6 million people in skilled, professional and managerial professions have left the country since 1994, and at least one in every five South Africans with a tertiary education now lives abroad. The cost of this mass exodus is believed to be about R2.5-billion a year." There is little point in trying to put obstacles in the way of skilled and professional people from selling their "hum an capital" to the highest bidder—as there are likely to be unintended consequences such as a net increase in their exodus or a bwer private investment in education and training. Rather, there are other ways in which the state can intervene to achieve outcomes which enhance the position of the poor.

Indeed, the South A frican government has undertaken a range of measures on both the supply-side and the demand-side to try to address the problem of skills shortage, for example:

- A strong focus on generaleducation for all;
- Doctors are now required to complete a period of compulsory community training in the rural areas following their training, an expansion of this program me to other areas of professional training is being explored;
- In m igration Laws are currently being changed to make it easier for companies to import scarce skills into the country;
- A Skills Development levy / grant system has been introduced to stimulate the
 demand for skills, promote and resource the upgrading of the current workforce and
 increase levels of training for new entrants and re-entrants in the private sector. The
 public sector is required to spend no less than the private sector on its staff
 upgrading;
- A changed university funding formula is being introduced to promote education and training in disciplines where skills are scarce;
- Restructuring of the university landscape through m ergers and collaborative arrangements as well as a promotion of distance and open learning strategies.
- A new bursary scheme is being designed to further promote scarce skills training and partnerships with leading multinational corporations will be promoted.
- An increased focus on research and innovation support for economic growth and social development.
- The South African Network of Skills Abroad (see NORRAG News December 2000).

In addition to these measures the government has recently announced a national Human Resources Development Strategy with clear targets and timeframes. There are five strategic objectives each with a set of indicators. The strategic objectives are:

- In proving the foundations for hum an developm ent (early childhood developm ent, general schooling, adult basic education and m aths and science are the focus)
- In proving the supply of high-quality skills (particularly scarce skills) which are more responsive to societal and economic needs
- Increasing employer participation in lifebong learning
- Supporting em plym ent growth through industrial policies, innovation, research and developm ent
- Ensuring that the four pillars of the HRD strategy are linked.

In addition to these objectives, there are five priority areas which have been identified for immediate action. These are: promotion of scarce skills (immigration strategies as well as increased education and training in these areas); public sector skills for service delivery; adult basic education and training; learnerships (new apprenticeship system) across a wider range of intermediate skills) and promotion of small businesses. The achievement of the stated objectives will require extensive co-ordination across government departments. And these initiatives need to be seen in the context of broader social and economic initiatives for growth which go beyond the purposes of this discussion.

President Mbekihas also launched the Millennium African Renaissance Program me-known as MAP. If this initiative is successful it holds the promise of stemming the reduction of aid to Africa and beginning a new world discourse on the relationship between aid and trade-for surely the central argument is that it is in the North's best

com m excial interests to see A frica em erge from the post-cobnial and neo-cobnial periods and grow into a meaningfulm arket form anufactured goods and valuable services from the North - and to do this it must be helped to overcome the digital, disease, dem and and debt divides and grow a viable economic base of its own.

The support the Department of Labour has received over the last two years from the European Union for its Labour Market Skills Development Programme (LMSDP), is an illustration of how such a partnership could be structured. The LMSDP seeks to simultaneously put in place new structures, systems and procedures to implement the new skills development strategy as well as develop the capacity of staff to manage and monitor these as they unfold. This process, based on a longer term partnership, is one which takes time but which promises to greatly enrich capacity.

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BUILDING NORTH-SOUTH KNOW LEDGE CAPACITY

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This paper provides some personal reflections on the issue of capacity building, based mainly on a review made within Sida that resulted in a new policy for capacity development. (1) The first lesson from the review is that capacity development means different things to different people, inside and outside Sida. This is hardly surprising but has made it necessary to develop a simple conceptual fram ework. It was found that Sida's work could be grouped under three broad headings that represent different phases.

The notion that capacity development is about knowledge and about learning has been there since the 1960s. This was the original concept on which a bt of technical assistance has been based over the years. Within Sida there was a gradual shift in the late 1970s towards capacity development as organisational development. The concept of twinning replaced recruitment and financing of individual experts. There is evidence now to suggest that wonderful things may happen as a result of such partnerships but also that twins are often twins only by name. When Sida was beginning to see that twinning is not a panacea, the analytical perspective shifted towards institutional frameworks, such as laws and policies. Were they supportive of the kind of capacity that Sida tried to develop? This trend came in the beginning of the 1990s in the aftermath of the structural adjustment programmes. In practice all these concepts and approaches coexist. Sida's current understanding is that the question of knowledge capacity has to be understood in a broad sense. The building of a a critical mass of professional educators and researchers is not enough.

System atic and long term support to national systems of education and research are the necessary base for knowledge capacity. Only then can individuals, institutions and countries benefit from the international knowledge base. In practice this in plies that the

balance between short term and project-related training programmes and long term system is change should be redressed.

Learning is still at the heart of know ledge capacity. Experience shows that the analysis has to start from what exists and strengthen it. Learning should be boked at more as an exchange process than a simple transfer of know ledge from those who have to those who have not. In this situation, the role of outside agencies like Sida changes from being providers of expertise to that of dialogue partners and facilitators of mutual learning and exchange of experience.

1. Sida's policy: Capacity development as a strategic question in development cooperation

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LEARNING IN DEVELOPMENT CO-OPERATION AS PART OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF KNOW LEDGE

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Know ledge is created in m any ways such as through form aland inform aleducation and practical experience. But, is this know ledge actually used, and in what way? This is the question discussed in this paper. The discussion is, in part, based on the anthology Learning in Developm ent Co-operation edited by Jerker Carlsson and Lennart Wohlgem uth (2000).

Background

The discussion on aid effectiveness is closely melated to the issue of learning in development co-operation. Do aid agencies and their counterparts learn from their experiences and, if they do, is this know ledge fed back into in proved practices? A range of studies published in the late 1980s and 1990s about aid effectiveness came to different conclusions as to whether aid worked or not. There seemed, however, to be at least one consensus: that there was little solid know ledge about the in pact of aid and the extent to which the organisations involved on both sides of development cooperation learned from their experience. Learning in development co-operation is more or less virgin territory for organisational mesearch, in contrast to the significant body of research on organisational learning in general.

The above mentioned anthology approaches the issue of learning from the perspective of the aid practitioners them selves. Therefore, a number of people with long experience of working with development aid, inside and outside donor and recipient agencies were asked to present their personal reflections and iteas about learning. They were free to approach the subject the way they felt most relevant, but focus on some of the basic learning issues: How do we learn? What do we learn? From which sources do we learn? What do we do with our knowledge? The results of their efforts are collected in the

volume, consisting of 16 cases, ranging from ruralChina to the World Bank machinery and one introduction/summary by the editors. Inevitably, there is a wide variation between the contributions as to approach and way of writing. It is hoped that such a personal and narrative approach will make the topic more accessible to a wider audience.

What is learning?

Learning is commonly associated with a change in how we understand and interpret the reality that surrounds us. From the perspective of development co-operation, learning is not a purely intellectual phenomenon, but a process that is linked to a change of practice. It is not enough to identify a problem and propose a solution. The solution must be put into practice before learning can occur. This raises the interesting issue about the relationship between organisational and individual learning. Organisations can be said to learn if knowledge based on past experience is incorporated in organisational skills, procedures and cultures. Such processes reflect organisational interests, structures, functions and decision-making contexts.

The focus of the book is both on the learning of individuals and how structures, processes and cultures of aid agencies and their counterparts in developing countries fail or succeed in creating conditions that are conducive to individual learning.

Major constraints to learning in development co-operation

Development co-operation has changed considerably in terms of policy and practice over the last 15 years. In some cases change is a result of lessons learned and in other cases it is a result of agencies reacting to external changes to the best of their ability. It emerges from the case studies in the book, that learning in the field of development co-operation takes place and is indeed possible, but clearly not always to the extent that could be hoped. Five factors are singled out as particularly prominent constraints:

- Political constraints. Political objectives and guidelines are frequently changed. A rid agencies are constantly approached by various interest groups. There is incompatibility between aid and other interests. Broad-based political support of aid policies and procedures is necessary. Equally in portant is coherence between different government policies. The mixed signals that the staff of aid agencies sometimes receives are confusing and reduce the scope for effective learning.
- The unequal nature of the aid relationship, which, among other things, makes it
 difficult for the recipient party to challenge views and analyses of the donor, and
 reduces the chance of developing and incorporating bcalknowledge.
- Problems internal to the organisation of the aid agency. Sometimes aid agencies have no clear and focussed sense of mission. When staff members are uncertain of objectives, mandates and missions, learning becomes weak. Another aspect is the multi-faceted nature of development aid. An aid agency today resembles the old-fashioned department store, catering to every human need in aginable. Learning also becomes difficult when there is a high centralisation of management and when feedback systems are weak. A psychological constraint is many people is reluctance to take in information that challenges their basic assumptions. "It worked in Peru"—syndrome, as one of the contributors calls it. Resistance to change is also fuelled by

the existence of vested interests by influential stakeholders, inside and outside aid agencies.

- We eaknesses in the organisations and capacities on the recipient side. Local stakeholders are often organisationally weak and so is the communication between various organisations and parts of agencies. This reduces the prospects for effective learning. Another constraining factor is the bias towards using foreign experts, not only by aid agencies, but also by decision-makers on the receiving side. In some countries, this tendency has grown into becoming a system is problem. Low remuneration levels and unattractive working conditions make it difficult to retain qualified people. We eak education systems in many countries make the creation of new qualified staff difficult.
- Sources of know ledge and the low quality of inform ation. Evaluations are often
 "donor-centric", difficult to access, particularly for local stakeholders, they rarely
 provide inform ation about in pact and aid effectiveness, and their recommendations
 are often too general and lack concreteness.

Suggestions for improvement

Possible actions that could improve learning, according to the authors of the book, would be to avoid too frequent changes of aid objectives and guidelines, as well as micromanagement of the aid relationship by politicians. Furthermore, there has to be coherence between various government policies, otherwise the result is confusion about the purpose of aid, which in turn makes effective learning difficult.

The unequal nature of the aid melationship is an issue, which runs through most of the chapters of the book and emerges as one of the major constraints for learning in developing co-operation. Therefore, a major me-thinking of the current mode of operation of aid is necessary.

The organisation of the aid agencies needs to be modified in several important aspects. The staff must understand clearly the objectives, mandate and mission. The incentive structure should be changed to, as much as possible, reflect the objectives of the projects and program mes they are handling. Learning across the organisation would also be facilitated with a decentralised management structure. There are no quick fixes in development co-operation, but a need for flexibility, humility and a long-term perspective.

The organisations and capacities on the recipient side possess several weaknesses. They need to consider the impact of aid interventions on institution and capacity building more carefully. One important factor is to retain the services of the qualified staff that is already available.

The quality of the inform ation has to be improved. Evaluations must be more "recipient-centric" and bcalknowledge better recognised. Evaluations analysing impact and aid effectiveness should be made more frequently. In general, a stronger emphasis should be placed on the evaluation process as a source of learning, rather than on the final product - the evaluation report.

Conclusions

One factor running through the discussion above and which should be emphasised and taken into account is the question of ownership of the entire development process to which development co-operation is related and should be only an auxiliary phenomenon. Ownership is an expression of power in a relationship and cannot be "given" to one of the parties. It must be "taken", and it is therefore an active process and a dynamic concept. It requires that learning and knowledge take place in the locality where development is supposed to occur and the role of donors and/or funders should at best be to assist in developing that active localised learning.

Experience from more than 40 years of development co-operation does, however, not offer much optimism when it comes to the translation of these evident conclusions into practice. "Help" very quickly leads to "concerned participation" by donors followed by active involvement, too often taking over the process without really being responsible in a political sense for either the process or the outcome. Years of crises and the remedies to these crises have strengthened the donors' involvement in activities that really should be the responsibility of the recipients. This has in turn led to diminished self-confidence in many of the worst affected countries, a fact making it even more difficult for them to "grab" the ownership.

How ever difficult, this question has to be tackled head on if any realdevelopment is going to take place. As regards the recipients it will require considerable effort to get their act together. There will need to be continuity and the creation of incentives for botal available skills and in particular there will need to be time given and opportunities to take over initiatives and processes on all levels. For donors it will require considerable change in attitude allowing the development of botal knowledge as well as allowing recipients to take over initiatives and processes on all levels, all requiring patience and hum lifty.

RETHINKING THE KNOW LEDGE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITIES AS SITES OF LOCAL AND GLOBAL KNOWLEDGE (RE)PRODUCTION

TERTIARY EDUCATION IN THE 21 CENTURY - NEW CHALLENGES

RECONSTRUCTING A VISION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA

RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT IN THE "SOUTH" IN THE ERA OF THE INTERNATIONALISATION IN EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

UNIVERSITIES AND NATIONAL KNOWLEDGE-BASED DEVELOPMENT AN ALTERNATIVE TO A GLOBAL KNOWLEDGE BANK

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The paper is critical of the new Word Bank vision: to become a global Knowledge Bank. This initiative to centralize the main resource for development is considered inconsistent with endogenous development processes, where conceptualization, information gathering and dialectrical practice must go hand in hand and take place in the field itself. The way "best practices" had been selected and presented, to "synthesize" and disseminate development knowledge throughout the "developing world" is seen as wrong and doomed to failure. Complex dialectrical processes cannot be represented as information bits to suggest universal formulas for replicable action.

The relationship between know ledge/inform ation controlland asymmetric power relationships is also brought to the discussion. The Bank initiative appears functional to the ongoing process of primitive accumulation of bcalknow ledge by global capital. This initiative is considered to be coherent with the free market ideology that sees privatization, commodification and competition as the most efficient arrangement for the management of every human activity—development included.

Know ledge societies are mainly learning-by-doing societies. This reinforces the need of bcalknow ledge-based development actors, culturally moted and directly involved in endogenous development processes, with learning/teaching and communicating abilities so as to ensure proper action-reflection-action collective processes.

The author argues that, instead of a centralknow ledge bank, alienated from concrete boalprocesses, universities and other centers of developm ent based in the South can play a meaningfuland unsubstitutable role in this endeavor. But this would require that most of those institutions undergo in portant internal changes and that they network and work cooperatively, taking advantage of the conditions and opportunities created by the new know ledge-based technological paradigm.

Such networks would play a number of functions: generate system atic and critical knowledge, mediate between different bcalexperiences, bring generalknowledge about social and natural processes to bear in specific situations, provide methodologies to facilitate learning-by-doing in the bcaland national public sphere. They can also introduce new generations into the complex practice of becoming aware of social realities and changing them for the better. Another key role for universities should be to foresee different long-term scenarios for development, help social and political actors to set a proper agenda, and provide a pluralistic space for strategic dialogue detached from sheer interest and immediate conflict.

Allthis requires that universities and intellectuals assume general interests as their own interest, beyond their own corporate, self-reproductive goals, transforming them selves as part of the development process, establishing new proactive relations with old and new social actors.

TERTIARY EDUCATION REFORM IN THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

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In agine a university without buildings or classrooms or even a library. In agine a university ten thousand miles away from its students, delivering on-line programs or offering its courses through franchise institutions overseas. In agine a university without academic departments, without required courses or majors or grades. In agine a college proposing a bachelor's degree in Individualized Studies or in Interdisciplinary Studies. In agine a degree valid only for five years after graduation. In agine a higher education system where institutions are ranked not by the quality of their teachers, but by the intensity of electronic wiring and the degree of Internet connectivity. In agine a country whose main export earnings come from the sale of higher education services. In agine a socialist country that charges tuition fees to obtain full cost recovery in public higher education.

These evocations are not in ages of science fiction, but actual stories of a revolution in the world of higher education on the eve of the twenty first century. The higher education sector around the world has become increasingly dynamic in its delivery of services, management and administration.

Indeed, in the past few years, many countries have witnessed significant transform ations and reform s. But the tertiary education landscape is not changing as fast everywhere. At 0 xford University, New College is a venerable sixteenth century institution. The oldest university of the American continent, the Autonom ous University of Santo Domingo in the Dominican Republic, is about to collapse under the pressure of its 80,000 students crowding facilities originally designed to accommodate only 6,000 students. The largest university in the world, the National Autonom ous University of Mexico, has been paralyzed since April 1999 by a strike over the Rector's decision to increase tuition fees by the equivalent of 140 US dollars. In this rapidly evolving world, what is likely to happen to those higher education institutions which are not willing or able to change?

There are three major, intertwined new challenges which bear heavily on the role and functions of higher education: (i) economic globalization, which forces countries and firms to compete in the international economy, (ii) the growing in portance of know ledge as a factor of economic growth, and (iii) the information and communication revolution, which has radically transformed the capacity to store, transmit and use information. In this context, developing economies have tremendous opportunities for catching upwith the industrialized nations. But only a handful—particularly East Asian countries—are succeeding in significantly narrowing the gap. These countries' positive experience with respect to technological and economic development appears to be linked to the ability to acquire and apply new knowledge. The basic components of these capabilities are skilled people, knowledge institutions, knowledge networks, and well-developed information and communication infrastructures. Tertiarly education institutions, as knowledge institutions, play a critical role in the creation and transmission of knowledge, and the

training of a competitive workforce and of political and business leaders. Also, university research and development (R&D) activities translate into technical support to and product innovation for the private and public sectors.

What are the implications of the new challenges for tertiary education? They herali (i) radical changes in training needs, (ii) new forms of competition, and (iii) new configurations and modes of operation for higher education institutions. As for training needs, a trend towards higher and different skills has been observed in OECD countries and in the most advanced developing economies. There is also the growing importance of continuing education because of the necessity to update knowledge and skills on a regular basis. The traditional approach of studying once for all before moving on to one's professional life is being progressively replaced by practices of life bing education. The primary clientele of universities will not be anymore young high school graduates. Universities will have to organize them selves to accommodate the learning and training needs of a very diverse clientele: working students, mature students, part-time students, day students, night students, weekend students, leading to a significant change in the demographic shape of tertiary education institutions.

The acceleration of scientific and technological progress is resulting in the dim inished emphasis, in tertiary education programs, on the acquisition of knowledge of facts and basic data perse and the growing in portance of methodological knowledge and skills. In this new paradigm, where learning to learn is more important than memorizing specific information, primacy is given to information search and analytical skills and to reasoning and problem—solving skills. Competencies such as learning to work in teams, peer teaching, creativity, resourcefulness and the ability to adjust to change are also among the new skills to which employers seem to put worth in the knowledge economy.

The third dimension of new training needs is the growing attractiveness of university degrees with an international application. In a global economy where firm sproduce for overseas markets and compete with foreign firms in their own domestic markets, there is a rising demand for internationally recognized qualifications, especially in management-related fields. In the US, a rapidly growing number of online universities are reaching out to students in foreign countries. Jones International University, for instance, which already serves students in 38 countries, is the first online university in the world that has been formally accredited by the same agency that accredits traditional universities like the University of Michigan or the University of Chicago. The Mexican equivalent of MIT, the Technology Institute of Monterey, has established a Virtual University with 26 campuses throughout Mexico and 20 branches allover Latin America. In A six and Eastern Europe, there has been a proliferation of so-called overseas validated courses offered by franchise institutions on behalf of British and Australian universities.

More generally, the decreased in portance of physical distance means that the best universities of any country can open a branch anywhere in the world or reach out across borders using the Internet, effectively competing with any national university on its own territory. The University of Phoenix, one of the most dynamic new distance universities in the US, already boasts an enrollment of 60,000 students. In the US alone, there are already more than 3,800 institutions offering on line training.

The emergence of these new forms of competition is likely to change the nature of quality assurance mechanisms and criteria. At the level of individual institutions, for example, it is doubtful that the principles and standards routinely applied to evaluate or accredit campus-based programs can be used to assess the quality and effectiveness of online courses without significant adjustments. At the national level, countries need to develop information systems and participate in international networks to be able to evaluate the quality of the foreign programs offered to their students through franchise institutions or online.

Faced with the new training needs and the new competitive challenges, many universities need to undertake drastic transform ations in terms of governance, structure and modes of operation. A key aspect is the ability to organize traditional disciplines differently, accommodating the emergence of new fields like molecular biology and biotechnology, advanced materials science, microelectronics, information systems, robotics, intelligent systems and neuroscience, and environmental science. Training for these fields requires the integration of a number of disciplines across traditional institutional barriers. For example, the study of molecular devices and sensors brings together specialists in electronics, materials science, chemistry and biology.

The use of modern technology has just begun to revolutionize the way teaching and learning occur. The concurrent use of multimedia and computers permits the development of pedagogical approaches involving active and interactive learning. Frontal teaching can be replaced by asynchronous teaching through scheduled or self-paced on line classes. In Australia, the University of New castle has been a pioneer in the use of a problem—learning approach in medical school.

The inform ation and communication revolution willhave far-meaching implications for how universities are organized. A leady in the United States a new university was built without a library because all students are expected to use computers to access online libraries and data bases. Wiring is becoming an important determinant of the attractiveness of a tertiary education institution. This is reflected by the recent publication, for the second consecutive year, of the results of a ranking survey which assesses US universities on the basis of their computer and communication infrastructure and level of internet use for pedagogical and administrative purposes. Case Western Reserve University and MIT are the 1999 leaders in applying online services on campus. But university leaders must keep in mind the high cost of information technology including not only the initial capital investment but also the recurrent budget outlays for future expenditures on infrastructure

To be sure, tertiary education is facing unprecedented challenges on the eve of the 21st century. Gbbalization, know ledge-based econom it growth, and the information and communication revolution are challenges that can be viewed as either terrible threats or trem endous opportunities. Countries and higher education institutions willing to take advantage of these new opportunities must be proactive in launching meaningful reforms and innovations based on a clear vision of how the tertiary education system can effectively contribute to the development of each country and how each institution elects to evolve within that system.

Each country needs to choose appropriate strategies to raise tertiary enrollment and m ove from an elite to an expanded, m ore differentiated system, given the prevailing constraints on public resources. To achieve the objective of quantitative expansion, countries should seek to diversify further the provision of higher learning through a variety of institutions: public or private, large or small, universities or non-university institutions, short orm edium term duration programs, liberalarts or technological, research based institutions and institutions that sustain scholarship, etc. Establishing or strengthening quality enhancem ent mechanisms is another in portant step that countries should take. With increased institutional and academ ic diversification, students and em players need to be informed on the quality and relevance of programs and degrees. Strengthening the financial viability of tertiary education institutions is equally in portant to sustain the quantitative growth and quality enhancement efforts of the system. This involves three complementary dimensions: the introduction of more effective resource allocations m echanism s, the m obilization of alternative sources of funding, and the establishment of appropriate student aid mechanisms to improve access and equity. Finally, the successful in plem entation of any reform or innovation is conditioned by the ability of decision-makers to build a consensus among the various constituents of the academ ic community. Involving potential opponents in the policy discussion process carries risks, but ignoring this dimension altogether is a recipe for failure.

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NEW HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY OF AFRICA

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NTRODUCTION

The centrality of LT in the globalization process leads us to a focus on the *means* of transm ission, and takes as given the *content* of what is being transm itted, along with the *supportive conditions* which make for transm ission through higher education. This note wonders about the relevance of the dominant paradigm for poor countries. It suggests that in some African countries a "new" higher education is emerging which is creating novel, locally relevant knowledge, and beginning to build the conditions which will support its teaching, dissemination and application.

AN ILL FITTING PARADISM

Facing the tidalwave of gbbalization, with its competitive proliferation of different types of knowledge producer, universities the world over are being admonished to change if they want to remain central in the promotion of the knowledge economy. Change is necessitated by the competition. Knowledge is the major factor of comparative advantage in that competition, and producing, it sharing it and applying it offer the mute to development through which higher education can retain a valued role. The dominant paradigm is provided by the experience of the OECD countries where the economies are boosted through the application of the best brains and latest information technology, in a fevered responsiveness to the demands of industry, science and the economy. The experience is transforming the landscape of knowledge provision and the role of higher education in it.

In the poorer countries of the world higher education is illequipped to compete in this internationalm arket on terms defined by the most competitive systems. Fortunately however, slavish emulation from an uncompetitive starting point may not be the best approach anyway for these countries. The role of higher education, in furthering the advancement and application of knowledge on behalf of economic and social development, may have a different meaning and significance than suggested by the experience of the richest nations. In sight into this meaning can be gained by posing several related questions: What does the concept of a relevant knowledge-based economy mean for development in the poorest countries? What is the specific benefit that higher education can bring to the fulfillment of this concept? Why is higher education not contributing what it might? What characteristics of higher education are needed to bring about a more useful contribution?

Answers to these questions are not best sought in the fact that higher education lacks the capacity or resources to keep up with the pace and style of technology-based knowledge production exemplified in the richer countries, although they do. Neither can it be attributed to sheer conservatism or reluctance to change. Many African universities, for example, are displaying a radical propensity to change in the face of internal and external pressures.

Instead, perhaps illum ination resides in two broad factors which differentiate higher education in rich and poor countries. First, there is a difference in the type and content of know ledge which are contextually relevant. The second refers to features of the context that affect the ability of higher education to produce and disseminate know ledge. These are the institutional, cultural, political and incentive systems in which higher education is boated.

RELEVANT KNOW LEDGE

Certainly the task of development in Africa and the work of institutions of higher education have to be knowledge based, but the most relevant knowledge is that which is tailored to the national context. In this regard poverty is the paramount feature, and the most needed kind of knowledge is that which enables individuals, households and communities to acquire awareness of available resources, and the skills for their

utilization, as well as heightened sensitivity to specific risks and practical information on how to address them. To be useful in this situation, institutions of higher education need likew ise to know not only about botal resources, but about the process by which individuals and communities become empowered to utilize them in solving problems. They also need to know about the working of the governmental framework which impedes or advances this process. This is practical knowledge, but its application requires research, reflection, analysis and in agination which universities are ostensibly well equipped to provide. Itonically universities in Africa are often short of this contextually relevant knowledge, as so much of what is available is still of imported origin and design. (The African Virtual University, while now possessing great potential, went through its whole pibt phase with programme content designed in Ireland and Canada!)

SUPPORTIVE CONDITIONS

A Culture of shared knowledge

Development in Africa, as elsewhere, requires that relevant know ledge be shared and communicated and that there be a consensus around the value of dispersing know ledge. Until recently a major characteristic of higher education in Africa was an elitist quality which was not only about excluding from physical access the disadvantaged and unqualified, but also about withholding know ledge and restricting its dispensation. The inclination, as well as the capacity, of university systems to communicate know ledge throughout their own society was often weak. Universities tended to be inward-boking, provided little service to the community and rarely served as centers of broad know ledge dissemination and know ledge sharing in the national society.

Open governance

In putting lim its on the culture of shared know ledge, universities in Africa often reflected the elitist hierarchical, authoritarian know ledge-containing nature of their governments. Conversely, the fact that tertiary education contributed little to in proved governance was brought about by the absence of open government and democratic practice. Both are among the elements which create a hospitable environment for a higher education that is willing and anxious to share relevant know ledge. This in turn underscores the importance of addressing issues of governance in tandem with the reform of higher education.

Diversified institutions and programs

Another feature of elitism was demonstrated in the prevalence of a single dominating national institution, containing highly specialized, fixed year degree programs and a rigid curriculum. There was, until recently, a marked absence of diversified institutions or programs which could serve the variety of functions demanded by the multiple skillneeds of a community-based development process.

Incentives to knowledge production and service

While there have been outstanding individual contributions to research in Africa, a powerful autonom ous institutionalized research culture and community remains fragile, if not absent on the continent, outside South Africa. This will remain the case as long as research is dependent upon external funding, is boked upon as an essentially "foreign" activity and lacks channels for expressing demand from central and boalgovernment and

bcalNGOs. The increase of fee paying students in universities across the continent has put a premium on teaching and correspondingly reduced the incentive for research. At the same time neither state funded universities nor private institutions provide much incentive to community service or linkages to bcalgovernment.

In the OECD countries know ledge is contextualized, about to the needs of industry and commerce, while higher education functions in a situation characterized by a supportive culture of sharing, diversified institutions, democratic governance, and incentives to know ledge production. In Africa a new relevance is being defined and the supportive context (consisting of similar elements) is gradually being created.

GOVERNANCE AS AN ORGANIZING PRINCIPLE FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

In promoting the application of ET to tertiary education in Africa, governments and agencies need to be sensitive to the risk of preserving non-sustainable university enclaves, that are integrated into international global technological and know ledge networks but non responsive to comprehensive developmental needs on the continent itself. By avoiding the application of a template which assumes that economic and educational development can only follow the path of the OECD countries, aid agencies can assist higher education in the poorest countries to develop autonomous forms which are built around the production and communication of relevant knowledge. Because such efforts must be linked to the issue of governance, educational teams need to work with those concerned with public administration, decentralization and boalgovernment reform. Instructive in this regard is a program being developed in Uganda which involves collaboration between the Uganda government, Makerere University, the Rockefeller Foundation and the World Bank.

Uganda has com mitted itself to the serious decentralization of political and financial authority. However, effective in plementation requires the development of an array of practical skills on the part of district officials, through the provision of a major set of training programs. The kind of understanding of resources and process which needs to inform relevant training programs has never been the forte of universities. Yet, responding to the challenge, Makerere University is reorganizing itself to provide the bulk of these programs and, in so doing, has acknow ledged the need, and established the programs, to carry through a total re-orientation as well as re-training of its staff. Recognizing that the issue of relevance extends beyond the substance of study, to the development of productive approaches to learning, the university is encouraging faculty to revise curriculum and introduce courses covering public administration, ethics and professionalmotivation as well as re-orient research around decentralization. Through field internships and exchanges, students, faculty, and district officials will be led to understand not only developmental processes and tasks but the boal professional culture.

In this there are echoes of the "developm entalUniversity" of the 1980s. However the approach to "developm ent" in this case is through exchanges of practical experience, responsiveness to district dem ands, and a built in incentive structure. This contrasts with a reliance on curriculum, and an ill conceived course in developm ent studies, and abstract appeals to the social conscience of students which characterized the earlier ideal.

THE NEW HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA

The "new" tertiary education is likely to include m any non-university educational institutions, a variety of short term and flexible programs and degrees and the development of knowledge and skills relevant to the needs and processes of the local economy and community. Significant public investments are likely in building the capacity of tertiary education to train cadres of municipal and local public administration officials and getting universities and other higher educational institutions involved in the design in plementation and support of governance reforms. It will play an important role in combating the HIV/A its epidemic through involvement in nation wide prevention campaigns and public health interventions. The expansion of non-state institutions and the diversification of sources of financing, accompanied by decentralized student aid schemes, will also facilitate much needed expansion of tertiary education and contribute to the increased responsiveness of educational institutions to local and community concerns.

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KNOW LEDGE DEVELOPMENT IN THE "SOUTH" IN THE ERA OF THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE TRADE IN EDUCATIONAL SERVICES*

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[Earlier, bngerversions of this paperwere given in the March conferences on higher education in Muscat and in Tiburg. KK]

Background

One of the current challenges in m any OECD countries is the so-called internationalisation of higher education. Although some universities' international mandates are very narrowly concerned with the recruitment of international students, the larger ambition of others is with making higher education more responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets. In plicit also in the use of the term internationalisation is the notion that the particular university or university system has a truly global appeal, and can draw on a world-wide student and teaching staff dem and, whether for access to its main national campuses or to its overseas branches and various franchise schemes.

In the case of mesearch know ledge, there is a widespread aspiration to participate in the kind of world-class' mesearch which is often mentioned by the World Bank. What is not clear is whether the increased global competitiveness (of which the internationalisation of higher education is one manifestation) will facilitate non-OECD countries becoming significant mesearch producers, or whether this intensified international trade in educational services will actually serve to hinder the development of national mesearch capacity.

In seeking an answer to this challenge, we shall bok particularly at the recent publication from the Task Force on Higher Education and Society — Higher education in developing countries: periland prom ise (Task Force 2000). At the same time, there is the issue of whether the massive increase in the scale of knowledge accumulation via LTs and the internet can work to the advantage of countries that aspire to become significant research producers, or whether the present digital divide is set to widen (See Salm i and Court's papers in this section).

One of the major conceptual problems in approaching research capacity building in the developing world is that there are substantial differences in hum an development and in educational performance across non-OECD countries (just as there are within OECD countries. There is also an important change over time to be considered in the case of many countries.

Thus, it is sadly the case that the research promise of the 1960s and 1970s of some of the great names in African higher education - badan, Legon, Makerere and Nairobiboks very bleak in the 1990s and 2000s. Other countries which did not even have an institution of higher education in the early 1980s have made extraordinarily rapid progress in building the infrastructure for national research capacity in just 15 years or less. In other situations again, e.g. in the UK, a whole segment of higher education has been mandated to aspire to being 'research-active' as the result of a change in its status.

Research developm ent in an era of global competition: perilor promise

What is the message from the Task Force on Higher Education and Society when it comes to assessing whether these times are currently propitious for research development ambitions? Is there a major risk in seeking to build a degree of autonomous research capacity in the "South" when a whole series of "Northern" nations are aggressively analysing the scope for attracting a larger market share of the world's potentially mobile students, including the world's brightest students.

In brief the Task Force argues that despite notable exceptions the majority of higher education institutions in developing countries have severe deficiencies in high quality staff, committed, well-prepared students, and sufficient resources (Task Force 2000: 23). The political pressure to expand universities, in the face of massive private demand, has taken place at the expense of research infrastructure, maintenance of journal subscriptions, book purchases and scientific supplies. In particular, the fall in the value of academ is salaries has meant that the search for additional sources of income, through external teaching, tuition and consultancy has been privileged in many countries over the obligations to prosecute long-term research or encourage research supervision. Even in one of the most innovative initiatives to recreate staff morals and staff salaries in what

David Court calls Makemer's 'quiet revolution', there are large questions about the parbus state of research.

Although it is not clear what exactly is the range of developing country universities being discussed in the Task Force inquity, it is in plied that it is from the public universities of Africa and Asia that there been no less serious an outcome than the disappearance of a research agenda from these universities' (Task Force 2000:25)

There are always problems with picking out particular examples of the case you are trying to make. But this Task Force Report has very little illustration of the good practices or hotable exceptions' in higher education with which it is principally concerned.

More than this, it is difficult to see from the Report abne, how the Task Force actually went about its business. In particular there is the lack of any evidence, in the Report, of testing the prelim inary conclusions or early drafts of the Report. This can be extremely valuable, and it also can give a large number of key commentators a sense of having participated in the improvement of a policy paper.

Developing country research in an era of global knowledge acceleration

A central question must be whether the dram atic and very recent changes in the character and dynam it of the knowledge economy can be turned to the advantage of universities in the developing world. At first glance, this might seem unlikely. Even though the fully networked university (with total staff and student access to the internet and email) is scarcely some 7 to 10 years old in many OECD country campuses, this is still a long way off in many developing countries, and is certain to be aid-dependent in the poorest countries if it is to happen at all in the short to medium term.

Part of the problem is that the metaphors of hapfrogging that are common to the discourse of the knowledge revolution are somewhat mishading. They can sometimes give the impression that even the poorest hamer can, via a hand-held device, access the world's store of development knowledge. But access to the internet can only in part compensate for the absence of scientific texts that can be studied at his ure off-line. Not to mention haboratories, chemicals, software to run advanced statistical programmes and much else. But the largest drawback of all is that despite the availability of increasingly cheap computers and / ormobile phones with internet access, these devices are still relatively expensive in many if not most developing countries.

Moreover, whatever the quite staggering increm entalgrowth of web-based inform ation and know ledge, the greatest obstacle of all is the sheer cost of logging on in much of the developing world. The 2000 White Paper on International Developm ent of the UK has identified the key constraint in most developing countries as the lack of a legal and regulatory fram ework for a competitive telecommunications sector (DFD 2000:40). It continues with an argument that sees the breaking of national phone monopolies as an indispensable element in cheap international access to the Net.

Thus, it would appear that the rather rom antic dream of leap-frogging by developing countries (or their higher education systems) may itself be inseparable from the removal of protection for national telecommunications. In other words, the notion that internet access is an uncontroversial global public good is clearly flawed. Access may well be effectively controlled by companies with much greater leverage and global power than any developing country phone company.

The Task Force boks at a series of large issues in higher education and society, and it undoubtedly makes its reputation by two major themes. First, it recalls the publicinterest perspective' of higher education, arguing that higher education bffers a number of public benefits - basic knowledge, cultural and moral leadership, international linkages, broad access to num erous population groups, liberal education, basic science - that have far-reaching positive consequences for the whole society'. Second it revisits the relevance of general education and argues that each country has the obligation to develop its own version of a liberal education. It claims that the more extensive general education programmes - so far from being the refuge of those not able to enter the m one vocationally-oriented science, engineering or business studies, 'should be aim ed at the brightest and most highly motivated in any cohort'. It is aware that such a priority runs the risk of being criticised as elitist, but it boldly takes the view that hot all individuals are qualified for the same training or the same tasks, given that some tasks are more difficult than others'. It concludes with an open declaration in favour of education form erit-based leadership even if this means some educational inequality on the way.

Research as a public good

A subset of the Task Force's first great them e of higher education as a public good is "Research and the Public Interest" (Task Force 2000:42). Indeed, it retains for this them e some of its strongest claims for the university's role in civil society, declaring that One of the most powerful arguments for a public interest in higher education is the value to a country of a well-developed system for research and generation of knowledge' (bid). Despite having argued earlier that research is actually in a parbus state in many of the poorer countries of Asia and Africa, it urges that Public support of knowledge generation is essential in developing countries' (bid).

While accepting Gibbons' position that basic, non-proprietary research is in fact distributed in a whole range of non-university institutions (Gibbons 1998), it still takes the view that it is especially well suited to universities and other higher education bodies' (Task Force 2000:42). It is refreshing, for once, to see higher education, and research in particular, argued for on grounds of its value to society, and not on the usual grounds of financial comparative advantage. It accepts that there is bound to be specialisation world-wide in knowledge production, but argues that a country's main way of reaping the additional public benefits of the gibbalknowledge system is by having a sufficiently strong research system at the national level that it can make international linkages.

Its most ambitious claim for research as an international public good goes to the heart of the difference between commercial and academ is research whose findings are universally and freely available. In a purple passage, the Task Force characterises research and scholarship as the ideal, non-profit activity:

Internationally, higher education is an intellectual commons represented by the invisible college of independent scholarship, knowledge production, and scholarly training. This intellectual commons allows the world to tackle a number of widely recognised international challenges (Task Force 2000: 42-3).

The Vision of the Intellectual Commons and the Reality of Globalisation

Having sketched out so powerfully and persuasively the vision and the mission of globally networked university research on behalf of mankind, the Task Force is less certain about the underbelly of higher education in the era of globalisation. On the one hand, it adm its that globalised higher education can have dam aging as well as beneficial consequences, and notes the downside of the international marketing of fraudulent degrees and the threat of substandard education in some forms of franchising. But it does not deal as thoroughly with whether the transnational trade in educational qualifications and the internationalisation of higher education are perhaps leading in a different direction from the Task Force vision of an intellectual commons. It is almost as if this negative side of globalised higher education is seen as an aberration and not as something that is inherent in the contemporary marketisation of higher education.

The Task Force does not satisfactorily dealwith the new marketisation of higher education — which is not just a question of some dubious degrees and some sub-standard franchising. Rather what is under debate is a world system of competitive higher education — which has been described as "The brave new world of international education and training" in NN27.

Nor does the Task Force dealvery satisfactorily with the relationship of the University to the economy. If universities produce the kind of students that are discussed in the Task Force Report – thoughtful, critical, innovative, criticalthinkers – they will in most countries of the developing world not be snapped up like hotcakes by industry, but have earned them selves a passport to leave the country. Unless the government and industry them selves acquire the characteristics of countries that are profiting from globalisation.

Lis probably too early to be sure whether the vision of the Task Force corresponds to the reality of international co-operation in higher education. But it is certainly the case that a great dealthat is contained within the mantra of the internationalisation of higher education has very little to do with international co-operation and the older vision of solidarity between North and South but rather with OECD universities maintaining and increasing their market share of international students. The character of this present internationalisation seems to focus increasingly on the richer parts of the world, and to pay less and less attention to the majority of bw-income countries. Although there are certainly initiatives and ambitions to begin to deal with the digital divide, the current patterns of accessing knowledge (whether by staying at home or moving to another country) parallel the movements of the massive flows of speculative capital across the world—that is to say—they predominantly involve movement across the high and middle income countries of the world.

The Task Force thus leaves us with a dilemma. It sees higher education as a rational and feasible way for poorer countries to mitigate or even avert the continuing decline in their relative incomes. But it does not adequately dealwith the possibility that, in the era of the international trade in educational services, universities in the richer countries of the world are becoming part of the problem rather than part of the solution.

L will be interesting to see in what ways the new World Bank strategy on higher education takes forward some of these unanswered questions (see Salm i).

Bibliography

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Task Force on Higher Education and Society 2000 Higher education in developing countries: periland prom ise W orld Bank, W ashington.

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MEETINGS

Thank you once again for sending in listings of meetings that are to take place in the next six months or thereabouts. As previously:

O = Open; I = By invitation

Date	Title of Meeting	Venue	Sponsor	Contact	O or I
July	Training for Peer Evaluation in Higher Education	Panama City Panama	CSUCA/DSE	C. Hansert hansert@dse.de	Ī
	Report writing for Educational Researchers	Gaborone Botswana	ERNESA/DSE	W. Gmelin gmelin@dse.de	I
Aug 15- 17	Launch of the Network for Girls Education Movement (GEM)	Kampala	Govt of Uganda (Office of the President and several ministries)	Parliament Bldg PO Box 7168 Kampala Uganda	I
18- 22	2 nd International Conference on Children's Rights in Education	British Columbia, Canada	Child Rights Education International University of Victoria	University of Victoria British Columbia Canada	I
Sept 10- 14	BDS meeting	Turin Italy	ILO, SEEd	Jim Tanburn (Tanburn@ilo.org) and (in Turin) Peter Tomlinson (SME@itcilo.org)	I
10- 12	Linking work, skills and knowledge: learning for survival and growth	Interlaken Switzerland	Swiss Development Cooperation	Malte Lipczinsky SDC Bern Switzerland malte.lipczinsky@ deza.admin.ch	I
13- 14	Working group for International Cooperation in Skills Development	Interlaken Switzerland	Working Group on Skills Development	Michel Carton IUED Geneva Switzerland Michel.Carton@iued .unige.ch	I

Sep 18- 20	Knowledge Sharing for International Development: Asia Workshop	Chennai, India	CIDA, DFID, IFAD, SDC and World Bank	Bellanet International Secretariat 250 Albert St., 5 th Floor Ottawa, ONT Canada	I
19- 21	Knowledge, Values and Policy (The 'Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development)	Oxford UK	UK Forum for International Education and Training (UKFIET)	Sarah Jeffery CFBT PO Box 4917 Reading RG6 5XX sjeffery@cfbt- hq.org.uk	O
19- 21	United Nations Special Session on Children	New York, USA	UN	Secretariat for the Special Session on Children UNICEF House 3 UN Plaza New York NY 10017 USA	
Oct	Accreditation Forum	Guatemala City, Guatemala	CSUCA/DSE	C. Hansert hansert@dse.de	I
Nov	First meeting of the High Level Group (EFA)	Paris France	UNESCO/ Intergovernmen tal Committee	UNESCO 7 place de Fontenoy 75352 Paris 07 SP France	I
	Music in Primary Education	Berlin	Ministry of Education, Chile/ DES	I. Jung jung@dse.de	I
6	DFID's education research knowledge base	Slough UK	UKFIET/NFER/D FID	T Henderson Thson349@aol.com	Limit ed Nos

THE SIXTH UKFIET "OXFORD" CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Bill Ozanne, Conference Secretary Email: wozanne@cix.co.uk

For 10 years, this year, the UK Forum on International Education and Training (UKFIET) has brought together a unique combination of scholars, planners, aid agencies, governmental and non-governmental organisations as well as grassroots practitioners to review the global and local realities of education in human development. Its themes have been radical and

cross-cutting and the interaction of individuals within the secure context of an Oxford College has been seminal in the initial development of thought, expertise and even of projects, programmes and education plans.

KNOWLEDGE, VALUES AND POLICY – the theme for 2001

The Sixth Oxford Conference addresses a series of major debates on knowledge policies, changing values and ethical issues in education and development, and the evidence base of local and global policy itself. The start of a new century is an appropriate time to take stock of current knowledge paradigms in relation to world development. This is all the more necessary as the globalisation of development knowledge continues apace, much aided by information and communication technologies. The relationships between knowledge and power are fundamental, not least in considering the 'digital divide' between the 'North' and the 'South'. At the same time, there are emerging concerns about the ethics and core values embedded in international policies and education and its formal and informal development at all stages of life, relating to the schooling of the young, post compulsory learning, work-related training and education for its intrinsic worth for those of more advanced years. The debate about 'Whose knowledge for whose development? has reopened issues about the essential roles of local knowledge and local policy and practice.

The conference offers an opportunity to look critically at three overarching concepts and their inter-relationships. There is a particular interest in papers that examine the education and training dimensions of these concepts that have become central to the discourses on aid, development and globalisation. Other important contributions might examine: Education and ethnicity; Economic theories and human values; Spiritual and ethical knowledge and education planning; Political education and individual empowerment; The role of non-economic research and academic freedom in higher education; Oral cultures in a world of assessment and certification; Pedagogical alternatives in traditional religious cultures; Knowledge and the formation of religious consciousness; the value basis of poverty reduction and pro-poor growth.

Whatever their specialist interest, those wishing to take part are encouraged to locate their papers within one of the following five themes, which will represent the main five sections of the conference:

KNOWLEDGE PARADIGMS AND WORLD DEVELOPMENT Plenary Speakers: Gudmund Hernes, Director IIEP Santosh Mehrotra - UNICEF

Chair: Prof. Christopher Colclough

The start of the new century is an appropriate time to take stock of theory. Where do we stand on functionalist theories of education and development? Do we now know more about these relationships in the context of achievements in Asia and SSA? Has human capital/modernization theory survived well the accounts of East Asian success, and the lack of it in Africa? Is schooling always a vital prior factor, and, if so, what are other necessary conditions?

Where do radical theories of education stand in the development debate? Has liberalization in Eastern Europe, and in the adjusting countries of Africa changed the parameters? Has the argument between liberal and radical feminist approaches in education provided insights for policy and practice towards girls' education in developing countries?

The relationships between knowledge and power are fundamental to interpreting action. Whose knowledge counts? Is it ever neutral? Can the Bank be a broker for what is and is not knowledge for development. Do its clear interests in this debate make it appropriate for this role?

The distribution of knowledge generation is increasingly skewed towards the north. What needs to change in order to reverse this trend? Can research collaboration really change this balance? What are the logical and practical limits to capacity building - to whom, of whom, by whom?

What do the IDT targets signify? Who owns them? Is the Jomtien paradigm unchanged by Dakar? We need empirical tests of new and old theory; new syntheses across these fields; new critiques of practice and policy - of international institutions, of bilateral policy and practice and of national experience.

THE GLOBALISATION OF DEVELOPMENT KNOWLEDGE

Plenary Speakers: Anniette Esterhuysen, Executive Director, Association for Progressive

Com m unications (APC)

Second Plenary Speaker to be confirmed

Chair: Prof. Kenneth King

In the late 1990s and early 2000s information and communication technology advances have made it possible to conceive of dramatic opportunities for synthesising, sorting and disseminating massive quantities of knowledge relevant to development. These possibilities for the new management of development knowledge span a range from the Global Development Gateway (first associated with the World Bank), to the reorganisation of all project and programme knowledge (being pursued by individual development agencies and NGOs), to the schemes for accessing global knowledge at the level of the local school, the community, or the local development project. -These new frontiers of global development knowledge are powerfully influenced by the very information systems that technically make possible these gigantic advances.

This section of the Conference will explore the following sub-themes:

- the theoretical and philosophical issues associated with the global reorganisation of Knowledge-for-Development;
- the role of the public and the private sector in facilitating these colossal knowledge projects (both for profit and non-profit);
- the position of 'Southern' or local knowledge in global knowledge developments and the implications for the future of the current 'digital divide',
- the potential of these 'borderless" knowledge systems dramatically to alter the
 position of 'Southern' universities, 'Southern' research, and even the knowledge
 resources of ordinary schools;
- the opportunities and threats facing NGOs and other elements of civil society in repositioning themselves in light of the new knowledge for development debate;
- the potential of new knowledge banks, knowledge highways, and the apparently 'borderless' knowledge opportunities for new conceptions of student mobility.

Proposals for other dimensions of the values embedded in the globalisation of knowledge for development are welcomed.

EVIDENCE BASED POLICY

Plenary Speakers: Dr. Jon Lauglo, World Bank

Prof J Prochaska, Cancer Research Institute, Rhode Island

Chair: **Prof. Roy Williams**

We would all like to be able to say that our educational practice is based on evidence. We have sophisticated EMIS (Education Management Information Systems); GPS (Satellite based

Geographic Positioning Systems; many global organizations (intergovernmental, public sector, private sector, civil society/charity) concerned with Human Resource Development, Education, Training and Employment; "league" tables for institutions; journals and researchers, and so on.

A key question is: what information, knowledge, and values do we actually use (or not use) to make actual decisions on: equity, access and quality, or in more detail, on: entrance, accreditation, planning, exclusion, planning, costing and financing, pedagogy, training, remuneration, state intervention or privatisation, regulation and so on? It might be interesting to unpack some of these decisions, and see what kind of mechanisms and processes we have put in place to achieve educational progress/excellence in our "knowledge societies".

WHAT VALUES FOR WHOSE FUTURE?: IDEOLOGY AND CULTURE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF KNOWLEDGE AND EDUCATION

Plenary Speakers: Lesley Limage, UNESCO

Hugh Hawes, BAICE Presidential Lecture

Chair: Prof. Keith Watson & Mr William Ozanne

Our knowledge of the world and new discoveries is doubling every few years. Much of the rapidly multiplying knowledge of the world is being 'discovered' by research institutes and business corporations, rather than traditional universities, many of which are increasingly constrained by bureaucracy and government-imposed regulations. How the dissemination and exchange of this knowledge is managed and used raises questions of access and values. Who obtains what kinds of benefit from much of this new knowledge? Who has copyright or dominance? In an age of globalisation is it the TNCs or governments, that dictate what should, or should not, be taught/learnt/accepted/understood? Moves towards sharing of insights and priorities through partnership arrangements carry with them the need to negotiate the values implicit in language and concept no less than in objectives, targets and priorities. With the growth of the Internet, IT and now forms of individualised learning what impact will this have on the development of 'virtual' universities'? Will it lead to growing disparities in access to knowledge? How much is the private sector, commercial, secular, or religious, being expected to take over the provision of education, and thus influencing the knowledge and values being imparted?

What are the values underpinning development theories? What bodies, and for what reasons, have decided that education should be judged by measurable, often global, outcomes and indicators rather than by the quality of all round human development, or the needs of the poorest? Is the sector wide approach really only a mechanism for the donor countries to impose their values on the poorer countries or is it really intended to lead to a real sharing of ideas and knowledge?

Some themes might include:

Education and the preservation of ethnicity; Economic dogma and human values in international aid funding; Redefining human resources and freedom in higher education and research; Management of knowledge between partners in development; Spiritual and ethical knowledge in indigenous cultures and education planning; Political education and individual empowerment; Oral cultures in a world of literacy, assessment and certification; Pedagogical alternatives in traditional religious cultures; Knowledge and the formation of religious consciousness; Poverty, progress and planning for development; Educational approaches to gender equity in relation to indigenous structures.

WHOSE KNOWLEDGE, WHOSE VALUES? LOCAL CONTRIBUTION TO THE POLICY PROCESS

Plenary Speakers: Juliana Gyanwa Adu-Gyamfi – ActionAid Ghana

Mark Bray, University of Hong Kong

Chair: Mr. David Theobald & Dr. Michele Schwiesfurth

To people working at the local level in education, policy decisions may be perceived as distant impositions over which they have little influence. In reality, rather than being mere recipients of policy, people in communities, schools and other educational environments are in a position to make major contributions to all stages of the policy processes that affect them, from formulation to implementation, evaluation and impact analysis. Under the title 'Whose knowledge, whose values? Local contributions to the policy process', these important themes will be explored, with examples of innovative action and mediation at all levels. We are especially interested in case studies of policy initiatives that respond to local concerns and are based on local knowledge and values.

FINAL PLENARY OPEN SESSION ON FRIDAY 21ST

INTERNATIONAL INFORMATION SYSTEMS: A CONTINUING CHALLENGE (PROVISONAL TITLE)

Plenary Speakers: Prof. Denise Lievesley, Director, UNESCO Institute for Statistics

Chair: Dr. Rosemary Preston with Prof. Kenneth King

The House Style of the UKFIET Oxford Conference in 2001

In 2001, the Conference will break new ground in the format of papers to be submitted to the conference Organisers. Those still wishing to contribute papers to the programme should send them as an extended and detailed abstract to the Conference Secretary (William Ozanne) as soon as possible. All papers of relevant standard and addressing the themes of the conference will be included in the book of papers available at the Conference and will be acknowledged in the appropriate session of the Conference programme. From the total papers in the Conference volume a smaller number will be presented by their authors to one of the sessions of the meeting.

Every effort will be made to inform authors quickly of the decision to include their paper in the Conference volume and programme, to facilitate funding and travel arrangements. After the Oxford Conference, all whose papers are included in the programme will be invited to submit a full paper for possible publication in one of the journals associated with Conference.

Submissions should not exceed two sides of A4 (max. 1500 words including all headings and references). Please request full details relating to submission of papers by ticking the box on the response form.

Programme Enquiries should be made to Bill Ozanne 74 Billesley Lane, Birmingham B13 9QU UK

email: wozanne@cix.co.uk

Applications and Reservations to: Sarah Jeffery CfBT Education Services 1 The Chambers, East Street **READING RG1**

UK

email: Sjeffery@cfbt-hq.org.uk

Further information is available on www.ukfiet.fsnet.co.uk

[The UKFIET 'Oxford' Conference has become increasingly popular over the 5 preceding occasions. Those intending to come, as participants, should register as soon as possible as there will be a cut-off point once the planned numbers have been reached. The proposals of those hoping to present papers are being reviewed at the moment. Those who have not yet sent in their extended abstract should do so with all possible speed.]

The UKFIET "Oxford" International Conference

on Education and Development 19 - 21 September 2001

Conference Registration Form

PLEASE USE BLOCK CAPITALS

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Family Name:

Other Name or Initials:

Job title:

Name and affiliation for badge:

Full correspondence address including postal code:

Telephone No:

Facsimile:

Email address:

Special dietary requirements or special needs e.g. wheelchair access, difficulty with stairs:

REGISTRATION

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Full Registration fee $£260.00$		
Single Day Registration fee $\$90.0$	00 per day	
Please indicate your chosen atte	ndance day/s by ticking the appropriate bo	x:
19 Sept. 20 Sept. 21	Sept.	
	ACCOMMODATION	
18 Sept. 19 Sept. 20	Sept. 21 Sept.	
Study bedroom @ £66.00 per n (Bed, breakfast and evening mea		
	ilable for the nights shown above. not booking accommodation for the period this must be consecutive.	
GRAND TOTAL Reg	istration and Accommodation	
_	PAYMENT	
I enclose a cheque drawn	on a UK based bank made payable to C f BI	`Education
Please charge my VISA/M	fasterCard (delete as applicable).	
Card number:		
Expiry date:	_	
Signature of Cardholde r:		
Name and address of cardholder	r if different from overleaf:	
I understand and agree to abide	by the terms as set out in this registration	document:
Signature:		
Date:		

UKFIET "Oxford" International Conference on Education and Development Data Protection Terms and Conditions

The following forms part of the UKFIET "Oxford" International Conference on Education and Development 2001 terms and conditions.

You will only be entitled to a participants' list if you agree to these terms and conditions.

UKFIET "Oxford" International Conference on Education and Development Data Protection Consent

CfBT is the data controller for the UKFIET "Oxford" International Conference on Education and Development 2001 (the conference).

The UKFIET "Oxford" International Conference on Education and Development 1999 produced a participants' list that delegates found extremely useful. We would like to produce a similar list to be distributed at the conference in 2001. We would also like to keep your details in order to contact you with information about other events and services in which you might be interested.

Ongoing Contact with UKFIET and C f BT
Iconsent to CfBT and/or UKFET contacting me in relation to future
UKFET and CfBT conferences, events and services that might be of
interest to me.
Participants' List
Iconsent to my name and contact details (my data) being included on the
 conference participants' list (the list) and thereby being given to people
attending the conference. I consent to the people who receive the list
using my data in accordance with the section entitled "Use of the
Participants' List" below and I consent to the people who receive the list
returning to countries outside of the European Economic Area with my
data.

Use of the Participants' List

I agree to use the information provided to me in the participants list (the information) only in accordance with the UK Data Protection Act 1998. I will not pass the information on to third parties, I will neither use the information for financial gain nor for direct marketing. I agree to be bound by these terms and conditions and by the principles and provisions of the UK Data Protection Act 1998 in countries within and outside the European Economic Area.

Signed:	Date:
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A copy of the UK Data Protection Act 1998 is available at: www.legislation.hmso.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/19980029.htm

PLEASE RETURN THIS FORM TOGETHER WITH PAYMENT TO:

SARAH JEFFERY CfbT PO Box 4917 READ NG RG6 5XX

Tel/Fax: (44) (0) 118 921 2146 orby Em ailsefferv@cfbt-hg.org.uk

REGISTRATION AND GENERAL INFORMATION

Registration Fees (excluding accommodation)

Full registration fee - £260.00 (incl. VAT) Single Day registration fee - £90.00 (incl. VAT)

Full registration fee includes:

Full programme with papers

Lunch and mid morning and afternoon refreshments.

Drinks Reception. (please refer to website as programme is finalised)

The Single Day registration fee includes:

Full programme with papers

Lunch and mid morning and afternoon refreshments on days attended.

Drinks Reception on day attended (please refer to website as programme is finalised)

Each conference day will be 9.00am - 5.00pm

Location

Conference sessions will take place in the University of Oxford Examination Schools, Oxford. Accommodation will be in University College Oxford.

The Oxford University Examination Schools can be found in the heart of the City of Oxford, adjacent to University College, five minutes walk from the city centre and main shopping areas with easy access to the main bus and railway stations.

Transport

Regular rail, bus and coach links serve the city including a 24-hour coach service to and from London.

There are 3 major airports within 90 minutes of Oxford: Heathrow, Birmingham, and Gatwick. Regular coach and train services connect these with the city.

Although the city is at the centre of a network of major roads and motorways, there is no parking available at either the Examination Schools or University College; city car parks are expensive and we therefore recommend public transport where possible.

Accommodation

Accommodation is in student study bedrooms.

The cost per night for bed, breakfast and evening meal is £66.00 (incl. VAT and all service charges). Rooms may be reserved by completing the relevant section on the registration form and returning it to Sarah Jeffery by 24 August 2001.

Reservations received after this date cannot be guaranteed. Early booking is advised as space is limited.

Official Language

English will be the official language of the conference.

Proposals for papers

A few late proposals for papers that relate to the theme will be welcomed for consideration and should be submitted by 1st August 2001 to: Mr. W I Ozanne, 74 Billesley Lane, Birmingham B13 9QU, UK. Tel/Fax: (44) (0) 121 449 3839. Email: wozanne@cix.co.uk www.ukfiet@fsnet.co.uk Please contact Sarah Jeffery for full details on format of papers.

sjeffery@cfbt-hq.org.uk

Dress

Smart casual during conference sessions, jacket and tie for gentlemen at receptions.

Payment

All prices quoted are in £STG and are inclusive of VAT at 17.5%. Registration fees are payable in advance of the conference. Cheques drawn in £STG on a UK based bank should be made payable to CfBT Education Services.

Credit cards: VISA and MasterCard are accepted; we regret we are unable to accept American Express or Diners Club cards.

If payment is made by bank transfer a £STG10.00 surcharge will be made. Please contact Sarah Jeffery to request bank details and obtain a reference number

Your registration willbe acknowledged in writing. If you have not received pre-conference information pack 14 days prior to the start of the conference, please contact Sarah Jeffery Tel/Fax (44) (0) 118 921 2146 Em ail: sieffery@cfbt-hg.org.uk

Cancellation

Substitutions m ay be m ade at any time, but please advise change of name. In the event of cancellation, please contact Sarah Jeffery im mediately by telephone, fax or email and request a cancellation number.

Provided written notice is received by 24 August 2001 a full refund will be given, less a 10% administration charge. Provided written notice is given by 31 August 2001 a 50% refund will be made. It is regretted that cancellations after this date are not refundable.

Changes

Details of programme are correct at time of going to print. UKFIET and CfBT reserve the right to change any session in the final programme.