出國報告（出國類別：參加學術研討會）

參加日本廣島大學教育社會學論壇暨東北教育學會第 73 回大會報告

服務機關：國立中正大學教育學研究所
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參加日本廣島大學教育社會學論壇暨東北教育學會第 73 回大會報告

摘要

　　本報告書為參加日本廣島大學教育社會學論壇暨東北教育學會第 73 回大會之心得報告。首先，日本廣島大學教育學研究科辦理 2016 年教育社會學論壇，主題包括：高等教育經營、教育改革、師資培育、補教教學等議題，本人發表論文〈Mapping Education Reform in Taiwan: A Social Cartography Critique〉，受到與會學者與博碩研究生的重視，引起日本學者對於臺灣教育改革及社會地圖學作為研究方法的重視，有相當精采的對話和意見交換。其次，本人在日本仙台東北福祉大學參與東北教育學會第 73 回大會，發表論文〈International Comparison of Universities' Academic Staffs' Evaluation and Promotion Schemes: Some implications for Taiwan〉，同樣激發與會學者熱烈討論，達到學術研究成果交流並與國際學術研究人員交換研究心得之目的。

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壹、出國目的

報告人李奉儒獲日本廣島大學教育學研究科邀請，於 2016 年 2 月 29 日至 3 月 1 日舉辦之 2016 年教育社會學論壇發表論文，並與該所師生進行學術對話。之後，前往日本仙台市參加東北教育學會在 2016 年 3 月 4 日至 5 日於東北福祉大學舉辦之第 73 回大會。這是東北教育學會感念 2011 年 3 月 11 日發生的日本大地震後未完成之第 68 回大會，特邀請當年與會者參加 311 大地震後五週年的研討會，會場同時安排 2011 年 311 大地震災情與復建工作的圖片展與影片展。

貳、參加會議過程

報告人李奉儒於 2016 年 2 月 28 日從臺灣桃園國際機場出發前往日本廣島大學，參加該校教育學研究科舉辦的 2016 年教育社會學論壇。會議期間，報告人首先於 2 月 29 日早上完成報到手續，並先後參加多場專題講演。今年論壇主題包括：高等教育經營、教育改革、師資培育、補教教學等議題。報告人進行專題報告之論文題目為〈Mapping Education Reform in Taiwan: A Social Cartography Critique〉。報告場次主持人為廣島大學教育學研究科的山田浩之（Hiroshima YAMADA）教授，受到與會學者與博碩研究生的重視，引起日本學者對於臺灣教育改革及社會地圖學作為研究方法的重視，有相當精采的對話和意見交換。

報告人於會議期間亦與各國學者互動，廣島大學教育學研究科的山崎博敏（Hirotoshi YAMASAKI）教授不僅全程參與，更在茶敘互動期間致贈其個人專著《教員需要推計と教員養成の展望》，另也與來自廣州大學高等教育研究所的湯曉蒙副教授交換學術研究心得。29 日會議結束當晚，主辦單位特別舉辦歡迎餐會，宴請所有與會人員，彼此間增進更深厚的學術研究情誼。

報告人於 3 月 3 日抵達日本仙台市，3 月 4 日至本次大會的會場「東北福祉大學」報到，並參加東北教育學會舉辦的學術歡迎晚宴。東北教育學會第 73 回大會本次大會共有 36 篇論文發表，發表者來自日本東北地區的各大學之教師及博士生。報告人於 3 月 5 日在第 73 回大會的「自由研究 VII」主持論文發表，並在「自由研究 VI」場次發表論文〈International Comparison of Universities' Academic Staffs' Evaluation and Promotion Schemes: Some implications for Taiwan〉，本論文激發與會學者熱烈討論，達到與國際學術研究人員交換研究心得之出國目的。

報告人於 3 月 6 日與臺灣本次參與學術研討會的人員，一起搭機返台，結束

本次學術旅程。

參、與會心得

　　廣島大學係日本傳統師範教育學校改制而成之國立綜合型大學。素有教育界之北筑波、南廣島之稱，迄今仍為日本教育學界龍頭之一。廣島大學學生約兩萬人，外籍生約兩千人。廣島大學教育學部教師約 1500 人，除有傳統之教育學系、教育心理系、幼兒教育系等學系之外，廣島大學亦設有日本全國首創之高等教育開發研究中心。廣島大學在國際化、因應趨勢轉型以及學術研究等方面均值得參考借鏡，例如，本次論壇的研究生均能以英語提問，並與論文發表人多方論辯或交換意見，足見該校研究生的英語能力和專業知能都很強；反觀我國研究生目前英語讀寫能力逐漸下滑，更不用提及聽說能力的欠缺，這將有礙於臺灣未來在國際參與及國際學術舞台上的競爭力。

　　廣島大學教育學部設置兩席教育社會學講座教授，即為現任系主任山崎博敏教授以及本次論壇邀請者山田浩之教授，山田浩之教授亦為目前日本教育社會學學會理事，以及日本教育研究期刊編委之一，具日本教育學術影響力。山田浩之教授曾於 2015 年 5 月至教育學研究所訪問並進行專題講演，與報告人建立良好關係，這次即是山田教授大力促成論壇的舉辦，並邀請臺灣學者參與進行論文發表。本次報告人與會獲益良多，奠定與日本相關領域學者進行學術交流的基礎。

　　日本東北教育學會每年舉辦年會，今年已是第 73 屆，樹立優良的教育學術研究風氣。本次大會有來自東北地區的 100 多位會員（也有來自東京大學和琉球大學的教育學者）參加，臺灣的與會者有來自中正大學、臺東大學、台灣師範大學、暨南國際大學、中國文化大學、臺南大學、高雄第一科技大學、臺北海洋技術學院、中華科技大學等九所的教授與博士研究生，共 20 人參加，也讓所有與會者見識到臺灣教育學術研究的蓬勃發展，有助於臺灣教育學者在學術舞台上的能見度。

　　本次會議最具意義的是，東北教育學會在會場安排 2011 年 311 大地震災情與復建工作的圖片展與影片展，令報告人回憶起五年前的大地震及海嘯發生後的慘狀。當時與會準備發表論文的的中正大學教育學研究所一位博士生，連同臺灣師範大學教育系的一位博士生在大地震當日失去聯繫，因為當時所有通訊設施被地震和海嘯摧毀，不知其性命安危的具體情況。報告人得到留學日本東北大學的臺東大學副校長梁忠銘教授協助，留在日本等候消息，終於在 3 月 15 日獲知兩

人平安，且獲得一位日本大學教授協助前往東京，我們於東京會合後平安返臺。

肆、建議事項

　　日本大學的博士生勇於在學術研討會上以英文發表論文或參與討論，其學術研究及英語聽說能力，令人注意。未來，臺灣各大學的研究生必須加強學術研究以及英語聽說能力，方能在國際學術研討會中與其他國家的研究生一同登台發表，增進臺灣在國際學術舞台的能見度。未來各大學領導者，也需要思考如何建立大學本身在國際上的影響力，像是如何寬列經費以補助研究生出席國際學術研討會，而不是只依賴科技部有限的經費。本校如果可以寬列預算，以鼓勵本校研究生出國參加國際學術研討會，可讓研究生增加國際學術交流機會，擴充國際學術視野，也可提升本校在國際上的知名度。未來，或有助於增加國外學生至本校就讀的意願，例如，教育學研究所在 2016 年 5 月舉辦的教育社會學論壇，即有來自日本廣島大學的山田教授及其 10 位研究生報名參加會發表論文，可說是受到本次報告人及同事鄭勝耀教授至該校參加研討會的影響。

伍、附錄

一、日本廣島大學教育社會學論壇會場　　二、廣島大學教育社會學論壇論文發表

三、廣島大學教育社會學論壇致謝　　　　四、廣島大學教育社會學論壇會場討論

五、日本東北教育學會第 73 回大會
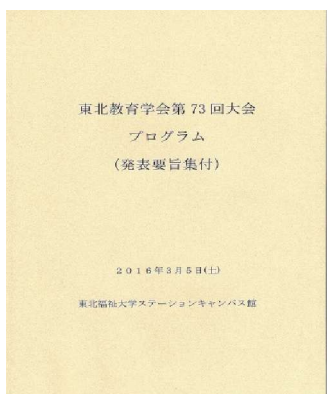

六、日本東北教育學會論文發表 I

七、日本東北教育學會論文發表 II

八、日本東北教育學會臺灣與會者

九、東北教育學會論文發表者合影

十、東北教育學會臺灣論文發表人合影

十一、東北教育學會第 73 回大會手冊

十二、東北教育學會第 73 回大會議程

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Mapping Education Reform in Taiwan:
A Social Cartography Critique

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Abstract

The Taiwan government established a cross-cutting reform agency titled the Council on Education Reform (CER) in September 1994. By 1996 CER had published 45 sponsored research reports, four substantive consultation documents, and one final consultation report on steps needed to reform the education system. In all, 32 recommendations focused on various reformation needs that addressed each of the elementary, secondary, and higher education subsectors as well as a focus on diversifying admission channels to higher level schools, colleges and universities. In this article, the author reviews this historical education reform period from a social cartography lens. A primary focus of this article is to showcase in a visual (or social cartographic) manner the ideological underpinnings for each of the 5 consultation reports and 32 recommended education reform initiatives. Findings include eight ideas/ideologies that surfaced during this education reform era from 1994 to 2015.

Introduction

The future world will be a rapid changing world, full of challenges and competition, and full of opportunities and hope. …… How to prepare the next generation to live well and happily and how to persistently promote national and social competiveness is the main reason for every country to devote major efforts to motivating educational reforms. (Council on Education Reform, 1996c, p. 107)

As the Council on Education Reform argued above, the ideas and systems of education are necessarily to be adjusted to deal with the changes of economic, political and social transformation, so the educated people hopefully can meet the challenges of radical changes. New conceptions, new technology, new environment, new information, and new lifestyles arrive in quick succession.

Since the lack of natural resources in Taiwan, the most valuable property is the high quality of her people. Therefore, the continually emergent lesson for Taiwan is how to cope with new challenging situations through her education reforms, in order to 'prepare the next generation to live well and happily ', and to 'persistently promote national and social competiveness'.

On the other hand, education reforms become whole people movement because the public is

more and more concerned with national educational policies and practices. There are many civic groups of education reform organized after the lift of Martial Law in 1987. To achieve the long-standing improvement of educational goals, the government has to get the stable support from the public, through their consensus of educational reforms, by listening to the voices of people and suggestions from the civic groups.

Beginning in the early 1990s, most people in Taiwan felt the education system was at a stage of crisis that required fundamental and systematic reforms. This national mood led the government to establish a cross-cutting reform agency titled the Council on Educational Reform (CER) in September 1994. The 31 Council Members, under the chairmanship of Dr. Yuan -Tseh Lee, 1986 Nobel Laureate in Chemistry, were assigned the task of establishing feasible strategies for restructuring Taiwan's education s ystem. By the end of 1996, CER had published 45 sponsored research reports, four substantive consultation documents, and one final report on steps needed to reform the education system. In all, 32 proposals focused on various reformation needs that addressed each of the elementary, secondary, and higher education subsectors as well as a focus on diversifying admission channels to higher level schools, colleges and universities. A focus on facilitating teachers' professional autonomy was also suggested to bring about the necessary basic transformation of education in Taiwan.

In this paper, we will review this historical education reform period from a social cartography lens. A primary focus of this paper is to showcase in a visual (or social cartographic) ma nner the ideological underpinnings for each of the 32 recommended education reform initiatives since 1996. Many unspecified ideological claims are at the back of those educational reform discourses, but, unfortunately, little of them is ever acknowledged or made explicit. We attempt to address educational reform policies from an innovative perspective and to indicate some alternative possibilities for looking at educational reform, through the employment of social cartography as a framework.

Social cartography, as the art and science of mapping ways of seeing educational changes, by means of critical discourse analysis, is a framework to identify changing perceptions of values and ideologies. By social cartography, which aims to produce 'a product depicting space peculiar to a moment in time', this essay seeks to map the total range of multiple ideological views that had been used to support educational reform strategies during the operation of Council on Education Reform. Our sources for this material will draw from the 5 official CER consultation documents and 45 sponsored research reports.

Social cartography as a way of seeing educational change

Social cartography, the title of Professor Paulston's (1996a) edited book, the topic of the best part of his conference papers, journal articles, and book chapters since 1990, became his passion and commitment. (Gottlieb, 2009) Paulston, aiming to offer comparative education new perspectives

and a new methodology (1994b), wrote and rewrote his invitation to social cartography throughout his career. Social cartography would make comparative education more open to related inquiry in the social sciences and the humanities (Paulston, 1990a, p. 254), contributes to our comprehension of the social, and provides a point of departure for new research, as well as for new maps resulting from the knowledge generated by that research. (Paulston & Liebman, 1994: 223) Paulston sought to improve the rigor and relevance of research in comparative education, by encouraging tolerance, reflection, and the utility of multiple approaches in knowledge production and application. (Paulston, 1990b, p. 396) This mapping project engaged Professor Paulston for the remainder of his career throughout the 1990s and to his death in 2006.

The rationale for social cartography is that mapping can provide comparative educators a better understanding of the social milieu and give all people opportunities to enter dialogues to show where they believe they are in society. Mapping provides the means for opening up the spaces of thinking and discussion. 'The map reveals both acknowledged and perceived social inclusions while leaving space for further inclusions of social groups and ideas', said Paulston and Liebman. (1994, p. 232) Social cartography has the potential to be a useful discourse style for demonstrating the attributes and capacities, as well as the development and perceptions, of people and cultures operating within the social milieu.

According to Paulston (1997), 'social cartography might serve to identify and visualise difference within and between disputatious communities in a way that would open space for all perspectives, privilege none -- yet problematise all, and promote a useful visual and verbal dialogue' (p. 117). Social cartography acknowledges diverse ideas and open space to all perspectives. His work is valuable for his discussion of how all complex puzzles solving involved playing with ideas and facts through comparison and the use of metaphors. (Paulston, 1990a, p. 250) Paulston claimed that comparative education research should not return to the linear days of the 1960s and should be aware of increasingly diverse and tolerant of possibilities for multiple realities and ways of knowing. Related work in educational research and in the social sciences is the same. (1990b, p. 397)

How do we map the pictures (of education reform discourse)? This process consists of aggregate information, acquisition, amalgamation, and storage, 'producing a product depicting space peculiar to a moment in time. (Paulston & Liebman, 1994, p. 215) In his later work, Paulston (1999) gave more concrete steps to draw a map. The mapmaker must enter into the texts and uncover how reality is seen, on what codes truth claims are based, and how the narrative framing process chosen produces a perspective of transmission. Paulston said: "In choosing narrative as a thematic frame, I seek to highlight specific dimensions of texts in the debate, while acknowledging that some aspects of the texts are foregrounded at the expense of others." (p. 439)

Paulston proceeded to demonstrate his process of reading and juxtaposing ways of seeing in the texts, in a cookbook fashion: (1999, p. 453)

(1) Choose the issue or debate to be mapped.

(2) Select the widest range possible of texts that construct this debate and, with close reading,

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translate their defining rhetorical characteristics, ideas, and worldviews.

(3) Identify the range of positions in the intertextual mix.

A heuristic example offered by Paulston (1994a) is the macro mapping of worldviews (i.e., paradigms) and ways of seeing (i.e., theories) by using semiotic analysis through 60 comparative education texts presented on figure 1. In conceptual terms, cartographic visualization can also provide a link between what were once viewed as incommensurable epistemological paradigms or perspectives, now presented as nodes within shifting inter-textual fields. (Paulston, 1997, p. 143)

The map on figure 1, as Paulston and Liebman argued, 'identifies intellectual communities and relationships, illustrates domains, suggests a discourse field of interactive ideas, and opens space to all propositions and ways of seeing in the social milieu'. (1994, p. 225) Of course, this map is their perception of the world derived from textual exegesis, and is only one perspectivist way of seeing some identifiable parts of paradigms and theories. Some scholars might claim their discourse is not yet represented on the map. Readings by the mapmaker and others would always possibly produce different interpretations. Nevertheless, sharing and critiquing these interpretations will help us to better know ourselves and others.
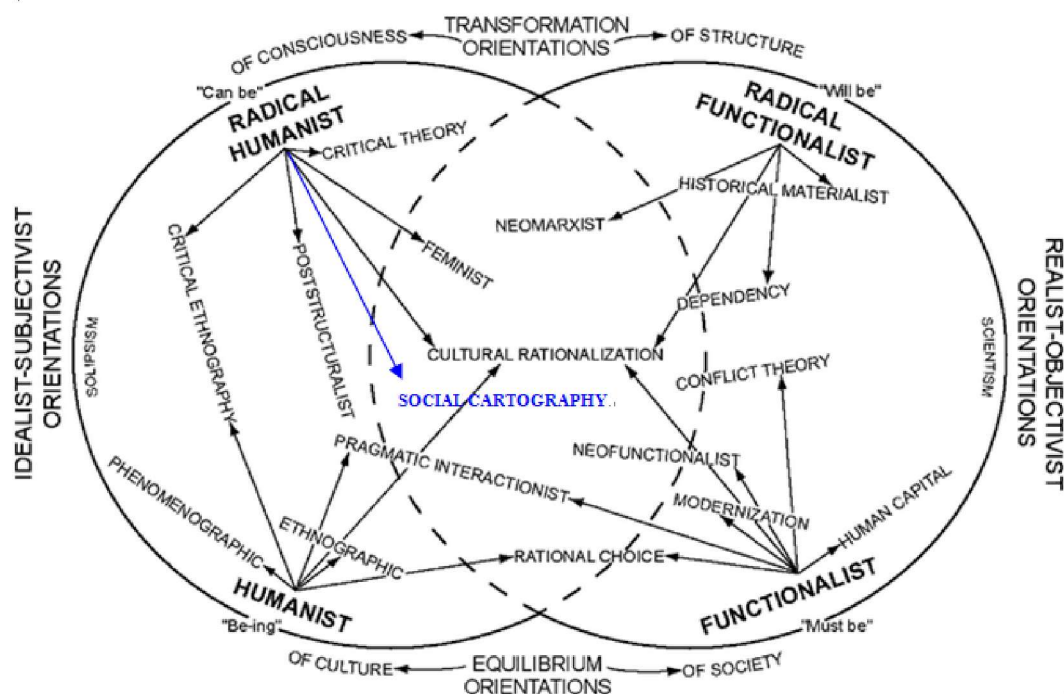
Figure 1. Paulston's global mapping of paradigms and theories of comparative education discourse
Source: Adapted from Paulston (1994, p. 931).

A social map is a construct, a unique object. Initially, each map is the property of its creator -- it contains some part of that maker's knowledge and understanding of the social system. It is created through 'a process composed of a series of psychological transformations by which an individual

acquires, codes, stores, recalls, and decodes information about the relative locations and attributes of phenomena". (Paulston & Liebman, 1994, p. 215) Since every social map is the product of its makers and opens to continuous revision and interrogation, in the process of mapping meaning, the subject is seen to be mobile and constituted in the shifting space where multiple and competing discourses intersect. (Paulston, 1997, p. 141) Each social map portrays the maker's perceptions of the social world, locating in it multiple and diverse intellectual communities, leaving to the reader not a truth but a cognitive art (Paulston & Liebman, 1994, p. 223). Gottlieb (2009, p. 97) also argues that there is no way the mapmaker can control the use the reader or the researcher will make of his map.

Social cartography is more concerned with developing a visual dialogue as ways of communicating how the researchers saw the social changes developing in the world. Therefore, figure 1 could be viewed only as a context-dependent treatment of paradigmatic knowledge. Readers of this map of course can question whether the depiction is accurate, whether the allocation of space is appropriate, and whether the relationships suggested by the arrows have developed in the directions as Paulston indicates. Hence, we take the remindful words from Weidman and Jacob (2011) into account, that 'researchers should situate themselves to generate an awareness of how their own perspectives influence the conclusions that might be drawn or recommendations that might be made'. (p. 15)

The composition and operation of Council on Educational Reform

In the mid-1990s, under the influence of the prevailing motto 'deregulation', a concept borrowed evidently from the liberal economic circle, children's right to access schools and the parent's right to educate their children were highly protected. There was a protest march for education reformations, organized by more than 20 educational interest groups, named the Great Education Reformation Alliance, in April 1994, the first time in Taiwa n's history of education. This parade raised four slogans which influenced later policies of education reform: Education Modernization, Enacting Education Basic Law, Massive Expansion of Universities and Senior High Schools, and Small Schools and Small Classes.

The Minister of Education then decided and got support from the Prime Minister to establish a reform agency, an idea borrowed from Japan, titled the 'Council on Educational Reform' (CER) in September 1994. CER was a two-year missionary council and had published 45 sponsored research reports, and produced four substantive consultation documents (every 6 months) and one final general consultation report on December 2, 1996. Totally, CER proposed 32 recommendations for education reform at current time and in the future.

After the end of CER's mission in December 1996, to implement the reform proposals by CER, a Commission for Promoting Education Reform, suggested by CER's General Consultation Report (1996c), was set up and assigned the task of monitoring the progress of actualizing the reform

proposals. On April 4, 1998, the Commission approved the proposed 'Twelve Education Reform Mandates', allocating a special budget of NT$ 150 billion dollars (equivalent to US$ 5 billions) for the unprecedented mission to be accomplished in five years.

Finally, to cope with new social and cultural challenges of the 21st century, the Ministry of Education held the 8th National Education Meeting on August 29 and 30, 2010. Refinement, innovation, justice and sustainable development were the slogans of the visionary education policy strategies to promote social and cultural development.

The composition of CER

The Council on Educational Reform (CER), a supra-ministerial reform agency support by the President's Office, was established in September 1994. Its mission was to discuss and review the whole education system, to examine the projects of educational development, to set the framework for educational reform and to generate momentum from below, in order to meet the new demands of the coming century. (CER, 1995a)

There were 31 Council members, headed by Professor Lee Yuan-Tseh, who then was the president of Academia Sinica (the most prestigious research institution in Taiwan). Other 30 members included 1 Academician (in anthropology), 5 university presidents (one of them, the president of National Chung Cheng University, later became Minister of Education) and 10 professors (one of them later became Minister of Education, and three of them later respectively became presidents of Normal University and University of Education), 6 government officials from other ministries (two were former university presidents and one of them later became Prime Minister), 1 principal of senior high school, 2 principals of junior high school, 2 county magistrates (from the Opposition Party, and one of them later became Prime Minister), and the rest 3 members were from the industry (one was the chairperson of Acer Group). These members are divided into three committees, according to their personal interests: educational ideas and lifelong education, schooling and pre-school education, and higher education. (CER, 1995b)

Noticeably, if we consider the discipline grounds of these academic members, we can find that most of them were from Chemistry (6, including the chair), mathematics (3), economics (3), psychology (2), anthropology (2), mass media (1), statistics (1), and engineering (1). No member was from the university's Department of Education when the CER was establishment. However, when the first report of CER was published and released in April 1995, it received many critiques from the education circle such as 'educational reform without philosophy of education', and how can the discussion of education reform exclude the scholars from disciplines of education, curriculum, pedagogy, and so on? (Lieu and Lee, 1995) The Council hence reorganized and added 5 members, among whom, 4 were from the education fields, including sociology of education, educational testing, curriculum, and higher education study (though the last one was MoE's permanent secretary and represented MoE). So the picture of CER membership changed (see Figure 1). The new Council members had increased educational ideas and turn its viewpoint toward more

awareness of social inequality and justice within education systems, as represented in the second report of CER, unlike the first one's emphasis more on deregulation from an economics perspective.

Social cartography argues that visual image depicts, on the two-dimensional surface of screen, 'the researcher's perceived application, allocation, or appropriation of social space by social groups at a given time and in a given place'. (Paulston & Liebman, 1994, p. 215) However, we are also aware that, as Paulston and Liebman reminded, 'The only limitations in social cartography are those of the orientation criteria determined by the vertical and horizontal axes used by the mapper to outline social space in miniature'. (1994, p. 228)

The visual image on figure 2, we choose the science vs. humanities as the horizontal axe, and theoretical vs. practical as the vertical axe, to map the academic backgrounds and practical experiences of these CER members. Since the members selected might be owing to their academic, professional, social and even political status. This map might be helpful for our understanding why and what they had tried to led education reform into specific directions.

Hence, form the membership of CER presented on figure 2, by the inclusion of a social cartography as a secondary discourse style, we can tell the dominant approach adopted by the CER's educational reform was more linked to scientific and theoretical ideas, which was referred to by Paulston (1997, pp. 125-6) as positivist and technical rationality. Nonetheless, some of the reports such as the second and third ones were more beware of a negative correspondence between social status and educational provision and outcomes. They put emphasis on the issues such as social justice, educational opportunity equality, gender equality, special educational needs, multicultural and aboriginal education, like the ideas of critical rationalist, with a commitment to dialectical analysis of structured subordination and to overturning hierarchy in favor of more egalitarian structures.

What would worry us is the narrow view of educational planning (particularly from economists) that claims to accept both objectivist and normative data and ignores the possibility for constructed approaches where the subjects of planning might express quite different priorities and views of reality. Interpretative and critical framing options along with ethical considerations in practice are, as Paulston would argue, 'sent packing for the sake of practicality and concreteness.' (1990b, p. 396)
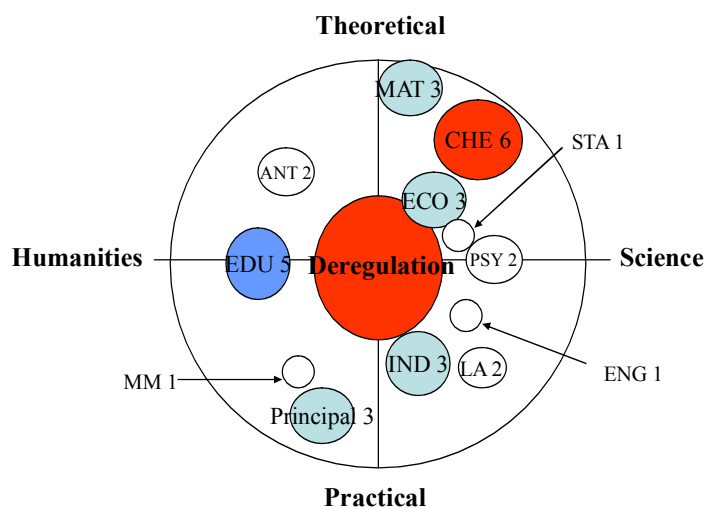
Figure 2. Mapping CER Members

CER operation

In just over two years, the CER conducted over 350 public hearings and seminars of various levels across Taiwan, published 45 sponsored research reports, and produced four substantive consultation documents and one final report, the *General Consultation Report for Education Reform,* on December 2, 1996. (CER, 1996c)

In its two-year operation (as Figure 3 shows), first, CER had convened 34 general meeting to consider the important issues for reforming educational system and contents. The decisions were achieved by common view. Second, the three committees of CER held 161 meetings (including 12 joined meetings) in total to discuss their respective themes, such as educational ideas and lifelong education (41), schooling and pre-school education (65), higher education (30), and other specific issues (13). Third, the 'education system review taskforce' had summoned 37 panels and 7 public hearings from January to June 1996, in order to examine and rectify the important Education Acts. Fourth, besides such meetings, the CER established a community contact system for those who volunteer the enterprise of educational reform. There were totally 573 people, most of them are school teachers, who registered as CER's community contact and arranged 271 sessions for the public to raise their voices to all kinds of educational problems and make their suggestions.

Finally, the administrative agencies of CER help to publish Newsletter of Education Reform every month (27 proceedings), set up BBS to present meeting records and invoke more discussion, call together 16 forums of education reform, 20 public meetings for education, 24 circuit lectures to the cities and counties, and held 3 conferences for discussing the ideas and suggestions of the *First*, *Second*, and *Third Consultation Reports for Education Reform*.

Those public exercises diversified the sources of opinion on education reform; maximized the participation of stakeholders (including teachers, parents, education officials and community leaders); and, more importantly, gave the CER a popular mandate to propose reform initiatives. Totally thirty-two recommendations including reforming elementary, secondary and higher education, improving and diversifying channels of admission to higher level schools and universities and facilitating teachers' professional autonomy were suggested to bring about fundamental transformations of education in Taiwan. Such induced educational alteration efforts range broadly, from innovations in classroom activities to large-scale reforms seeking system-wide change in educational goals, priorities, and structures.
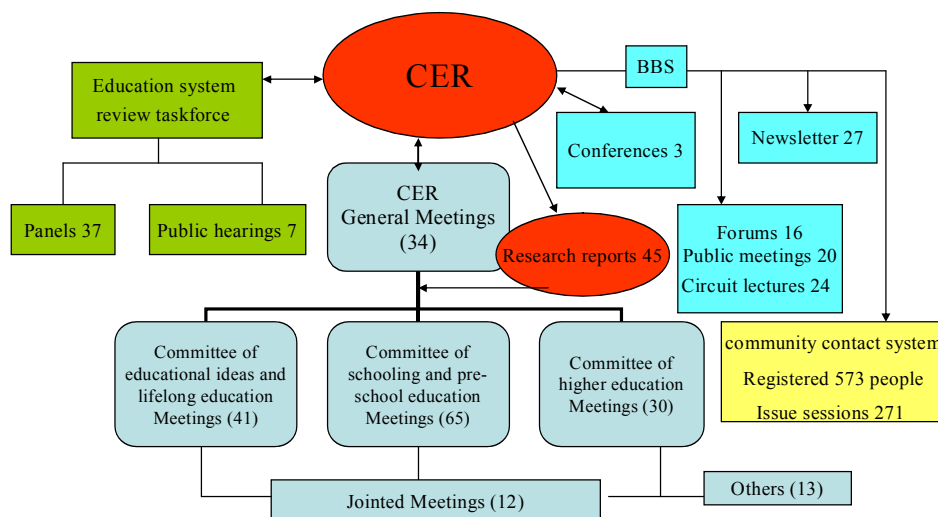

Figure 3. Operations and Outcomes of the CER

The ideas and aims of education reform

A spatial turn in comparative studies, as Paulston claimed, 'would focus less on formal theory and competing truth claims and more on how contingent knowledge may be seen as embodied, locally constructed and visually represented as oppositional yet complimentary positioning in shifting fields'. (1997, p. 139) We here try to map the ideas and aims of education reform, by Figures 3 to 7, from the five official reports. By naming, classifying, and locating, these maps help us know something so we can see something different, though provisional and contested.

The Council on Education Reform developed and set up the following education reform goals respectively in each report:

The first report set up the ideas of education reform as 1.conducting radical educational

reforms, 2. satisfying personal and social education needs, 3. helping individual's dignified progress, and 4. promoting orderly growth of big society. (CER, 1995a)
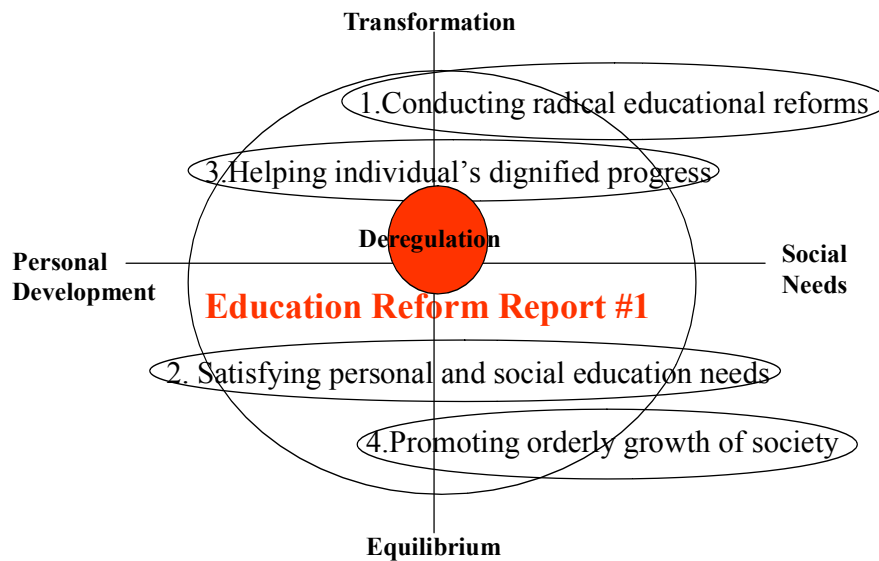
Figure 4. Map of the *First Report* Ideas

The second report stipulated 3 aims for education reform: 1.promoting lifelong education, 2.establishing Learning Society, and 3.carrying out schooling reform. (CER, 1995b)

Figure 5. Map of the *Second Report* Ideas

The third report was more concerned with the particular issues of social justice in education and specified the following aims: 1. pursuing high quality of childhood education, 2. strengthening special needs education, and 3. actualizing gender equality education. (CER, 1996a)
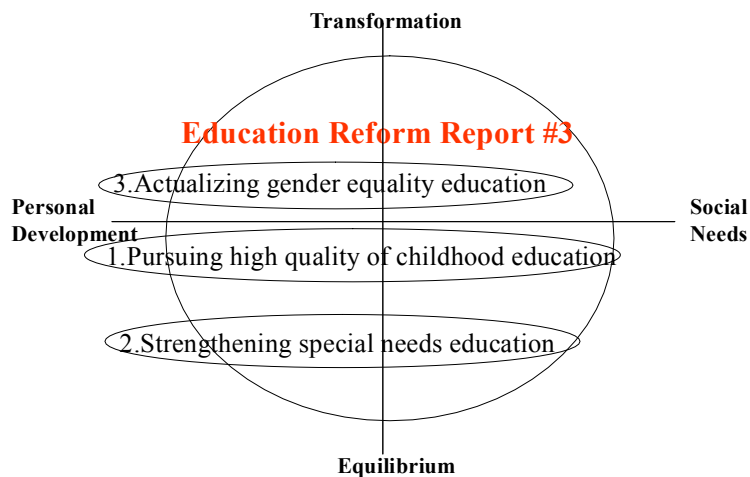
Figure 6. Map of the *Third Report* Ideas

The fourth report demanded both macro and micro aims including: 1. promoting the rectification of educational laws, 2. improving the raising of educational funds, 3. paying attention to aboriginal education, and 4. making higher education excellent. (CER, 1996b)
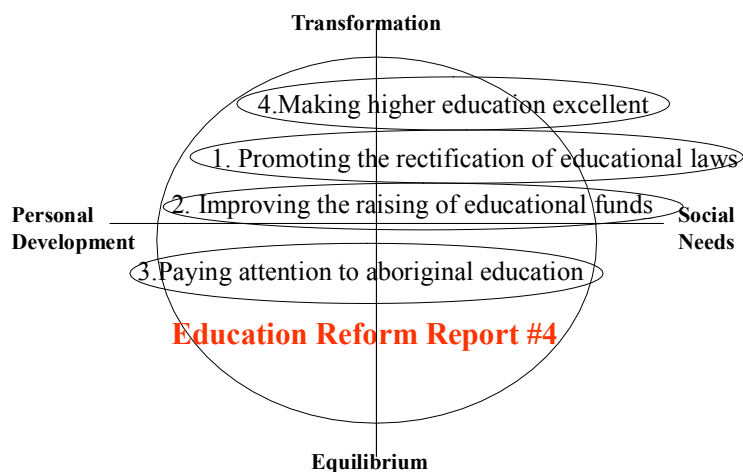
Figure 7. Map of the *Fourth Report* Ideas

The aims of the final General Report were induced from the above 4 reports and included: 1.achieving the goals of modernizing education, 2. satisfying personal and social education needs, 3. moving toward lifelong learning society, and 4. encouraging the transformation of educational systems. (CER, 1996c)
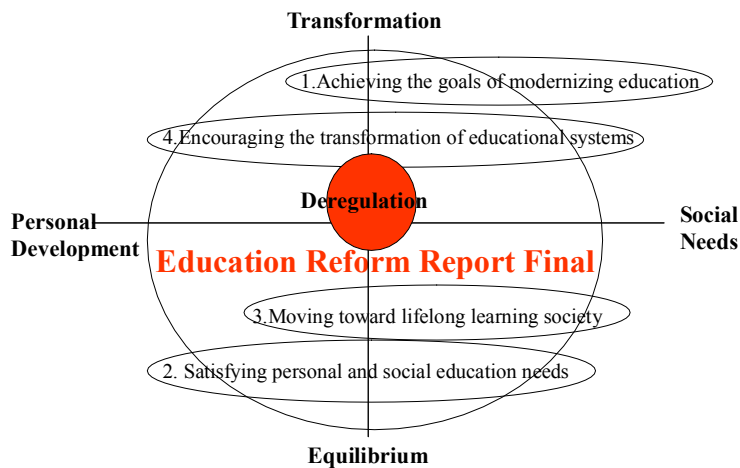
Figure 8. Map of the *Final Report* Ideas

Paulston ever maintained that a guiding principle of the social cartography project is that: 'The concept of spatial imagination seen as an ability to reveal multiple intersections, to resist disciplinary enclosures and cross borders, and come into critical dialogue with other imaginations'. Following this principle, we re-map the aims of the final General Report in figure 8 which were induced from the above 4 reports and included: 1.achieving the goals of modernizing education (from reports #3 and #4), 2. satisfying personal and social education needs (from report #1), 3. moving toward lifelong learning society (from reports #1 and #2), and 4. encouraging the transformation of educational systems (from all the reports).

Figure 9. Social Cartography Portraying the Interconnections of the *Final Report* Ideas

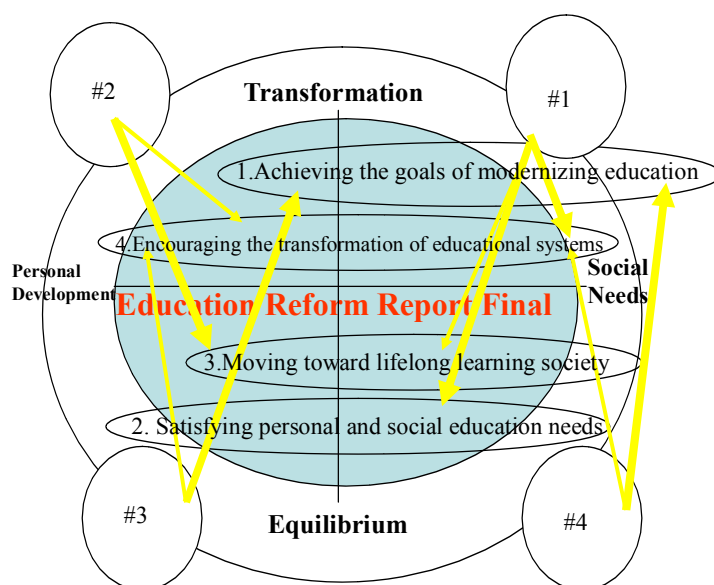Besides its critical utility to make visible ideas and relations that otherwise might remain hidden, social cartography will be useful to convert increasing flows of data into usable information. This will help us recognize patterns and relationships in spatial contexts from the local to the global. (Paulston, 1997, p. 143) The above maps all are helpful for offering the opportunity for us to map changes, to analyze and interpret reform ideas. Regarding the outcomes of education reform, we can see the Fig. 9 which gives us a clear idea of the development of CER's recommendations for education reform.

Proposals for education reform by CER

CER proposed 32 recommendations in total for education reform. Central to these 32 reform proposals are the aims to improve the quality of Taiwan citizens by the expansion of more educational opportunities for senior high schools; to develop the citizens' potentials in terms of their mental, personal, physical activities in the full; to balance the development between urban and rural schools, as well as between private and public schools; to foster further higher education development. The CER's educational reform proposals can be classifies into five main directions (CER, 1996c, pp. 49-93):

Deregulation of the Education System: There included 7 recommendations such as 1.restructuring central educational administrative system, 2.improving schools' teaching and administration, 3.ensuring school teachers' professional autonomy, 4.der egulating schooling in all possible ways, 5.deregulating higher education, 6.encouraging the deregulation of building private schools and higher education institutes, and 7.deregulating social conceptions of education.

Bring up Every Student (No student left behind): There were 12 proposals, including 8.reforming curriculum and teaching, 9.reconstructing small schools and small classes, 10.actualizing schools' autonomous management, 11.initiating schools' inward energy, 12.helping every student possess basic competences, 13.building systems of remedial teaching, 14.strengthening career counseling, 15.rebuilding a new guidance system to deal with students' behavior, 16.reinforcing special needs education for physically and mentally handicapped students, 17.emphasizing aborigines' education, 18.actualizing gender equality education, and 19.ensuring the quality of preschool education.

Unblocked Multiple Routes for Advanced Education: There were 3 proposals for this reform, including 20.establishing comprehensive high schools, 21.developing characteristic and plural higher education institutes, and 22.promoting diversified admission system.

Raising Education Quality: Five proposals were suggested, including 23. improving teachers' professional quality, 24.reinforcing educational research and evaluation, 25.employing resources effectively, 26.promoting the quality of higher education, and 27.developing diversified and elaborated technology and vocational education.

Establishing a Lifelong Learning Society: This direction included 5 reform proposals, such as 28.promoting the ideas of lifelong learning, 29.integrating lifelong learning systems, 30.collaborating with schooling reform, 31.establishing a system of recurrent education, and 32.collaborating with administrative measures.

These 32 proposals were finalized by the Executive Yuan and Legislative Yuan on May 14, 1998, leaving greater leverage for unparalleled education changes in Taiwan. These twelve education reform mandates run as follows: (Yang, 2001)

1.Revamping National Education Projects, K-12.

2.Fostering Pre-school and Kindergarten Education Programs.

3.Renovating Teacher Education and In-service Training Programs.

4.Promoting Impeccable Diversified Vocational Education.

5.Pursuing Excellence in Higher Education and Its Development.

6.Advocating Lifelong Learning Projects.

7.Strengthening Educational Programs Designed for the Handicapped.

8.Invigorating Educational Programs for the Native Taiwanese (Aboriginals).

9.Expanding Access to Colleges and Universities.

10.Creating a New System Integrating Teaching, Guidance, and Counseling.

11.Increasing the Educational Budget for the Enhancement of Educational Research.

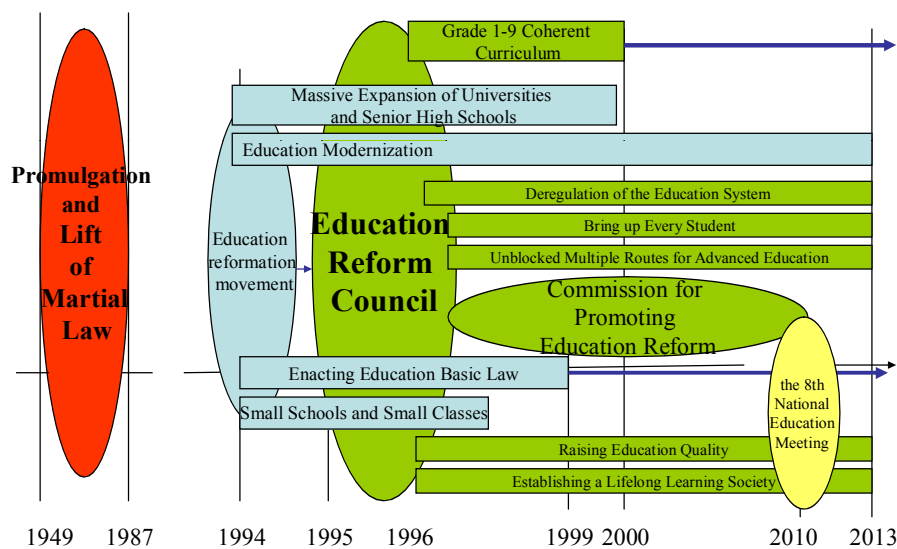12.Accelerating the Promotion of Family Value/Ethics through Parental Education.

Figure 10. Development of Education Reform in Taiwan, 1994-

Ideas and ideologies behind education reform discourse

We will discuss some distinctive ideologies behind or implicit in these proposals for education reform, which covered from pre-school education to higher education and further education, expanded from curriculum reform to teacher quality, and included whole system of education and social transformation. These results though were mainly formatted by CER, they were induced from the public, parents, school teachers, interest groups, professionals, as well as private sectors. There were paradoxically complicated ideas and ideologies with the power struggles for the new directions of educational reform. In this paper we try to depict the ideas and ideologies of educational reform from the discourse of 5-volume official reports, as well as 45 sponsored reports and hundreds of public hearing records.

It is not easy to tell the whole story of education reform in Taiwan. Some scholars reflect on the dilemmas of education reform, whether it should move toward the direction of internationalization or localization? (Yang, 2001), globalization or localization? (Law, 2000) or marketization and privatization? (Kwong, 2000) Some scholars describe general development of educational reform; (Weng, 1999) or focus on specific education stages such as higher education, with an eye on globalization effects; (Mok, 2000) or concentrated upon ideology and curriculum. (Su, 2006) The only one which focuses more on power struggle with education reform is Law's article (2000) about searching for a 'national' identity through democratization and Taiwanization.

When researchers are unreflective about their frames, as Paulston (1990b) argued, they would like to ignore the need to choose and will not attend to the ways in which they buy into an idea that is simply taken as a given. For example, the issue of globalization was not manifested in those education reform texts, not like some scholars' assumption such as globalization effects on education reform. They (Law, 2000; Mok, 2000) might be disappointed that there was not any word mentioned about globalization within CER's discourse terminology.

Therefore, following Paulston's suggestion that choosing the issue or debate to be mapped, selecting the widest range possible of texts, and identifying the range of positions in the inter-textual mix, we choose the most distinctive ideas/ideologies with regard to related reform practices to depict maps of Taiwanese development of education reform, such as figure 10, and both the manifest and implicit ideas/ ideologies behind the people involved with power struggles on figure 11.
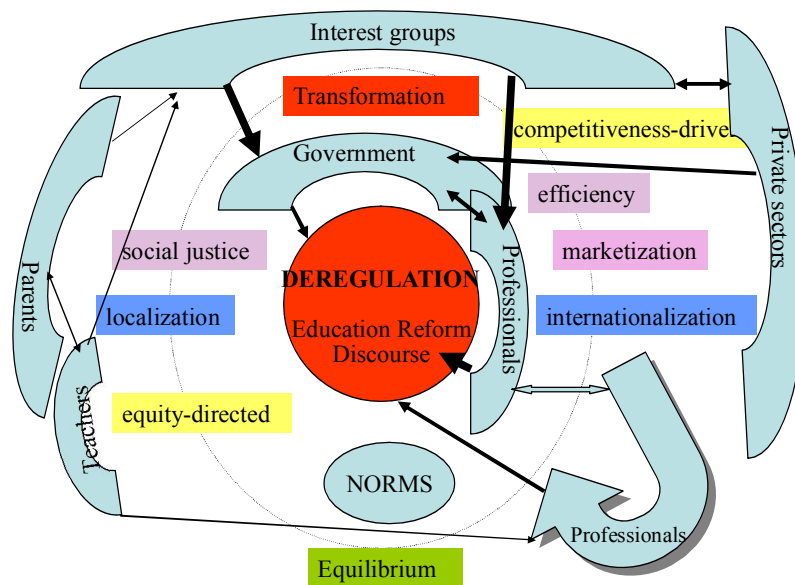
Figure 11. Ideologies and Power Struggles Behind Education Reform during the CER Time Period, 1994-1996

Applied to education reform research, social cartography could conduce to immediate and practical answers to the perceived locations and relationships of persons, objects, and perceptions such as in figure 11. The interpretation and understanding of both theoretical constructs and social events then can be facilitated and enhanced by mapped images. (Paulston, 1994b, 1996b; Paulston & Liebman, 1994)

CER claimed that for achieving the aim of education modernization, there should be ideas of education reform including democratization, multipleness, technology, humanization and internationalization. (CER, 1995a, pp. 20-22; CER, 1996c, pp. 40-42) Rather, the most visible ideas and ideologies which can be traced through CER's education reform discourse are deregulation, internationalization, localization (Taiwanization), democratization, marketization (and privatization), individualization (and differentiation), efficiency, and equity (social justice).

First, from the first to the final consultation reports, the most central conception was focused on 'deregulation'. Since the middle 1980s, in the face of rapid social changes, political freedom, rapid economic growth, change in industrial structures, and diversification of values, aims and functions of education, Taiwan has been facing many challenges to education system and schooling practice. The first medicine prescribed by CER is 'deregulation' (the only one English word appeared in the first report), which was another word for 'freedom'. The terminology, 'deregulation', comes from Economics, which means the relationship between supply and demand should be totally decided by free market and not regulated by government's unnecessary means. The implication here is to treat education as a market and only accepts the rules of free competition.

Actually, among the five directions of education reform, 'Deregulation of the Education System' was listed as the first and most important direction and included the 1st to the 7th proposals to be actualized. (CER, 1996c, pp. 49-61) Based on the 'deregulation' idea, CER proposed that the concept, contents, and feasibility of making Basic Law of Education should be taken into deliberated account (CER, 1995a, pp. 23-25). The Basic Law of Education was finally enacted on June 23, 1999.

Second, the other main idea for education reform is because encountering the challenges from 'internationalization'. The competition of international economics seems to be the new 'hegemony', a term borrowed from Apple (1996: 14), who has continued questioning the educational policies and practices by means of cultural politics. Morrow and Torres (2000: 41-48) who tried to connect the trends of educational reform with social movements and national power, also indicated that the national response to international competition is one reason for educational reform in Western countries. Since 1990s, globalization has played a significant role to motivate policy innovation and educational reform in Western countries. However, the CER reports did not mention a word about 'globalization', which seemed to be ignored by the CER members and their collaborative researchers. On the contrary, throughout the education reform texts of CER, internationalization was a major motto because it had been formally acknowledged as one of the five main ideas of education reform. Internationalization of higher education such as proposals 5, 21 and 26 were to deregulate and promote the quality of higher education for meeting the challenges from international economic and educational competition. This conception is to treat students as human capital. Since the real world is intensely competitive economically, students as future workers must possess competent skills to compete efficiently and effectively.

Third, 'localization' or 'Taiwanization' had also been emphasized throughout the CER reports. CER (1996c, pp. 40-45) maintained that the five main reform ideas such as democratization, pluralism, technology, humanization and even internationalization, all must be grounded on and have deep love for the local cultures, geography, and history. Since 1987, the political transition from an authoritarian regime to a democratic one had urged a growing number of special interest groups to request for indigenous Taiwanese (aborigines) and Taiwanese descent. They protested that nationally standardized school curriculum and textbooks merely reinforced national Chinese identity while excluding the voices of different social, cultural, and ethnic groups in Taiwan. The education movement creates space for local identities and characteristics that had been suppressed in the past to emerge. This 'localization' approach was emphasized in proposal 8, 'reforming curriculum and teaching'. Some examples of this localization resurgence include an emphasis on local history and ethnic language preservation in school teaching and textbooks. An increase of the teaching material of local history and geography as well as local arts is evidently seen in the recent curriculum reform at every school level, as part of these national education reform efforts.

Localization implies respecting local and indigenous forms of knowledge, values, and cultures, and in constructing and honoring Taiwan as the new political and cultural identity of its people, by

enhancing the multicultural composition of the island in school curriculum and textbooks. In the wake of mutual respect of all the ethnic groups in Taiwan, varieties of Taiwanese dialects have become the required courses in the primary school in contrast to their prohibition in favor of the monopoly of Mandarin in school curriculum. There has been resurgence in recent years on helping to preserve indigenous languages, values, knowledge, and cultures, as prescribed by proposal 17, emphasizing aborigines' education.

Fourth, 'democratization' is an issue that needs continued emphasis. Education is a central arena to develop, manifest, consolidate, and transmit democratic ideals and respect for ethnic differences and cultures. Therefore CER raised the fifth direction for establishing a lifelong learning society which included the 28th to 32nd proposals. Educational democratization and autonomy, educational freedom from political and religious intervention have been formally prescribed in Basic Law of Education, in order to extend the protection of educational rights of individuals. By adopting democratic approach to education systems, on the other hand, the expansion of higher education also indicates that education has shifted its center of gravity from elite to popular education, from government centralization to de-centralization, democracy and autonomy.

We need to be aware that, however, the so-called democracy was gradually replaced by neo-liberalist ideology of free choice. For neo-liberal economists, the world is essentially a vast supermarket. Consumer choice is thus the guarantor of democracy. Yet, neither education nor human beings are just commodity and they can be easily hurt by the free choice thinking and doing.

Fifth, 'marketization' is treated as a foundation to help strengthen the national education system. The introduction of market-oriented curricula into the education process is often coupled with deregulation of government control over education and exempts it from unnecessary constraints. In April 1996, the government started to permit the private publication of textbooks. More importantly, the implementation of Grade 1-9 Coherent Curriculum Outlines in 2000, instead of former Curriculum Standards, allowed school teachers to decide which textbooks edited by private publishers to be used in their classrooms. Textbooks still provide the basic structure and the majority of the content of their teaching, but they are no longer limited to adopt textbooks published by the National Institution for Compilation and Translation under the Ministry of Education.

Close to the marketization ideology is the idea of privatization which was so manifest a theme through CER's five reports. The expansion of private senior high schools, colleges and universities became an increasing controversial topic of political debate. In 1985, the prohibition against establishing private education institutes, particularly private colleges and universities was revoked. Neo-liberal idea is what is private is necessarily good and what is public is necessarily bad. Therefore, the 6th education reform proposal was to encourage the establishment of private schools and higher education institutes. The primary rationale for this privatization expansion was to encourage inter-school and inter-college competition. In 1999, the number of private universities (59) surpassed the number of public universities (46) for the first time, and since then has remained the largest sector of higher education in Taiwan. Between 1986 and 2013, especially based on the

CER's endorsement of private education and a market-driven scheme, Taiwan dramatically expanded the number of higher education institutions (HEIs) from 28 to 161. The increase in the number of HEIs makes HEIs possible to accommodate almost all interested students and works as a concrete response to one of the four slogans raised by the Great Education Reformation Alliance in 1994.

Besides, the neo-liberalist corporate culture, by an appeal to deregulating market-driven freedom and economic relations, has signaled a radical shift in the notion of higher education/learning. Taiwanese Ministry of Education controlled the establishment of HEIs and departments, the appointment of university executives, the promotion of academics, the allocation of finance, the design of university curricula, the adoption of textbooks and the procedure of student admissions and graduation. Academic freedom and university autonomy seemed to be a very difficult thing for professors. The issue of corporatizing public university was firstly raised in 1986 during university students' demonstration and was argued for democracy and academic freedom of public universities. However, the revised University Act enacted in 1994, whose aims were to introduce market scheme to university by means of promoting diversified HEIs and decentralizing the power of MoE over university authorities, did not write in the corporation policy. Rather, the Council on Education Reform in its 1996 final report once again argued for the corporatization of public university. The aim, while so claimed that a corporatized university could have its own autonomy of finance, personnel, and operation, was mainly to reduce the university's dependence on government funding and to introduce market-related strategies into HEIs, such as increase of student tuition fees, strengthening the relationship between the university sector and the industrial and business sectors, and encouraging academics to engage into market-like activities to generate more revenue and income.

The CER's 5th proposal, 'deregulating higher education' and the 26th proposal, 'promoting the quality of higher education', both stressed that the planning of corporatizing public university will be an effective means to promote university autonomy and high quality. However, contrary to this optimistic picture, we need to acknowledge that whether the meaning of university autonomy will be replaced by market vocabulary, the subjectivity of teachers be weakened, the concept of students be distorted as customers, the implementation of curriculum and teaching be directed toward future employment and therefore commercialized, and the freedom of research projects be controlled more and more by evaluation scheme whose criteria are narrowly concentrated on utility or application ? (Lee, 2011) We must pay attention to the strategies of structural adjustment for HEIs by neo-liberal ideas.

Sixth, the CER highlighted the need for more emphasis on 'individualization'. Education in Taiwan has turned to individual dignity, value, and learning process— these values build upon the Confucian education foundation that has existed for centuries in East Asia. Protecting children's right to an education, parents' right to choose suitable education models of delivery and curricula for their children, and teachers' professional autonomy are duly respected and protected by the

government. A more flexible and integrated school national curriculum was designed to help best meet individual needs.

Differentiation was emphasized within the reform discourse, too. Multiple channels of access to senior high schools and universities were designed to help secure education equality and equity. From the neo-liberal perspective, we can tell and understand why the idea of 'deregulation' worked as the central part of education reform, and why the reform proposals such as the 22nd was to promote diversified admission system into senior high schools and universities. The diversified admission system into senior high schools, for example, originally designed 6 multiple routes to senior high school, nowadays only two left. The main reason is that this diversified admission system is rather unfair to those economically and educationally disadvantaged students because playing this system needs more information and personal performances, and more money. (Lee & Chan, 2002)

Seventh, the 'efficiency' requirements were implicated in the consultation reports. Besides the challenges from international economic competition, the proposals for educational reform also resulted from domestic educational and social problems. There were 8 educational problems identified in the first report. (CER, 1995a, pp. 16-19) That is to say, a rationale for CER's educational reform was the so-called failure of public schooling. CER perceived education as an important strategy to promote national development, economical growth and social progress. They would not stand with the educational problems, which were referred to as the centralized system of education, the authoritarian structure of schools and universities, the poor quality of teachers, the Grand China-dominated contents of teaching materials, the intellectualized orientation of curriculum, the ossified methods of teaching, and even the increase of examination and national assessments. In a word, the most problematic was the efficiency-less issue, which means non-modernized. Modernization of education then became a firm belief since the establishment of CER. The 7th proposal 'deregulating social conceptions of education', aimed to reform social public's out-of-date conception of education. And like the 25th proposal stated, 'employing resources effectively', educational authorities and institutes all needed to employ resources effectively. School administers like principals, for example, must conduct modernized management and employ social resources effectively, to maintain their principal position. (CER, 1996c, p. 67)

Finally, the idea of equity-directed reform had been considered as an important issue of social justice since the second consultation report released. Not all the proposals were raised from the theory of structural function which had been strictly questioned by some educational scholars. Morrow and Torres (1999) pointed out that the change of society and education was 'selected' which concealed the continuous social conflict and even displayed the interests of dominant class. To the critical theorist, education only serve those who have power and creates injustice within social systems, less for social justice. The policies of educational reform cannot proceed from functional viewpoints only. They must consider a conflict perspective as well, and be aware of the impact by the eager for educational equality, fairness and justice. The second direction of education

reform planned by CER, Bring up Every Student, included 12 proposals. Most of them aimed to achieve the equal opportunities of education for those disadvantaged students, like physically and mentally handicapped students (proposal 16) and aborigines (proposal 17), and aimed to address the problems of gender equality (proposal 18) , remedial teaching (proposal 13), career counseling (proposal 14), students' improper behavior (proposal 15), and the quality of preschool education (proposal 19). These reform proposals later become educational policies of MoE and have been actualized successfully.

Conclusions

Before the mid-1980s, Taiwanese people lived under a totalitarian regime and education system was under strictly rigid control by central government. Since there were few senior high schools and universities, the opportunity for people to receive higher education was limited to the elite. When Martial Law was finally lifted in 1987, the public began to call on the government to provide greater opportunities for advanced education, and educate more highly qualified professionals to make Taiwan more competitive in the international marketplace. Education reform become much more enormous social and political concern in such a turning age of technological, economical and socio-cultural changes, bringing new challenges to the operation of education in Taiwan.

This paper seeks to understand education reform practices and outcomes by showing the most manifest and important ideas and ideologies, regarding with related reform proposals, in the reports released by Council on Education Reform. We employ social cartography as a conceptual framework for its usefulness to construct more comprehensive and reasonably accurate re-presentations of educational reform practices since mid-1990s in Taiwan. By social cartography, we are better able to visualize and re-present the simultaneity, diversity and power struggle inherent in all the social contexts that constituting our challenging new world.

We try to map and understand better how ideas and ideology, from which assumptions about why and when reforms should take place and what priorities and processes should be chosen, influence the official policies and strategies of educational reform. Needlessly to say, behind the educational reform in most countries is a common theme which holds education as an important strategy to promote national development, economical growth and social progress. Taiwan, as a part of the closely interconnected global system resulted from Western culture, could not get away from the Western influences in her development of education. Theory of human capital, for example, played vital role in Taiwan's educational policy-making in 1960s. Parallel to modernization and internationalization effects, however, we also find the appeals of localization that affect the directions of education reform, particularly indigenous languages, values, knowledge, and culture represented in the localized school curriculum and textbooks.

Ideology turbulences and conflicts seem inevitably to be found behind the complex

phenomena and multidimensional levels of education reform in Taiwan. Some serious educational problems are also caused by the imbalance between ideas of deregulation and norms, efficiency and social justice, internationalization and localization, policies of competitiveness-driven and equity-directed, competition from the equilibrium and transformation orientations, and power struggles among private sectors, parents, teachers, schools, interest groups, professionals and government officials.

The reform of education, directed by internationalization or globalization, can no more ignore the local characteristics shaped by historical, social, political, economical and cultural factors, the so-called 'living spirit'. Decision-makers have to re-read the phenomenon of internationalization and globalization with a localization perspective, by the help from comparative education research. Otherwise new policies and practices of educational reform would rather cause undesirable consequences and causes unexpected huge damage to the target teachers and students, schools and universities, central and local education systems, and to the whole society and the future. We believe comparative educationist will do a great job in studying the dialect between internationalization (globalization) and localization, and the competitive claims between modernism and post-modernism, with the help of Social Cartography.

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International Comparison of Universities' Academic Staffs' Evaluation and Promotion Schemes: Some implications for Taiwan

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Abstract

This paper will focus on international comparison of universities' academic staffs' evaluation and promotion procedures and models. It is important to study systematically the various models (including the assessment of research, teaching, service, administration and management) of university faculty's evaluation and promotion, to identify the effects that national government (mainly through higher education policy) imposes on the universities, especially those national system models that are located at the core and that comprise the various stratifications in the world. The main aim of this research is to offer useful proposals to construct the evaluation and promotion system for Taiwan's academic staffs, from an international perspective. Hence, this paper will employ research methods such as historical research, document analysis, and comparative research to examine research reports and review crucial journal articles in order to analyze and compare the development, transformation and trends of the academic staffs' evaluation and promotion models in EC, OECD and those selected object-countries such as Australia, France, German, Japan, USA and UK, with a view to improving the scheme for evaluating and promoting academic staffs and researchers in Taiwan.

Introduction

Since the enactment of University Act in 1994, Taiwan universities' started to stress university autonomy, academic autonomy and professor's control over administration. Taiwan's centralized control system through Ministry of Education (MoE) over universities gradually decreased and MoE transformed as a funding and supervisor role. However, the 1994 University Act also caused some problems to academic staffs in universities, particularly their promotion procedure and criteria, in the name of democratization and autonomy of university, and resulted in a lot of administrative appeals and legal accusation against university authority or promotion committees, from those unsuccessful applicants. There are thus imperatives to improve the university's staffs' promotion scheme in Taiwan.

University faculty in Taiwan is classified into four levels, Lecture, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor and Professor. The staffs' promotion to higher level is decided either by University Committee of Promotion or by Ministry of Education's Committee of Academic Supervision. Since the promotion revision is very discipline-specific professional, and promotion procedures and criteria are very different among universities, there are many controversial issues

within the promotion scheme.

On the other hand, academics are commonly regarded as 'self-motivated', working within a highly favorable environment which enables them to pursue their aims in teaching, research, and service (Moses, 1986). They do not need controlling mechanisms, neither carrots nor sticks to spur them on to greater productivity because they are intrinsically motivated. In its pure form this concept of academics was exemplified for a long time in the German universities where there was no hierarchy within the professoriate. As McKeachi (1982: 7) maintained, academic staff enter college and university teaching 'because of the enjoyment they receive from scholarly pursuits, stimulation from colleagues and students, and the satisfaction of being appreciated and respected by others'.

Moses (1986) compared the promotion scheme of academic staff within the USA, Britain, Australia and New Zealand and found dissatisfaction with existing promotion practices in their institutions. Within the academic profession and within the academic work context all seven motivators are potentially present (Moses, 1986: 137):

(1) A sense of achievement can be obtained through teaching well, seeing students become proficient and excel, through research and publication and involvement in policy- and decision-making processes.

(2) Recognition is often provided by being asked to referee for a journal or for promotion applications, to supervise postgraduate students, to join a committee, or give a paper or address.

(3) The work itself - teaching, research and service/administration - is demanding intellectually and can present continuing challenges.

(4) Autonomy is such that each academic is largely responsible for the courses he/she teaches and for the research carried out. In addition the timetabling of all the different activities is influenced by his/her preferences.

(5) Advancement is possible by successful applications to positions at other universities and within the same institution through promotion.

(6) There is provision of growth opportunities through special studies programs or sabbatical leave, and through a flexible timetable and the relatively small amount of scheduled activities.

(7) Status is conferred by virtue of being a member of the university staff, at whatever rank, and through awards conferred by learned societies in recognition of one's scholarship.

Since 1980s, globalization has huge impacts on the management of Higher Education Institutes (HEIs). At the same time, when HEIs have more and more autonomy in teaching and research, they also require academics to raise their production in order to promote international competitiveness. Hence, academics cannot any more content with self-motivated pursuit. Academic staffs believe that research grants are more important but harder to get; pressure of publications is felt more acutely; faculty evaluations tend to focus on scholarly out-put and divert attention from teaching with the result that high competence in teaching may be neither attempted nor experienced. Promotion applicants are under the huge pressure of publication, because the

criteria for their promotion is one and one published articles. Particularly, autonomy is declining, particularly in teaching. Course committees, reviews, accreditation procedures, evaluation and general accountability measures may be perceived as limiting academics' traditional autonomy (Moses, 1986). Startup (1979) in his "*The University Teacher and His World*" pointed out that only 14 % university teachers indicated that they were satisfied with promotion procedures. Reasons for dissatisfaction were that teaching carried too little weight, and that in research publications quantity counted more than quality - findings echoed elsewhere (Boud and de Rome, 1983; Genn, 1982; Moses, 1986; Parker, 2008; Soliman et al., 1983). In a word, there are many complaints about the lack of weight for teaching in promotion decisions and about the focus on quantity of publications. This phenomenon has not changed.

The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE, 2003), for example, reviewed factors that affect appointment, retention and promotion of academic staff in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). Although some HEIs have put a lot of effort into their policies and practices, the HEIs have few appraisal, mentoring or career guidance schemes that are helpful. There is often a lack of transparency in appointment and promotion criteria and processes.

Academic staffs and researchers play a very important role in promoting national competitiveness by their teaching and research activities. Thus, their evaluation and promotion schemes are rather important part for raising high quality of higher education. An international comparative study on the construction of a 21st century academic profession system model is considered to be a top-research area for higher education research. Since universities' governance and finance, as well as teaching and research, have changed rapidly in recent decades, the academic profession is no exception in terms of the changes. It is worthwhile to make a comprehensive and comparative study of the formation, development, and reconstruction of the mechanism of universities' academic staffs' and researchers' evaluation and promotion schemes.

Research Aims and Methods

This research will focus on international comparison of universities' academic staffs' evaluation and promotion procedures and models. It is important to study systematically the various models (including the assessment of research, teaching, service, administration and management) of university faculty's evaluation and promotion, to identify the effects that national government (mainly through higher education policy) imposes on the universities, especially those national system models that are located at the core and that comprise the various stratifications in the world. The main aim of this research is to offer useful proposals to construct the evaluation and promotion system for Taiwan's academic staffs, from an international perspective. Hence, this paper employs research methods such as historical research, document analysis, and comparative research to examine research reports and review crucial journal articles in order to analyze and compare the development, transformation and trends of the academic staffs' evaluation and promotion models in EC, OECD and those selected object-countries such as Australia, France,

German, Japan, USA and UK, with a view to improving the scheme for evaluating and promoting academic staffs and researchers in Taiwan.

Universities' Academic Staffs' Evaluation Schemes

The UK's HEFCE argues that 'academics are an underpaid and over-burdened profession and that the things which once made the profession attractive – relative individual autonomy and the chance to pursue one's own interests – are being eroded for some staff by increasing workload and bureaucratic burdens' (HEFCE, 2003: 10). Mission statements tend to assert that both teaching and research are priorities but, in practice, most HEIs emphasized excellence in research, rather than teaching, in the criteria for evaluation. Full-time staffs were more likely to be encouraged to delegate some of their teaching responsibilities to part-time or hourly-paid staff than give up their administrative duties. Similarly it was routine in the more research-oriented HEIs for active researchers to relinquish their teaching to hourly-paid staff or postgraduate students (HEFCE, 2003: 11-12).

Since the evaluation scheme is recently developed, and its criteria and procedures are more like those employed in the promotion scheme, this paper will temperately puts more emphasis on the universities' academic staffs' promotion schemes.

Universities' Academic Staff's Promotion Schemes

University promotion criteria generally allow evidence from three primary areas of activity: research, administration and teaching (Hannan and Silver, 2000). All universities demand evidence of excellence for promotion. Criteria differ by what areas of excellence can be used to apply for a promotion at each level. For example, a teaching-led promotion would put its case primarily upon excellence in teaching. Many criteria require more than one area of excellence. The main differences come from how many areas are required, whether any particular areas (usually research) must be included and if additional evidence of activity to a minimal standard is required for other areas (Parker, 2008).

Parker (2008) investigated university promotion criteria for senior/principal lectures, readers and professors, in all 140 institutions in UK from 2007 to 2008. She classified university promotion criteria into 7 types as follows:

T1 *Role profile: the all-rounder*: This area is relatively new to universities. Role profiles list all the duties for each level of position and require that applicants show they are meeting all the criteria of their current level and most (usually 75 per cent) of the criteria for the next level in order to receive promotion. They do not explicitly weight or require any particular part of the job description be entirely met so long as, overall, 75 per cent of the description is met.

T2 *All-rounder with a specialism*: This category emphasizes a minimum satisfactory performance in all areas with exceptional performance in one or two areas. This approach allows candidates to select their particular areas of excellence from research, teaching and administration

without specifying any particular area. However, evidence of satisfactory achievement in all areas must also be met.

T3 *Specialist*: This approach requires applicants to demonstrate clear evidence of excellence in any one or two areas with no further requirements. It allows candidates complete control over the area chosen for their application. Excellence in one or two areas from research, teaching and, sometimes, administration is deemed sufficient without regard to performance in other areas.

T4 *Well-rounded teacher*: This model requires excellence in teaching with satisfactory or excellent performance in research and administration. It is extraordinarily rare to find teaching elevated over research in importance for promotion but it does occur in a few universities.

T5 *Researcher with other excellence taken into account*: This category requires applicants to demonstrate excellence in research but will take into account excellence in other areas such as teaching or administration. The key aspect of this category is that, while research is the primary means of determining promotion, a slightly lower level of excellence can be offset by excellence in other areas. For example, a candidate could submit evidence of excellence in research to a national, rather than international, standard if the application also included evidence of a high level of excellence in teaching.

T6 *Well-rounded researcher*: This category requires excellence in research with satisfactory performance in other areas. Performance in teaching and administration must only reach minimum thresholds. Showing particular excellence in these areas does not affect the primary measure of the application, which is research excellence.

T7 *Pure researcher:* This model requires applicants to demonstrate clear evidence of excellence in research alone with no regard at all for performance in teaching or administration.

Parker's (2008) research of promotion criteria for senior/principal lecturer was obtained from eighty-nine out of one hundred and fourteen universities. The results for senior/principal lectureships show evidence of rapid change in promotion criteria as well as remarkable levels of consensus. The vast majority (74 per cent) of universities use the categories of 'role profile' or 'all-rounder with a specialism' for this level of promotion. There are some differences between pre- and post-1992 universities. Pre-1992 universities prefer the 'all-rounder with a specialism' (44 percent) closely followed by role profile (29 per cent). The reverse is true of post-1992 universities, with more (46 per cent) preferring the 'role profile' closely followed by 'all-rounder with a specialism' (30 per cent). The most remarkable result is that only ten universities use criteria that formally privilege teaching (3) or research (7). The second remarkable pattern is the rapid adoption of role profiles among both types of universities, though more predominantly in post-1992 institutions. This form of criteria is relatively new, and works as a formal criterion provides equity between teaching and research.

The results for readerships show a strong trend towards research oriented criteria, since traditionally academics view the post of reader, by its very title and its history, as referring exclusively to research activity. The most common category in Parker's (2008) investigation was

the 'pure researcher' with just under 40% for both new and old universities. The two main categories for readerships, the 'pure researcher' and 'well-rounded researcher', accounted for just over half (57 %) of the total with a greater spread of universities across the different categories. Universities also differed more clearly by type. Forty-five per cent of pre-1992 universities used the more research oriented categories, the 'well-rounded researcher' and 'research with other excellence taken into account', but only 21 % of post-1992 institutions did so. Correspondingly, 39% of new universities used 'specialist' or 'role profile' categories while only 25% of old universities did so. Noticeably, no university adopted 'well-rounded teacher' model, which means these universities put more emphasis on research.

Finally, the results for professorships show little consensus over particular types of criteria but a very clear division between pre- and post-1992 universities. Criteria for promotion to professor show that fewer than half of universities provide formal equality between teaching and research. Most universities adopted *Researcher with other excellence taken into account* (28%), particularly the per cent of the pre-1992 universities is 35 %. The second category is *Well-rounded researcher* (20%). Every single category shows very strong differences between old and new universities with the proportions type. However, the research orientation is most manifest.

In brief, university promotion criteria for senior/principal lectures, readers and professors, in higher education institutions in UK, takes different levels of academic staffs into consideration, particularly between teaching oriented senior/principal lectures and research oriented readers and professors. And there are multiple promotion criteria among new and old universities. The research result from Parker's investigation is worthwhile for Taiwan's national scheme of promotion and respective university's scheme of promotion.

On the other hand, for the researchers' promotion scheme, European Commission admits that since the lacking of an open and transparent internal labor market for researchers and no comparable research career structures, the researchers' labor market is fragmented nationally and research careers frequently lack a clear and transparent prospective (2011: 1). Therefore, based on the European Qualifications Framework and Bologna Framework for Qualifications in the European Higher Education Area), European Commission (2011) proposes a 'European Framework for Research Careers', which describes four broad profiles, with the following working titles:

R1 First Stage Researcher (up to the point of PhD)

R2 Recognised Researcher (PhD holders or equivalent who are not yet fully independent)

R3 Established Researcher (researchers who have developed a level of independence.)

R4 Leading Researcher (researchers leading their research area or field)

The Framework is 'sector-neutral'. The descriptors apply to all researchers, independent of where they work in the private or public sector: in companies, NGOs, research institutes, research universities or universities of applied sciences. Regardless of any particular profession one can outline broad profiles that describe the different characteristics researchers may possess.

The Framework identifies both necessary and desirable characteristics, which could be applicable across a wide range of careers, including those in higher education, the private and public sectors (EC, 2011: 6-11). The necessary competences focus on those that are associated directly with research activity regardless of whether it is in the public or private sector. Clearly there are other skills that are sector dependent and are classified under the heading of desirable competences. These would include business culture and management skills (market oriented knowledge). The desirable competences are provided as examples, not as an exhaustive list.

First of all, the starting career is R1 'First Stage Researcher'. This profile includes individuals doing research under supervision in industry, research institutes or universities. It includes doctoral candidates. Researchers with this profile will include the following necessary competences:

• Carry out research under supervision

• Have the ambition to develop knowledge of research methodologies and discipline

• Have demonstrated a good understanding of a field of study

• Have demonstrated the ability to produce data under supervision

• Be capable of critical analysis, evaluation and synthesis of new and complex ideas

• Be able to explain the outcome of research and value thereof to research colleagues

First Stage Researcher's 'desirable competences' include developing integrated language, communication and environment skills, especially in an international context.

The second rank, R2 'Recognised Researcher' includes doctorate degree (PhD) holders who have not yet established a significant level of independence, and researchers with an equivalent level of experience and competence. R2 must have the following necessary competences, besides all competences of 'First Stage Researcher':

• Has demonstrated a systematic understanding of a field of study and mastery of research associated with that field

• Has demonstrated the ability to conceive, design, implement and adapt a substantial programme of research with integrity

• Has made a contribution through original research that extends the frontier of knowledge by developing a substantial body of work, innovation or application. This could merit national or international refereed publication or patent.

• Demonstrates critical analysis, evaluation and synthesis of new and complex ideas

• Can communicate with their peers - be able to explain the outcome of their research and value thereof to the research community

• Takes ownership for and manages own career progression, sets realistic and achievable career goals, identifies and develops ways to improve employability

• Co-authors papers at workshop and conferences

The desirable competences of R2 include:

• Understands the agenda of industry and other related employment sectors

• Understands the value of their research work in the context of products and services from industry and other related employment sectors

• Can communicate with the wider community, and with society generally, about their areas of expertise

• Can be expected to promote, within professional contexts, technological, social or cultural advancement in a knowledge based society

• Can mentor First Stage Researchers, helping them to be more effective and successful in their R&D trajectory.

R3 Established Researcher is referred to those researchers who have developed a level of independence. Their necessary competences, besides all necessary and most desirable competences of 'Recognised Researcher', include:

• Has an established reputation based on research excellence in their field

• Makes a positive contribution to the development of knowledge, research and development through co-operations and collaborations

• Identifies research problems and opportunities within their area of expertise

• Identifies appropriate research methodologies and approaches

• Conducts research independently which advances a research agenda

• Can take the lead in executing collaborative research projects in cooperation with colleagues and project partners

• Publishes papers as lead author, organises workshop or conference sessions

The desirable competences of R3 include:

• Establishes collaborative relationships with relevant industry research or development groups

• Communicates their research effectively to the research community and wider society

• Is innovative in their approach to research

• Can form research consortia and secure research funding / budgets / resources from research councils or industry

• Is committed to professional development of their own career and acts as mentor for others.

The final rank, R4 'Leading Researcher' is a researcher leading their research area or field. It would include the team leader of a research group or head of an industry R&D laboratory. In particular disciplines as an exception, leading researchers may include individuals who operate as lone researchers. They have all necessary and most desirable competences of 'Established Researcher', and their necessary competences include:

• Has an international reputation based on research excellence in their field

• Demonstrates critical judgment in the identification and execution of research activities

• Makes a substantial contribution (breakthroughs) to their research field or spanning multiple areas

• Develops a strategic vision on the future of the research field

• Recognises the broader implications and applications of their research

• Publishes and presents influential papers and books, serves on workshop and conference organising committees and delivers invited talks

The desirable competences of R4 include:

• Is an expert at managing and leading research projects

• Is skilled at managing and developing others

• Has a proven record in securing significant research funding / budgets / resources

• Beyond team building and collaboration, focusing on long-term team planning (e.g. career paths for the researchers and securing funding for the team positions)

• Is an excellent communicator and networker within and outside the research community (creating networks)

• Is able to create an innovative and creative environment for research

• Acts as a professional development role model for others.

The four kinds of researchers proposed by EC must demonstrate their necessary and desirable competences. These characteristics, behaviors, conducts and competences of researchers can work as criteria for evaluation and promotion and parallel to lectures, assistant professors, associate professors and professors in HEIs.

The Potential Tensions within the Academic Staffs' Evaluation and Promotion Schemes

There are some potential tensions within the academic staffs' evaluation and promotion schemes which need to be taken into account if we expect to develop and improve the evaluation and promotion schemes.

First of all, too much emphasis on the quantity of research and neglecting research quality, and even resulting in academic cheating. Moses (1986) in his research found that more than half of the interviewed staff admitted that they were influenced, and tried to spend more time on research, in particular on writing or researching for publication. However, staffs admitted to a temptation to publish at a standard which is below what could be achieved if one were not trying to chalk up publications; to a tendency to do short-term research; to publishing of insignificant data. Probationary staffs in particular have heard the message and many mentioned that they are ordering their priorities as the university seems to demand - most effort into research and writing, less into teaching, even less to service to the community. HEFCE (2003) finds that Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) since 1986 has huge impacts on promotion of academic staff. One desired effect of the RAE has been increased output of published research. However, many informants are insistent that this has had a detrimental effect on quality of research, not least because often research is presented for publication before there has been sufficient time for reflection (HEFCE, 2003: 18). Youn and Price study the promotion rules in American comprehensive institutions and find that over 50% of the comprehensive faculty report that

publications used for promotion at their institution were 'just counted, not qualitatively measured' (2009: 218)。Besides, one main reason for academic cheating is the heavy pressure for academics and researchers to publish for their fixed-term evaluation and promotion. So they take the risk and cause those severe research problems.

Second, the university actively encourages research through rewards and incentives and staff have perceived this correctly. The university also strives to give teaching due recognition by demanding superior performance in teaching and gathering evaluation data from a variety of sources. Nevertheless, academic staff perceived teaching to be under-valued and concluded from this that the University is not concerned enough about the standard of teaching. Dearing Report on Higher Education found that only 3% of academics thought the system rewarded excellence in teaching (NCIHE, 1997). There is currently a strong movement in the UK to strengthen rewards for teaching excellence in universities (DfES, 2003; Gibbs, 1995; Gibbs and Habeshaw, 2003; Greenbank, 2006). This emphasis on teaching, however, came under pressure with the expansion of selectivity in research funding through the Research Assessment Exercise, which prompted universities to more actively manage their research. However, it is clear that good teaching alone is rarely sufficient to gain promotion, even in those HEIs that presented themselves as predominantly teaching organizations (HEFCE, 2003: 18). The perceived impact of the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) is considerable in decisions made about an individual's promotion. The terms of the RAE are widely perceived to promote quantity rather than quality in research. The effect of the RAE has been to exaggerate the perceived importance of research (and publications) and, in some HEIs, to diminish the perceived value of teaching and supporting students' learning (HEFCE, 2003: 11).

Most universities now publicly proclaim their commitment to teaching through documents such as mission statements, learning and teaching strategies and human resource strategies. In addition to this symbolic support, higher education has undergone tangible improvements in teacher training, professional development and career progression for both research-only and teaching-only staff. Despite this public endorsement, universities' commitment to teaching remains ambiguous in the face of its historically subordinate status to research and the intense pressure to increase research productivity driven by the Research Assessment Exercise, a peer review exercise to evaluate the quality of research in UK higher education institutions (Parker, 2008). Research from the United States demonstrates that even liberal arts colleges, which built their reputations on their emphasis on teaching excellence, moved to adopt the more traditional university preferences for research and scholarship as criteria for academic advancement (Fairweather, 2002, 2005; Massey, 2003).

Academics believe that teaching is undervalued by promotion committees. This article categorizes the different criteria and weightings used to determine promotions in UK universities. The criteria were analyzed to determine the extent to which they recognize research and teaching equally as evidence for promotion. The results show that universities have largely adopted formal

parity in the criteria for senior and principal lecturers. However, for the higher and more prestigious ranks of reader and professor most universities exclusively require research excellence and do not allow similar applications based on teaching activities.

Third, where the dominant priority was research, those with heavy teaching loads felt less valued, and similarly in predominantly teaching institutions, those trying to establish a research culture sometimes felt marginalized and undervalued (HEFCE, 2003: 12). In the UK, the traditional dominance of research over teaching in most universities' career structures has been well documented (Coate, Barnette, and Williams, 2001). Hannan and Silver (2000) noted that teaching was much more prominent in the criteria for senior or principal lecturer. Teaching and administrative excellence, combined with 'adequate' research, would often be accepted for promotion at this level. At the level of reader and professor teaching might be taken into account but it is research that really determines the success of the application. These upper-level titles were largely reserved as rewards for research. Parker's (2008) survey confirms this characterization of promotion criteria by Hannan and Silver (2000). After many years of public calls to improve the status of teaching in higher education, university promotion criteria do formally recognize teaching equally with research at the level of senior or principal lecturer. However, this formal parity does not apply to the higher ranks, with fewer than half of universities taking teaching activities into account equally with research for applications to professorships and barely over a quarter for applications to readerships.

Fourth, not all universities have explicit policies and procedures related to staff appointments and promotions although most address some aspects such as procedures for interviewing. Certainly there is lack of transparency in HEIs that have adopted more 'flexible' approaches to promotion and conditions of service. Some staffs have to negotiate their promotion. And some universities adopt fast-track promotion scheme which is more benefit for those research stars. Many stakeholders in HEFCE's investigation have commented on the lack of transparent promotions procedures as well as a lack of internal promotion opportunities and reward systems. One stakeholder even stated that promotion procedures in higher education are '*shrouded in secrecy*' (2003: 12). Besides, some junior staffs' career progress and promotion may rely on the support of the professoriate. Although 80% of respondents to the email survey reported that their HEIs had promotion policies applicable to permanent and fixed-term/part-time staff, only 14% said they had such policies for hourly-paid staff. A third of respondents had fixed promotions criteria that were applied across all departments, but well over half adopted more flexible criteria. Policies and practices that support the promotion of high quality academic staffs were more directed towards career advancement or to the smooth running of the institution, such as transparent and objective criteria for promotion, quality assessment of teaching skills of promotion candidates, in-house job evaluation, appraisal scheme, and rotation of staff - reward for temporary responsibility.

Accommodating Potential Tensions within Evaluation and Promotion Schemes

Any proposed strategies and policies will have to recognize the need to balance and accommodate certain tensions in HEIs. They should also take account of the diversity within the HE sector, within individual HEIs and within departments. Staffs in HEIs demonstrate diversity in their strengths, in their contributions to their institution, and in their individual aspirations. There is therefore no simple panacea for those potential tensions, although policies at national, institutional and even departmental level can help. Examining some of the tensions and internal contradictions in the literatures collected may contribute to development of appropriate policies at national and local level.

Research and administration vs teaching

University promotion criteria generally allow evidence from three primary areas of activity: research, administration and teaching (Hannan and Silver, 2000). However, the dominance of research activities as criteria for recognition, reward, selection and promotion has the effect of squeezing out effort on teaching – the latter is sometimes seen as detrimental to career progress. In UK, the RAE sharpens this tension. The alternative route to advancement is administration/management, which is similarly incompatible with either substantial teaching or research. Despite various mission statements, teaching is therefore the least extrinsically rewarded activity in HEIs. Are there ways of encouraging good teachers to develop their careers without moving away from direct contact with students?

In the past, rewards in higher education – particularly promotion – have been linked much more closely to research than to teaching. Indeed, teaching has been seen by some as an extra source of income to support the main business of research, rather than recognized as a valuable and high-status career in its own right. This is a situation that cannot continue. Institutions must properly reward their best teaching staff; and all those who teach must take their task seriously (DfES, 2003, p. 51). The future policy planned for academics' evaluation and promotion has to take the conflict between research and teaching, and administration or service into account and give 'parity of esteem' between research and teaching (Hanson, 2003; Henkel, 2000; Lynch, 2001; Parker, 2008).

Research cultures vs. quality provision

Academic staffs are under pressure to be successful members of the research culture. HEIs struggling to enhance their research output may release teaching staffs to engage in research by also taking on part-time and/or casual and peripheral staffs. This has implications both for the quality of the services provided for students and for potential exploitation of staffs. How can methods of funding higher education better reflect quality of teaching as a priority for students and staffs? The promotion scheme has to recognize formal parity and quality between research and teaching as accepted areas of evidence, at least at the first and second level of promotion, i.e.

lectures and assistant professors.

Academe vs. practitioner focus

The dilemma here is whether to concentrate on 'academic' research or to encourage links with industry, external professions and bodies. The two approaches are rarely found together within the same unit. The first approach gains more recognition and 'reputation' – at the individual level this leads to rapid career advancement. The second may be more lucrative for the individual in terms of consultancy for industry and business but less so for those in lower paid professions who need to maintain contact with practitioners to retain their credibility as teachers. The question remains for institutions who wish to recruit and retain high quality staffs about how to acknowledge and respond to the different contexts in which they are working.

Individualism vs. team/collegial values

The best way to gain the so-called merit-based rewards and become a 'star' is to behave selfishly. This may produce a research star who offers poor role models for cooperation and collaboration. The rewards for a team player within an HEI may be less than the rewards for a 'star'. At the same time the notion of collegiality and close collaboration is cherished among academics sharing the same discipline – but this embodies recognition of individual freedom and autonomy. It would be helpful to iron out some of the policy contradictions that encourage individualism and competition at the cost of collegiality.

Autonomy vs. control

Academics are attracted by the large degree of autonomy. However, there is often difficulty in ensuring responsibility and accountability. Introducing control mechanisms inhibits that autonomy and can reduce creativity. Academics profess to prefer inclusive styles of governance. They generally accept guidance from well respected academic leaders who treat them as peers. However, the modern competitive type, influenced by neo-liberal accountability idea, by introducing tighter management systems into universities may address some problems but weakens trust, collegiality and autonomy.

Nonetheless, as the chief executive of HEFCE said: "University research is central to the knowledge-based economy. But so are other essential activities: teaching and learning, knowledge transfer, the broader contributions that all of higher education makes to civil society in our communities and regions." (HEFGC, 2003: 33) Whether academic staffs or researchers, their evaluation and promotion schemes must take into account the potential tensions discussed here, such as research and administration vs teaching, research cultures vs quality provision, academe vs practitioner focus, individualism vs team/collegial values, and autonomy vs control.

Conclusions

The major drives to promote research in universities and the concomitant funding priorities have resulted in staffing policies that undermine the importance of teaching. Teaching and therefore students' educational experiences are undervalued by the dominance of research and administration in our very competitive higher education culture. Unless teaching is sufficiently valued, students will be seen as interrupting the smooth progress of an institution. Where student progress is perceived as the main reason for universities, administration supports their development and research enriches the culture.

The findings of this study, whether evaluation criteria, 7 categories of promotion criteria, 4 types of researcher, or the potential tensions and ways of accommodating, all are useful in order to improve the present schemes of evaluation and promotion for academic staffs and researchers in universities and research institutions in Taiwan.

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