PILOT PROJECT ON REGIONAL CO-OPERATION
IN REFORMING HIGHER EDUCATION

(SPONSORED BY EC/PHARE)

SEMINAR II: MOBILITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Tallinn, Estonia, 26 to 28 April 1994
European Commission PHARE OECD

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Paris 1994

COMPLETE DOCUMENT AVAILABLE ON OLIS IN ITS ORIGINAL FORMAT
The opinions expressed and arguments employed in this publication are the sole responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the European Commission, the participating PHARE countries, the OECD or of the governments of its Member countries.

Applications for permission to reproduce or translate all or part of this material should be made to: Head of Publications Service, OECD, 2 rue André Pascal, 75775 Paris Cedex 16, France.

Copyright EC/Phare / OECD, 1994
Foreword

The success of economic transition depends, among other factors, on popular support, and education and training can contribute to achieve this end. If the current trend of economic reform is to be successful, it will require a change in attitudes and development of new management and decision-making skills. The pace of change can be accelerated if reforms of education are demand-led and include a wider use of competency-based learning systems that focus on achieving specific outcomes that meet the new requirements of a market-based economy in a democratic society.

A long-standing activity of the Centre for Co-operation with the Economies in Transition has been focused on the interrelation between education and the economy in central and eastern Europe. This activity has been carried out in co-operation with the Directorate for Education, Employment, Labour and Social Affairs and has addressed specific short- and long-term problems identified by the CEECs, leading to a series of education reviews and follow-up seminars. The CEECs’ problems in changing their educational systems in order to meet the new needs of the economy are different from those of OECD and European Union Member countries, but there are some similarities in the approach. For instance, there is a need to clarify at the outset the policy agenda for reform and to bring about changes in institutions and patterns of thinking and behaviour.

This series of five seminars on higher education has been made possible by a grant from the European Commission PHARE on themes selected by the CEECs with the twin objectives of promoting the regional co-operation necessary for establishing viable systems and policy for higher education for the transitional and post-transitional periods; and discerning the areas in which PHARE can make a valuable investment in higher education programmes in 1995 and beyond.

This, the second seminar of the series, dealt with the question of student and staff mobility as a means of enhancing the higher education systems of the region.

I should like to thank the Ministry of Education and Sport of the Republic of Slovenia, the Ministry of Culture and Education of the Republic of Estonia, the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Romania, the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Poland, and the Ministry of Education and Science of the Slovak Republic for their assistance in the realisation of this project. Further thanks are due to the many experts in the OECD, European Union and CEEC countries that have contributed papers to this series of seminars.

This is published on the responsibility of the Secretary-General of the OECD.

Salvatore Zecchini
OECD Assistant Secretary-General
Director of the CCET
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Rapporteur’s Report by Roger Waterhouse ........................................ 5

Part I

Mobility in Higher Education
Tallinn, Estonia, 26-28 April 1994

Seminar Papers

Global and Regional Trends for Internationalisation by Guy Neave ............. 16
Trends and Issues in Academic Co-operation by Alan Smith ..................... 24
Internationalisation as a Process of Educational Change by Marijk van der Wende .............. 37
Mobility for Central and Eastern Europe:
    The ERASMUS Model and the TEMPUS Experience by Lesley Wilson ............. 49

Part II

Country Reports

Estonia

Specific Aspects of Student and Staff Mobility by Jaak Aaviksoo ................... 57

Poland

Mobility of Students and Academic Teachers:
    Difficulties, Trends and Prospects by Jerzy Wiśniewski ........................ 63

Slovak Republic

The Importance of a Non-Governmental Organisation in the
    System of Education and International Co-operation by Olga Šubeníková ............ 70
Regional Co-operation in Higher Education

Strategic Seminar on Mobility
Tallinn, Estonia, 26-28 April 1994

RAPPORTEUR’S REPORT

The report on the seminar as a whole was written by Professor Roger Waterhouse. The workshop sessions dealt with the following topics:

-- Institutional strategies for internationalisation.
-- Government strategies for internationalisation.
-- Mechanisms at the institutional level and the infrastructure for staff and student mobility.

The context of the region

It is necessary to recognise both the similarities and differences between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CEECs). In the course of discussions a variety of issues emerged as being commonly shared in the context for higher education in the region.

Language

None of the countries in the region has an international language as its mother tongue. There is no common language in general use across the region. As a result, the need to learn an international language or languages is widely recognised in the countries of the region. This in its turn predisposes both the citizens and the higher education systems towards internationalism.

Policy instability

Whilst there is a general recognition in the countries of the region that higher education should be planned as a long term project, the political reality is often one of instability and rapid change. When combined with gross economic uncertainty, long term planning at institutional or system level becomes extremely difficult, if not impossible.

Central planning versus strategic steer

Each of the countries shares a Communist past which has been rejected. This has left a profound distrust of all central planning. In recent years different countries have diversified away from this past in different directions, encouraging experimentation and change. Whilst there has been a willingness to look to the West for answers, few such answers have been generally accepted and equally applied in the CEECs. The picture therefore is now one of diversity, as well as dynamic change.
In the European Union the issue of diversity, both within and between countries is well recognised and valued. At a national level the distinction is often made between strategic steer at the governmental level and detailed implementation by planning at the level of the autonomous university. No such distinction is generally accepted in Central and Eastern Europe.

*University autonomy*

There is a strong and widespread belief that universities must assert their academic autonomy, and considerable concern that this may be difficult to reconcile with national governmental policies. A tension is likely to exist for the foreseeable future between any governmental strategic steer and local response at the level of the university.

*Role of higher education*

No consensus exists in the countries of the region about the appropriate role of higher education in society and the economy. Whilst there is a general belief that higher training is necessary, many national governments do not see this as a priority when set against more immediate economic needs. The analysis commonly accepted in the European Union, which relates higher education to the need for a highly skilled labour force in the world market place, is not commonly accepted in Central and Eastern Europe, either in government or in the universities.

*Higher education policy and practice*

Whilst many of the countries in the region have had strong debates about higher education, even in those countries where a clear policy has been adopted by government, the debate continues about the medium to long-term future. This debate affects not only the role of higher education, but fundamental practical issues such as the proportion of the age cohort which should proceed to higher education, the appropriate length of courses, the nature of the curriculum, the number of hours per week to be spent by students in class, the appropriate level of resourcing, etc.

*Value of higher education to the individual*

Rapid social and economic change have not only undermined the status of academics in society, but have depressed their economic position and led young people to question the personal value of higher education. In some countries of the region partially trained students can quite easily earn more than their professors.

*Uncertain mission of institutions*

In many universities and in some national systems there is serious lack of clarity about the mission of higher education institutions. For example, whilst it is widely recognised that universities have concentrated upon theoretical studies at the expense of practical applications, there are differing views about the appropriate response to this. In some cases new courses are proposed which will be less theoretical but taught within the existing institutions. In others separate institutions are being founded in order to promote higher practical studies. In both cases there is no clear view about the relationship of the more theoretical programmes of study to the labour market either now or in the future. Moreover, the separation of the theoretical from the practical leads to a segmentation and lack of flexibility in the highly trained workforce.
**Research policy**

It was a common feature of the Eastern Bloc systems that research was not pursued in universities, which were teaching institutions. Instead it was centralised in Academies of Science. A reaction against this artificial separation has been universal throughout the region. It is generally believed that whilst there may be a place for separate research institutes, research must also be part of the essential business of a university. However, there is less clarity about research policy in the broad sense, i.e. which types of research projects should be prioritised as against others, or what types of research are worthy of governmental support in strained circumstances. There is no generally accepted view of the role of research in economic regeneration, nor sufficient structural mechanisms to ensure that investment in research produces the anticipated economic benefit.

**Relations with industry**

The frequent lack of clarity about the economic role of higher education combines with rapid changes in the redevelopment of a market economy to produce considerable confusion about the appropriate future relationship between universities and industry. This exacerbates the difficulty of developing the relationship between universities and the labour markets.

**Underfunding and structural problems**

There is a universal belief that higher education is grossly underfunded. This is demonstrated by citing the inadequacy of facilities and equipment, the low level of academic salaries, the poor state of university buildings, etc.

Nevertheless, this perceived underfunding is accompanied by structures and practices which, from a western European perspective, appear grossly inefficient. This is amply demonstrated by indicators such as the number of academic staff per student, the total number of university employees per student, the proportion of budget spent on academic staff salaries, etc. As a service industry, higher education is as much in need of structural reform as many other branches of the economy.

**Western funding**

Clearly participants in the conference were representative of the region in seeing Western funding as a potential lever to alleviate many of their problems. There was, however, no clear consensus about the most effective way of spending limited funds to maximise the value added and promote long term self sustaining development.

**Demand and benefits of mobility**

The removal of the Iron Curtain and the political changes which accompanied it produced great interest amongst university staff and students alike to visit their counterparts in the West. The world of learning is an international world and many saw such mobility as a renewal of opportunities which had been artificially suppressed. However, there was a common problem of lack of money to support such journeys and in the early days an absence of hard currency (though this has now become less of an issue).

Potential funders of such travel have rightly asked how the benefits of such mobility were to be maximised, particularly in terms of their impact on economic regeneration and the re-establishment of democratic processes. Such questions are notoriously difficult to answer and whilst some academics would
consider fraternisation with their colleagues in the international community as a self evident good, that attitude is less than convincing to potential funders interested in economic and political spin off.

Differential benefits accrue from staff travel as against student travel, from movement East to West as against West to East, and from movement within the region of Central and Eastern Europe.

**Staff mobility**

**East to West**

The general view of delegates was that the over-riding and immediate need was for staff mobility, particularly from East to West. The most efficient and effective way of learning about Western policies and their practical implementation was to visit and see them in action. The individual academic thereby gained access to a range of individuals and institutions to an extent that could not be duplicated by travel in the reverse direction. The issue in maximising the benefit to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe was one of dissemination when the individual returned home. As TEMPUS Joint European Projects (JEPs) had shown, effective dissemination was best achieved through structures which persist through time, but there was also an issue of volume. Clearly if only one or two individuals had the benefit of travel to the West, the country or region as a whole would not achieve the critical mass of change agents to make possible the changes in higher education culture which were necessary.

The benefits which visitors to the West brought back were various. They included an appreciation of Western ways of structuring and organising higher education, different views about management in the higher education sector, ideas about curriculum design, pedagogic methods and student relations, and (what most academics see as critically important) subject development and the enhancement of research.

In terms of the objectives of the PHARE Programme movement of academics in management positions from East to West would probably have the greatest benefit in the short term, provided this took place within structured programmes which would persist, and accompanied by mechanisms for dissemination in the home countries.

**West to East**

The movement of staff from West to East had the potential advantage of exposing larger numbers of staff and students in the region to Western ideas and practices, but at a lower level of intensity. Discussion tended to focus upon the value of the Western academic coming as teacher. In this role there was clearly seen to be a benefit which could not be achieved in any other way. However, the benefit was greatest where Western academics stayed for a significant period of time (minimally one semester). There is the question of the language of instruction to be used. The general view was that in most countries of the region programmes would develop in which English was the language of instruction. This would facilitate access to the international world of learning by home students and the participation of students from other countries in the life of home universities. Staff movement from West to East could well be an integral part of such programmes.
Student mobility

East to West

The benefits of student travel from East to West were likely to be disseminated widely through the economy and society of the home countries, though over a longer period of time. There was no real substitute for exposure of young people to another culture at a formative period of their lives. Even for older students such exposure could profoundly affect their ways of thinking. There was general agreement, therefore, that student travel to the West for the purposes of study would be of enormous long term benefit to the countries of the region and the future economic and political welfare of Europe as a whole. There was an equally strong view that such movement should take place within properly planned and structured programmes and not be left to individual and *ad hoc* arrangements, however attractive these may be to the more adventurous students.

Language barriers

However, there were significant barriers to such student mobility. The first of these was language. Significant effort and resources have to be put in to the proper linguistic training of students before visiting Western countries. As part of this, some induction to the culture of the country they would be visiting would also be necessary. There was a need to ensure within the national systems of the region that serious language learning began no later than secondary education and well before entry into higher education.

Absence of credit recognition

A second and potentially major impediment to the development of student mobility on a significant scale was the current failure of home universities to recognise the studies taken abroad as worthy of credit towards the home diploma or degree. For example, there is a major problem of credit recognition across national frontiers. This applies both between East and West and within the countries of the region. It was recognised in discussion that similar problems affected student mobility within the European Union and that much work had been done on this, not least through the European Community Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS) and the system of National Academic Recognition Information Centres (NARICs). It was felt that these experiences are ones which should be shared with colleagues in the East. At the moment most students returning from the West receive no academic credit for studies undertaken there and are forced to prolong their course of study. It was not a simple matter to decide to give credit, but related to more complex questions of reform of the curriculum, the introduction of more flexible course structures and the re-examination of regulations for the award of degrees and diplomas.

Some countries in the region were actively examining credit accumulation systems as a way of restructuring higher education. If successfully implemented these could only increase student flexibility, not least their ability to respond to the unpredictable future needs of the labour market. In some of the countries there was a strong interest in joining ECTS as a structured way of progressing these developments.

Finance

A further barrier to student movement from East to West was financial. The high cost of travel and big differentials in costs of living were apparent to everyone. Less obvious, though no less real, was the issue of tuition fees. There were very wide discrepancies between the countries of the European Union in the extent to which they charged for tuition, related to the very different patterns of funding higher education in the different countries. This was a particular problem in relation to the UK and, since English
is by far the most studied international language in the region, a potential inhibition on the development of any significant volume of student movement. It was noted that the ERASMUS Programme, which has been highly successful in moving very large numbers of students between the countries of the European Union, is based upon reciprocal student exchange, e.g. approximate equal movement of students in each direction. This was not the case with exchanges under the TEMPUS Programme, nor is it perhaps realistic to expect that the flow of students from West to East might match that from East to West in the foreseeable future. For these reasons the issue of fees imbalance might be a major inhibition to the development of student mobility.

Danger of "Brain Drain"

A further issue which was raised was that of potential "brain drain". There is evidence in some countries that a significant proportion of students who went to the West as part of their programme of studies did not return to their home country. Clearly this was not only of no benefit to the home country but actually a loss. There was no obvious solution to this problem.

Accommodation

A final inhibition on student mobility which was noted was that of housing. As with fees, there were very different policies on student housing in the different countries of the European Union. This meant that some countries whether for reasons of cost or of simple availability of appropriate residences, were very difficult for students from Central and Eastern Europe to access.

Postgraduate students

Many of the above problems were more easily overcome in the case of postgraduate students, particularly those engaged in research. It was easier for such students to make individual arrangements to ensure that tuition was on a one-to-one basis and conducted in a common language, usually English. They were older and tended to be more mature. They represented an important earning potential and were more likely to be able to solve the financial and social problems than undergraduate students. However, they were clearly the high risk group in terms of the potential "brain drain".

West to East

As already noted, for the foreseeable future there is likely to be a much lower level of demand for student mobility from West to East. Most delegates, however, welcomed a leavening of students from the West as a way of internationalising their campuses. Several programmes already existed where the language of instruction was English and others were being planned. Many home students would not travel to the West for part of their studies and this is a way of exposing them to Western ideas and experience. It also helped in the preparation of those home students who were planning to study abroad. Some delegates saw a particular virtue in bringing in foreign staff to teach both on international programmes but also on mainstream courses using an international language as the means of instruction.

Student mobility within the region

Student movement within the region was raised as an issue for consideration. Many delegates had difficulty in seeing how such mobility would support the aims of the PHARE Programme. It was not at all clear that the benefits of such movement would help with the development of market economies or
political reform. Nevertheless, such movement could promote the general aim of internationalism and might be particularly appropriate where it involved cross border co-operation within a sub-region.

Given that there was no international language in the region, this presented even more of an issue for inter-regional mobility than it did for mobility to some of the countries in the European Union. There were old networks between universities from before the recent reforms and some of these could be reactivated. However there was some doubt as to whether this was an appropriate thing to do, not least in view of subsequent political and personnel changes. Some delegates thought reactivation might be particularly appropriate in non technologically-based subjects, where access to the West did not bring with it a particular technological advantage. There is still a question of how such movement would be funded and whether the consequent benefits would justify the cost. There was general agreement that such inter-regional mobility could complement, but in no way should be a substitute for, mobility with the West.

**Mechanisms of mobility**

**National mechanisms**

There was considerable debate about the best way of organising the mechanisms of student mobility at the national level. Given the strong distrust of central planning and the environment of rapid political change, many delegates felt there was a prima facie case for locating the responsibility for international mobility at the level of the autonomous university. This was seen to be a virtue in the way in which the ERASMUS Programme had been structured in the countries of the European Union. There was concern that any centralised system created dangers of patronage, favouritism, or political interference which raised spectres of the rejected past. The concerns which were expressed were bound up with the lack of any agreement to distinguish strategic direction from operational planning. They also reflected the early stage of the structural debate about the appropriate role of higher education in economy and society.

**Non-governmental organisations**

The possibility of establishing national non-governmental organisations to co-ordinate international mobility was explored as a possible solution to this distrust of government. The example of the Slovak Academic Information Agency (SAIA) was taken as a potential model. This seemed to be working well and it was accepted that the model might be appropriate in certain other specific cases. Its benefits were that it was a non-political and non-governmental organisation. It had the capacity to inform and co-ordinate separate universities. It also had the ability to receive private donations and money from charitable sources, as well as to organise volunteers from abroad on a national basis.

Its drawbacks were that non-governmental organisations have no history in the countries of the region, they have an uncertain legal basis and they are not yet understood by potential users. From the side of government there is a suspicion that they may diminish governmental powers without also assuming the necessary responsibilities. From the side of universities there is a suspicion that they might be as susceptible to patronage and other undesirable influences as the government itself. There was considerable scepticism about the value added by establishing an intermediary organisation between government and the universities and no support for it if this leads to a reduction in the funds available to the individual university for mobility.

**University level**

There was some discussion about the appropriate way of organising international matters within the individual university and to some extent the debate reflected the arguments about centralisation versus
decentralisation at the national level. There were those who favoured a complete departmental autonomy and others who stressed the value of an international office in informing and co-ordinating university activities. It was clear that different universities would adopt different models and that this would be related to size.

Major issues

Recognition of credit

The need to give credit for periods of study undertaken abroad has already been recognised. Action can be taken at local, national or international level.

University level

At the level of the individual university a policy decision is necessary that in principle credit will be given for foreign studies. However, this needs to be implemented at the level of the department. It has been found within the ERASMUS Programme that where departments require close correspondence on a syllabus-by-syllabus basis between the studies undertaken abroad and a component of the home course, very little progress is possible. This particularly applies where syllabuses and courses are highly prescriptive and give little scope for student option choices. The department must therefore adopt a flexible approach based upon the principle of broad correspondence.

Secondly, the home university needs to recognise equivalence of levels in foreign study prior to the student’s departure. The principle which has been adopted in ECTS that all participating universities recognise the mutual equivalence of first year studies, second year studies, etc., is to be recommended. Any university which insists upon the detailed scrutiny of another university’s syllabuses with respect to level grossly inhibits the possibility of movement for its own students.

Thirdly, there is a need at departmental level to recognise the assessment conventions and grading structures used in other countries in order to bring these into a meaningful relationship with the student’s home assessment profile. Individual universities need guidance on this from the national and international levels.

Fourthly, a distinction needs to be made between credit transfer and credit accumulation. Educational credit transfer occurs in every case where studies taken in one university are recognised as contributing to the award of another university. This is irrespective of the way in which a particular university, or indeed a national system, may structure its higher education. Credit accumulation, on the other hand, is a way of structuring courses and the requirements for degrees and diplomas within a university or a national system. It is based upon a defined unit of academic credit and the granting of an award when a student has accumulated a sufficient number of such credits. Credit transfer between countries or individual universities can take place whether or not either system operates with defined units of credits or grants awards upon the principle of credit accumulation. In other words, credit transfer in no way depends on the adoption of credit accumulation systems.

National level

Action can be taken at a national level in the CEECs to facilitate credit transfer abroad, thereby promoting student mobility. There is a case for having a central repository of information and advice upon the higher education systems of other European States. A central organisation, such as the one established in Prague, can act as a clearing house for academics seeking international contacts. It can assist individual universities in matching the student’s study abroad to the home requirements. Where there are structural inhibitions to recognising such credits (e.g. professional requirements as laid down in law) such a national
agency can also advise government of the need for legal or administrative changes. As mentioned above, the work of the NARICs in the European Union offer a model of good practice here.

International level

Whilst action can be taken at the level of the national government, and indeed bilaterally between nations, by far the most effective way of dealing with the issues is multilaterally. This can only be done through an international organisation or network. As previously mentioned, international networks and organisations for student mobility are already highly developed in the ERASMUS Programme of the European Union, and in particular in the ECTS. Many of the mobility problems faced by the countries of central and eastern Europe are in principle identical to those already addressed and at least partly solved within the various branches of the ERASMUS Programme. By far the most effective and efficient way of promoting mobility must surely be to extend this programme to the countries of the region as soon as possible.

Structural problems in the higher education sector

The financial ability of universities and national systems to support mobility in future cannot be divorced from the overall questions of financial efficiency and availability of the necessary management tools to achieve this. There is need in most of the countries in the region for profound structural reform in the financial and human resource management of the higher education sector. The very idea that universities need to be managed in ways comparable to that of other large enterprises would be rejected by many of them, which is itself a measure of the cultural change necessary.

Financial management

In financial terms annualised budgets not only prevent any strategic long-term planning in the individual university but remove any incentive for increasing the efficiency of operation. Detailed budgetary control and restriction on transfer between budget heads exacerbates the problem. The lack of a system of devolved budgeting within universities removes from departmental heads the responsibility for disposing of resources most efficiently.

Human resource management

In terms of human resource management, profound changes will be necessary if universities are to respond to the volume increase in student throughput which their developing economies will require. University managers will need appropriate tools if they are to address the intractable problems of overmanning, an ageing university workforce, lifetime security of employment, declining social status of academics, enhanced financial rewards for qualified personnel in other sectors, difficulties in attracting new blood and the dangers of an internal and external "brain drain". At the moment few tools are available to enable university managers to address these problems.

Culture change

Finally, there is need within universities to develop more of a "management culture". Academics will need to appreciate that there is no intrinsic incompatibility between, on the one hand, the management principles of financial devolution, proactive human resource management, flexibility and the encouragement of entrepreneurship and, on the other hand, university autonomy, the freedom of academics to speak their views without fear of punishment and the traditional equality of academic peers in matters of scholarship and research.
Recommendations

To the OECD

-- The OECD should continue its policy of developing appropriate performance indicators for higher education which can be used not only by international organisations, but also by national governments and individual institutions.

-- The OECD should continue its case studies of national higher education structures for the countries of the region and work with national governments to maximise the benefit of such studies at the institutional level.

-- The OECD should consider what further action it can take to encourage the structural reform of higher education within the countries of the region.

To the European Commission

-- The European Commission should, as soon as is possible, extend the ERASMUS Programme to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. In particular it should include those countries within the extension of ECTS and the NARIC networks. It should evaluate the effectiveness of such extensions.

-- The European Commission should recognise the inseparability of teaching and research, particularly in relation to academic staff mobility, and should endeavour by cross-linkage between its different funding programmes to maximise their benefits.

-- The European Commission should consider how it can, within its funding programmes, further stimulate the introduction of new teaching and learning methods in the universities of the region.

-- The European Commission should, in collaboration with the Central European Exchange Programme for University Studies (CEEPUS), support the establishments of university networks within Central and Eastern Europe.

-- The European Commission should provide financial support for staff development programmes, particularly in technologically based subjects, where the level of development in Central and Eastern Europe may lag behind that in the West.

-- The European Commission should provide financial support for Western academics to spend significant periods teaching on programmes of universities in the region.

To the OECD and The European Commission

-- Further consideration should be given as to how, under the PHARE Programme, training and support can be given to countries in the region in the setting up of non-governmental organisations (NGOs), particularly to serve the higher education sector.
GLOBAL AND REGIONAL TRENDS FOR INTERNATIONALISATION

Professor Guy Neave

Introduction

It can be said that the university has forever been an institution which seeks to co-operate internationally. It has done so in various ways since the first university was founded in Bologna -- though Pavia claims this honour too -- in the twelfth century. Universities co-operated in terms of "exporting models", forms of organisation and internal governance. Scholars would bring to an establishment the seeds and practices of others. In some instances, these organisational patterns underwent subtle revision once implanted in foreign soil. Others, usually with official blessing and with the weight of government fiat, kept very close to their original template.

Thus, the University of Bologna inspired the founding of the Sorbonne and the presence of dissolute Englishmen in Paris eventually led to the setting up of the University of Oxford. Although scholars acted in a free-booting demonstration of what today could be heralded as the apotheosis of academic entrepreneurship, they were not nearly as influential as the governments in conjunction with the ecclesiastical authorities whose purpose was to set up the infrastructure for social stability so that the patterns of government, administration and social structure found in the metropolitan centres could be replicated elsewhere. One of the earliest examples of this was the founding of the University of Saint Thomas Aquinas in 1580 by the Spanish authorities in what is today Columbia.

Two models

There are, in fact, two basic models underlying the historic process of "internationalisation".

The first of these is knowledge-driven and internal to the university itself. It rests upon the action of individuals seeking training or levels of study in fields unavailable at home. This academically driven international mobility long remained predominant and underpinned the peregrinatio academici throughout the history of the university. It presumed freedom of movement across borders. In its time it was, and perhaps still is, a very powerful instrument. The estimated proportion of students studying abroad in Europe in the seventeenth century indicates that around 10 per cent of all students were mobile -- a figure which is still a target in the European Union. However, the point can be made that student mobility involved far fewer students than it does today. Still, it is a sobering thought that four hundred years ago Europe had what in contemporary jargon, is often called a "Higher Education space". To revert once more to modern parlance, this was a "wildcat" form of mobility (mobilité sauvage).

The second model has come about more recently. Though it too rests upon the notion of individuals seeking training, techniques or, to use an old-fashioned term derived from an earlier and more idealistic age, truth in systems of higher education other than their own, its identifying feature lies in its official nature, the degree of control which authorities exercise over the movement of individuals and the requirement that individuals move within the formal framework of a particular scheme or programme. Such mobility is then of purpose and if that purpose uses higher education as its vehicle, the university in turn would be very much an instrument of public policy -- whether that policy is to acquire specific skills in key sectors of the national economy, to assist in the modernisation of government in building the nation...
or in constructing an international trading bloc, community or union. It is "organised" as opposed to "wildcat" mobility. More to the point, however, is that its strategy is concerned with the collective. Its aim is to acquire knowledge or the instruments of modernity for the peripheral regions while exporting models and practices from the metropolitan centres. Seen from this perspective, the phenomenon of what educationists term "internationalisation" falls clearly into what an American political scientist, writing in the early sixties called "the Fourth dimension of diplomacy".

**Dynamics**

These two models have co-existed since 1945, but they have evolved in very different regions and at a very different pace. While examining some of the broader developments and trends attention should be paid to their respective dynamics over time. It is, of course, a matter of personal opinion whether present-day programmes financed and developed by the European Union represent *stricto sensu* a massification of "organised mobility". In light of the sheer volume of students participating, this claim is perhaps warranted. Certainly from a long-term perspective over the past forty years, given the numbers of students involved in earlier programmes sponsored by individual nations, it is a claim none can dispute. It is evident then that most of the previous systems of organised mobility were highly restricted and aimed at the academic elite, irrespective of whether they were administered by the East or West. The massification of organised mobility is then an extremely recent phenomenon in Western Europe and has attained this status only in the course of the past three years.

The rise of mass organised mobility in Western Europe ought not to blind one to the fact that, when placed in a broader perspective, this phenomenon constitutes yet another example of "exceptionalism". The exceptionalism of the Western European experience to date has two dimensions. The first has to do with massification itself. The second has to do with the mode of mobility -- "wildcat" or "organised" -- through which massification was first achieved. If a global perspective is taken, it can then be argued that the drive towards massification of inter-system or inter-continental movements was not originally a European trend. Still less was it based on "organised" mobility. Rather, it was rooted in the developing nations on the one hand and took the form of "wildcat" mobility on the other. Seen from this angle, the drive towards organised mobility is very much a minor trend. The major vehicle which carries students along the world’s academic trade routes is still "wildcat" mobility and, more to the point, it is in certain UNESCO regions (notably Asia) growing at a faster rate than its European counterpart, even if under UNESCO categories Europe is the Greater Europe rather than the smaller western edge of that landmass.

**World trends**

If students studying in countries other than their own are taken as an indicator of the thrust towards internationalisation, it can be said then that over the past decade and a half the volume has almost doubled from some 624 000 to around 1.2 million. Non-national enrolments for the seven UNESCO regions over the period 1975 to 1990/91 are set out in Table 1.
### Table 1. Non-national enrolments in higher education by region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>11 117</td>
<td>37 133</td>
<td>26 742</td>
<td>7 608</td>
<td>12 213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>203 712</td>
<td>344 755</td>
<td>378 511</td>
<td>399 632</td>
<td>456 854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. America</td>
<td>15 466</td>
<td>22 027</td>
<td>11 350</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6 359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>37 706</td>
<td>93 553</td>
<td>112 370</td>
<td>43 342</td>
<td>101 224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>301 219</td>
<td>366 144</td>
<td>431 994</td>
<td>318 019</td>
<td>527 426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>11 681</td>
<td>11 533</td>
<td>19 031</td>
<td>21 885</td>
<td>38 239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>43 278</td>
<td>62 942</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>115 300</td>
<td>66 806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8 434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>624 179</td>
<td>938 087</td>
<td>979 998</td>
<td>905 786</td>
<td>1 217 555</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this table two features emerge. The first is the dominant role of Europe and North America as importer regions. They account for approximately 80 per cent of inflowing student mobility, a situation which is well nigh permanent, though the mid-eighties did see a marginal drop in this overwhelming hegemony. If, from a global perspective, the Eighties saw a relative stagnation in the "volume of incoming traffic", from 1988 to 1991 there was a particularly rapid expansion of 34 per cent overall. The "importer" function of higher education also developed further in Asia (+133 per cent), Europe (+65 per cent), and in Oceania (+47 per cent). On the other hand, growth in "import rates" for North America (around 14 per cent during these years) was well below the overall level. Such a slow-down has meant that North America now stands in second place to Europe as the global centre, thus reversing the position it held in 1988 as world leader. Although the former Soviet Union during the same period did not cease being a host system, the number of incoming foreign students did decrease to that of the prior decade.

Yet, one country’s inflow is another’s outflow and the movement of students between systems and nations does not always follow Portia’s dictum in Shakespeare’s Merchant of Venice that "giving is twice bless’d. It blesseth him that gives and him that takes." For he that gives does not always do so in a spirit of generosity nor does he who takes always display gratitude. Table 2 provides an obverse vision -- that of the changing pattern of student outflow between regions over the same three years.

A very different and complementary view on the issue of internationalising higher education is shown here. While the higher education system of the European and North American regions acts as "systems of value added" the powerhouse which in sheer numerical terms drives this consumption forward lies in Asia which supplied just under half (47 per cent) of all students studying abroad in 1990-91 and over four out of ten (44 per cent) in 1988. Although the growth in out-moving traffic has been substantial in the European region -- a reflection no doubt of both programmatic development and the breakdown of some of the more rigid systems of control that in earlier times regulated intra-regional movement -- it has not been so in Africa and Latin America. Whatever the reasons that account for this situation (deteriorating economies, long-term debt burdens), the attention of "value adding" systems of higher education moved away from the lands to the south of the Sahara and from Latin America and concentrated on developed countries where return on investment was more attractive. Thus, the process of internationalisation is neither uniform, nor for that matter particularly equitable. The increasingly close ties -- in so far as ties
become closer as students become more numerous -- between the developed economies of the north, are offset by the rapid unravelling of the tenuous links between the north and south.

Table 2. **Students in higher education studying abroad**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>195 305</td>
<td>201 621</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>74 903</td>
<td>87 133</td>
<td>16.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. America</td>
<td>43 826</td>
<td>44 670</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>468 808</td>
<td>573 790</td>
<td>22.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>212 196</td>
<td>271 209</td>
<td>27.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>7 844</td>
<td>10 567</td>
<td>34.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>1 897</td>
<td>5 941</td>
<td>213.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>58 895</td>
<td>22 624</td>
<td>-38.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1 063 674</td>
<td>1 217 555</td>
<td>14.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While the process of internationalisation and student traffic is expanding in the industrialised countries and in those regions often identified with the emerging economies of South-East Asia, it would appear to be slowing down in the very regions which stand most desperately in need of this process to help them move from traditional, agricultural economies towards a manufacturing economy. In itself, this would be a dramatic development. It becomes even more dramatic if one bears in mind the fact that this trend spread from 1988 to 1991.

**Patterns of change**

So far this paper has focused on movement into the "heartland" systems of higher education and on the complementary process of outflow from the "peripheral" systems. Equally important, however, is whether over time student traffic from a given region will be bound for the same destination. In other words, how stable will the relationship be between centre and periphery over time. The collapse of the Soviet Union as a "value adding" system of higher education brings forth the questions "Who has profited from this?", "Where are students who previously sought training in the Soviet Union now going?" Some answers to these questions are shown in Table 3. The horizontal axis here indicates the region of origin, while the vertical axis stands for the host region. For each of the regions of origin, the student destination is displayed for 1988 and for 1990/91 in terms of the proportion of all students of that region moving to a particular destination. Not all cells are complete since the focus is on the mainstream patterns of movement rather than on the minor tributaries.
Table 3. Changing Trade Route Patterns (1988 compared to 1990-1991)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>N. America</th>
<th>S. America</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Oceania</th>
<th>USSR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>45.9%</td>
<td>46.1%</td>
<td>51.6%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. America</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
<td>32.9%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>44.2%</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>195 305</td>
<td>201 621</td>
<td>74 903</td>
<td>87 133</td>
<td>43 826</td>
<td>44 670</td>
<td>468 808</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Proportionately, the region most affected by the events following 1989 has been Latin America. In 1988, roughly one student in four of those studying abroad went to the ex-Soviet Union; three years later, the corresponding statistic had fallen to one in fifteen. No other region of origin underwent such amazing reductions in the flows to the former Soviet Union.

Interestingly, the re-drawing of trade routes appears not to have benefited North America so much as Europe. In Asia the proportion of students going to Europe has remained remarkably constant and the drop in the proportion of those who earlier went to the former Soviet Union is taken up by a corresponding rise in student traffic towards North America. A third pattern of change brings together Europe and Oceania to the extent that both would appear to be involved in intensifying their intra-regional flows. In short, student flows seem to be turning inward, a trend especially evident in the Oceania region as well. Students who earlier would have studied in North America now prefer to move around within the region. Finally, it would not be entirely out of place to note the very marked shift in trade routes shown by ex-former Soviet Union students. Clearly, the numbers involved are small. However the move away from Europe and towards the United States cannot perhaps be interpreted on the symbolic level alone.

Implications

What are the implications of this kaleidoscope of shifting "trade routes"? From a global perspective it would imply that despite the spectacular growth in volume of student mobility, at a planetary level this movement has not kept pace with the general enrolments in higher education. While the former is growing, the latter are expanding at an even faster rate. Should this situation continue students will be less likely to study abroad, even if the numbers involved in cross-national traffic increase. The medium-term consequences of the ethical and political shift away from a social democratic ideology and the wholehearted wooing of the "market" as the prime regulator of social, and thus institutional, priorities and behaviour should be examined.

The implications of such policies as "cost-recovery programmes", of "full cost" fees or the off-loading of the costs of higher education from the collective to the individual student or his (extended) family bring to the fore a complex series of issues for those trying to see ahead and to detect the likely patterns of development in the near future.

On one level, they represent a general loosening of the ties of obligation and solidarity between the north and south, though clearly the ramifications are not confined to developing countries alone, even if they are most evident in such nations. If cost-recovery policies act as a "rationing device" for access to higher education, it is logical in those regions where student traffic follows the "wildcat" pattern, that it will have a similar effect upon the ability to "consume" higher education outside the nation of origin and most especially for those at present facing dire poverty.

On another level, it is just as evident that there are regions emerging as newly industrialised economies where, even if "wildcat" mobility remains the principle mode of movement, increasing prosperity is also increasing the desire for, as well as the ability to pay for, specialised training abroad. This is most particularly visible in the Asian south east and has brought about major policy revisions in certain systems of higher education -- notably in Australia -- to cater specifically to this demand. In other words, just as there are systems of higher education that are increasingly "client" systems, so are there others taking on a "supplier" role as a means of generating resources for themselves. Here is a neat illustration of the principle succinctly put by the American song-writer and Harvard mathematician, Tom Lehrer, that of "doing well by doing good".
Two tactics

The drive to create new "heartland" systems of higher education within the region, adding value to the training first begun elsewhere, is an interesting development since it involves two clearly differentiated tactics. The first of these, visible in Australia, involves tapping into a "consumer" and "market" driven demand. The second tactic also seeks to confer a "heartland" status but it uses a somewhat different approach. One attempts to stimulate demand amongst the students for potential "client" systems by providing aid and assistance to study in the universities of the aspirant "heartland" state. The programme outlined in 1985 by the Nakasone administration to bring 100 000 foreign students to Japan by 1995 is not unusual and, of course, one can think of other programmes nearer to home.

Assumptions

Indeed there exists a dialectical relationship between "wildcat" and "organised" mobility in as much as the latter can be seen as a "pump priming exercise" to bolster a relatively marginal demand so that mobility and "an international experience" are seen as a natural and desirable part of a student’s career. The question that comes once again to the fore is whether such temporary interventionism ought not to give place to the individual’s "paying for what he or she used to get for free" -- which is Lehrer’s second maxim. Such a strategy has certain in-built assumptions and weaknesses. Amongst the assumptions is the belief that at the end of the phase of "assisted" mobility, a critical mass of individuals will have emerged whose successors will be willing to pay for their own expenses of studying abroad. A second assumption, which underlies the first, is, of course, that there will be a continued level of national and individual prosperity beyond the period at which assistance ceases. Such assumptions may indeed be legitimate in the case of Australia, Japan and the Little Dragons of South-East Asia. They are not, however, in the case of Sub-Saharan Africa or Latin America.

On burdens, perceptions and various transitions

The well-known sociological phenomenon of "relative deprivation" has as much bearing for prosperous Western Europe as it does for regions infinitely less well-off. Whether people will be willing to take on the financial burden of mobility does not necessarily have to do with real riches or genuine poverty but rather with how people perceive their financial status. Also, the more people are certain of the advantages offered by mobility, the more likely they will be to contribute. When all is said and done, the process of internationalisation of higher education is precisely the transition of higher education to an economy once dominated by the individual state to a global market economy. Internationalisation is then a phenomenon which cannot be overlooked. In the words of the American philosopher, Ben Franklin, "If we do not hang together, then we will most certainly hang separately."
NOTES

1. For this see de RIDDER SIMOENS, Hilda (1992), A History of the University in Europe, Cambridge University Press, Vol. i, Universities in the Middle Ages.


4. For this notion see MASCLET, Jean Claude (1976), La mobilité des étudiants dans la Communauté Européenne, Paris, Institut d'Education de la Fondation Européenne de la Culture.


6. These Tables are based on 50 nations amongst the most active in hosting foreign students. The definition of regions follows the usual UNESCO convention.


8. Ibid., p. 40.


TRENDS AND ISSUES IN ACADEMIC CO-OPERATION

Alan Smith

Introduction

The Tallinn seminar took place at a particularly significant moment, not only from the point of view of the need to review the progress which has been made in enhancing academic co-operation with the countries of Central and Eastern Europe since the process of economic and social restructuring began, but also in so much as particularly important developments and review processes are taking place with regard to academic co-operation more generally, both in Western Europe and beyond. This paper seeks to draw out some of the main quantitative and substantive trends in academic co-operation in recent years, concentrating on teaching and study, as distinct from research, and pointing to some of the main factors which have influenced these trends. Against this background, some of the key issues in the field of academic co-operation are addressed, relating in particular to policy options and challenges facing the managers of both higher education institutions individually and those responsible for the management and further development of higher education systems at national level. In the light of this analysis, a series of recommendations is developed in relation to some of the areas in which Regional PHARE could play a particularly important facilitating role in the enhancement of co-operation with Central and Eastern Europe. These recommendations are contained in the Annex to the paper. Though the paper has been prepared in the specific context of the Tallinn Seminar, these issues are deliberately addressed in the context of academic co-operation, mobility and exchange on a wider basis, relating in particular to Western European developments.

Trends

Quantitative trends

The past decade has been a period of remarkable and perhaps unprecedented growth in academic co-operation, at least between industrialised countries. This has been particularly the case in Europe where the advent of major support programmes within the European Union framework from the mid 1980s onwards has had a substantial galvanising influence on the higher education community and has triggered off a process which may eventually de-marginalise international co-operation and (re-)integrate it within the central concerns of higher education institutions. While it is true that internationality has always been an intrinsic characteristic of universities, this had not necessarily expressed itself in concrete terms. Before the advent of the European Commission programmes less than one student in 100, for example, spent an integrated period of study in another EU country.

This situation has now changed. The ERASMUS Programme has boosted the number of students involved in intra-EU mobility to between 80 000 and 100 000 annually and at the same time given rise to over 2 000 inter-university networks within which not only students are exchanged but also several thousand faculty members move to other parts of the EU to provide integrated teaching inputs into the programmes of host institutions abroad. The development of European associations in a growing number of disciplines and special interest areas such as university administration and the management of international contacts, has been a further outcome of this important programme. Through the medium of COMETT, over 200 partnerships for structured co-operation between higher education and industry have
been developed, providing the framework for a wide range of transnational collaborative activities such as integrated placements in industry for students, continuing training courses of many kinds, the production of packages of training materials on a broad scale and experimentation in the use of new technologies in the delivery of training at advanced level. The higher education sections of the LINGUA programme have begun to address the need for greatly enhanced competence in foreign languages. At the borderline between higher education and research the Human Capital and Mobility programme has provided new and exciting possibilities for the exchange and mobility of postgraduate students and post-doctoral research staff within the framework of inter-laboratory twinning arrangements, a high percentage of which involve universities. Action Jean Monnet has focused on the need to improve and extend the knowledge of insights into European affairs. Many of these programmes have either already been or are in the process of being extended to cover EFTA countries, either on the basis of bilateral agreements between the EU and the countries concerned or as part of the provisions of the nascent European Economic Area.

However, this activity has not been limited purely to co-operation within Western Europe. The TEMPUS Programme has had a significant impact during the first three years of its existence and now accounts for a considerable percentage of co-operative activities with institutions in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. It has been a crucial instrument in assisting those institutions in establishing productive links for co-operation with partners abroad and thereby of progressively contributing both to the revitalisation of higher education systems and their full reintegration within the international academic community.

It should not be forgotten, however, that the EC programmes as such have been only one, albeit extremely important, vehicle for the expansion of academic interchange in Europe during the past few years. Alongside them, important contributions have also been made by national governments. In some cases these have taken the form of specific new schemes and programmes, the STIR programme for the internationalisation of higher education in the Netherlands being a leading example, whereas in others it has been more a case of further developing existing programmes and, in addition, making national regulations more flexible in order to enable students to move freely between one country and another. This applies in particular to allowing the use of grants and loans for the purpose of studying abroad and the provision of full recognition or credit for foreign study upon the students’ return.

Where scholarship and fellowship programmes for study and teaching abroad were already in existence prior to the inception of the EC programmes, the latter have not led to any noticeable diminution in demand for such national support. On the contrary, demand overall for support of co-operation and exchange has increased, both within EC and national schemes, and policy-makers are increasingly faced with the challenge of providing for the optimal articulation of the two forms of support. Though true of co-operation within Western Europe, this is perhaps even more important with regard to the support of co-operation with the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, since this is an area which has seen the emergence of a particularly large number and wide variety of support mechanisms at national level since the process of economic and social restructuring began. The Academic Co-operation Association is at present engaged on a survey of the support mechanisms concerned. It is also worth noting that significant support schemes have also been introduced by certain regions within Western European countries. The Rhône-Alpes region of France has, for example, even introduced its own Trans-European Mobility Programme Rhône-Alpes (TEMPRA) for co-operation with Central and Eastern Europe.

Elsewhere in the world, programmes for the support of academic co-operation, mobility and exchange have also been on the increase. The EC has introduced a scheme for promoting co-operation with the non-Community countries bordering the Mediterranean (MedCampus) and a programme for university co-operation with Latin America, ALFA (Amérique Latine Formation Académique) has just been announced. The “Exploratory Phase” for a co-operation programme with the USA is under way and there are various ad hoc actions with countries in Asia, particularly the South-East Asian region. At the national level, support from European governments for such extra European co-operation is much more substantial still. Similarly, various other countries across the world have been particularly active in launching
co-operation schemes. Thus Japan is well on the way towards achieving the target of receiving 100,000 foreign students per year (predominantly from other Asian countries) by the turn of the century and Australia continues its vigorous policy of stepping up academic co-operation with its neighbours, both through national funding and by full commitment to the programme for University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP). Observers await the emergence of some form of higher education co-operation component within the NAFTA arrangements in North America (thus far only small pilot projects on a trilateral basis have been established) and in the meantime the US has adopted its $120 million National Security Education Program designed to support co-operation and in particular study abroad by Americans in countries deemed to be of special strategic importance to the USA. The countries of Central and Eastern Europe are one of the key world regions ‘targeted’ by this new and important initiative.

One type of academic co-operation to which reference has not yet been made in this overview should not, however, be ignored. It is that of the role of the academic community in the process of development aid. Here the current situation appears to be much less positive in quantitative terms and growth rates have certainly not kept pace with those in the area of co-operation between industrialised countries. As economic recession takes its toll and disillusionment due to the absence of impact of previous co-operative activity proliferates, there is a grave danger that support for this sector of academic co-operation will fail to be maintained. There is also the possibility that it will concentrate too heavily on previously less developed countries now on the road to industrialisation and which offer prospects of reasonably short-term economic advantage, to the detriment of support for the countries (notably in Africa) where the basic needs are most acute. In this context, the economic reform process in Central and Eastern Europe has had severe repercussions, not only by unwittingly diverting potential Western resources from the support of developing countries, but also more directly by making it impossible for countries in Central and Eastern Europe with a hitherto distinguished track record in the provision of development aid through higher education to sustain this commitment.

Factors underlying academic co-operation and mobility

What have been the driving forces behind the increase in academic co-operation which may be observed in several parts of the world? Obviously there are certain ‘local’ or ‘regional’ factors at play here, two of the most manifest being in Europe which have been responsible for producing a particularly high level of transnational academic co-operation activity compared with the situation in other continents: the sudden new demand and need for co-operation generated by the process of political, social and economic reform in Central and Eastern Europe and the process of greater integration and cohesion within Western Europe driven by the European Union.

The latter factor is also to some extent typical of the broader global situation in the sense that it is observable that the impetus towards more intensive co-operation has resulted in several instances from policy-makers’ keenness to see higher education play its part in the development of closer ties within a particular ‘regional’ grouping of countries. It is also typical in that the upsurge of support schemes to boost international academic co-operation is attributable in this instance, as in many others, first and foremost to economic considerations, with a secondary but nonetheless important function in supporting the emergence of a ‘regional identity’ on the part of citizens of the region concerned. Thus the major EC programmes have all been motivated by considerations such as the need to produce transnationally operational graduates and to pool the intellectual and scientific resources of the EU countries with a view to preserving and enhancing the Union’s competitiveness on world markets (economic dimension), while at the same time being called upon to play their part in improving mutual knowledge and understanding of the cultures of neighbouring countries and a sense of EU citizenship. Though at a considerably lesser intensity of support and co-ordination, the Pacific Rim/APEC initiatives, NAFTA, the Mediterranean, the Nordic Council region with its NORDPLUS programme for academic exchange and so on, all mirror to some extent this dual underlying raison d’être.
Characteristics of recent developments in academic co-operation

With such a considerable expansion of academic co-operation activity in so many different geo-political and economic contexts, it would be over-simplistic to postulate on the emergence of any single predominant type. Nonetheless, a number of common factors do appear to be emerging, particularly in the recent European developments. First among these is that in many important instances of major new programme initiatives the accent has been on student mobility and exchange, with a much stronger orientation towards students at first degree level of studies than had ever been the case hitherto. This is true of ERASMUS in Western Europe, NORDPLUS in Scandinavia, the Japanese programme for attracting foreign students, UMAP in Asia and the Pacific and so on, and it is also one of the main features of the new US-initiated NSEP programme. Furthermore, it may be convincingly argued that it has been the movement of large quantities of students within regular degree studies and with the requirement of full academic credit for study abroad which has, more than any other single factor, been responsible for the de-marginalisation of academic co-operation within the spectrum of institutions’ policy priorities. For the first time on a large scale in the modern age, institutions have been confronted with the challenge of systematically articulating the programmes which they offer with those provided by institutions in other countries. The dramatic increase in student demand for study abroad opportunities in the wake of ERASMUS has served to keep up the pressure in this regard and to ensure that institutions’ commitment to adapt is not merely transitory.

Secondly, there has been a clear shift, most particularly in Europe, from individual mobility towards more organised forms of exchange. This is most evident as regards the movement of students and it has been fuelled by the requirements of the major support programmes launched by the EC. Within ERASMUS clear priority is given to organised mobility and hardly any of the Member states and EFTA countries are interpreting the ERASMUS guidelines in such a way as to enable them to award as many grants as possible to ‘free mover’ students. Similarly, the administrative difficulties encountered in the early days of the TEMPUS programme with regard to individually mobile students has led to the elimination of this category in subsequent years. There does appear to be a danger in this regard that although from a managerial point of view the ‘organised’ approach may offer the best ‘value for money’ for programme sponsors, too exclusive an orientation towards this approach may deprive many well qualified and motivated individual students of the possibility of carrying out study projects abroad. Certainly the balance between ‘individual’ and ‘organised’ forms of mobility is one of the issues for urgent discussion in the framework of seeking to arrive at a more structurally sound division of labour between national governments and the EC in the financing of study abroad opportunities.

A third common feature of many recent trends, notably in Europe, is that of the emergence of inter-institutional networks, whether in single disciplines or in a broader range of subjects. Such networks form the backbone of all major EC support programmes (Joint European Projects within TEMPUS, Inter-University Co-operation Programmes within ERASMUS and Action II of LINGUA, University-Enterprise Training Partnerships within COMETT), and this has both responded to a need felt by the institutions themselves and generated a desire to create such partnerships on an increasingly large scale in the future.

Fourthly, and more recently, it is observable that the pendulum which had swung so dramatically, and perhaps for many institutions even excessively, towards student mobility, is beginning to swing back towards a more balanced approach embracing various forms of co-operation in the teaching and study sectors. As larger percentages of faculty become involved in international contacts, often indirectly in the first instance due to the need to make arrangements with foreign partners for the smooth exchange of students, this is giving rise to a greater impetus for faculty exchange and co-operation in teaching (alongside the more traditional co-operative ties in the field of research). This trend will be further supported by the increased attention given to other forms of co-operation than student mobility in the EC’s new SOCRATES programme currently under negotiation, the intention being to ensure that students who are not ‘mobile’ can nonetheless have some form of ‘European dimension’ in their academic study. This new approach is referred to as "policies for the 90 per cent” in recent EC programme development to distinguish it from the
policy of ensuring a "10 per cent mobility level" which underlies the promulgation of ERASMUS. OECD speaks in similar terms of the "second wave of internationalisation".

The challenge in this regard, both for the individual higher education institutions and for the funding agencies at European and national level, will be to ensure that the pendulum does not swing back too far, thereby jeopardising the benefits derived from the expansion of student mobility in the preceding phase. For the institutions it will be a question of arriving at a more comprehensive and interlocking policy for their institutional development, encompassing a variety of components involving both student and faculty exchanges alongside an overhaul of curricula with a view to improving their international dimension. For funding agencies the temptation will need to be resisted to opt for apparently more cost-effective forms of co-operation, rather than student mobility, until it has been conclusively proven that these alternatives are (a) indeed more cost-effective and (b) capable of producing similar impacts in both quantitative and qualitative terms. For example, it appears unlikely that the enhancement of insights into other countries could be achieved to the same extent by any other means than direct confrontation with those countries by means of study abroad.

A fifth characteristic of recent trends is that of a growing professionalisation in the implementation and management of international links and contacts. With regard to both academic administration (e.g. provision of academic recognition for study abroad) and more practical matters, such as counselling facilities for incoming and outgoing students and faculty, facilitating their social integration and providing for appropriate accommodation, enormous advances have been made in Western European countries over recent years. In particular, increased attention is being given to the further training of staff to enable them to cope more effectively in their increasingly internationalised institutions. On the administrative side, it would scarcely be an exaggeration to speak of the emergence of the "international relations managers" of higher education institutions as constituting a new professional category in its own right. Furthermore, far more institutions than ever before are improving opportunities for learning foreign languages for both students and staff, as a prerequisite for more intensive and extensive international involvement.

Sixthly, and particularly in most recent times, a process of rationalisation in academic co-operation, mobility and exchange may be seen to be taking root. Again, this is true at the level of the individual higher education institutions but also at that of the national and, especially, the major European funding programmes. At institutional level, there is a sense that the phase of quickly proliferating numbers of networks and linkages (already in excess of 2 000 within the ERASMUS Programme alone and nearing another 1 000 within the other programmes taken together) may need to give rise to some stock-taking and subsequent consolidation of the networks thus generated. At the level of the Commission, proposals for the new SOCRATES and LEONARDO 'umbrella' programmes, which replace four times that number of current programmes, are clearly motivated first and foremost by considerations of rationalisation. Furthermore, the internal design of the new programmes, especially SOCRATES with its insistence on "institutional contracts" and subject-based mega-networks, reflects the same desire for consolidation. The rationalisation of EC programmes will be further supported in due course as the countries of Central and Eastern Europe come to be granted access, in whatever way, to the currently Western Europe-oriented programmes.

Alongside this move towards rationalisation, there is also an increasingly clear call for greater emphasis on quality assurance in the international dimension of higher education institutions’ work. The ‘quality’ issue is finding its way on to a growing number of conference agendas in this field and will indeed be the keynote theme at the 1994 conference of the European Association for International Education (EAIE) in London.

Finally, though this is perhaps more the outcome of various trends referred to above rather than one in its own right, it is observable that the area of academic co-operation, mobility and exchange is shedding the mantle of marginality within the priority scale of higher education institutions and becoming much more closely integrated into their developmental plans for the future. Spontaneity and ‘ad-hocery’
are giving way to strategic thinking in a manner and to an extent which would have been unthinkable even half a decade ago. The centrality of international co-operation to the concerns of academic institutions in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe will tend to reinforce the momentum of this trend across the continent in the future.

**Issues**

For the purpose of analysing some of the issues requiring most urgent attention in the field of academic co-operation, it is convenient to distinguish between general issues of a transversal nature, issues of implementation at the institutional level and issues presenting challenges to those responsible for the implementation of higher education systems at the level of national government.

**General or transversal issues of policy**

Among the many issues of a general or transversal nature related to international academic co-operation, mobility and exchange facing those involved in the implementation of higher education provision, be it at institutional or national level, the following may be regarded as being of particular current concern (not necessarily in descending order of importance):

-- maintaining quantitative expansion of co-operation at a time of severe economic difficulty, particularly in view of the fact that demand for participation in co-operative activities is still on the increase in overall terms;

-- enhancing the clarity and precision of objectives for international academic co-operation and also the diversity of such objectives within comprehensive strategies for international interaction as a medium of quality enhancement in higher education;

-- adapting programme design in international co-operation to the specific objectives envisaged, taking into account the organisational and resourcing context within which the programmes are to be developed;

-- striking a judicious balance and arriving at an optimal mix between different forms of international co-operation, including student mobility and exchange (bearing in mind the need for exploiting the potential of both individual and organised forms), for longer and shorter durations, various formulae for teaching staff exchange and mobility, measures to enhance the international dimension of and comparative components within the curriculum, transnational activities involving the productive participation of industry, commerce and other social sectors, experimentation with open and distance learning approaches in international co-operation, measures to stimulate interaction between teaching and research in international co-operative activities;

-- enhancing the quality of international co-operation, also by giving adequate emphasis to evaluation, analysis and research on aspects of this field;

-- achieving and maintaining appropriate levels and types of international interaction across the whole spectrum of academic disciplines;

-- achieving an appropriate geographical profile of co-operation, encompassing activities giving rise to mutual benefit and even primarily to benefit for the partner abroad (notably in the area of development aid) as well as those pursued for reasons of own (institutional/personal) academic advancement; determining the balance between co-operation within an international
'region' (e.g. EU) and on a global basis; reconciling co-operation in bilateral and multilateral contexts;

-- developing closer interaction between institutions’ local/regional role within their own community on the one hand and their international dimension on the other; development of transfrontier co-operation across national boundaries; furthering co-operation between specific regions of various countries (not necessarily in border regions);

-- ensuring optimal coherence between general policy objectives and those for international co-operation, for example, by furthering equality of opportunity for participation in international activities by ethnic and other minorities, handicapped persons and so on.

All of the above-mentioned issues are of policy concern both to the individual higher education institutions and to those responsible for the management of higher education systems and the development of their international dimension. They must therefore be addressed by both in their respective ways. Additionally, one may point to a series of issues relating to the management of ‘internationalisation’ at institutional and national level as set out below.

**Issues relating to institutional management**

The approaches adopted for the management of academic co-operation, mobility and exchange at a given higher education institution can clearly have a material bearing on the success or failure of the entire internationalisation process and, ultimately, on the quality of the higher education which it provides. Various aspects of such approaches may be identified as constituting clusters of issues to be addressed, all of which run together in one central question, namely: which are the management approaches which will best serve the purpose of implementing a positive strategy for international co-operation as an instrument of enhancing the overall quality of the institution’s performance? Five such clusters of issues particularly worthy of attention are as follows:

-- **governance and decision-making**: issues of special significance in this regard include questions such as the extent to which the importance of international co-operation is adequately reflected in the locus of responsibility and the manner of decision-making on these issues within the institution’s hierarchy; the way in which the decision-making process on international co-operation is linked into the general process of institutional decision-making; the question as to whether the institution has set itself clear objectives in the area of international co-operation and established procedures to monitor the extent to which these objectives are being achieved (and other outcomes of international co-operation not originally envisaged); the extent to and manner in which the institution has set in place a systemised method of monitoring its comparative quality and performance, according to specific criteria, in the international arena;

-- **operational administration of international relations**: here, an institution must clearly pose itself the question as to whether the arrangements for the administration of its international activities are conducive to maximising their efficacy. This relates in particular to administration at central level, but it also crucially touches on the sensitive issue as to the most effective ways and means of reconciling the need for a certain degree of centralisation (in the interests of rationalisation and cross-fertilisation of initiatives) with the equally vital need to ensure that the academic staff involved in actual co-operation activities retain a sense of ‘ownership’, and therefore personal commitment to the activities concerned, without which such activities will not be a sustainable asset to the institution as a whole. A further issue in this regard concerns the incentives which the institution has introduced for the purpose of encouraging its staff to become actively engaged in developing its international activities;
--- **academic adaptation to international co-operation:** in addition to the more practical aspects of administration of international operations, components of administration directly related to academic affairs require deliberate attention. These include notably the introduction of effective procedures for the award of academic credit/recognition for studies carried out abroad and for foreign students visiting the institution concerned; consideration of the desirability and feasibility of awarding joint and/or dual qualifications with partner institutions abroad; adapting performance assessment mechanisms to the needs of jointly provided courses and so on;

--- **facilities, services and infrastructure:** in order to participate effectively in international co-operation an institution not only requires an infrastructure and set of facilities appropriate to providing higher education in general, but must also provide a range of services related more specifically to the smooth implementation of international interaction. These include in particular the availability of (and introduction of incentives for using) facilities for the acquisition of operational competence in foreign languages, the provision of counselling services for incoming and outgoing students and staff, structures for the dissemination of information (not only on sources of funding for co-operation activities, but also on the international activities of specific academic departments), provision of accommodation and other reception and integration facilities for staff and particularly students coming from abroad, library resources containing state-of-the-art literature from abroad and effective international electronic communications;

--- **staff development for international involvement:** increased international co-operation places increased demands, both qualitatively and quantitatively speaking, on the persons engaged in its delivery. An institution must therefore give appropriate attention to improving the quality of its staff members, both academic and administrative, who are involved in the management of such co-operation. This applies not only to the training of staff for whom the handling of international relations is their primary responsibility, but also to the many academics and administrators for whom this is an additional task with specific professional requirements.

### Issues at systems level

For the process of 'internationalising' higher education to be a success, room must be left to enable 'grass-roots' initiatives of individual academics and departments to blossom: the 'bottom-up' approach has been a key factor in the success of the major EC programmes. At the same time, such initiatives can only achieve their full potential if they are supported and encouraged from above and given a framework within which they can make an optimal contribution to over-arching goals. Thus, for the managers of higher education systems at national level, the promotion of transnational co-operation also brings its specific challenges over and above the general issues of internationalisation referred to above. These include notably:

--- developing an integrated approach to the 'internationalisation' of a country’s higher education system, encompassing all levels and categories of 'actors' in the process (international organisations, national government and agencies, regional authorities, higher education institutions, non-governmental organisations representing the academic community, the private sector);

--- establishing agreed objectives and priorities for the 'internationalisation' of a country’s higher education system and procedures for the monitoring and evaluation of the extent to which these objectives are being met;
-- predicting the possible pitfalls and latent dangers involved in boosting international interaction, for example, as regards losing academic staff to institutions abroad and devising strategies to preserve the advantages and avoid the dangers involved;

-- introducing policies designed to facilitate the operational processes of desired international interaction. Such policies may be directly related to international co-operation or merely consist of ensuring that national legislation is conducive to rather than obstructing such co-operation. Policy areas of particular significance include the facilitation of procedures for credit transfer, academic recognition and joint/dual degrees, opening up of student support for use while studying abroad, provision of incentives for involvement in international activities, flexible regulations on the profile and working conditions of academic staff and so on;

-- bringing to bear maximum financial resources available to assist in the support of international co-operation through appropriately designed programmes (despite the introduction of large-scale funding at European level, national funding for higher education co-operation remains a key factor in ensuring the long-term success of co-operative measures), as well as ensuring the best possible complimentarity between such funding and the support available from the EC and international organisations;

-- developing structures for the management and administration of international co-operation at (national) system level which will command the full confidence of the academic community. For this purpose, most Western European countries and other industrialised nations such as the USA, Canada and Australia have facilitated the development of specialised non- or para-governmental organisations responsible for the handling the national funds available for supporting higher education co-operation (the Academic Co-operation Association has now been established with a view to ensuring closer interaction between the agencies concerned);

-- monitoring higher education developments in other countries, the effects of foreign countries’ policies on higher education on the country concerned and conversely the effects of policies of that country on the higher education system of its neighbours;

-- establishing/facilitating the development of structures for carrying out research into aspects of the internationalisation of higher education; identifying and assisting in the removal of obstacles to international co-operation;

-- co-ordinating policy in such a way as to ensure that the internationalisation of the higher education system interacts with internationalisation policies for other sectors of education, training and research.

**Concluding remarks**

Naturally, not all the trends and issues referred to apply in the same measure and at the same point in time to all countries. Nonetheless, it is hoped that they will be useful in helping to set out the policy framework for specific aspects of academic co-operation and mobility, both by placing Central and Eastern European developments in their broader international context and by identifying some of the major considerations which have shaped internationalisation processes in higher education systems in various countries hitherto.
ANNEX

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REGIONAL PHARE ACTION IN THE FIELD OF ACADEMIC CO-OPERATION, MOBILITY AND EXCHANGE

On the basis of the analysis contained in the paper entitled "Trends and Issues in Academic Co-operation" presented to the Strategic Seminar on Mobility held in Tallinn on 26-28 April 1994, it is felt that recommendations regarding possible areas for support by Regional PHARE in the area of higher education co-operation, mobility and exchange should relate to two distinct orientations:

-- activities of "mutual interest" to the PHARE eligible countries in the area of the development and upgrading of higher education systems, essentially based on various means of enhancing exchange of information and analysis of experience;

-- activities specifically designed to enhance direct co-operation between PHARE eligible countries.

Activities of mutual interest to PHARE eligible countries

Systems development for internationalisation

a) sharing of experience (and provision of assistance) in the overall planning of internationalisation from a systems perspective;

b) exchange of views and comparison of approaches in defining objectives for international co-operation as a response to human resource development needs and in drawing out the implications thereof for programme design;

c) analysis of approaches to (and assistance in) the development of specialised NGOs or paragovernmental agencies specialising in internationalisation-related areas such as programme management, provision of information on foreign study and teaching opportunities, evaluation and accreditation of study carried out abroad, associations in specific disciplines and of higher education administration related to international co-operation and mobility;

d) assistance in the development of appropriate infrastructure and services within higher education institutions;

e) assistance in the introduction of staff development and staff incentive measures designed to facilitate academic co-operation;

f) assistance in the accreditation of institutions, degrees and qualifications, and in the regulation of educational institutions and branch campuses organised from abroad;
Evaluation of co-operation schemes and programmes

a) analysis of various forms of inter-institutional co-operation and individual mobility involving PHARE countries with a view to establishing and disseminating good practice and identifying reasons for failure (special attention to be given to approaches to minimising brain-drain);

b) analysis of the outcomes and processes of programmes and schemes for the support of international co-operation involving PHARE countries: which have/have not functioned satisfactorily and why (special attention to be given to approaches to minimising brain-drain)?

c) analysis of needs of PHARE countries for future co-operation programmes, if possible on a multi-annual and discipline-specific basis;

d) analysis of the contribution of co-operation with Western Europe to the enhancement of teaching and research in specific academic disciplines across PHARE countries;

e) analysis of the extent to which various types of higher education institutions in Western European countries have been used to their full potential in support programmes for PHARE countries;

f) analysis of the real role and innovation potential of returning students and faculty in the process of restructuring and enhancing higher education in PHARE countries;

Measures for direct support of co-operation with and between PHARE countries

a) programme for academic co-operation between PHARE countries without the requirement of participation from EU Member states as in TEMPUS, including student and teaching staff exchanges, interaction between teaching and research, multilateral intensive seminars;

b) programme to enhance the sharing of resources/division of labour in specialised areas of teaching and research;

c) support for projects involving transfrontier collaboration in specific bilateral/multilateral border regions (also involving industry as appropriate) and region-to-region co-operation generally (whether or not in border areas);

d) support for transnational co-operation between higher education institutions and industry;

e) support for the introduction of new qualifications and degrees developed jointly between PHARE countries and the systems for the provision of academic recognition and credit between these countries, including experimentation with the European Community Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS);

f) support for pilot/demonstration projects designed to facilitate acquisition of foreign language competence and/or promote co-operation through the use of third country languages as the medium of instruction (also for home institution students);

g) support for pilot projects in the use of open and distance learning approaches as an instrument for international co-operation;

h) support to enable institutions in PHARE countries to resume their contribution to development aid (e.g. through the award of scholarships);
i) top-up money for bilateral cultural and scientific agreements for the purpose of encouraging the extension of their activities to include additional PHARE countries.
INTERNATIONALISATION AS A PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

Marijk van der Wende

Summary

International co-operation in higher education has both quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Up until now much emphasis has been given to the quantitative objectives of internationalisation, especially as defined in terms of student mobility.

Qualitative objectives related to the content and quality of education could be better achieved by choosing a broader approach to internationalisation and by linking internationalisation with the concept of educational change. This change of focus will show staff mobility and especially curriculum development to be essential elements in the process of internationalisation. Such an innovative approach also focuses more attention on processes within the institution, rather than concentrating only on external processes naturally related to international co-operation (e.g. networking).

The meaning of internationalisation for the quality of educational content, methods and processes is discussed on the basis of experience with internationalising curricula. The effects of internationalisation on the quality of education are viewed in terms of threats and opportunities.

Introduction

International co-operation is playing an increasingly important role in higher education. Over the last decades many initiatives have been undertaken in different parts of the world to facilitate co-operation with both industrialised and developing countries. Meanwhile, programmes supported by the European Commission are covering a broad range of academic co-operation both inside and outside Europe. Interest in international co-operation and its goal can differ according to the countries involved, to the geographic or economic region and also to the institutions, staff members and students.

Despite these varying contexts and actors, a rough distinction can be made between quantitative and qualitative objectives. Quantitative objectives refer to proposals and measures directed towards furthering international co-operation (inter-institutional links and networks) and stimulating the international mobility of students and staff. Qualitative objectives refer more explicitly to the ultimate significance of international co-operation and mobility and to the effects co-operation and mobility can be expected to have on the content and quality of education and on the credentials of all future graduates.

Although all programmes for internationalisation reflect both types of objectives, the quantitative approach is strongly dominant in practice. The ERASMUS programme provides an example: 2 217 of the 2 379 Inter-University Co-operation Projects (ICPs) approved for 1993-1994 involve student mobility.

The emphasis on quantitative objectives is also reflected in programme evaluations which generally include elaborate statistics on mobile students. In-depth analyses of the impact of international co-operation and exchange on the curriculum and on processes within the institution are very rare.
It is, however, exactly this type of structural (educational) change that could make internationalisation meaningful for all students, including the large group of non-mobile students, and for the quality of education. Internationalisation of curricula is, however, still a minor element in most internationalisation programmes (only 232 ERASMUS ICPs approved for 1993-1994 involve curriculum development). The TEMPUS programme is an exception in this regard: a large proportion of JEPs involve curriculum development.

The purpose of this paper is to examine internationalisation in the broader sense by proposing a coherent approach to internationalisation that includes all the key elements and by considering it as a process of educational change aimed at improving the quality of education. The meaning of internationalisation for educational content, methods and processes will be discussed on the basis of experiences with internationalising curricula. Finally, an analysis will be made of the threats and opportunities that internationalisation presents as regards the quality of education.

**Towards a coherent approach to internationalisation**

For the purposes of studying and evaluating international co-operation and exchange, NUFFIC developed the following comprehensive model for internationalisation.

![Nuffic model for internationalisation](image)

In this model, internationalisation is depicted as a process taking place (at any level) within the institution of higher education. The beginning of the process is defined by the objectives and strategies (input, including funds and other resources) as expressed in governmental and institutional policy documents. As the process continues in the phase of implementation, three elements are central: student mobility, staff mobility and curriculum development. The arrows indicate their inter-relationship and reciprocal influence. For the effects (or output) of internationalisation, a distinction is made between short-term effects on the students, staff and education (the curriculum), and long-term effects on the quality and output (profile of the graduates) of education and on the position of the institution. Evaluation of the process could finally lead to a redefinition of objectives and/or strategies. International networking is considered as a pre-requisite for the process to occur and for this reason is not included in the model.
The differentiation of short-term and long-term effects makes clear that, despite the fact that mobility has a significant and generally positive effect on individual students (Opper, Teichler et al., 1990), it does not significantly influence the output or quality of education as a whole because these effects only touch a small percentage of students. (The 10 per cent mobility aim of the European Commission has still not been achieved). Moreover, as individual students are the most volatile element of education, long-term educational effects can hardly be expected from them. Staff mobility, and especially the development of curricula (the most stable element), could have a greater effect in the long-term on the total student population and on the quality of education.

A study of internationalisation carried out in the Netherlands and covering all elements of the model showed that staff mobility is actually an effective instrument for internationalisation. Goal achievement of staff mobility is very high (over 80 per cent of stated goals). However, staff mobility is almost always for purposes of organising student mobility and hardly ever aimed at curriculum-related activities. The influx of foreign students turned out to have the strongest influence in terms of internationalising the curriculum. This led to the conclusion that the effect of internationalisation on the content, output and quality of education is not yet very structural. An American analysis of more than twenty years of internationalisation policy comes to the same conclusion: "Although study abroad for Americans has been accommodated quite well in some institutions, curricula seldom were adjusted, thus without leading generally to any widespread institutional internationalisation" (Goodwin & Nacht, 1991).

The reason for this situation should be sought out. As already stated, it is not realistic to expect structural effects at an institutional or educational level from internationalisation programmes which are in practice almost exclusively directed towards encouraging student mobility. This exclusive focus (or narrow scope) is due to the fact that "in the design of the programmes often the conceptual link between exchange/mobility and curriculum is insufficient" (M. Harari, 1989). Another problem, besides this relative lack of coherence between the three key elements in the implementation phase (Figure 1), is the fact that internationalisation is not considered as a process of educational change. This is evident in that the strategies applied are mostly oriented towards external networking and that internal processes consist mainly of administrative procedures (often executed at a rather high level in the organisation’s hierarchy).

**Internationalisation as a process of educational change**

Considering internationalisation as a process of educational change aimed at improving the quality of higher education will lead to a broader and more coherent approach to internationalisation; one that takes into account the different dimensions of educational change. The effects of the change will depend on the interplay of these dimensions.

First of all, the international context of higher education represents a number of threats and opportunities for an institution, depending on its strengths and weaknesses in terms of educational programmes and quality (Davies, 1992). The institution’s strategy for internationalisation should bring together and employ those international activities which provide optimal input and conditions for the internal process of educational change and quality improvement.

The second dimension to be taken into account is the structure and culture of the institution. Higher education institutions can be characterised as "loosely coupled systems", with both strong bureaucratic regulations and academic values. The challenge is to involve all the actors at all levels within the institution (both academic and administrative) in the process of internationalisation. This calls for a combined top-down and bottom-up approach. American research (Washington State University, 1990) has demonstrated that institutions that enjoy the broad involvement of faculty members are actually more successful in their internationalisation activities.
The third dimension of educational change concerns the characteristics of the innovation. Internationalisation is aimed at achieving better understanding between nations and individuals and at improving the quality of higher education by means of international mobility and co-operation. Taking these objectives seriously requires an open attitude and an international orientation, both expressed in the curriculum and offered to the totality of the student population. Staff mobility will be indispensable for the development of such curricula, of which periods of study abroad for students will become a natural element.

The fourth and final dimension is the process of change itself, which is characterised by different phases. Roughly speaking these are adoption, implementation and institutionalisation, which together require several years (in the case of curriculum development often more than three years). However, external funding does not always provide financial support until the final phase, which is something that the institution should anticipate right from the beginning of a project. Managing internationalisation as a process of educational change requires, besides external networking, stronger emphasis on internal processes, such as internal networking (faculty can learn a great deal from each other’s experiences), organisational development and self-evaluation. This is essential to assure sufficient involvement and motivation (particularly on the faculty and departmental level) and to achieve the structural integration of internationalisation into the regular system of educational planning, development and evaluation.

Experience with internationalising the curriculum.

The impact of internationalisation on educational content, methods and processes will now be discussed on the basis of experience with internationalising curricula.

The term "curriculum" can be taken to mean the formal curriculum (objectives and content of courses) or, interpreted more broadly, the operational curriculum (also including teaching and learning methods, grouping of students, use of resources, media and technologies, assessment and evaluation, and place and time). With regard to internationalisation, the latter (broad) definition is employed. "Internationalising the curriculum" is also a broad concept which embraces a large variety of objectives, processes and products.

Activities undertaken in this area are first of all based on varying principles or objectives:

-- Strengthening the international professional competence of home students;
-- Strengthening the intercultural awareness of home students;
-- Increasing the breadth/depth of what is taught in a given subject area;
-- Modifying the curriculum to suit the heterogeneous population resulting from the influx of foreign students;
-- Developing special programmes for foreign students;
-- Improving students’ chances in the labour market by giving them international (double or bi-) diplomas;
-- Improving the quality of education;
-- Achieving social or humanitarian objectives.
These objectives reflect the various target groups: an institution’s own students, foreign students (exchange/regular/undergraduates or postgraduates), a combination of these two groups and groups abroad.

Activities for achieving the above-mentioned objectives can be undertaken by an institution on its own or in co-operation with a foreign partner.

Figure 2. **Implementation of curriculum internationalisation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In co-operation with foreign partner(s)</th>
<th>Alone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compare study programmes</td>
<td>Translate existing study programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapt study programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help in curriculum development</td>
<td>Modify existing study programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e.g. as in Tempus projects)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrate parts of foreign programmes</td>
<td>Develop new (parts of) study programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>into one’s own curriculum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jointly develop new study programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop joint or double degree programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sequence of the activities in the matrix is not arbitrary. The activities’ impact on the educational content, methods and processes increases as one proceeds downward. This means that the involvement and commitment of staff, the intensity and length of the implementation process and the commitment of funds should also increase along this continuum.

As mentioned above, many institutions consider undertaking such curriculum-related activities without giving sufficient attention to the implications for the process of educational change. Such a process demands time, clear objectives, careful planning, regular evaluations and the commitment of resources. This is apparent, for example, in the fact that many project plans envisage a much higher level of activities than turn out to be feasible in reality. Moreover, for countries with a minor national language, activities are often restricted to the translation (usually into English) of existing study programmes.

For the design of curricula one can theoretically employ any of the following strategies (Romiszowski, 1981):

-- **Subject analysis**: which international aspects of the subject area could be integrated into the curriculum;

-- **Job analysis**: what special knowledge and which skills and attitudes are required for operating in an international professional context;
-- Learner or target group analysis: what are the demands for international education and training and from which group of students do these come.

The first strategy is suitable for developing programmes in international law, for example (integrating European legislation into the curriculum), or international comparative education (analysing and comparing different educational systems and problems). It might, however, be difficult for a single faculty or department to have an international overview of the total subject area. Joint curriculum development is for this reason an ideal setting for employing this strategy.

An international programme in women’s studies (humanities) provides an example of joint curriculum development. In collaboration with a number of foreign partners, a department has examined the current, underlying theoretical trends and mapped the available literature. A variety of approaches have been incorporated into the programme, either as supplements or for purposes of comparison. Common themes or similar social problems related to the topic have been worked out and set against their theoretical background. In this way, the position of women in the various countries can be presented from a comparative perspective. This reveals the influence of historical, cultural and socio-economic factors better than would be the case if the context had been restricted to a single country. Students can take the course either at their own institution or at one of the foreign partner institutions. Students are always placed in international groups so that they can explain to one another the cultural context of various approaches. Lecturers are recruited from all participating institutions.

Another example is provided by a programme which was jointly developed by Dutch and Russian institutions on the topic "The Netherlands and Russia/the Soviet Union: the development of mutual relations and images". The programme is intended for student teachers and secondary school pupils in both countries. In this example, the topic itself requires development in an international context; it would not be successful if developed unilaterally.

The second strategy (job analysis) has been employed for developing programmes in international management and business studies. The international aspects of the professional profile were verified and analysed in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is important to mention that all stakeholders of higher education (the international business and industry, intermediate and professional organisations and graduates working in international jobs) were involved in this process. The resulting profile was compared to the curriculum content (the training profile). The results of this discrepancy analysis formed the basis for curriculum development. The training programme was not meeting the requirements of the business community in terms of foreign language proficiency, skills for negotiating in an international setting and a generally flexible attitude. Internationalising the curriculum in this case meant bringing the training and international professional profiles closer together. This is a process that is seen as continual and cyclical.

The third strategy (learner or target group analysis) can include aspects of marketing strategy. Programmes developed on the basis of this strategy can be of any sort, including distance and continuing education.

The products of international curriculum development consist of study programmes which differ in content, duration and level (see also: Harari, 1992):

-- Subject programmes (or modules) are given an international content or dimension. These can be comparative, supplementary or alternative in terms of content. International sources (e.g. literature) are integrated; examples are given an international character; acquired knowledge is applied from an international perspective and in an international context. (This form of curriculum development is in fact a continual process based on an international orientation to the specific subject or research area);
International programmes (e.g. International Law);

Interdisciplinary programmes (e.g. European Studies);

National and regional studies (e.g. Dutch or Asian Studies);

Programmes which have internationalisation or European unification as their subject;

Programmes in which a period of study, training or research abroad is an integral part of the curriculum;

Study of one or more foreign language is given a (larger) place in the curriculum;

The training of inter-cultural skills forms a part of the curriculum.

The term "programme" itself indicates a number of different forms, including complete study programmes, course modules, intensive courses, summer courses, master’s programmes and joint or double degree programmes, either at undergraduate or postgraduate level.

Internationalisation and the quality of education

The relationship between internationalisation and the quality of education touches on the very complex problem of defining educational quality -- a definition which finds its context in the history and tradition of specific educational systems. Both (still) have a very national character which impedes the international comparison of quality. Improved quality is reflected in educational output (the qualifications of graduates in terms of knowledge, attitude and skills). International mobility of students will certainly contribute to such a quality profile, but only for a small group of students. The question is how internationalisation can achieve such improvement in quality for the whole higher education target group. However, a narrow or exclusively output-oriented or product-oriented approach to quality is not sufficient for resolving this question. Internationalisation is also important for the processes within an institution of higher education.

In the discussion of this issue, this paper restricts itself to the question of how internationalisation contributes to the quality of education. As a result of insufficient empirical research material, all that can be formulated here are a number of problems and opportunities.

Opportunities

The first opportunity is the worthwhile learning situation offered by the international classroom. If the presence of foreign students is used as part of a social or intercultural learning concept in both teacher-student and student-student interaction, then the setting offers a worthwhile study experience. This setting represents a challenge to teachers. Teaching a heterogeneous group requires greater didactic skills: a multicultural approach, differentiation, interaction and the ability to deal with cultural differences. Teachers must be encouraged and trained to work in such situations. If there is a numerical imbalance, a common practice has been for teachers to choose to teach the different groups separately, especially when they can teach their students in their own language.

The second opportunity involves language acquisition (either a second or third language) for both students and teachers.
Thirdly, internationalising the curriculum can contribute to adding breadth and depth to the subject area. This occurs particularly in subject areas in which national professional structures theoretically play a great role. Examples of study areas which are likely to be affected include certain social sciences, teacher-training programmes and the study of law. Here the result of internationalisation is a deepening of content.

The fourth opportunity lies in improving the way students are prepared for international professional careers. This is particularly true if there is concern not only for possessing knowledge but also for the ability to obtain, exchange and apply knowledge in an international setting. Successful functioning in an international work situation requires a great deal of "knowledge versatility", i.e. the ability to adapt knowledge in a variable context. It also requires strategies for quickly acquiring knowledge and information in new situations, the so-called "meta-cognitive skills".

A fifth opportunity arising from the development of internationalised curricula together with foreign partners is the broad lever it affords for breaking through existing structures. This process can free a teacher from professional isolation and enhance the internal dynamics (or "change capacity") of the organisation. Both features are keys to quality improvement. If the expertise and experience of national professionals are merged in international curriculum development, the products (programmes) as a whole become worth far more than the sum of their parts.

Threats

The development of international curricula can also pose several threats to the quality of education.

The first potential problem is that internationalisation will externalise educational activities (or place them extra muros). Students carry out a part of their study programme in a foreign country; staff members work outside the institution’s walls. An institution’s "span of control" should be extended accordingly. If this does not occur, there is a danger that quality control will be lost. Recognition of periods of study abroad provides an example of this problem. An institution must be completely confident of the partner institution’s quality before it will trust it with the assessment of study results. Hesitant first steps are being taken, however, in the quality assessment of international activities.

A second problem related to the development of international study programmes lies in the fact that these programmes are required to accommodate new groups of students whose learning needs and learning styles are unknown. Simply assuming that students will be able to adapt is not enough to guarantee a successful good quality programme.

A third problem applies to countries with a minor language. In such countries, offering international educational programmes means that both teachers and students will be working in a second or third language. In varying degrees, depending upon the subject area, this too requires special measures and conditions if the quality of education is not to be endangered (Jochems & Vinke, 1992).

A proposal for empirical research

A stronger empirical approach will lead to more solid statements and conclusions about the effects of internationalisation on the quality of education. Educational output (profiles of graduates and their labour market positions and career patterns) reflects the quality of education. As argued previously, however, it is not sufficient to consider this question only in terms of output. Educational processes are equally important for the quality of education. It could be helpful and interesting in this regard to employ
a taxonomy of learning objectives in order to verify whether higher learning objectives are achieved more by internationalised curricula than by "normal" curricula.
NOTES

BIBLIOGRAPHY


ERASMUS NEWSLETTER 1992, no. 13, "Joint Curriculum Development".

ERASMUS NEWSLETTER 1993, no. 17, "Erasmus: Evaluation".

FULLAN, M.G. (1991), The New Meaning of Educational Change, Teachers College, Colombia University, New York and London.


OECD, The Management of Innovation in Education. Paris, CERI.


MOBILITY FOR CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE: 
THE ERASMUS MODEL AND THE TEMPUS EXPERIENCE

Lesley Wilson

Summary

Both the ERASMUS and TEMPUS Programmes provide mechanisms encouraging student mobility. The purpose of this paper is to compare and contrast the aims and objectives of the two programmes, their funding mechanisms and procedures, to look more closely at the specific TEMPUS experience to date and finally to make some suggestions concerning Central and Eastern European regional initiatives which could usefully be considered in the future in this area.

Objectives of ERASMUS and TEMPUS

The key objectives at the beginning of the ERASMUS Programme (adopted by the EC in June 1987), and which have remained, were to:

-- achieve a significant increase in student and staff mobility between higher education institutions;
-- promote broad and lasting inter-institutional co-operation;
-- contribute to the concept of a people’s Europe;
-- contribute to the economic and social development of Europe through the creation of a significant number of higher education graduates with direct experience of intra-European co-operation.

The aims of TEMPUS have, on the other hand, developed quite considerably since the introduction of the programme in 1990. For Phase I of the programme (May 1990 - June 1994), the aims reflected the fact that TEMPUS was heavily inspired by the ERASMUS (and COMETT) models, namely to:

-- facilitate the co-ordination of the provision of assistance to the eligible countries of Central and Eastern Europe in the field of exchange and mobility, particularly for university students and teachers;
-- contribute to the improvement of training and encourage co-operation with partners in the EU;
-- increase opportunities for language learning.

However, the objectives of TEMPUS II (as agreed on by the Council of Ministers on 23 April 1993 for the four-year period starting in July 1994) are, as part of the overall objectives of PHARE and TACIS in the context of economic and social reform, to promote the development of the higher education...
systems in the eligible countries through as balanced as possible a co-operation with European Union Member states and in particular seeking to address:

-- issues of curricular reform and overhaul in priority areas;
-- the reform of higher education structures and institutions and their management;
-- the development of skill-related training to address specific higher and advanced level skill shortages during economic reform, in particular through improved and extended links to industry.

Thus, it is clear that within TEMPUS mobility is not to be considered as an end in itself but more a tool with which to achieve the restructuring ends set out above.

Activities supported

ERASMUS provides support first and foremost to Inter-University Co-operation Programmes (constituting the European University Network) and via the ERASMUS Student Grant Scheme to students participating in these ICPs. ICPs set up under ERASMUS may involve:

-- student mobility (first and foremost) of between 3 months and one year and involving full recognition of the study abroad period;
-- teaching staff mobility programmes enabling staff to make a substantial contribution to the regular teaching programme of a partner institution for between 1 week and 1 year;
-- in a limited way, the joint development of curricula, especially courses contributing to improved academic recognition or incorporating the European dimension into course content;
-- intensive programmes.

In addition, there are a number of measures foreseen to promote mobility through the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study, including the piloting of the European Community Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS). The aim of this six-year pilot project launched in 1989/90 (which enables students to receive credit for periods of study carried out and qualifications obtained at higher education institutions in other Member states) is to develop a system of credit transfer which will operate as an effective instrument of academic recognition. The five subject areas involved are business administration, history, medicine, chemistry and mechanical engineering. There are 145 institutions involved in the pilot phase.

TEMPUS objectives are attained first and foremost by means of the implementation of Joint European Projects (JEPs) aimed at providing structural support to at least one university in one eligible country and involving institutions from at least two Member states. The aim is to bring about structural change in particular via:

-- the development and revision of curricula and the related preparation of teaching materials: this tends to be the core activity and often provides the basis for all other action undertaken;
-- teaching, training and up-dating activities for staff;
-- student mobility;
-- provision of equipment, including the provision of relevant books, periodicals and software;

-- co-operation with industry;

Support is also available for a small number of mobility JEPs which correspond more or less to ERASMUS ICPs, although the selection criteria are slightly different, in particular with regard to the question of academic recognition for study abroad periods which is not a requirement within TEMPUS where the main emphasis is placed on the establishment of viable networks.

**Priority areas**

One major difference between ERASMUS and TEMPUS is that while it is the aim of ERASMUS to support mobility in all disciplines in as balanced a way as possible, the quality of the project application being the main selection criterion, support within TEMPUS is closely linked to the development of national priorities for support agreed on with each eligible country in turn and in accordance with the overall PHARE objectives and policy for the economic, social and educational reform of each country respectively.

**Coverage**

The ERASMUS Programme covers co-operation between the Member states of the EU and also includes the EFTA countries. Projects involving EFTA institutions must always include at least two EU institutions in addition to the EFTA partner. EU-only projects may be bilateral in nature.

In TEMPUS projects there must always be two Community institutions participating, of which one must be a university. There is no limit to the number of Central and Eastern European institutions participating and, indeed, in 1991 and 1992 TEMPUS received a special budget from the PHARE Regional Fund to support regional projects, i.e. those projects with at least two eligible country partners.

However, provision of support for regional projects is proving increasingly difficult within TEMPUS because the development of more and more specific national priorities makes the preparation of regional projects difficult. This is also due to the lack of funds earmarked for the purpose: any regional projects supported in TEMPUS since last year have to be financed proportionally from the national budgets of the countries concerned.

In the academic year 1993/94 it is expected, nevertheless, that some 200 staff members and some 40 students will move between eligible countries within TEMPUS projects. This point is referred to later.
Comparative Figures for 1993/94

Table 1. **ERASMUS/TEMPUS comparison 1993/94**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme</th>
<th>Budget (in MECUs)</th>
<th>No. of Programme</th>
<th>Staff Mobility</th>
<th>Student Mobility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ERASMUS</td>
<td>97.8</td>
<td>2 153 ICPs</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>103.894 (est)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPUS</td>
<td>129.1</td>
<td>504 JEPs</td>
<td>9.518</td>
<td>6.166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. **Average Grants awarded 1993/94**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>per ICP/JEP (without mob.)</th>
<th>per ICP/JEP (with mobility)</th>
<th>per institute (with mobility)</th>
<th>per student (per month)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ERASMUS</td>
<td>10.915</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1.646</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPUS</td>
<td>58-75.000</td>
<td>117-159.000</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here it is important to stress that whereas TEMPUS funding is supposed to cover all project costs incurred, ERASMUS support is designed to cover only the additional costs of mobility.

The role of student mobility in TEMPUS 1990 - 1994

TEMPS does not provide support to individual students. Although this did take place in the first two years of the programme, the Commission decided that, given the limited resources available, this was not the best use of Community funds.

Almost all TEMPUS projects contain some student mobility. Of the 504 JEPs in existence at present, 477 (75 per cent) are structural JEPs while the remaining 27 projects (25 per cent) are designed first and foremost to stimulate student mobility.

All projects are evaluated according to the following criteria:

-- Objective defined and activities proposed to reach the stated objective.
-- Management of the project.
-- Effects/impact of the project.

However, whereas with regard to structural projects the stated objectives and the activities proposed to reach these objectives are of paramount importance, with regard to mobility projects the emphasis is put on the value of the network and on the quality of the practical arrangements put in place to support the planned mobility. Recognition of studies is of course desirable but not at present a precondition for acceptance of a project. Thus priority is given to projects where students’ study abroad periods are recognised towards their degree work.
In TEMPUS mobility flows tend to be from East/Central Europe to the European Union. Thus, for 1993/94, 5 253 of the 6 166 students moving will go/went in this direction. Of the 873 students moving from the EU to the eligible states, the most popular destinations are Poland (261), Hungary (191) and the Czech Republic (126), followed by Romania (91), Bulgaria (60) and the Slovak Republic.

Although no systematic analysis has been done on the role of mobility within TEMPUS to date, the following comments can be made.

In the context of JEPs with a structural objective it can be said that, while extremely beneficial to the individual students concerned, student mobility has limited immediate impact on the sending institution of the eligible country (especially compared to curriculum development activities, the acquisition of equipment, the retraining of teachers and other such key activities). At the same time, in the medium term returnees can modify attitudes within the departments concerned among both fellow students and teaching staff, often obliging the latter to consider changes in curriculum and teaching methods. Where student mobility is directly linked to curriculum development the structured involvement of students, whether full-time or post experience, can play an important role in ensuring necessary feedback regarding new courses. Where student mobility directly concerns the training of future university teachers it may also prove beneficial, although it is difficult to guarantee that students will remain in university life. Skilled young professionals with EU experience and command of foreign languages are often tempted by more attractive offers from private enterprise.

With regard to mobility projects, again reports received from project co-ordinators put the emphasis on the benefit to the individual students with regard to language and cultural understanding resulting from the students’ exposure to different standards and ways of thinking. In addition, students expected clear career advantages resulting from their study abroad period.

The main problems which occurred were related to recognition of study abroad periods, integration into the host institutions and, in a very practical way, to accommodation. Difficulties with regard to recognition tended to occur where studies and examinations for Eastern European students were concerned. Recognition practice depended on the decisions of individual staff members at departmental level in the home institutions. In addition, the dependence of continued mobility on full TEMPUS funding is stressed.

One important side effect of student exchange programmes concerns organisational project management skills. The eligible institutions learned new skills concerning the planning and organisation of exchanges, preparation and assessment of study abroad periods.

Recommendations for action

A. Objectives

With regard to the future development of academic mobility with and between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe a number of remarks can be made. These remarks start from the premise that an intensification both of mobility between the European Union and the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe is to be considered desirable.

One important factor here is the very high demand for TEMPUS support -- the average success rate for TEMPUS applications is around 10 per cent -- and demand is high from throughout Central and Eastern Europe. Another perhaps more important factor is that TEMPUS as it is provides very little support for regional initiatives. Although 20 per cent of existing projects are regional in nature, i.e. they involve partners from more than one Central and Eastern European country, these are for the most part projects in their third year of activities which were first selected in 1991 when 15 MECU from the PHARE Regional Fund was made available for TEMPUS -- all new regional projects have to find support from national
PHARE funds which, of course, is not a top priority for the countries concerned. Moreover, a first analysis of TEMPUS Regional projects suggests that there tends to be a series of bilateral partnerships around a centre based in the Community -- rather like the spokes on a wheel -- but with little communication between them.

Action is therefore important to stimulate academic co-operation and mobility between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe in order to create a broad basis for common understanding.

B. Suggested action

Support for academic co-operation and mobility between the eligible countries

One measure which would without doubt encourage co-operation between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, rather than predominantly bilateral relations with Community countries, is the provision of support for academic co-operation and mobility between eligible countries.

In this context it is important to mention the conclusion of the CEEPUS inter-governmental agreements at the end of 1993. CEEPUS (Central European Exchange Programme for University Studies) was promoted by the Austrian authorities and involved the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

The Agreement obliges the contracting parties to develop and promote a Central European University Network designed to stimulate academic mobility, in particular student mobility within Central Europe and to promote Central European co-operation in cultural and scientific matters. Individual scholarships will be awarded and support also provided for intensive courses and language tuition.

A central CEEPUS Office has been established in Vienna.

One can envisage support only for the additional costs of mobility.

With regard to the subjects/priority areas for support, one suggestion would be to provide support principally for co-operation projects involving teacher and student mobility in areas designated as a priority for action at regional level, for example:

-- Geographical areas such as the Danube basin or the Black Sea.

-- Crossborder co-operation projects linking Central and Eastern European countries with common borders.

For the institutions involved the challenge is great, for example to develop the institutional structures necessary to receive students, remembering that in TEMPUS only 800 of the 6 000 students moving in the academic year 1993/94 will go West/East. In particular the questions of language preparation, accommodation, health insurance, visas, tuition fees and academic recognition would have to be considered.

Support for the development of academic recognition procedures: the extension of the ECTS pilot project to Central and Eastern Europe

An issue which needs immediate attention with regard both to relations between the European Union and the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and between the beneficiary countries themselves, is that of academic recognition.
As explained above, academic recognition of study abroad periods is not a pre-condition for TEMPUS support, but it is increasingly being mentioned as a major problem by grant-holders in their reports. Moreover, given that ECTS within the Community has been developed already as a workable mechanism for supporting credit and grade transfer within mobility programmes, there is a strong case for its introduction -- or at least the introduction of its principles and practices -- into the PHARE eligible countries. Furthermore, given the importance of this issue for all eligible countries, the financing of this activity could be considered on a regional basis.

Of particular importance would be the transfer of knowledge and experience concerning the standards which have been constructed for credit and grade transfer, as well as the transfer of the mechanisms for implementing ECTS, especially the student application form prior to mobility and the student transcript of credits and grades attained. Also paramount is the trust that must be established between the participating institutions. This implies that each would have adequate knowledge of the other’s educational programmes. Support could be considered:

-- to allow the countries to participate as observers in the remaining phase of the ECTS pilot project;

-- to provide information materials, e.g. translation of guidelines for use of ECTS into national languages and training workshops;

-- to cover administrative costs for the institutions involved.

Another important element in the debate on academic recognition could be the further development of the National Recognition Information Centres (NARICs) network in Central and Eastern Europe via further support for the development of the National Equivalence Information Centres (NEICs) co-ordinated by the Council of Europe and the National Information Bodies (NIBs) organised by the European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES).

Administrative Framework

In future the co-ordination of activities from the point of view of the European Commission should be improved and the possibilities made greater in view of the decision made in October to set up the European Training Foundation in Turin. This Foundation will take over the technical assistance functions with regard to TEMPUS presently carried out by the EC TEMPUS Office. Alongside the implementation of programme operations in the vocational training/continuing education and higher education fields it will also have an observatory function analysing and reporting on trends in the eligible PHARE and TACIS countries in the training field.
Part II

COUNTRY REPORTS
Introduction

Estonia is a society in transition. The changes which began in 1988 proliferated from year to year and reached a climatic point in 1991 with a declaration of independence which restored the powers of the Republic of Estonia, occupied by the Soviet Union since 1940. Since then major political, social, economical and legal reforms penetrating almost every aspect of society have been made. Higher education -- its institutions, organisation and even objectives -- has been revised in a process that is still underway. In this process internationalisation is a key issue in many respects. First and foremost, there is a general "Go West" or "Drang nach Westen" feeling in the society due to its new independence. Secondly, it is clear that Estonia (as well as other Baltic and Central and Eastern European states) has to choose between two options -- to be bound to the Eurasian territory dominated by Russia or to the European territory dominated by the European Union. The decision has to be made and this will require a thorough revision of links and ties. Thirdly, given the small size of Estonia and its historical experience, it is clear that its strength is in its being an open, flexible, co-operative country, a sort of "missing link" between different countries and cultures. Last but not least, internationalisation has been economically rewarding, both on national and personal levels. The most clear example of this is seen with regard to the economic and trade policy of Estonia. Estonia has opened its economy in all sectors, including the agricultural sector. It has done the same in higher education where the breaking down of the rigid Soviet system has created an atmosphere of institutional freedom conducive to developing international ties. Although major qualitative changes have taken place Estonia is still at the very beginning of this process. There is enough room for both extensive and intensive development. As yet there has been little effort to plan or even guide the internationalisation process as the corresponding institutional mechanisms are under-developed. Certainly it is time to start looking at internationalisation as integral to university life and planning.

Higher education in Estonia

Estonian higher education has its roots in Tartu University which was established in 1632 by the Swedish King Gustav Adolf. In 1802 Alexander I re-established the university as an academic gateway between Central Europe and the Russian Empire which gained it a remarkable academic position among other European universities of the 19th century. Since 1919 it has been an Estonian university. During this same period higher technical learning was started in Tallinn. By the end of the Soviet period Estonia had six institutions of higher education (HEI’s): Tartu University, Tallinn Polytechnical Institute, Tallinn Teachers Training Institute, Tallinn Conservatory, Tallinn Institute of Fine Arts and the Estonian Agricultural Academy. They were all organised according to Soviet standards which were more or less the same for all the former Eastern Bloc countries. It should be mentioned that this system was largely based on the German university model which, once accepted by Russia, was introduced with the help of Tartu University.

Estonia, with a population of 1.6 million, has about 23 000 students studying in HEI’s. Besides these institutions of higher learning there were other institutions of post-secondary education: technical high schools (with two to three-year study programmes) and vocational schools (with up to two-year study programmes) enrolling about 30 000 students in total. Since 1991 the situation has changed as a result of
the liberalisation of rules and procedures. All six HEI’s have declared themselves universities, six former technical high schools have been transformed into "Fachhochschulen", an Academy of Public Safety was established and a number of other (semi) private HEI’s have emerged with an unclear legal status. Table 1 gives the number of students in the public HEI’s in 1992.

Table 1. **Number of students in Estonian HEI’s (1992)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEI</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Admission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tartu University</td>
<td>7 391</td>
<td>1 204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tallinn Technical University</td>
<td>7 825</td>
<td>1 376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tallinn University of Arts</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonian Academy of Music</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonian Agricultural Univ.</td>
<td>3 472</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tallinn Pedagogical Univ.</td>
<td>3 223</td>
<td>678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (7)</td>
<td>1 098</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>23 973</td>
<td>4 185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One major change has taken place in the overall structure of university education during the past three years. The standard Soviet five-year diploma study programmes have been replaced by a four-year basic (bachelor) programme, followed by a two-year master’s programme and a four-year doctoral programme. It must be noted that all these changes took place in a "self-regulatory" manner and were initiated by the universities themselves rather than by the ministry. The latter was drastically re-organised (a single Ministry of Culture and Education replaced three ministries of culture, education and higher education) and presently HEI’s are supervised by the Department of Higher Education and Science which employs five people. A major achievement of the ministry has been the drafting of the Higher Education Act, which has been recently handed over to the Parliament and is due to be passed this spring. It is supposed to lay down the basic principles of the higher education sector and provide a legal basis for stable development. It grants considerable autonomy to the universities, not only in academic matters but also in deciding higher education policy issues. One expects this Act to put an end to the uncontrolled and often adventurous expansion of the HEI sector by introducing appropriate quality assurance measures.

Given the lack of reliable information about the activities of the "new" HEI’s, the following report is based on the mobility activities in the old institutions with an emphasis on Tartu University. However, it is clear that the present situation, with its problems and main trends, reflects that of other Baltic states as well.

**Internationalisation: past and present**

The Soviet HEI system was well organised with regard to internationalisation. Major central HEI’s of the Soviet Union, mostly in Moscow, Leningrad and other big cities, had a number of international students from developing countries and the Eastern Bloc states who were trained and indoctrinated to support the strategic interests of the Soviet Union in those countries. Estonian HEI’s did not belong to these institutions and had no students from outside the Soviet Union. At the same time a well established system functioned within the Soviet Union to promote university studies outside the national republic by providing special quotas for university admission. It must, however, be kept in mind that higher learning in the Baltic states was kept in the native language which, of course, deterred most students. Therefore, the number of native Estonian students who studied outside Estonia in those times was less than 3 per cent. On the other hand, extensive immigration processes during that period resulted in bringing in a great number of people who had studied outside Estonia. As well, some 10 per cent of the students at Tartu
University were also born outside Estonia. These students studied in Russian and several programmes were run in two languages. Owing to the fact that all the study programmes, requirements, etc., were standardised and that internationalisation was administered from Moscow, no traditional internationalisation problems arose.

At present the situation is totally different. Estonian HEI’s are national institutions (providing programmes in Estonian and Russian), which aim to provide higher education to the resident population independent of nationality. It may be said that the overwhelming majority of native Estonians study in Estonia. The number of non-Estonians who start their studies outside Estonia (in Russia) is definitely larger but hard to estimate at present. At the same time it is becoming more and more evident that the higher education system cannot support programmes in all fields and is forced to go international on the national level and develop corresponding means and measures. Very little has been done in this direction. Internationalisation up until now has been more or less spontaneous on all levels concerned -- personal, institutional and national. The following part of this paper will examine the different aspects of this process.

Student mobility

Student mobility at present can be divided into two categories. First, there are a considerable number of young people looking for study abroad possibilities and seeking support from different sources. No national support schemes exist and in most cases financing is taken over by foreign donors and, increasingly, by local firms or even wealthy parents. No statistics are available as of yet, but a reasonable estimate is that around 1 per cent of the 4 000 students admitted every year start their studies abroad. Secondly, students of Estonian HEI’s stay for either short or long periods at a foreign university. Tartu University has a number of inter-university agreements (a total of 41) which support student exchange. In addition to these bilateral agreements it takes part in different multilateral consortia-type activities (ISEP, Baltic Studies Consortium in the US). Substantial funding for these short-term studies (two to six months in general) comes from different national bodies: British Council, DAAD, CIMO, Northern Council of Ministers, etc. There is no reliable data on the number of students who study abroad but, again, a reasonable estimate is 1-2 per cent of the total enrolment. The lack of reliable data and overview is due to the extremely liberal attitude of the faculties towards studies abroad and related study times. No rules exist and credit recognition is not a major issue. Often studies abroad are accepted as an excuse to lengthen study times. Only recently has the need to streamline international study requirements been recognised.

The situation with Estonian students studying abroad is generally the same in all universities, the only difference being the number of bilateral agreements the corresponding university has. In this respect, Tartu University has the lead. The situation is different, however, in the case of foreign students studying in Estonia. Tartu University presently has 71 foreign students and other universities enrol about 40 in total. Among the latter a considerable number come from the Mari and Udmurti Republics of the Russian Federation due to an inter-governmental agreement. The distribution of international students at Tartu University according to countries is given in Table 2.
Table 2. International students of Tartu University (Spring 1994)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mari</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Udmurti</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bashkiria</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mordva</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One third of the exchange students are from partner universities, another third come by inter-governmental agreements and the rest come on their own initiative, paying the study fee set by the university at $US 1,000 per semester. At present foreign students come to Tartu because of their interest in a shared historical and cultural background (in the case of descendants of expatriate Estonians this entails a "search for one’s roots"), an interest in the social changes and cheap living. It is clear that considerable effort has to be made in order to increase the number of international students to the target of 10 per cent by the end of the century. First of all, specific study programmes must be developed for those with regional interests. Secondly, English language (graduate) courses must be developed in the areas of (potential) academic excellence. Thirdly, special language courses must be offered for those who wish to study in Estonia due to whatever other (non-academic) reasons such as cheaper living or easier access. Tartu University has only recently begun activities to increase the number of international students. The present level reflects the potential of the university.

In order to develop internationalisation, the university seeks to offer competitive academic quality for specific interest groups, as well as create centres of excellence in regional studies and in traditionally strong research areas.

Staff mobility

Much more than student mobility, staff mobility has changed the old style of university life. Today, nearly every university teacher has had a hands-on experience of a foreign (western) university. This has brought about a qualitative change in thinking which may lead to the establishment of a modern research-based university. However, given the economic realities, one can also see the major threats. Many local teachers who go abroad have been prolonging their stays indefinitely. As a result, there has been a loss of interest in teaching at home. New professional qualities acquired through up-grading or studies abroad have increased both the internal and external brain-drain. Uncompetitive salary levels present a major threat to the development of higher education in general and no solution has been found to prevent staff mobility from worsening the situation. The university is forced to introduce repressive measures to get this process under control. It has also become clear that the mobility of the academic staff must be based much more on academic excellence and that "academic subsidies" must not be allocated for academic tourism and the degradation of local activities. Another problem is the fact that mobility is funded by external sources and remains very much outside of university control. This makes it extremely hard for
the university to achieve its strategic aims for it lacks the means to motivate the staff. This has become
evident in some TEMPUS projects as well as other cases where substantial external funding exceeds that
provided by the university. It seems inevitable that local staff mobility must be reorganised as soon as
possible so that aid and support driven schemes do not take precedence over academic performance.

Foreign teachers have influenced the general atmosphere of the universities as well. Tartu University presently has 27 foreign teachers who work one semester or more in Tartu. The number of teachers on shorter visits is hard to estimate but may well be of the same order on average. In total they make up 5 per cent of the local academic staff and their impact on the university is hard to over-estimate. It is therefore important that the universities increase the number of foreign teachers, especially those who stay for a longer time.

Academic co-operation

There has been a considerable expansion of international research co-operation over the last few
years. This has happened largely through bilateral co-operation agreements between universities. Tartu University has 41 of these, each one covering several research areas. TEMPUS projects have contributed to the extension of co-operation to new areas and other European Commission programmes have also created a considerable number of new contacts. However, in all these programmes there is a common drawback from the point of view of Estonian universities, which is that the activities tend to be concentrated in the partner university and therefore no new infrastructure is created within Estonian universities. It is therefore highly welcome that the new European Commission-funded co-operation scheme COPERNICUS foresees that at least 75 per cent of the support will go to the CEC partner.

Fortunately academic co-operation is accompanied by staff (and student) mobility but it is even
more important to make every possible effort to guarantee that this mobility is mutual.

Management of international co-operation

Presently there has been hardly any effort to plan or guide internationalisation. The ministry has
a department of international relations which is mainly engaged in providing information on possible
contacts and co-operation opportunities to all three of its sectors. At the university level separate units (two
to five persons) for international relations exist. These are subordinated to the rector or corresponding vice-
rector, but in most cases they are also unstructured and their main function is to provide information and
help solve daily problems, from running hot water to visas. Tartu University clearly sees the need to
develop a functionally differentiated unit to manage internationalisation in its different aspects, one which
would be headed by an academic person capable of co-ordinating the activities in different faculties and
taking the lead in university policy-making.

Strategic goals and practical implications

It is clear that higher education in Estonia must have a strong international component because
of the small size of the country but also because of world-wide trends and student preferences. Tartu
University would like to see 10 per cent of its staff and students become international by the end of the
century. However this issue has hardly been of major concern to higher education policy makers on the
national level. Clearly, for them there are many more vital problems to be solved. On the other hand it
will be an increasingly important issue in the future when long-term goals will be discussed.
Instead of conclusions

Internationalisation of higher education in Estonia is expanding to almost every institution and influencing all aspects of university life. It has been a largely spontaneous process driven by strong personal interests and has resulted in several positive changes. One can say that higher education is becoming used to the international environment and feels it has to fight hard to prove its viability in this new context. The need for a well-planned international strategy is becoming more and more evident every day. The major threat this internationalisation process poses for a country such as Estonia is that because of the uncompetitive salary levels of the higher education sector, its tendency will be to drain the country of its academic staff. This problem has to be dealt with most seriously so that universities will not run out of the high quality academics who are most able to motivate young people to plan academic careers.
MOBILITY OF STUDENTS AND ACADEMIC TEACHERS:
DIFFICULTIES, TRENDS AND PROSPECTS

Jerzy Wiśniewski

This paper sets out to describe the changing trends in the mobility of students, academic teachers and researchers. The data has been supplied by the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Poland. However, it should be pointed out that it is difficult to compare the information concerning previously existing mobility schemes and those implemented at present because in the former academic exchange was combined with scientific/research programmes and in the latter these two are separated. This was due to the fact that until 1988 there were two separate ministries, one for science and higher education and another for school education.

Generally speaking, in spite of the changing political situation the Ministry of Education continues to promote the mobility of students, academic teachers and researchers. This activity has two aims:

-- to facilitate the improvement of curricula, study programmes, up-dating knowledge and information in various academic fields, building up and strengthening links between higher education and research institutions;

-- to serve as an important part of the international as well as the internal policy of the country.

Diagrams 1-3 show data concerning the mobility of academic staff and students.

Diagram 1 shows the number of faculty staff members who went to foreign countries for studies, to carry out joint research projects, to attend conferences, to deliver lectures, etc. The numbers concerning Germany until 1990 cover both GDR and the Federal Republic.

This table shows that the reunification of Germany did not bring about a decrease in the number of the visits there. On the contrary, the number of Polish academics who went there in 1991 (5 509) is almost two times more than the number of visits to West Germany in 1989 (3 135).
In the same period, the extent of mobility to the United States of America also changed significantly (although it is hard to recognize it from Diagram 1). In 1990 there were 543 visits and 901 in 1991.

Table 2. **Mobility of East and West Germany to Poland**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1983</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>1989</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDR</td>
<td>3 142</td>
<td>2 293</td>
<td>2 623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRG</td>
<td>1 304</td>
<td>873</td>
<td>1 619</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the time of so called "real socialism", the Ministry had almost total control of international co-operation in education. Universities were required to ask for permission to sign agreements with partner universities in other countries. Staff members of a university faculty could not officially leave the country without such permission. Of course, this ministerial power was used as a political tool rather than as an instrument for upgrading the quality of teaching and academic curricula.

In the 1980s Poland had inter-governmental agreements in the field of education with all socialist countries. Most of them covered exchange schemes for academic teachers as well as students.
Diagram 2. Mobility from Poland: Students

Diagram 3. Mobility to Poland: Foreign Staff
Similar agreements were signed with a few western countries, however, exchange was limited only to researchers, teachers and post-graduate students. Exchange quotas were much smaller than those for socialist countries. Some non-governmental organisations (e.g. The Kosciuszko Foundation) tried to overcome the obstacles and limitations of the official programmes and offered scholarships for independently selected scholars.

In the year 1972 the so called Prague Convention on the equivalence of degrees and certificates was signed by GDR, Hungary, Romania, the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Poland, North Korea, Mongolia and Vietnam. According to this Convention, certificates of similar levels of education in all the countries party to the Convention were to be treated equally.

It is interesting to examine not only quantitative data, but also documents which describe trends in international educational policy. In the 1986 analysis prepared by the then existing Ministry of Science and Higher Education, the following information was brought out: "the number of lecturers of social sciences sent to training courses in Moscow and Kijov increased substantially, almost four times (from 25 persons in 1980 to 92 in 1985)." An explanation for this, as those from the Eastern Europe know, is that the term "lecturers of social sciences" was used to describe party officials responsible for indoctrination.

Another part of the same document mentions the fields of co-operation with GDR. The main themes of joint "research projects" were: Marxism-Leninism, Marxist philosophy, socialist economy and improvement of socialistic law. (One might wonder what "socialistic law" means? It is obvious that the "socialist economy" has no sense.)

At the same time, there were "difficulties" in co-operation with western countries. Western partners were not interested in co-operation within the governmental agreements. They preferred to invite outstanding scholars to their universities directly. Obviously such invitations did not suffice for a professor to go abroad. A professor needed to have the permission of the ministry and, last but not least, a passport which was not issued to everyone who applied.

A breakthrough came in 1989 along with the change of the political system. New legal acts, notably the Higher Education Act of September 1990, were passed by the Parliament granting extensive autonomy to universities. Also, G-24 countries launched assistance programmes, allocating considerable funds for joint initiatives in the field of education, the largest one being TEMPUS.

The Act on Higher Education grants greater autonomy to universities. It is now up to academic institutions to decide on their international activities. They may sign inter-university agreements and participate in international programmes.

Although the Ministry has retained responsibility for the implementation of inter-governmental agreements, selection procedures are now based on non-political criteria, for example, quality. Often open competitions are organized to select the best candidates or projects.

On the other hand, this autonomy makes universities responsible for financing the exchange programmes. They are subsidized by the State but it is up to particular institutions how they spend the money. Unfortunately, universities often lack funds for international exchange. That is one of the reasons why assistance programmes are so important. The biggest is TEMPUS which was established by the European Community in 1990 with the aim of supporting the reform of higher education through individual mobility of teachers, as well as joint university projects.

An interesting survey has been completed by the Institute for Applied Social Sciences of Warsaw University, "Analysis of Tempus programme in the years 1990-1992 based on the questionnaires". Some of the findings concerning students’ exchange will be presented here. Within the individual mobility
programme 464 students visited EU Member states in the academic year 1990/91 and 204 in 1991/92. The distribution of the host countries is presented in Diagram 4.

Diagram 4. TEMPUS Hosting Countries

The survey provides interesting information on the effectiveness of individual mobility as a part of study programmes in Poland. The biggest obstacle was "non-compatibility" of European and Polish studies. No system of transfers of credits exists, nor are there practical ad hoc solutions. This situation has brought forth several problems.

For example, 50 per cent of students participating in individual mobility have extended the period of their studies at the home university. Diagram 5 shows credits awarded by home institutions. On the other hand, western institutions did not impose too many requirements on Polish students (Table 3).
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recognition of credits for subjects undertaken in the host institutions</th>
<th>90/91</th>
<th>91/92</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A whole year of study</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialisation subjects</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical placement</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optional subjects</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagram 5. Requirements in Host Universities

In spite of the difficulties, thanks to TEMPUS much progress in promoting exchange with Western Europe has been achieved.

However, in terms of increasing co-operation with Western countries, less importance is attached to joint initiatives with countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Polish researchers and students are not
interested in the studies these countries offer. The political situation and economic difficulties are accompanied by out of date curricula and the uncertainty of future employment.

Prospects and plans for the future

Poland will very soon join the Council of Europe Conventions on the equivalence of diplomas, periods of studies and recognition of university qualifications. In this way Poland expects to overcome some of the problems of student mobility described in this paper. This, of course, is just the first step and reform of Polish higher education is needed.

The Ministry of National Education is going to use a more flexible approach to governmental agreements and international programmes. The idea is to support grass root level co-operation between universities, faculties and institutes. The role of the Ministry is to facilitate and support such collaboration.

Universities are also trying to attract foreign students by introducing courses in English, French or German.

Presently, mobility programmes in Poland are not serving political purposes any more but they are not yet influential enough to improve the quality of studies.
THE IMPORTANCE OF A NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATION
IN THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

Olga Šubeníková

The Slovak Academic Information Agency (SAIA), in accordance with an agreement with the Ministry of Education and Science of the Slovak Republic, collects information and provides academic advice concerning foreign study possibilities for students, scholars, teachers, faculty members, and professionals from various fields. Information on foreign study programmes is available to all individuals. The most current information associated with education and study opportunities can be found in the SAIA library, the Bulletin SAIA or in the daily press.

The SAIA library is open to the general public without charge. It contains the addresses of thousands of educational institutions throughout the world, information about and study materials for standardised language and knowledge achievement tests (TOEFL, GRE, GMAT, SAT, USMLE), catalogues containing the addresses of domestic and foreign foundations that offer help and support, as well as other informational and advisory materials for students, educators and researchers.

The Bulletin SAIA provides the most current information about foreign study opportunities, the results of competitions and information about additional activities of the agency. The Bulletin SAIA is published eleven times a year; with a circulation of 700 copies.

The Bulletin SAIA is distributed free of cost to chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors of foreign relations, deans, assistant deans of foreign relations, departments of foreign relations of all universities in Slovakia and also to some embassies and partner institutions. Individuals can subscribe to the Bulletin SAIA and either buy or consult individual issues in the SAIA library.

The system of open competitions enables all individuals interested in foreign study to seek assistance. In 1993 the SAIA organised 41 competitions for foreign-study stays in 27 countries in which 1 113 applications were considered. Selection committees nominated 626 candidates for different stipends or study stays (semester or year-long stays, graduate studies, language training, etc.).

Selection committees are composed of representatives from Slovak universities, institutes of the Slovak Academy of Sciences, foreign embassies in Slovakia or foreign institutions that provide scholarships, language experts and foreign lecturers who work in Slovakia. The task of SAIA is to organise selection committees, disseminate information concerning application procedures, assure that all materials are properly prepared and to publish the results of the competitions.

The competitions that SAIA organises according to the agreement with the Slovak Ministry of Education and Science are either for scholarships resulting from bilateral governmental agreements or for scholarships that the SAIA receives directly from foreign partners.

The Ministry of Education and Sciences of the Slovak Republic has charged the SAIA with the administration of Programme Austria - Slovak Republic and the new programme CEEPUS for the countries of the Central European Initiative. This programme is organised in co-operation with the Büro für Austauschprogramme für Mittel und Osteuropa, Wien.
The Programme Austria - Slovak Republic is sponsored by the governments of both countries. Its aim is to intensify mutual co-operation between universities and strengthen relationships in education and the sciences. It provides opportunities to obtain financial support for study stays, lectures, conferences, workshops, seminars and also provides scholarships for students and young researchers.

Volunteer programmes

*Education for Democracy (EfD)*

During its four-year existence, the volunteer programme Education for Democracy has supplied more than 1,500 volunteers from Canada, USA and Great Britain to assist in the teaching of the English language. The founder of this programme, Mr. John Hasek, died early this year as a result of the injuries he received in Bosnia. The SAIA recognises and remembers his assistance to Slovakia.

Through the EfD, in 1993 the SAIA obtained 130 teachers from the USA and Canada. The volunteers came in two periods and were placed in 50 cities in all three regions of Slovakia, where they assisted in the teaching of English at 10 universities, 48 high schools, 34 elementary schools and 15 institutions outside the sphere of education.

The volunteer English teachers sent to Slovakia by the President of EfD/USA, Ms. Ann Gardner of Mobile, Alabama, serve for 5-10 months and cover their own costs of transportation. Host institutions provide the volunteers with accommodations and a monthly salary. When first arriving in Slovakia, the volunteers take part in a five-day orientation period prepared by the SAIA, which keeps in touch with the host institutions as well as the volunteers throughout the period of their service. It provides them as well with an informational bulletin and twice a year organises meetings for all the EfD lecturers.

*GAP activity projects*

The first volunteers from the British programme GAP, which has its headquarters in Reading, England, came to Slovakia in September 1992. In 1993 12 volunteers worked as English teachers in five elementary schools in Trnava, Trenčín, Šal’a, in a high school in Trenčín and in a travel agency in Nitra.

Since 1993, the GAP has functioned as a reciprocal programme through which the SAIA sends two young people from Slovakia to England for six-month study/working stays.

*Conversational English Course - The Foundation for a Civil Society*

In co-operation with the American organisation The Foundation for a Civil Society the SAIA organised conversational English courses in five Slovak cities in which 120 high school and university students participated. The Foundation for a Civil Society was responsible for the selection of 12 American lecturers.

*Schools in Nature - American Fund for Czecho-Slovak help*

In co-operation with the Tree of Life Foundation, the SAIA organised "schools in nature" which are designed for children from polluted environments. A financial donation of 286,000 Slovak crowns for students from five Slovak elementary schools was provided by the American Fund for Czecho-Slovak Help.
Gift Book Programme

In partnership with two American foundations, The Sabre Foundation (SF) and The International Book Bank (IBB), the SAIA has developed a gift-book distribution programme for Slovakia. Since 1991 it has obtained more than 120,000 publications worth more than US$2 million for institutions and individuals. The main criteria for the process of distribution, which is in keeping with the funding idea of the programme, is to make the publications accessible to the general public. Libraries, educational, research and service institutions have priority in receiving materials but individuals also may obtain copies for their use.

Service organisations for the tertiary sector and their role in the development of non-profit organisations

Tertiary sector organisations throughout the world are not left alone to solve their own problems. In the countries that traditionally support the tertiary sector as a means of guaranteeing the development of a civic society, an infrastructure exists, including service centres, which collects and disseminates information, provides legislative assistance, helps to prepare specialists, establishes volunteer centres and works with volunteers. Service centres for tertiary sector organisations do not function as "umbrella organisations" or as reorganised "national front" organisations. However, in addition to their service functions, they also fulfil an advocacy role for the sector as a whole and present its concerns and accomplishments to governmental institutions and private enterprises.

Organisations serving the tertiary sector have begun to develop in Slovakia. Some organisations, such as the Slovak Humanitarian Council, the Slovak Youth Council and the Tree of Life, provide services to their members and sometimes to other organisations as well. However, until recently there was no group or organisation that dealt with the problems or served organisations of the sector as a whole. This is one of the major reasons why it was difficult to have the common interests of the sector implemented through legislation. It was also difficult to make changes in the tax law, to create new relations with both governmental institutions and private enterprises and to develop new contacts with domestic and foreign non-profit organisations. Therefore, at the end of 1993, the SAIA established a new operational division, the Service Center for the tertiary sector.

Slovak Academic Information Agency - Service Center for the Tertiary Sector (SAIA - SCTS)

During 1993 the SAIA organised training programmes for and disseminated information to non-governmental, non-profit organisations. Thanks to a grant from The Foundation for a Civil Society (New York), the SAIA co-operated with The Support Centers International (Washington) which provided a consultant who assisted the SAIA in developing a programme for training leaders of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and private voluntary organisations (PVOs). From there, a new operational group developed within the SAIA, the Service Center of the Tertiary Sector. Financial assistance for this centre and its operations has been provided by several American foundations, The Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, The Rockefeller Brothers Fund, The Foundation for a Civil Society and The Japanese Sasakawa Peace Foundation, as well as by anonymous donors, local companies and organisations.
The activities of the Service Center for the Tertiary Sector include:

a) **Training**

The first pilot workshops were held in March and April of 1993 for 25 representatives of non-governmental, non-profit organisations and covered such topics as Project Planning, Proposal Writing and Fund-raising. These workshops were repeated in the autumn of 1993 and new workshops were offered on Project and Financial Management, the latter taught by a specialist from Cairo. The workshops were not just offered in Bratislava but also were held in Banská Bystrica, Košice, and Nitra. One hundred and forty representatives of Slovak non-governmental, non-profit organisations participated in the 14 workshops offered in 1993.

b) **Directory of Slovak NGOs/PVOs**

In addition to its training programme, the SAIA decided to co-operate with the former Informational Center for Foundations in Nitra in preparing a directory of tertiary sector organisations in Slovakia. After ICF-Nitra merged with the SAIA at the end of 1993 and at the beginning of 1994, the Service Center for the Tertiary Sector completed the compilation and publication of the Slovak version of the directory. Information was provided by 477 organisations of which 177 are registered as foundations and 300 as non-profit organisations. In June 1994 the English language edition of the directory will include listings from 780 organisations (200 foundations and 580 associations of citizens).

c) **NONPROFIT and other publications**

Since the first quarter of 1994, the SAIA has assumed responsibility for publishing the newsletter NONPROFIT on a monthly basis. Formerly it was published on an occasional basis by the Charter 77 Foundation and European Cultural Foundation. The SAIA plans to publish other materials for tertiary sector organisations and has recently issued *Záživotaxchopný dobrovoľný sektor: Medzinárodné vyhlásenie základných princípov* which was originally published by the Institute for Policy Studies of John Hopkins University.

d) **Research**

Together with nine other European countries, the SAIA is participating in the study of volunteering in Europe which is being co-ordinated by the Volunteer Centre UK. Slovakia was the first country from Eastern Europe to commit to participating in the project. The research programme is set up in three phases: the first will be a general survey of social needs and volunteer organisations, the second will investigate the use of volunteers by 250 organisations from the social service area and the third will evaluate the legal framework and conditions created by governments to encourage the use of volunteers by organisations. This project should be completed by the end of 1994.

e) **Future plans of SAIA-SCTS**

The SAIA will continue to develop its training and information programme for tertiary sector organisations. About 40 workshops are scheduled to be held throughout Slovakia in 1994 and in addition to the topics already offered, these workshops will deal with new ones such as
long-term planning, working with volunteers, co-operation with the media and public relations, and accounting for NGOs and PVOs. A very important aspect of the training programme is teaching Slovaks to become trainers and curriculum developers. Information and NGO/PVO resource centres are also being established at each branch office of the SAIA. They will offer consultation services in addition to printed and electronic information about tertiary sector organisations in Slovakia and abroad.

Problems

-- no legislation for the existence of non-profit organisations in Slovakia;
-- governmental organisations do not trust non-profit organisations;
-- fund-raising for new activities;
-- few (almost no) partners in Central and Eastern Europe;
-- recruiting qualified, enthusiastic people for this low-paid work.

What is SAIA?

The Slovak Academic Information Agency, established in March 1990, is an independent, non-governmental, non-profit public-service organisation which seeks to foster international co-operation in education and research. It also seeks to assist the development of non-profit public-service organisations in the Slovak Republic. It co-operates with the Ministry of Education and Science of the Slovak Republic and with many domestic and foreign institutions which have similar aims.

SAIA’s six main activities

-- to collect, organise and disseminate information about foreign study opportunities and provide advising services;
-- to organise open competitions for foreign study or research stays and administer exchange programmes;
-- to obtain volunteer native speakers of foreign languages to assist in the teaching of foreign languages in Slovak schools;
-- to secure publications from abroad and distribute them to organisations and individuals;
-- to organise workshops, conferences and study tours for domestic and foreign organisations;
-- to provide training programmes for individuals and organisations in the "tertiary sector" and to obtain and distribute information about domestic and foreign non-profit, non-governmental and voluntary organisations.

Since 1990 SAIA has:

-- created and maintained a library, open to the general public, with catalogues of academic institutions and other informational materials. It is visited by approximately 400 individuals each month;
-- provided information about achievement tests used by many academic institutions (TOEFL, GMAT, GRE, SAT and others);

-- organised more than 100 open competitions which nominated over 1 000 candidates for foreign study stays and stipends. Over 300 individuals have served on these selection committees;

-- responded to written enquiries from more than 3 500 individuals concerning opportunities for foreign study and research;

-- been entrusted with the administration of the programme Action Austria-Slovakia, co-operation in science and education for the years 1992-1996, in conjunction with the Federal Ministry for Science and Research of the Austrian Republic and the Ministry of Education and Science of the Slovak Republic. It has also been charged with the administration of the CEEPUS programme;

-- co-operated with the Swedish Institute in developing a computer data-base programme designed to assist teaching staff exchanges among universities in Central Europe;

-- placed more than 1 500 volunteers from the United States, Canada, and Great Britain participating in the Education for Democracy programme. The volunteers assisted in the teaching of the English language in schools and other organisations throughout Slovakia;

-- received and distributed to educational institutions, libraries, and individuals, more than 60 000 books worth more than $2 000 000 donated by The Sabre Foundation, the International Book Bank, and other organisations;

-- organised many study tours and special programmes for groups of teachers, professors and university administrators;

-- organised conferences and seminars on educational themes for domestic and foreign organisations including Volunteering in Central Europe;

-- conducted 15 workshops to help leaders of non-profit organisations improve their administrative and planning skills. This was done in co-operation with the Support Centres of America and with financial support provided by The Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, The Rockefeller Brothers Fund and The Sasakawa Peace Foundation.