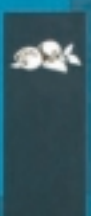
Internationalisation in European Non-University Higher Education

A Project of the Academic Cooperation Association

ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education

Lemmens



Bernd Wächter (ed.)

INTERNATIONALISATION IN EUROPEAN NON-UNIVERSITY HIGHER EDUCATION

A Project of the
Academic Cooperation Association

ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education

Bernd Wächter (ed.)

INTERNATIONALISATION IN EUROPEAN NON-UNIVERSITY HIGHER EDUCATION

A Project of the
Academic Cooperation Association

Supported by
The European Commission, Directorate General Education, Training and Youth and
Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, Bonn

Lemmens

Die Deutsche Bibliothek – CIP-Einheitsaufnahme
Internationalisation in European Non-University Higher Education – A Project of the Academic Cooperation Association/ed. Bernd Wächter – Bonn: Lemmens Verlags- & Mediengesellschaft, 1999
(ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education)

ISBN 3-932306-35-X

NE: ACA Papers

© Copyright 1999 Lemmens Verlags- & Mediengesellschaft mbH, Bonn
Alle Rechte vorbehalten

Anschrift des Verlages
Königswinterer Straße 95
D-53 227 Bonn
Telefon: + 49 228 42 13 70
Telefax: + 49 228 42 13 729
E-mail: lemmens-medien@ndh.net
Internet: http://www.lemmens.de

Umschlaggestaltung: Christian Padberg, Bonn
Gesamtherstellung: Gesellschaft für Druckabwicklung, Bad Honnef

ISBN 3-932306-35-X

Contents

Foreword

Scholarly interest in questions of the internationalisation of higher education has recently risen markedly. Internationalisation has indeed become one of the key issues in the global higher education debate of the last decade of this millennium. In contrast to this general trend, the international cooperation efforts of the particular segment of non-university higher education has so far not been the object of much scrutiny. Given the growing importance of the sector, this state of affairs is hardly justified. This is why the Academic Cooperation Association embarked, in late 1998, on the project "Internationalisation in European Non-University Higher Education". This publication presents the results of this project.

I would like to express my gratitude to a number of institutions and persons without whose support, commitment and hard work this project would not have come to fruition and this publication would never have seen the light of day. Aaro Ollikainen, ACA research officer from CIMO in Helsinki, I am indebted to for helping to design the basic methodology the project, as well as the identification of many an author. To all of these authors, of the country reports, as well as the transversal essays, I am deeply grateful. They are too many to name here. My thanks also go to Liduine Bremer of Nuffic in the Netherlands, who co-authored the introduction to this volume. Acknowledgements are also due to Guy Haug of Paris who, together with Aaro Ollikainen, took on to chair the Bonn seminar, but does not appear in this publication at all.

This project was made possible through the kind support of the Directorate General Education, Training and Youth of the European Commission and the German Federal Ministry for Education and Research, the *Bundesministerium für Bildung und Wissenschaft*. In the European Commission, Angeliki Verli was a pillar of support in so many ways. In the German Ministry of Education, Dr. Hermann Müller-Solger and Professor Hans Friedrich deserve special mention. Likewise, I am grateful to the *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD)*, and its Secretary General, Christian Bode, in particular, who hosted the Bonn seminar.

The editor of every publication, and certainly of the present one, passes through phases of excitement, but also of stress and weariness. In carrying this project to a good end, I relied heavily on the moral and very practical support of the team of the ACA Brussels Secretariat. Among them, more than anyone else, my colleague Laure Caluwaert has helped me to arrive at this moment of bliss which, in the language of the sea, is encapsulated in the captain's famous words "splice up the main brace".

I hope that the project's outcome, and this publication, will be of help to further the cause of international cooperation of Europe's non-university higher education institutions.

Bernd Wächter
Director ACA, Editor

Liduine Bremer, Nuffic, Den Haag
Bernd Wächter, ACA, Bruxelles

Introduction

In 1993, the British Council, the Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education (Nuffic) and the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) founded the Academic Cooperation Association, in order to provide the national agencies for international cooperation in the individual countries of Europe with a European umbrella organisation. Soon, new members joined from Europe and beyond. Today, ACA is the most representative association of national internationalisation agencies on the continent. This young association set itself ambitious targets in a wide range of fields, which can be categorised into two groups: to carry out cooperation activities in higher education, and to contribute to the reflections on such activity. The present publication "Internationalisation in European Non-University Higher Education", and the project it originates from, belongs to this second category, i.e. to research into international higher education collaboration.

The Rationale of the Project: Assumptions and Intentions

It is often claimed that the university is international by its very nature. While the reality in many institutions might sometimes fall short of this bold statements, it is true that the history of the European university is indeed characterised by varying, and mostly quite substantial, degrees of cooperation between country borders. In contrast to this state of affairs, the so-called non-university sector of higher education cannot look back on a similar international tradition. The types of institutions in question are young. None of them were founded before the end of the second world war, and many of them only very recently.

This young age is one of the reasons for the frequently made assumption that the non-university sector's efforts and activities in internationalisation and international cooperation cannot yet compare with those of the universities. Other factors are often quoted to contribute to the same picture: the relative absence of major research tasks, which "naturally" make for international links and cooperation in the universities; a less "academic" or rather an "applied", "professional" or "vocational" orientation; shorter degrees and a higher number of contact hours; and, last but not least, a strong regional mission and focus, which one might expect to divert attention away from the international scene. In other words: the basic set-up and orientation of the non-university field is generally perceived as the reason for an "internationalisation deficit".

There is a yet more fundamental assumption behind those mentioned above: that of the very "lagging behind" of the sector. A lot of sporadic and anecdotal evidence does, of course, speak for the existence of the "international deficit". But there are also other indications. Individual institutions have made visible and strong efforts to catch up with the universities. The non-university institutions could also be expected to receive a palpable boost from the European Commission's large education and training programmes, such as ERASMUS, which democratically admitted them alongside the universities from their very start in the mid- and late 1980s. A number of countries put up their own internationalisation programmes specifically for the non-university sector. Therefore, the "deficit" assumption could well be challenged.

Given that assumptions and anecdotal evidence clearly outweigh hard and fast knowledge, ACA decided to devote a research project to this issue. Some of the guiding questions were the following:

- Do non-university institutions really still lag behind universities in international cooperation?
- What is the precise state they have reached, and is this state the same across Europe, or are there marked differences between national systems and institutions?
- Are there any particular forms of cooperation which non-university institutions prefer, and, if so, which are they?
- Are there areas of internationalisation where non-university higher education shows a particular abstinence, and, if so, which are they?
- Which are the framework conditions, in terms of infrastructure, funding and personnel, for non-university higher education, and how do they compare to those of the universities?

In pursuing these and related questions, the project's overall intention was twofold. The first one was a stock-taking exercise: what exactly is the state of play in international cooperation of non-university higher education. The second one was devoted to the future. The aim was to identify particularly promising approaches for the future internationalisation of Europe's non-university tertiary institutions, in order to put supra-national and national decision-makers (European Union, national governments) in a position to further support and boost the internationalisation of the institutions in question.

A Two-Pronged Approach

The project was started in late 1998 and finished with this publication almost exactly a year later. The project coordination was in the hands of the ACA Secretariat and, more particularly, with Bernd Wächter. A major contribution was made by ACA's research group coordinator Aaro Ollikainen, from CIMO in Helsinki, who supported the development of the original methodology, and advised the coordinator all along the project's life cycle.

The project had been devised to consist of two successive parts, with complementary functions and basic orientations. Part one consisted of case studies from each European country with a sizeable non-university sector, according to the definition used (see below). The **case studies** are "geographical" in nature, i.e. their basic logic is to look at each country individually. In order to make for a homogeneous approach, and to make sure that authors comment on comparable questions, a "checklist for authors" was provided, with questions on issues deemed as of central importance. The checklist was intended and introduced to authors as a guiding help, and by no means as a norm to be strictly adhered to. The contributions from this first phase are published in the first part of this monograph.

Checklist for Authors

1. Higher education institutions in the different European countries share a number of common traits, but they also differ in many respects. We would like to ask you to briefly describe the major characteristics of your tertiary system outside the classical universities. Particularly important aspects should be: structure of courses/degrees, typical subject areas, size, finance, governance/management, structures, role in research (if any), regional links (services for the community, industry, etc.), different types of non-university institutions and number of them.
2. We understand that many new higher education institutions in Europe were set up with a special view to a regional development policy. If this applies to your institution as well, would you say that the regional focus has had specific impact on internationalisation efforts, in the view of academic staff on the importance of internationalisation, in the characteristics of the student population, etc.
3. In international tertiary cooperation, the leading activity on a worldwide scale, and certainly in Europe, is the mobility of students for a limited period of study abroad. Does this also apply to your institution? Which role do placements in companies abroad play within student mobility? What is the involvement of your institution in the internationalisation of curricula and course content, and which role do recognition issues play?
4. In comparison with the traditional universities, new tertiary institutions are normally viewed as putting the stress on applied teaching and research (development). In how far does this impact on the nature of international exchange and cooperation activities of your institution? Is there such a thing as a typical international activity spectrum of a new higher education institution? If so, how does it differ from international activities of universities?

5. In many countries, the boundaries between the traditional university sector and the new higher education institutions are getting blurred, partly as an effect of the increasing differentiation of the range of educational programmes offered by both types of institution. Is there such a trend in your country? Would you say that the international activity of the new institutions has an impact on this process? In what way?
6. Are there structural differences in opportunity between your institution and universities when it comes to international cooperation? Is funding for both types of institutions on a comparable level? Do you avail of a professional infrastructure (international/European office) and is it adequately resourced?
7. Would you say that the foreign language qualifications of your students (and academic staff) are an obstacle to large-scale mobility and cooperation? Are there different foreign language requirements for access to your institution compared to classical universities?
8. Do you think that the size of an institution impacts on the possible breadth and depth of its international cooperation activities? Do you see this as an advantage or a disadvantage?
9. The new higher education institutions often have close ties with business and industry, at local level or more widely. Does the tradition of these contacts provide specific opportunities for international activity? If so, how are these made use of in practice?
10. The more applied nature of education in the new tertiary sector puts these institutions in a good position for providing continuing education and playing a role in life-long learning. How would you describe the activities of your institution, and your ambitions, in this regard? What connection is there with the international activity of your institution?
11. How is internationalisation institutionalised: are there links to other policy issues of the institution, are activities carried out *ad hoc* or in a systematic manner?

Case study authors were selected from national associations representing the non-university field in their country, and from among rectors or other academic leaders in individual non-university institutions, where such national organisms do not exist or where they could not provide an essay. Authors were identified by the ACA Secretariat, with the help of ACA member organisations.

The case studies, or “country essays” are an element in their own right, but they also served as a frame of reference in the preparation of the second part of the project, a European-wide **seminar**, in that they helped to identify

relevant thematic areas of concern to all or the majority of countries and institutions. As distinct from the approach of the case studies, which followed a "country logic", this seminar focused on themes, and was based on a cross-country approach. To put it differently: while the case studies concentrated on one particular country, but reflected a wide range of issues and themes (from the "checklist" and beyond), each contribution to the seminar looked at one aspect of international cooperation only, but in a European-wide perspective. Themes include student and staff mobility, curriculum development, lifelong learning, regional (i.e. subcontinental) cooperation, the role of the European Union programmes, etc. Speakers were drawn from the field of higher education researchers, institutional leaders, representatives of national and European government, and leading non-governmental organisations active in higher education. The seminar took place on 7 and 8 May 1999 in Bonn, hosted by the *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD)*. The contributions from this seminar form the second part of this publication.

Selection of Institution Types and Countries

While it is relatively easy to specify which part of the higher education system lies outside the university sector in a given country, it is less than self-evident what exactly constitutes the non-university sector in Europe. There is a wide variety of institutions across Europe, with considerable differences between the individual types. To include them all into the project would have had two detrimental effects. First, comparability of results across countries would hardly have been assured this way. Second, the criterion of eligibility would have been negative only. In order to avoid these detrimental effects, a working definition of a non-university institution was developed and applied, serving as a qualifying criterion for the inclusion of the different types of institutions in the project. The major elements of this definition are:

- Providing course offerings of a minimum of three years' duration
- Not awarding Ph.D. degrees
- Constituting an independent legal person (i.e. not a part of a university)
- Not being an academy of music or art
- Being located in one of the member states of the European Union, the European Free Trade Association, or selected PHARE countries

Applying the above "eligibility criteria", the countries and institution types included were the following:

♦ Austria:	Fachhochschulstudiengänge
♦ Belgium/Flanders	Hogescholen
♦ Belgium/Wallonia	Hautes Ecoles
♦ Czech Republic	"Institutions for Higher Professional Education"
♦ Denmark	Hofjskoler, Seminariums
♦ Estonia	"Applied Higher Education Institutions"

♦ Finland	Ammattikorkeakoulut
♦ Germany	Fachhochschulen
♦ Greece	TEIs
♦ Hungary	“Colleges”, Föiskolak
♦ Iceland	“Colleges“
♦ Ireland	Institutes of Technology
♦ The Netherlands	Hogescholen
♦ Norway	“Colleges”, Hogskolen
♦ Portugal	“Polytechnic Institutes“
♦ Slovenia	“Colleges“
♦ Switzerland	Fachhochschulen, Hautes Ecoles Spécialisées, Scoula Universitarie professionali

A number of important countries in Europe do not figure in this list. France did not qualify, since their IUTs are not legally independent, but part of the country’s universities. The United Kingdom would have qualified ten years ago, when the country had a binary system and a large polytechnics sector. This sector has disappeared in the meantime. Spain and Italy both do not have any such sector, as a quantitatively relevant part of the overall system of higher education.

From Poland, which was included in the original list, no contribution was received. The same goes for Hungary.

Terminology

A number of terms is used in this publication to denote one and the same thing: the non-university sector of higher education. Most often, indeed this term itself is used. Alternatively, authors speak of the “new higher education institutions”. In some essays, particularly from the North of Europe, the institutions are referred to as “colleges”. In other cases, notably the Dutch and the German ones, the institutions are labelled “universities of professional” or “applied education” respectively.

Thanks

The ACA project “Internationalisation in European Non-University Higher Education, and this publication as part of it, was made possible through the kind support of the European Commission’s Directorate General for *Education, Training and Youth*, and the German *Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung*, both of whom provided financial support. Within these institutions, particular thanks go to Angeliki Verli, who also attended the Bonn conference and gave a keynote address, as well as Professor Hans Friedrich and Hermann Müller-Solger, the latter of whom also addressed the Bonn seminar.

The *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD)* hosted the Bonn seminar. Our thanks are due to the DAAD's Secretary General Dr. Christian Bode, and to Dr. Siegbert Wuttig.

Most important, however, were the authors, of the country essays, and of the thematic presentations given in Bonn. Without their collaboration, this publication would not have come about.

Part I
The Country Reports

Prof. Dr. Günther Schelling
Österreichischer Fachhochschulrat
Wien, Austria

Austria

1. Main Characteristics of the Austrian Non-University System

1.1. The Austrian non-university system comprises three types of institutions, namely the *Fachhochschulen,* the Pedagogical Academies, and the Academies for Social Work. All of these schools are internationally recognised and eligible for participation in the SOCRATES programme. For purposes of consistency with the definition of the non-university sector adopted by ACA for the present study, the following report will focus on the *Fachhochschulen*-sector only.

1.2. Legal Foundations and Features of Austrian Fachhochschulen

In 1993, after a two-year pilot phase carried out by the Technical University Graz, the legal grounds were laid for the creation of the Austrian *Fachhochschulen* (ref. Fachhochschul-Studiengesetz, FHStG, BGBl 340/1993). The idea was to create a type of institution that would be distinctly different from all the other tertiary institutions in existence. The main features of the Austrian *Fachhochschulen* can be described as follows:

- *Fachhochschul*-type study programmes can be offered by the public sector or other legal entities of private law;
- *Fachhochschul*-type study programmes provide for scientifically-based vocational studies at tertiary educational level;
- The minimum duration of FH Study programmes is six semesters. In addition, internships are required (according to the EC Directive 48/89);
- *Fachhochschulen* are granted a degree of academic freedom comparable to Austrian universities;
- Admission requirements are graduation from high school or previous vocational education in the field in which continuation of studies is sought. In cases where previous education or training are insufficient, students may be required to follow supplementary preparation courses and take an entrance examination;
- *Fachhochschul*-type study courses have to be approved by the responsible authority which is the *Fachhochschulrat* (FHR). This approval is given for a limited period of five years. The *Fachhochschulrat* functions as the accreditation and evaluation board;
- The members of the FHR are independent from the federal government. Decisions of the FHR on acceptance or refusal of acceptance need the approval of the Minister of Science and Transport who needs to obtain

agreement from the Minister of Education. Approval may be refused in cases where the course would counteract national educational interests;

- Accreditation is granted for a maximum of five years only. Extensions are only granted upon presentation of a renewal application in accordance with the Federal Act on *Fachhochschul-Studiengänge* as well as an evaluation report;
- Evaluation reports and renewal applications need to elaborate on the quality of teaching and participation of teachers in research and development projects;
- Each application also needs to give a budget plan. FH studies are financed only partly by the federal government. This part varies between 60 and 90 per cent of the total expenditure, investment included.

1.3. Typical Subject Areas, Structure of Studies, Development.

The internationalisation of the market, the restructuring of large parts of the heavy industries and the need for regional economic and educational development were the major reasons for creating *Fachhochschul* study courses in Austria in the nineties. Twenty years ago, vocational training was successfully extended to the secondary level. However, graduates from these institutions did not meet international academic requirements.

Since the federal government did not provide full funding, regional and local authorities and representatives of the regional industry got involved in developing these new *Fachhochschul* study courses. That was exactly the way to identify those subjects and fields of greatest importance for the further development of the regions concerned.

Against this background it is unsurprising that most *Fachhochschul* study courses exist in the areas of technology, commerce, tourism and leisure. As the federal budget for promotion of studies was limited and all *Fachhochschul* study courses were founded as new institutions, the development of the sector was not progressing as fast as desired. It needs to be said that none of the existing institutions was upgraded, all FHs were newly created.

The tables below show the development of the number of *Fachhochschul* study courses, in technical and non-technical fields (fig. 1), the number of study-places for beginners (fig. 2), and the number of study-places available (fig. 3) during the first five years of their existence.

	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99
Courses in technical fields	6	13	18	20	22
Courses in non-technical fields	4	7	15	19	24
All fields		20	33	39	46

Fig. 1: Number of Fachhochschul study courses

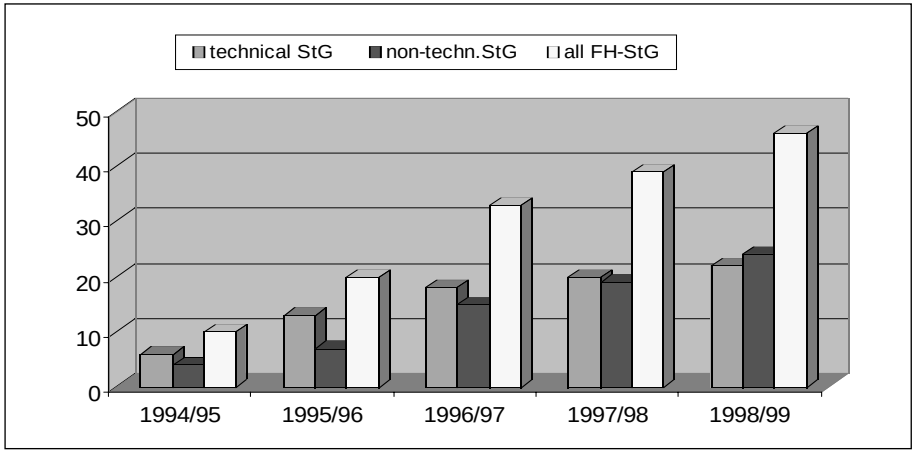


Diagram 1: Number of Fachhochschul study courses

	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99
Courses in technical fields	390	763	1038	1160	1241
Courses in non-technical fields	318	489	991	1226	1596
All fields	708	1252	2029	2386	2837

Fig. 2: Number of study-places for beginners

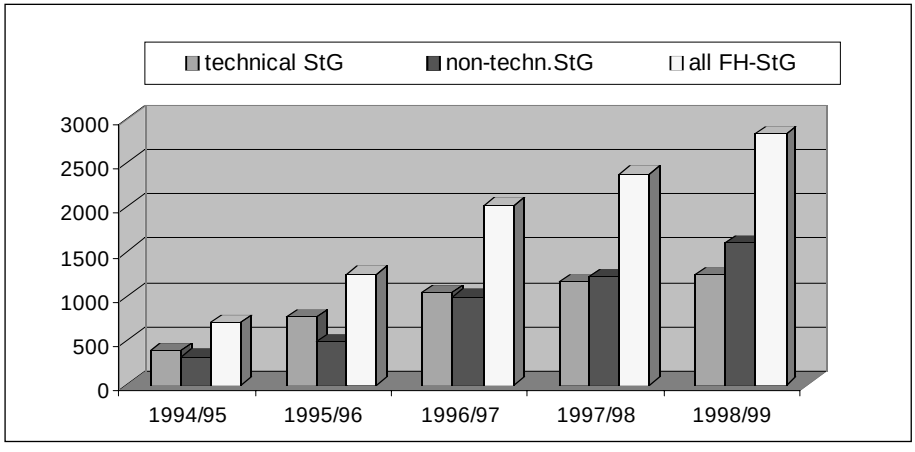


Diagram 2: Number of study-places for beginners

	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99
Courses in technical fields	390	1153	2154	3341	4297
Courses in non-technical fields	318	807	1835	3034	4207
All fields	708	1960	3989	6375	8504

Fig. 3: Number of study-places available

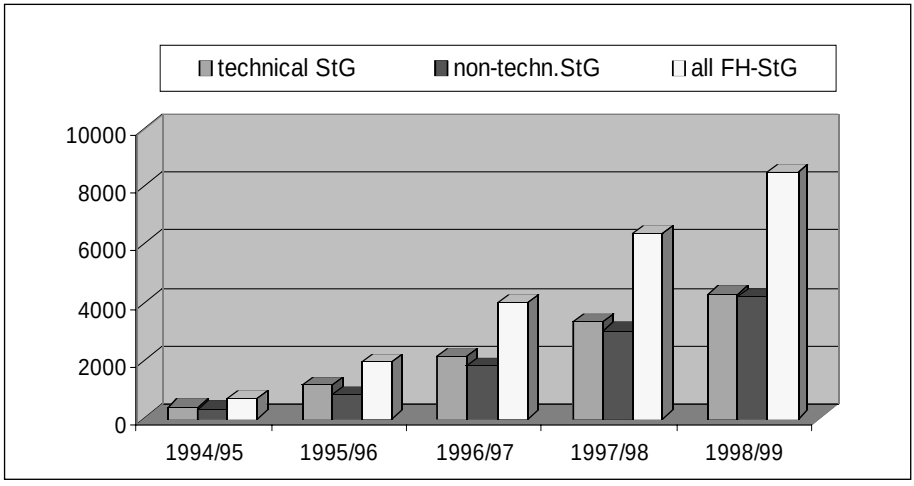


Diagram 3: Number of study-places available

1.4. Degrees, Management, Finance

The graduates of the *Fachhochschul* study courses receive the academic title of *Diplom-Ingenieur* (FH) or of *Magister* (FH) according to a technical or non-technical area of study. Fully written out, these grades are completed by a reference to the field of studies (example: Magister of international economic relations (FH)).

The 46 *Fachhochschul* study courses accredited until autumn 1998 are offered by 19 providers. A provider is an institution offering one or several *Fachhochschul* study courses. Only one of them, namely the Ministry of Defence, represents the public sector. The 18 others are composed by eight registered associations and ten private companies.

Overall expenditure will be expressed in Austrian schilling (ATS) per student and year once the *Fachhochschul* study courses are fully developed. This figure changes primarily between different subject fields and also with the

number of study places per year. The value varies between approximately ATS150,000 to ATS 90,000. In some fields, however, the cost per student is relatively high due to the limited number of about 16 students a year and the necessity to provide strong governance such as is the case of industrial design. Governmental subsidies are limited to an amount between ATS 95,000 and ATS 80,000.

1.5. Regional links

Almost all of the *Fachhochschul* study courses include at least a one-semester internship in companies of the region or abroad. These placements need to be provided and experiences evaluated by the schools themselves. The programme for the placements which last approximately 15 weeks is developed by the student in cooperation with a tutor of the company and an academic tutor from the FH. Placements are continuously monitored. During the internship, students need to specify the topic of their thesis. As this is done in close cooperation with the tutors, what happens is that very often discussions at this level lead to research projects supported by industry. In order to make best use of this network of relations established between students and contacts in industry, Austria is building a data-base for this purpose.

2. Regional Development Policy and Internationalisation

Especially because each of the nine provinces of Austria is bordering on a neighbouring country, regional development influences internationalisation very strongly. *Fachhochschul* study courses of the Eastern regions of Austria usually offer two ore more languages of bordering countries as a compulsory part of the curriculum, such as is the case with Hungary, Croatia and Slovakia. Language-wise, there is also a trend towards courses held in English. This is not only an excellent opportunity for the FH students to enrich their own language competence, but it also fosters the exchange of students and teachers. Studies in the area of telecommunications are taught in English as English is the predominant language in marketing and research in this field.

3. The Impact of Applied Teaching on International Activities

The structure of Austrian *Fachhochschul* study courses differs very strongly from institutions of the non-university system in other countries. Compared to the structure of the German *Fachhochschule* which resembles universities, Austrian *Fachhochschulen* have a different structure. Austrian *Fachhochschulen* are primarily concerned with professional training. As a consequence, the curriculum follows the tasks of the profession and is subsequently of a very cross-disciplinary nature. This is also why *Fachhochschul* study courses promote international activities as they are seen to grow many professional competencies in students.

Compared to Austrian university studies, FH courses have a limited time budget available. *Fachhochschul* study courses therefore have to organise studies in such a way that they can be finished within the shortest possible time. In order to fulfil this requirement, student exchanges can only happen if no loss of time occurs. Any exchange therefore asks for a very good preparation by the student and the school.

4. Boundaries between University and Non-University Higher Education Institutions

In Austria both sectors are fully convinced that the existence of a non-university system alongside the university system makes sense as the goals of each sector are different. Basic research is only done at the universities, applied research and development in both sectors. International programmes such as SOCRATES often do not distinguish between the two sectors. This leads sometimes to a smoothening effect, which may be of disadvantage in specific cases. In Austrian *Fachhochschul* study courses internationalisation is not seen as a value per se, but as a consequence of a global (job) market. Internationalisation also has the advantage that goals can be set and constantly revised with international peers.

5. Structural Differences between Universities and *Fachhochschul* Study Courses Operating Internationally

There are of course differences: Universities with a global budget are provided with offices for international relations that are charged with managing international exchanges. *Fachhochschul* study courses have to limit administration to a minimum as basic funding is scarce and income therefore needs to be generated. A major drawback in this situation is the fact that funding public educational institutions is not very popular in Austria due to a rather high level of taxes. In addition, national authorities have not yet taken into account the existence of the non-university system which is why governmental sponsoring for joint international studies is still limited to universities.

Despite these challenges, Austrian *Fachhochschulen* participate in exchange programmes to a great extent.

6. Foreign Language Qualification of Students

The professional training of students in the system of *Fachhochschul* study courses is on a higher level than of students at the university. While access to both systems is comparable, teaching in English is compulsory at *Fachhochschulen* during the full period of studies. This also includes that students need to take their exams in English. At universities, however, students are given the choice to learn foreign languages on a voluntary basis.

7. Size of Institutions with Respect to International Cooperation

The experience to date does not show any advantage or disadvantage resulting from the size of the institution. It seems to be favourable, however, to organise exchanges of students with foreign partners on a smaller level, which would foster easier integration of the students into the cultural atmosphere of the foreign institutions. Larger groups of students, on the other hand, tend to live in language ghettos where they would rather use their mother tongue instead of a foreign language. Finally, it needs to be said that smaller exchange numbers are also more feasible for FHs in terms of administration.

8. Use of Contacts with Industry for International Activities

There are many ways of how contacts with industry are clearly of use for the organisation of international activities. Especially links to companies acting on an international scale such as international airlines enable students to take advantage of an internship in one of their foreign offices. In addition, these contacts also foster international research and even future employment in international companies.

9. Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning

In the present situation of a developing Austrian non-university system which is less than six years old, the extension to continuing education is still in its infancy.

The *Fachhochschulrat* is currently implementing distance learning courses. Some of these courses have especially been set up for part-time students who have a job in addition to their studies. Distance learning as part of the programme bears the potential of reducing placement and timing constraints. The new information technologies offer easy access to distance learning programmes which could be offered more widely. With a view to capacity building, the *Fachhochschulrat* is very interested in any international experience.

10. Institutionalisation of Internationalisation

The FHR governs the international activities of the FH-sector in Austria. Within the FHR Dr. Kurt Sohm is responsible for international relations. He is a member of the SOCRATES/ERASMUS Advisory Board. The institutions within the Ministry of Science and Transport (Mag. Barbara Weitgruber) and the Office of the European Educational Cooperation, SOCRATES Office (Dr. Josef Leidenfrost) provide expert knowledge on internationalisation for universities as well as the non-university sector.

Dr. Jan Geens
Director of Internationalisation – Flemish Council of Hogescholen (VLHORA)
Brussel, Belgium

Belgium – Flanders

The *Hogescholen* in Flanders – Belgium

As a consequence of the state reform, the three communities in Belgium have obtained autonomy on a number of important issues, with education as the major one. Flanders as a member state consequently got its own ministry of education and became fully responsible in all matters of education provided in Flanders. The structure of the educational system in Flanders may therefore differ from that in Wallonia.

1. Higher Education in the Flemish *Hogescholen*

Higher education in Flanders is offered at *hogescholen* and universities.

In 1994 the government of Flanders decided to vote a decree upon the reorganisation of the so-called non-university institutions of higher education (The July 13,1994 Act). These institutions were from then on consequently named *hogescholen,* indicating that they must be seen at the same level as the German *Fachhochschulen,* the Scandinavian *Hogskolan,* the British polytechnics, or the Dutch HBO institutions. In many respects the July 13,1994 Act regarding higher education institutions in the Flemish Community also aimed to a high extent at making similarity with the way the universities are ruled and organised. Up to the academic year 1994-1995 Flanders counted 160 institutions of higher education. After the reorganisation, including a large merger operation, 29 *hogescholen* remained.

The major characteristics of the *hogescholen* system in Flanders are described below.

1.1. Three Networks

The restructuring of 1994/1995 did not change the historical division into three networks, i.e. a catholic network, a state-based network, a network of *hogescholen* organised by the provinces.

In the academic year 1998/1999, there are 19 *hogescholen* in the catholic network, five are so called *Vlaamse autonome hogescholen* or *hogescholen* historically grown out of state-organised *hogescholen,* and three are *hogescholen* organised by three provinces.

All institutes admit all candidates, regardless of their philosophical or religious beliefs. All students who obtained the *diploma secundair onderwijs* (secondary school leaving certificate) have free access to higher education. The only study programme organised by the *hogescholen* for which the candidates have to pass an entry examination is the study (4 years) of physiotherapy.

1.2. The Size of the Flemish *Hogescholen*

The number of students in the 29 *hogescholen* ranges between 600 and 10,000. The government has in the decree on reorganisation only built in one element that can be a challenge to reach a certain number of students, in prescribing that only *hogescholen* with more than 2000 students can receive state funding for buildings and infrastructure.

Below is a statistical comparison of universities and *hogescholen* in 1997/1998

	universities	*hogescholen*
number of institutions	8	29
number of students	56,416	97,780
number of teaching staff	3.980,6	7.412
number of administrative staff	3.589,1	1.297
total budget provided by state	22.055.100.000 BEF	19.295.200.000 BEF
educational expenditure per student in 1998	405,417 BEF	213,966 BEF

1.3. The Structure of Courses and Degrees

Study programmes at *hogescholen* are divided into one-cycle and two-cycle programmes. One-cycle higher education covers a study period of three years or six semesters. These three-year courses prepare students for professions in industry, commerce, agriculture, health and rehabilitation, social work, teaching, informatics, applied arts and media, hotel and tourism. The courses are practice-oriented and include work placements.

Two-cycle higher education is divided into two periods of a minimum of two years each (eight or ten semesters , 60 credit points each). These studies are of what the decree called “academic level” and train technical and managerial staff (e.g. industrial engineering, commercial sciences, business administration) who will carry out and be responsible for tasks of a highly scientific and technical nature, and in industrial and business management.

Audio-visual and fine arts and music and drama are also two-cycle studies, as are applied language studies preparing students in translation and interpreting. In the field of medicine and health care two-cycle courses are offered in physiotherapy and in organisation of labour and health service. The *hogescholen* offer two-cycle courses also in sciences and applied sciences, which lead to the diploma in architecture and interior architecture.

Most *hogescholen* organise advanced studies in specific, often highly specialised areas. Many offer the possibility of attending international master programmes. All advanced studies last at least one year, provide 60 credit points and lead to a diploma.

The academic year starts between mid-September and 1 October. The year is usually divided into two semesters. The second semester starts in February. Each semester finishes with an examination period.

1.4. The 11 Subject Areas or *Studiegebieden*

The law foresees that the *hogescholen* organise their different courses within the framework of eleven so called *studiegebieden* or fields of study. These are:

- Architecture;
- Health Care;
- Commercial Sciences and Business Administration;
- Industrial Sciences and Technology;
- Audio-visual and Fine Arts;
- Musicology and Dramatic Art;
- Biotechnology;
- Teacher Training;
- Product Development;
- Social Sciences;
- Applied Language Studies.

1.5 Financing of *Hogescholen*

An entirely new financing system was decided by the government in the July 13,1994 Act. The previous system could be characterised as automatic and ever increasing. The Flemish government is financing the *hogescholen* now with an annual total budget of BEF 19,065 billion or EUR 480 million. The new system is a so-called “closed envelope”. This means that the global amount the Flemish government is prepared to spend every year on education in the *hogescholen* is fixed at a ceiling. Only a yearly price-cost indexation is possible. This closed envelope is distributed among the 29 institutions based on rather complicated formulas. They take into account the number of students, historical elements of the five previous years, and a differing

weighting of students dependent on field of study. The decree requires to spend a maximum of 80% of this budget on wages and 20% on working costs and research.

A second important budget element in a *hogeschool* are tuition fees paid by the students. Tuition fees are fixed by Flemish law and indexed on an annual basis. For most courses, they do not exceed BEF 20,000 per year (EUR 500). Most *hogescholen* are also working hard to increase their budget through postgraduate courses and applied research for industry and companies.

1.6. Governance, Structures and Management

The core idea of the July 13,1994 Act is autonomy. The autonomy of the *hogescholen* must be regarded in a positive way as a means to render them almost fully responsible in pedagogical, social and financial matters.

The *hogescholen* are now ruled within a new juridicial framework, which means that each of them is considered as a legal personality of its own. Nevertheless, they remain financially dependent on the authorities to a great extent.

The ruling principle is: the more freedom the institutions have, the larger the responsibility and the more policy-makers will require justification. Therefore the *hogescholen* are now obliged to carry out self-evaluation in a first line supervision. The results must be revealed in the first place by quality management and quality control set up by the institutions themselves, clear evaluation rules, and counselling programmes. In other words, in the spirit of the Act the *hogescholen* are now seen as enterprises and thus acting as such; e.g. establishing a solid supervision system, a suitable organisation scheme, description of tasks and responsibilities, a system of approvals and authorisations, highly skilled staff members, a policy for internationalisation, etc.

Although internal as well as external quality control is carried out by the *hogeschool,* the Act stipulates that the government of Flanders also supervises and monitors quality control itself.

1.7. The Role of Research

The Flemish Act stipulates (art. 3) that the hogescholen can also carry out applied scientific research in cooperation with Flemish or foreign universities or third parties. Most of the *hogescholen* organising two-cycle-courses have started research programmes in cooperation with industry and employers. Within the framework of the COMETT, ERASMUS, PHARE and some Fourth Framework programmes, many Flemish *hogescholen* have been and are still involved in applied research in collaboration with foreign institutions and universities.

Industry, the labour market and the non-profit sector are keen to set up collaborative research with the Flemish hogescholen.

1.8. The Links of the *Hogescholen* within the Region

The 29 *hogescholen* spread over all five provinces of Flanders are well-linked with the city where they are located and with the surrounding area. Most of the *hogescholen* are very open towards society. They have built up a network of contacts with employers and enterprises. Seminars, executive courses, industrial placements and other events are often organised in cooperation with Belgian and international enterprises.

2. Putting the Stress on Applied Teaching and Applied Research?

The evolution in universities as well as in *hogescholen* tends towards new methods of teaching and research. Indeed in most institutions the question is tackled how to make tertiary education able to cope with the challenges of mass education and to maintain and strengthen quality at the same time. Co-operation with Dutch and British institutions of higher education has been and is still of great importance in this respect. Most of the *hogescholen* and in the first place their departments of teacher training, are innovating and setting up new curricula and modules starting from a problem-based learning approach. In this respect we see an increase of international teacher exchanges.

This differs widely from one *hogeschool* to another. Before the merging of the *hogescholen* there was clearly a need to stimulate the rather isolated higher education communities to become more internationally outward looking. To stimulate more international orientation, the ADINSA (Advisory Group for International Cooperation) working group was set up and has been working very hard to coordinate internationalisation in the Flemish *hogescholen.* Members are the managers of the international offices of the *hogescholen.*

When VLHORA (Flemish Council of *Hogescholen*) was founded, this international working group was immediately accepted, and the mission statement of ADINSA was fully recognised by the board of VLHORA. In that statement, the group declares to work on:

- The further positioning in an international perspective of the Flemish *hogescholen;*
- Emphasising and promoting international mobility of personnel and students;
- setting up initiatives to maintain and increase the quality of internationalisation, i.e. working together to introduce ECTS in many more courses;
- Improving international communication and make more and better information available;
- Finding a good balance in the use of Dutch and English in the international classroom.

In many respects the Flemish *hogescholen* are working on the same international level as universities. Of course, more teaching staff is internationally exchanged by the universities because of better financial possibilities. Universities are also sending more students than *hogescholen* in international exchanges to other continents. The length of student exchanges also differs: university students stay abroad longer than most *hogeschool* students do (two semesters instead of one semester or four to six weeks). This can be explained by the fact that less financial means are available for the *hogescholen* and can also be seen as a consequence of the organisation of the programmes in modules. On the other hand, *hogescholen* are more involved in international traineeships such as they are offered, for example, by the LEONARDO programme.

3. The Boundaries between *Hogescholen* and Universities Are Fading Away All Over Europe

3.1. Boundaries Fading Away

It can indeed be an effect of the increasing differentiation of the range of educational programmes offered by both. This trend is present, but it is important to know that this trend first of all is a consequence of changes in society. As a matter of fact, the labour market is affecting the whole system of higher education. I think that the international activities set up by the *hogescholen* in the past ten years did not affect the process as such, but they have accelerated it.

The number of students in the Flemish *hogescholen* is still increasing, which is not the case at the universities. On the other hand, companies and industry often prefer graduates from *hogescholen* because they are in many respects better prepared to step into the job immediately. This explains why universities show ever more a vocational drift (e.g. physiotherapy, translators instead of philologists, architects, engineers) and why more and more *hogescholen* show an academic drift.

Thanks to the good international networking of the *hogescholen* and thanks to many exchanges with university institutions in other European countries, the *hogeschool* courses can be seen as equivalent to university courses in other European universities. The effect is that almost every institution providing two-cycle higher education is quite sure of the fact that their education is on an academic level, i.e. a university level. The many relationships built up with Anglo-Saxon new universities have consolidated this belief.

It is not only the possibility which many *hogeschool* students got to take master degrees at foreign universities, but also the good international networking and contacts all over Europe which have already convinced many that the Flemish *hogescholen* will in the near future have to be organised in

the same way as the English polytechnics prior to their transformation into universities. In Britain the binary system was abolished in 1992. Since then, the Anglo-American way of organising tertiary education appears to be the right solution to manage post-secondary education in a way that is responding to the many changes and challenges of our world and society: globalisation, knowledge society, lifelong learning, etc. Indeed, a unitary structure for higher education will promote diversity and will give more opportunities to young people in gaining different diplomas and degrees throughout lifelong learning.

3.2. Structural Differences

Are there structural differences in opportunity between Flemish *hogescholen* and universities when it comes to international cooperation?
On a European level, *hogescholen* and universities have the same opportunities. Of course, it is true that every Flemish university has set up a professional international infrastructure (international office employing five to 15 highly qualified staff, accommodation for foreign students, student facilities) while most *hogescholen* organise their international activities by means of an international office with only one or two staff. The availability of student housing in *hogescholen* is not evident, no more than student facilities (computers, restaurant, etc.)

Is funding for both types of institutions on a comparable level?
As already mentioned, funding is obviously not the same. This is of course a disadvantage, but at the same time it makes international offices in the *hogescholen* also very inventive in finding means and possibilities by cooperating with enterprises (sponsoring!) and by setting up international collaboration together with other organisations (e.g. chambers of commerce, municipalities, provinces, regional authorities, etc.).

In most Flemish *hogescholen* the professional infrastructure exists, but resourcing is far from what universities have at their disposal. When they take part e.g. in (applied) research projects (e.g. to make proposals under the Fifth Framework programme for innovation) universities are often financially supported by the state, the *hogescholen* are not.

3.3. Foreign Language Qualifications

Would you say that the foreign language qualifications of your students (and academic staff) are an obstacle to large-scale mobility and cooperation?
Flemish students in their secondary education have been trained very well in Dutch and French, as well as in English and often also in German or Spanish. Their foreign language qualifications are traditionally very high. Command of foreign languages can really not be an obstacle for their internatio-

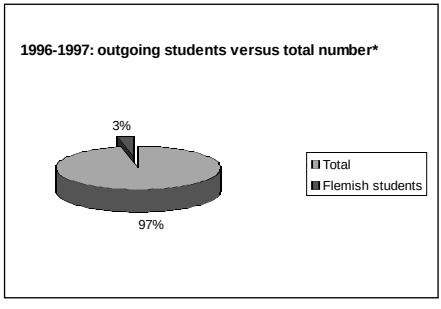
nal mobility. The academic staff has had the same language training in secondary education and normally disposes of high language skills, which can likewise not be an obstacle for cooperation across language borders, neither for their international mobility.

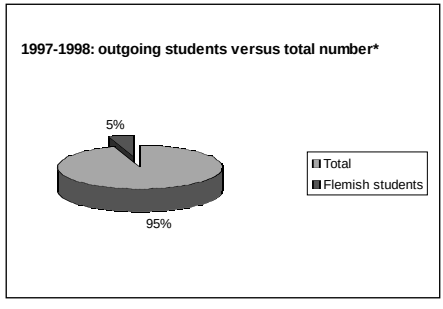
Are there different foreign language requirements for access to your institution compared to universities?
No, there are not. Although most courses are in Dutch, a medium-sized European language spoken by 21 million Europeans, a lot of modules can be taken in other languages. Moreover, most teaching staff speak one or more of the major European languages in addition to their mother tongue. On the other hand, Flanders has a long tradition of language training, which is why many excellent facilities are available for foreign students to be trained in another language. A number of *hogescholen* organise intensive courses of Dutch as a foreign language.

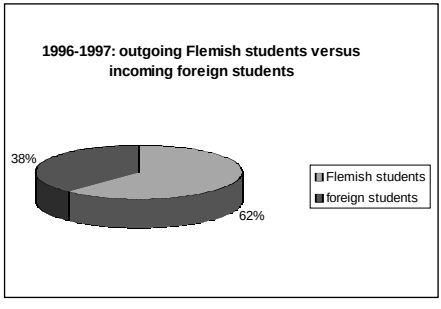
3.4. Impact of the Size of an Institution

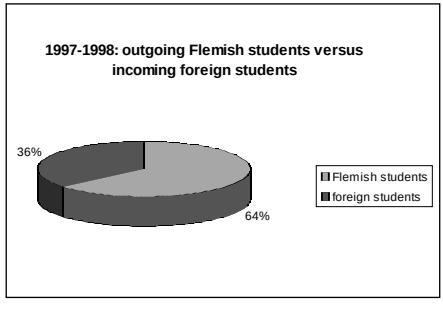
Do you think that the size of an institution impacts on the possible breadth and depth of its international cooperation activities?
Yes, one may say this. Out of a questionnaire we recently asked the Flemish *hogescholen* to fill in, we can conclude the following:

* total number: minus first year students









When seeing internationalisation primarily as the exchange of students and scholars, with an explicit focus on the physical mobility of students, we can draw the following conclusions:

- In the academic year 1996/97, only 3% of the Flemish *hogescholen* students were studying abroad; in the academic year 1997/1998, the percentage went up to five;
- The percentage of outgoing students is slightly higher in larger institutions (more than 2,000 students); in 1996/1997, 5,5% were outgoing in the larger *hogescholen,* compared to 4,2% in the smaller institutions;
- The percentage of incoming students is also slightly higher in the larger *hogescholen.*

But as it is nowadays increasingly accepted in every *hogeschool,* internationalisation refers to much more than only the exchange of students and teachers. In this respect we may conclude that larger institutions have more opportunities in international cooperation and are involved in far more international activities than smaller institutions. Nevertheless, internationalisation affects the whole sector deeply, also due to cooperation set up by the Flemish Council of *Hogescholen* and its working group ADINSA, the institutional impact of internationalisation is present in every *hogeschool,* e.g. in curriculum development, development of course modules, working together by setting up collaborative programmes in order to facilitate international contacts, etc.

In fact, it is not the size of the institution that is important in setting up international activities, but everything depends on the willingness and the strategy of the institutional management that has to opt for internationalisation as a possible means for innovation and change and thus for investing money and staff in it.

3.5. Close Ties with Business

The *hogescholen* have indeed close ties with business and industry, mostly at local level and some more widely. In their programmes the *hogescholen* are working hard to prepare students not only to develop abilities to acquire and organise knowledge, to develop self-reliance and communicative skills, to think creatively, but also to prepare them for the workplace (employability). Therefore, more than before they call upon industry, commerce, the public sector and the specific professions to integrate work experience and training.

These contacts provide specific opportunities for internationalisation. Companies, acting worldwide, help to set up international traineeships and are willing to work together with *hogescholen* in the framework of EU-supported research projects. In lifelong learning, companies work together closely with *hogescholen* in setting up modular programmes that can be used as learning material for their workers and employees in an international context. Joint

teaching, research activities and distance learning are being made possible and affect the internationalisation of learning and teaching in the *hogescholen.*

Good cooperation with chambers of commerce is increasing and many international projects reflect the close ties with industry and employers. Many *hogescholen* are especially interested in the SME sector and have set up good partnership arrangements that often lead to innovative action and international cooperation.

3.6. Continuing Education

The Flemish *hogescholen* have the ambition to play a major role in the provision of continuing education. Therefore VLHORA has two working groups in this area: the first is working out proposals for an innovative structure for adult education; the second is working on proposals to restructure tertiary education in order to prepare a framework that makes it possible for students to earn credits everywhere in the system and to combine study and work. At the present stage, these developments are not linked to the international activities of the *hogescholen.*

3.7. Institutionalisation of Internationalisation

Since its foundation, the organisation of internationalisation has been one of the priorities of VLHORA. This is why the board of VLHORA decided to create an international office at the level of the council with one director and the necessary administrative support. In the meantime international offices of different kinds have been established in every *hogeschool,* which proves that almost every institutional manager is convinced of the importance of internationalisation in his organisation.

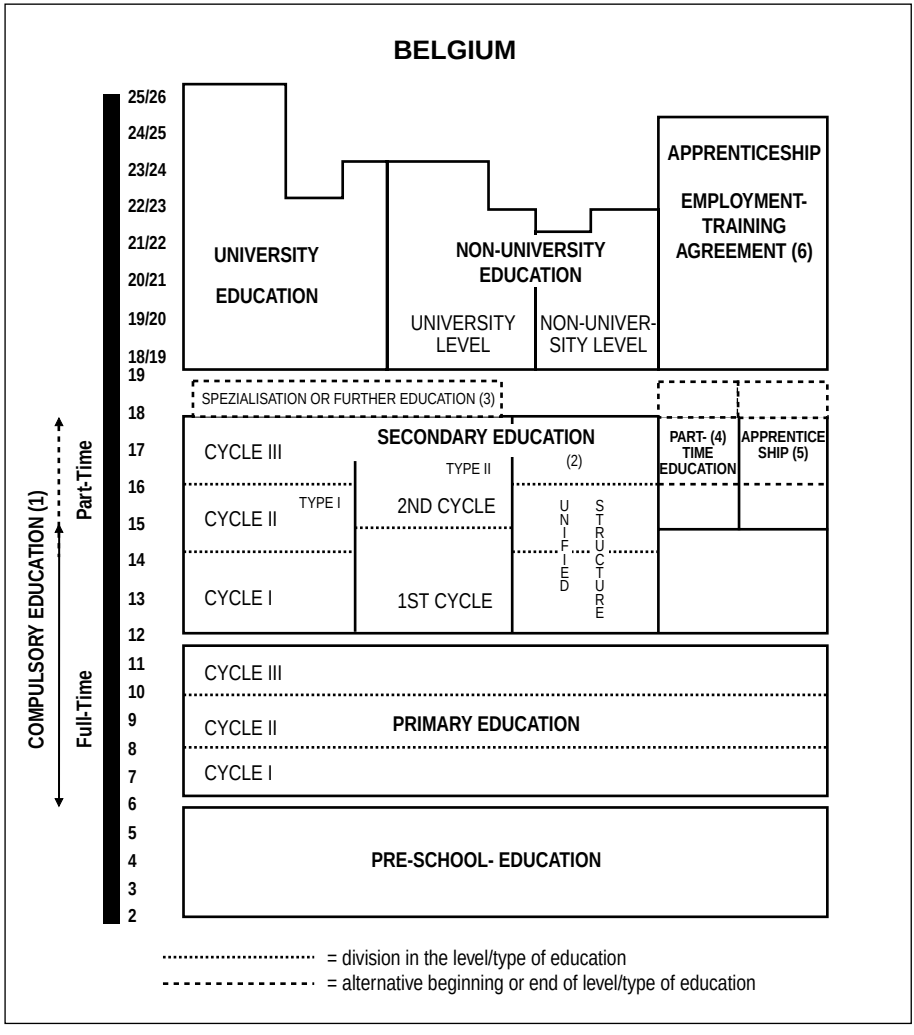
Internationalisation has become a major issue in the policy making of the *hogescholen* and most international activities are linked to the new targets and are of big help in setting up new ideas in matters of innovation, modularisation, curriculum development. The times when international activities were carried out *ad hoc* are over. At the level of VLHORA and of most of the Flemish higher education institutions, internationalisation efforts are linked with educational evolution, research and service-related activities with the aim of making the *hogescholen* responsive to their international environment and in order to be at the European forefront in developing high-quality learning and teaching systems and materials.

Jacques Lebegge / Philippe Renard
Haute Ecole Paul-Henri Spaak / Haute Ecole Lucia de Brouckère
Bruxelles, Belgium

Belgium – Wallonia

1. Structure of the Belgian Education System

The following chart gives an overview of the Belgian education system.



2. General Situation

Background

Belgium was founded in 1830. The constitution provided the structures of a unitary centralised state, with a constitutional monarch as its head.

Since 1970, after four consecutive phases of reform of the constitution, Belgium has developed into a federal state, composed of three Communities (Flemish, French and German-speaking) and three Regions (Flemish, Walloon and Brussels). There are four linguistic areas: Dutch language, French language, bilingual (Brussels) and German language. Each of the Communities and regions has legislative and executive autonomy with respect to its fields of competence. The councils of the Communities and Regions, as legislative authorities, pass regulations in the form of “decrees”, which have force of law on their territory.

The Communities are responsible for cultural matters, education, person-related matters (welfare, healthcare) and language. The Regions are responsible for economy, energy, public works and transport, town and country planning and the environment. The federal state retains the main responsibility for foreign affairs, defence, justice, finance and social legislation.

Below the Regions there are 10 provinces and 589 communes responsible for provincial and local matters (education for example).

Belgium has a population of around 10 million in an area of just over 30,000 square kilometres. The main areas of employment are industry (27.5%) and the services (70%), with only 2.5% now employed in agriculture. There is a 13.5% unemployment rate. The Belgian constitution guarantees the separation of church and state. There is therefore no official religion. Roman Catholicism is the most widespread.

Basic Principles: Education

Article 17 of the Belgian constitution, dating back to 1831, guarantees freedom of education. This principle was meant to eliminate any monopoly on education. It also implies freedom of choice for parents, who may enrol their children in any school which subscribes to their philosophical or religious convictions. Only education administered by the Communities is neutral, respecting all philosophical and religious beliefs. All schools organised by public authorities must offer a choice between instruction in a recognised religion or secular moral instruction.

The Constitution also establishes the right to education. The corollary of this principle is that access to education is free of charge throughout compulsory education.

Distribution of Responsibilities

The constitutional reforms of 1980 and 1989 transferred responsibility for education from the federal state to the Communities.

Since 1 January 1989, as stipulated Article 59bis of the constitution, only three very specific areas have remained under the control of the federal state, namely:

- Fixing the start and finish of compulsory schooling;
- Minimum conditions for the award of diplomas;
- The pension scheme for teachers.

All other educational matters have been transferred to the three Communities. They are responsible for education within their linguistic area and, in the French and Flemish Communities, with regard to French or Dutch-speaking establishments in bilingual areas (Brussels). The educational responsibilities of each Community are vested in the Community Council (legislative power) and the Community Government and Education Minister (executive power).

The federal state continues to administer the tax system for the whole of Belgium and allocates funds to the Communities based on detailed criteria set out in an Act of 16 January 1989. In education, the annual amount is calculated on the basis of the reference year 1987 and adjusted partially each year in relation to population trends.

In 1989, the Flemish Community received 56.2% of the funds, the French and German-speaking Communities 43.8%. A special Act fixes the amount of funding for the German-speaking Community.

The Communities are also responsible for apprenticeships and initial training for the independent professions and for the managers of SMEs, through specialised bodies.

3. French Speaking Community

Administration

As a consequence of the recent reforms, policy for education and higher education is the responsibility of the Council of the French Community and its government, in which there is a minister for higher education and academic research, and another for education (pre-school, primary, secondary and special education). In the French Community, except for private schools, there are three main types of education institutions:

- Public education institutions organised and managed by the French Community and financed in total from its budget;
- Public education institutions subsidised by the French Community, but managed by provincial or communal authorities;

- “Free” education institutions, denominational or non-denominational, subsidised by the French Community.

Each category comprises an “educational network” composed of one or more “organising bodies”, each directing one or more schools.

The organising body of Community education is the Government of the French Community. It administers and manages establishments (at all levels) and the careers of administrators of its own educational network. The organising bodies of subsidised public education, however, are the provinces or communes, and of “free” subsidised education, the natural or legal persons responsible.

The network of subsidised public education establishments has developed two structures for coordinating education: the *Conseil de l’enseignement des communes et des provinces (CECP)* and the *Conseil des pouvoirs organisateurs de l’enseignement officiel neutre subventionné (CPEONS)*. The establishments of “free” education are grouped under the *Secrétariat national de l’Enseignement catholique (SNEC)* and the *Fédération des écoles libres subventionnées indépendantes (FELSI)*.

The minister grants subsidies to educational establishments under certain conditions. Establishments must:

- Comply with legislation on language;
- Adopt a structure approved by the minister;
- Follow a curriculum which meets legal requirements;
- Submit to supervision and inspection as organised by the Government of the Community, which is responsible for determining that the level of instruction is satisfactory;
- Have a minimum number of pupils per class, section or level;
- Be composed of educational facilities which meet set standards for hygiene and cleanliness;
- Follow the general scheme for leave and holidays;
- Employ staff who are not likely to endanger pupils’ health;
- Possess the teaching materials and school facilities required to meet educational needs.

If the establishment meet these conditions, the organising body is free to choose staff, as long as they also meet certain standards. Choice of teaching methods and definition of the content of curricula is also free, on prior approval of the minister.

Financing

The French Community covers all cost of Community education and subsidises public and “free” education as far as permitted by laws and decrees, according to the level of education, number of pupils, etc. Subsidies cover,

for the whole school system including short higher education courses, completely or partially:

- Staff remuneration, under the same conditions (qualifications and duties) as those granted to Community education staff;
- Operating expenses, on a lump-sum basis, according to regulatory criteria;
- Expenses related to construction and development, within the limits of credits provided for in the budgetary decree.

However, certain expenses, such as the purchase of material (school textbooks, exercise books, etc.) and participation in extra-curricular activities, may be covered by parents, associations, etc.

As regards university education, an operating grant is allocated to each institution in accordance with the number of students. This covers the purchase of material, salaries of teaching and administrative staff, etc.

4. Higher Education

There are three types of higher education: short-time higher education, long-time higher education (both organised as non-university) and university education.

Admission

All those who hold an upper secondary education certificate *(Certificat d'enseignement secondaire supérieur – CESS)* have access to all three types of higher education. For some courses (for example, in the engineering sections) an entrance examination is organised.

Fees/Student Finance

Registration fees *(minerval)* are paid in all types of higher education. The minimum amount in short and long higher education is fixed by regulations. Universities fix the amount themselves.

Academic Year

The academic year comprises 30 weeks of classes and begins between 15 September and the first Monday of October.

Courses/Qualifications

Non (Extra) University Higher Education

Short and long higher education covers an extremely wide range of courses. It prepares students for a variety of activities, providing access to occupa-

tions mainly in the following sections: industry, trade, transport, agriculture, paramedical and social education, translation and interpretation, applied arts and distributive arts.

Courses are given in institutions bearing a variety of names, depending on the specialisation taught (*e.g. Institut d'enseignement supérieur pédagogique – IESP*, or higher teacher training institution).

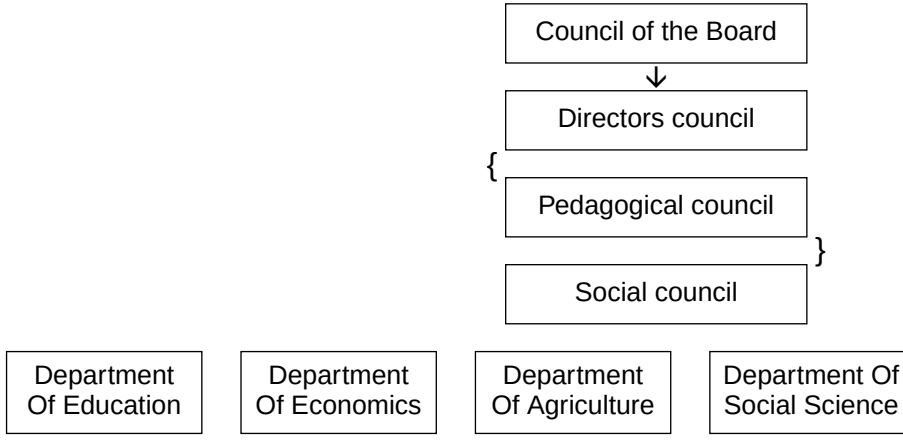
Education comprises two forms:

- Short higher education, which is organised in a single cycle of study lasting three or four years and leads to the diplomas of *gradué* (in various disciplines), nurse, social worker or auxiliary, librarian-documentalist, pre-school teacher, primary teacher, educator, lower secondary teacher (*agrégé*);
- Long higher education, which is of the same nature and level as university education. It is organised in two cycles of study, lasts at least four years and leads to the following diplomas and degrees: industrial engineer, commercial engineer, upper secondary teacher (*agrégé*), architect, *licencié* in translation, *licencié* in applied communications.

Hautes Ecoles

The law of 1 September 1996 organised the non-university system in the French speaking Community (F.S.C.) in *hautes écoles*, (Decree of 5 August 1995). The 235 former institutions were reorganised in 30 *hautes écoles.* The minimum number of students for each of them is 700. The structure is more or less based on the university system (faculties). That means that *hautes écoles* are divided in different categories (seven maximum) and departments.

The participation of students and teachers is organised through elections to the boards of every level of the management of the *haute école* from department to council. The department directors are member of the different councils at every level of the structure.



Assessment

Each year of study leads to examinations which determine whether a student may continue to the next year. Examinations are carried out in line with a number of administrative and organisational arrangements. Two examination sessions are held each academic year (the first between 15 June and 15 July, the second after 15 August of the current academic year). Students may not sit the same examination more than four times in two academic years and must sit examinations during the first session. At the end of the academic year students are:

- Admitted to the next year of study, if they have obtained a score of at least 50% in each test and of 60% of the points awarded for the entire examination;
- Admitted to the next year if they pass those examinations in the second session which they failed in the first attempt;
- Or rejected, and must repeat the year, if they failed in both sessions.

Development at European Level

Since the implementation of the European programmes in higher education, such as ERASMUS and COMETT, the impact of EU policies in education has become more and more important.

An example is the quality assessment policy. Today, it is a commonplace to say that the higher education environment is evolving rapidly, with changes both in the framework conditions under which *hautes écoles* operate, and in the expectations placed on them. To a certain extent, *haute école* managers are already conscious of this change. However, in many cases this new consciousness remains partial and superficial.

However they must be capable of finding credible responses to the expectations placed on them from outside. Moving beyond the individual responsibility of each researcher and teacher, there is a growing responsibility towards the environment of the institution as a whole.

This shift in scale also implies a fundamental change in the way in which external bodies will in future judge the quality and effectiveness of the activities of institutions. They will no longer be content with either a quality control limited to the individual value of each researcher and teacher (the knowledge generators), or a purely implicit and “internal” measurement (i.e. under the internal control of the scientific community) of this quality. Have the *hautes écoles* become fully aware of this change, and how are they dealing with it?

The European Union’s institutional evaluation programme seeks to find an answer to this question. The programme’s objective is to examine the strategic management of the institution or, in other words, its capacity to define a

mission, set objectives, implement them in a consistent fashion and verify the extent to which it achieves them. Institutional evaluation is, first and foremost, a service to the institution itself; helping it to provide answers to the following questions:

- What objectives is the *haute école* pursuing?
- What resources is it allocating in order to achieve them?
- How does it verify their implementation?
- What steps is the *haute école* taking to improve?

This type of evaluation which, first and foremost, serves the evaluated institution represents an "endosystemic" operation, as distinct from "recapitulative" operations carried out for the benefit of the evaluator as, for example, when a governmental agency examines the way in which financial allocations are utilised, basing subsequent allocations on the results of the evaluation process.

Three main trends are particularly noteworthy:

1. To a far greater extent than before, knowledge and know-how have become key factors for insertion into society, both for enterprises which must remain at the cutting edge in their field in order to survive, and for individuals who will be very quickly excluded from the labour market if they lack training which matches market needs.
2. Economic globalisation and the disappearance of certain historical barriers and the ability to transmit information using the corresponding technologies are also leading to increased competition. As the acquisition of knowledge and know-how becomes a strategic factor, so a corresponding and increasingly international market is created in which acquisition is based on the best price-quality relationship, wherever this may be.
3. The development of information technologies could almost be quoted as a separate trend, as it implies a revolution in human exchanges, the scope of which is still underestimated. What do these trends mean for higher education?

Hautes écoles are confronted with several phenomena which they may not ignore:

- Increasing demand in terms of both quality and quantity, at all or almost all levels (education and research, basic and continuing education, specialist and interdisciplinary knowledge, economic and social needs, etc.). This demand is becoming highly diversified: in-service training, retraining, upgrading, distance learning, interdisciplinary education, ETC;
- Reduction in the resources made available by the public authorities.

Outside expectations of training

Certain elements, however, appear indisputable.

They are:

a. The principle of lifelong learning, which has already been extensively quoted and discussed;
b. Linked to this principle is the increasing importance of know-how as distinct from knowledge: problems and questions evolve so quickly that any attempt to concentrate on content runs into a blind alley;
c. On another level is the importance of *"savoir-être"*, given that many qualified jobs require a substantial personal investment by their holders involving the ability to innovate, adapt, work in teams, and manage personnel, all of which presuppose corresponding personal skills;
d. An interdisciplinary approach;
e. The idea of partnership between teachers and students: students should be active participants in their education, rather than just consumers;
f. Finally, there is the necessary differentiation of teaching practices and modes. The student population of the university today is increasingly varied in terms of individual profiles, acquired knowledge, personal objectives, availability, learning speed, etc.

It is now clear to the entire European academic world that universities have to implement new strategies in the aim to fulfil the goals they need to reach within the whole society. Quality management, understood as a common tool, is an opportunity for universities in the framework of the European Union to demonstrate their capacity of innovation.

5. Research and Internationalisation

Type of Research

The law which created the *hautes écoles* of the Belgian French Community (5 August 1995) mentions that one of their missions is research.

Short-type institutes (three years) and long-type institutes (university level – four years) were brought together into *hautes écoles.*

Research took place already before the creation of the *hautes écoles*, mainly of the long type. This process has led to increased research in both types, but particularly in the short-type institutes. Most research is applied research. There is a close relationship between education and the professional world, and research must meet the concrete needs encountered in professional contacts.

Research funding is not included in the budgets of the *hautes écoles*. But thanks to teachers' goodwill and income generated from contracts, research has been made possible. These are contracts with companies, national organisms – public most of the time, and more and more with international organisms. The noticeable increase of the last type is due to the continuous growth of the European relationships and collaborations triggered by student and teacher exchanges. All these factors have led to joint projects in the research sector.

Specificities of the University and Non-University-System

In the universities, research is a compulsory part in teachers' activities. Their teaching is enriched by research and thus represents a more fundamental aspect.

In the *hautes écoles,* long-type higher education (four years-university level) and short-type higher education (three years) have the following specificity:

- Short-type higher education combines, at the pedagogic level, theory and practice with training periods in the professional environment or in laboratories;
- Long-type higher education pedagogy is founded on induction and rather proceeds by stages: experimentation – scientific concepts – applications and projects. Here, education is both operational and close to the concrete, on the one hand, and conceptual and scientific on the other hand.

This results in short and long-type education being constantly in interaction with the reality of the jobs the students prepare for. These jobs should be perceived in their economic and social contexts.

Universities had important international relationships for a long time already. Non-university education is now becoming a major competitor because of the growth of its international activities, of its research and of its more appropriate training for jobs.

Size of the Institutions

The *hautes écoles* are smaller in size than the universities. The number of their students varies between 1,000 and 5,000. Universities have up to 20,000 students. But before the creation of the *hautes écoles,* some institutes counted only 100 students!

The increased size of the *hautes écoles* has favoured international relationships, especially for the short type. But size is still insufficient in order to be as effective as the universities in this area.

Knowledge of Languages

The law mentions that proof of knowledge of French is compulsory for each student who did not graduate from a French secondary school. This is valid for universities and non-university higher education alike. This knowledge is tested in an examination.

Exchanges with other European countries obviously require the knowledge of the particular country's language in order for the students to benefit academically. There are frequent exchanges with The Netherlands, Great Britain and Ireland because Dutch and English are the best-known foreign lan-

guages in Belgium. On the other hand, exchanges with Mediterranean countries such as Spain, Greece and Portugal are mostly used by natives of these countries who study in Belgium. Exchanges with countries like Germany are made by students who have a moderate knowledge of German, coupled with a good knowledge of English. Exchanges with Nordic countries (Denmark, Sweden and Finland) are based on English only. Most of the students coming into Belgium have a little or some knowledge of French and they often use English as well, especially at the beginning of their studies.

International Character of the Relations with Business and Industry

Close relationships with companies are numerous and mostly local. However, we have noted that they rarely lead to contracts with other departments of the same company located in another country, not even in multinational companies.

On the other hand, when relations between non-university education and companies are institutionalised with the help of regional authorities, they often lead to projects with an international character.

Josef Beneš, Vera Štastná, Michal Karpíšek
Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports
Praha, Czech Republic

Czech Republic

1. The Structure of the Tertiary Sector

The scheme set up in ACA's "checklist for authors" does not completely suit the situation in the Czech Republic. For a better understanding of this sector of education, which is so different in European countries, we find it useful to explain the structure of the Czech tertiary sector at the beginning of this paper. There are two possibilities to describe it – from the institutional point of view and from the perspective of the study programme.

Let us start with a small specification of terminology. The term "tertiary education" is often not understood identically in the different countries of the EU or OECD. Also, it has not been used officially in the Czech Republic before. Let us explore the term in the way it is understood in the Czech Republic now. Tertiary education is the education for which the students qualify upon the successful completion of the secondary school leaving exam called *Maturita.*

Besides the term "tertiary education", the terms "non-university" and "university higher education" and "professional higher education" are used. This usually refers both to study programmes and to the institutions which provide the education. In the Czech Republic, the terms "non-university" and "university", as well as "professional" are defined only in connection with the institution type, as shown in the following text.

1.1. The Tertiary Sector According to Institutions

Higher Education Institutions

There are 23 public civilian higher education institutions. At present, none of them is of the non-university type. There are three military state higher education institutions which are also of the university type and one police state academy, which for the time being is the only higher education institution of the non-university type in the Czech Republic.

A new possibility for the non-university higher education institutions was opened by the New Act on Higher Education Institutions, approved by the Czech Parliament in April 1998, which speaks explicitly about non-university higher education:

1. Higher education institutions provide accredited study programmes as well as lifelong learning programmes. The type of higher education activities is determined by the type of accredited study programmes being provided. Each study programme is of one of the following types: bachelor, master, or doctoral;
2. Higher education institutions represent legal entities;
3. Higher education institutions are either university type or non-university type;
4. University type higher education institutions provide master or doctoral study programmes as well as related scholarly, research, developmental, artistic or other creative activity. They can also provide bachelor study programmes;
5. Non-university type higher education institutions provide primarily bachelor study programmes as well as related research, developmental, artistic or other creative activity. Higher education institutions of this type are not divided into faculties;
6. The type of the higher education institution is declared in its Statute; it must comply with the standpoint of the Accreditation Commission;
7. Higher education institutions are public, private, or state. There are military and police state institutions of higher education.

The master study programmes lead to the degree of *Magistr (Mgr.)* level, the bachelor study programmes lead to the degree of *Bakaláø (Bc.) l*evel.

The new Act also opens the possibility for the creation and development of private higher education institutions which have not existed in our country before. However, they will be subject to the same rather strict accreditation process as the public institutions.

Higher Professional Schools

The post-secondary professional studies in our country were established by the Amendment of 1995 to the Schools Act from 1984. Like other educational institutions, these higher professional schools undergo an approval procedure organised by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. At present, there are about 180 of these higher professional schools. The studies last from two to three and a half years and their character is highly professionally oriented. The schools are finished with leaving exams – *Absolutorium* – leading to the title Diploma Specialist (DiS). However, this education is not considered as higher education.

The Czech higher professional schools are organised in two associations. Some of them (about 30 higher professional schools) belong to the Czech Association of Schools of Professional Higher Education (CASPHE), the rest to the Association of Schools of Higher Studies (ASHS). As the new Act on Higher Education opens the possibility for higher professional schools to

enter the non-university sector of higher education, the applications of some higher professional schools are expected.

There are also other educational institutions of the tertiary sector, at which different types of studies are organised. The necessary condition for entering such institutions is the successful completion of secondary education with the leaving exam called *Maturita.*

1.2. The Tertiary Sector According to Study Programmes

According to the new Act of 1998 higher education in the Czech Republic will be based on study programmes. There are three types – bachelor, master and doctoral. See figure 1.

The doctoral study programmes are aimed at scientific research and independent creative activities. Graduates of master programmes may apply for this type of study. The standard duration of study is three years. These programmes are provided only by higher education institutions of university type or by research institutions in cooperation with higher educational institutions of the university type.

The master study programmes are aimed at new theoretical findings based on scientific knowledge, research and development. Master programmes in the field of arts are aimed at challenging artistic training and the development of artistic talent. The standard duration of study is at least four and at most six years. Master study programmes may represent a continuation of bachelor study programmes; in this case, the standard length of study is at least two and at most three years. These programmes are provided mainly by higher education institutions of the university type.

The bachelor study programmes are aimed in particular at preparation for a career making use of all new contemporary knowledge and methods, including the provision of the essential theoretical basis. However, it gives the appropriate higher education institution or faculty a sufficient scope for its forming. It is left to the decision of the author of the programme whether it is conceived in such a way that students can continue to a master programme (if they decide so) or whether it is considered to be a very narrowly oriented programme and no further continuation of studies is expected. In any case, emphasis will be put on the greatest possible permeability of studies. The standard length of study including practical training is at least three years and at most four years.

At present, bachelor study programmes are offered by the majority of higher education institutions. The bachelor study programmes could be provided by higher education institutions of university and non-university type and by higher professional schools (in the future other educational institutions) in cooperation with a higher educational institution.

Higher professional studies are provided by higher professional schools. In the future, these programmes are supposed to be usually shorter than three years, consisting of the following types:

- One year study – finished with a certain kind of certificate;
- Two year study – finished with a certain type of diploma/certificate;
- Three year study – finished with a "specialist diploma" (DiS), and constructed in a modular way with possibilities of their further continuation in higher education.

Further programmes of lifelong learning are provided by institutions of different types.

In many European countries professional programmes are strictly separated from those which are theoretically oriented. Often they are provided by different types of institutions and no transfer/permeability is foreseen. The applicants have to decide on their future orientation and occupation immediately after finishing secondary school, meaning at an age of about 19. During their studies they can hardly change their programmes. In the Czech model, the possibility of a number of combinations is based on the relation between professional and theoretical subjects or training which is necessary.

There is a certain space left for each student to decide during his/her studies for more practical or theoretically-oriented study plans. This idea is expressed in figure 2. The theoretically-focused subjects are introduced on the vertical axis, the practically-oriented ones on the horizontal axis. If there is the same type of programme (bachelor, master, doctoral) the student is supposed to invest the same study load (e.g. to gain a certain number of credits) which is expressed by the line marked with the respective academic degree.

2. International Cooperation

There are ten million inhabitants in the Czech Republic. At higher education institutions there are 180,000 students, at higher professional schools there are 30,000 students. The size of the institutions differs. There are between 5,000 to 35,000 students studying at a higher education institution, however. 134 higher professional schools have less than 250 students, only two of them have more than 600 students. The size of an institution also influences its structure. Higher professional schools do not employ staff exclusively responsible for the organisation of international cooperation. Usually, teachers coordinate certain projects, often dependent on their language abilities. Generally, the level of international cooperation depends to what extent the head of a school finds it important. At higher education institutions international departments exist on the central university level as well as the faculty level. Students from professionally-oriented study programmes provided by higher education institutions can benefit from the structure, contacts and experiences of the institution.

The language abilities of students at higher education institutions and higher professional schools should be comparable. During compulsory schooling children learn one foreign language, at secondary school there are mostly two compulsory foreign languages. The exact language ability depends on the type of secondary school the student graduated from. As stated in the first part of this paper, the necessary condition for admission to both types of institutions is the same – full secondary education completed by the *Maturita* exam. Usually, the students from generally-oriented secondary schools *(Gymnasium)* and economic secondary schools have a better command of foreign languages.

It can be said that a number of higher professional schools have established significant international contacts. Some of them are at the very beginning of the whole process. One of the optional ways of introduction of tertiary professional studies was a process of transformation of secondary vocational schools into higher professional schools. The process was from the very beginning strongly supported by the Dutch government and assistance of Dutch *hogescholen.* The project was focused on transfer of know-how in curriculum development, school management and quality assurance. This cooperation resulted in a full membership of the self-governing organisation of these schools, the Czech Association of Schools of Professional Higher Education (CASPHE), and in the European association of such schools, EURASHE. The membership has been kept until today and provides contacts with counterpart organisations and institutions in Europe.

Apart from that, the Czech Association of Schools of Professional Higher Education was seeking for supplementary projects of international cooperation which would promote the development of schools into strong regional institutions of tertiary education. In the years 1993 and 1994, a series of seminars with the Association of Canadian Community Colleges and with the State University of New York, USA was arranged.

A new dimension was brought into international cooperation of higher professional schools by the introduction of the EU programmes in the Czech Republic. The PHARE programme enabled to organise a few projects for the schools' staff which were focused on quality issues, school marketing and human resources policies.

In 1997 the Czech Republic officially entered the SOCRATES, LEONARDO and YOUTH FOR EUROPE programmes. This opportunity has shifted the activity towards the individual schools. Some of the higher professional schools used this chance and have arranged student placements in companies in Great Britain, France and the Netherlands under LEONARDO. Higher professional schools are also eligible for participation in the SOCRATES programme. They use this opportunity mainly under COMENIUS and LINGUA. There is a growing interest of schools in participation in these EU programmes. However, this experience is still rather new and the impact of the

programmes on the development of international cooperation still needs to be assessed. An activity to be mentioned in the field of international cooperation is the start of a discussion with the Irish Institutes of Technology and the National Council for Educational Awards on the possibility of recognition of study programmes at a limited number of Czech higher professional schools. This project can lead to adjustments of curricula to standards used in the tertiary education in some countries of the EU

All 23 Czech civilian higher education institutions could benefit from the TEMPUS programme and they are involved in SOCRATES-ERASMUS. Their participation in the LEONARDO programme is increasing. Besides, universities themselves have established a large number of bilateral agreements.

International cooperation with business and industry again very much depends on the institutions themselves. Partly, it is realised under the LEONARDO programme. The main activity of schools is the exchange of students for student placements abroad. It was mentioned that these activities are at the beginning, as the opportunity of using the LEONARDO funds has existed for a few years only. The following expansion could be expected, especially after reaching some agreements of mutual recognition of parts of study programmes. The exchange is organised in both directions and some students from the Netherlands and France have already spent placements in Czech companies as well.

There has yet not been much experience with continuing education and lifelong learning in higher professional schools. However, the schools consider this field to be one of the main areas of their operation for the future. The limited experience results mostly from the fact that the schools wanted to stabilise their full-time programmes first, before moving their interest to other activities. Operational limits resulting from the transformation period of schools and their gradual development were another important element, as well as an unclear situation as regards support, especially of a financial sort, for continuing education in the Czech Republic. A similar situation exists at universities. They offer a number of programmes of lifelong learning. However, their main focus is on the implementation of the changes brought by the new Act. The discussion on these issues has started and it can be expected that in the coming years the proportion of part-time students and students on short courses will grow. The use of new information technologies and distance learning technology are also part of this discussion.

International cooperation at all levels is an organic part of the activities and long term intentions of the university institutions. There is no specific policy on internationalisation as concerns higher professional education. The activities are up to individual institutions or their associations. Nevertheless, the already mentioned EU programmes have played an ignition role in finding contacts abroad. Some institutions have used these opportunities for strengthening their international contacts. The issue itself has not been

discussed very much. On the other hand, international cooperation and involvement in projects could be one of the topics to be considered during the accreditation procedure which could provide some of these schools with a possibility to offer bachelor degree studies.

Annex

Figure 1: Structure of Teritiary Spere

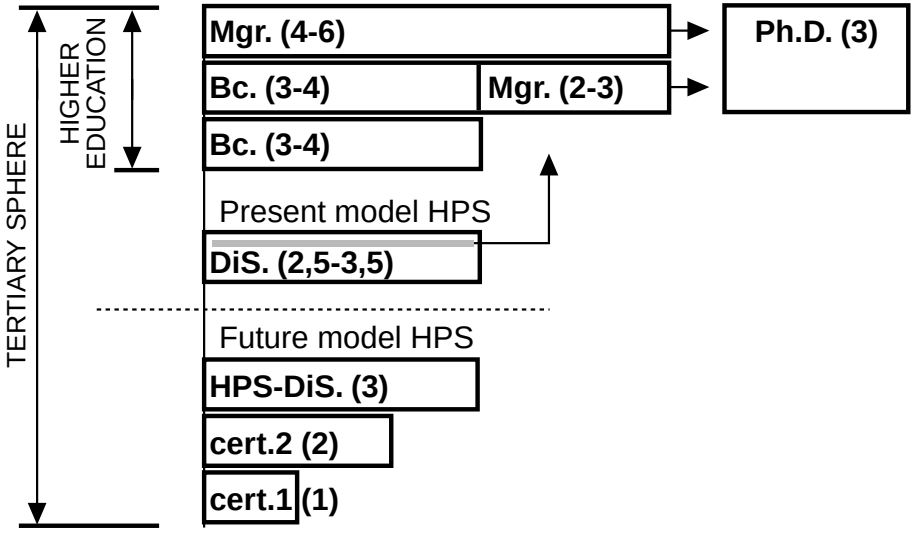


Figure 2: Study Programs

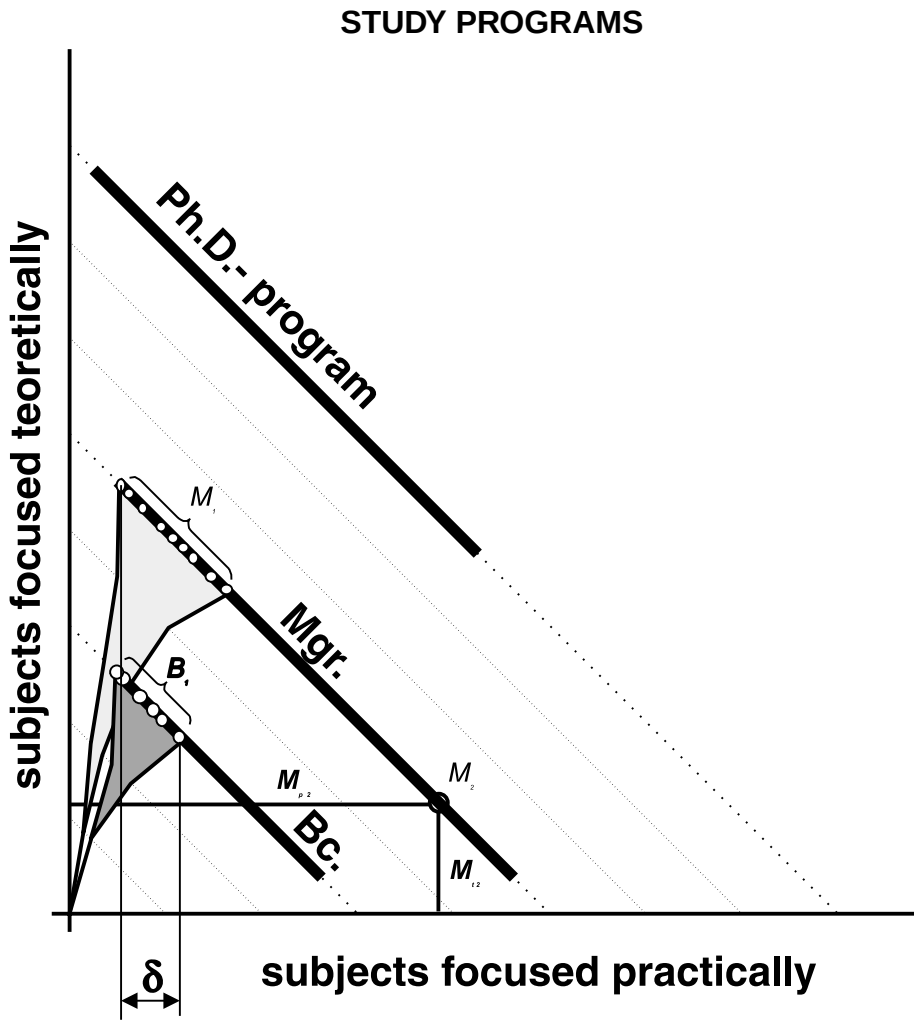
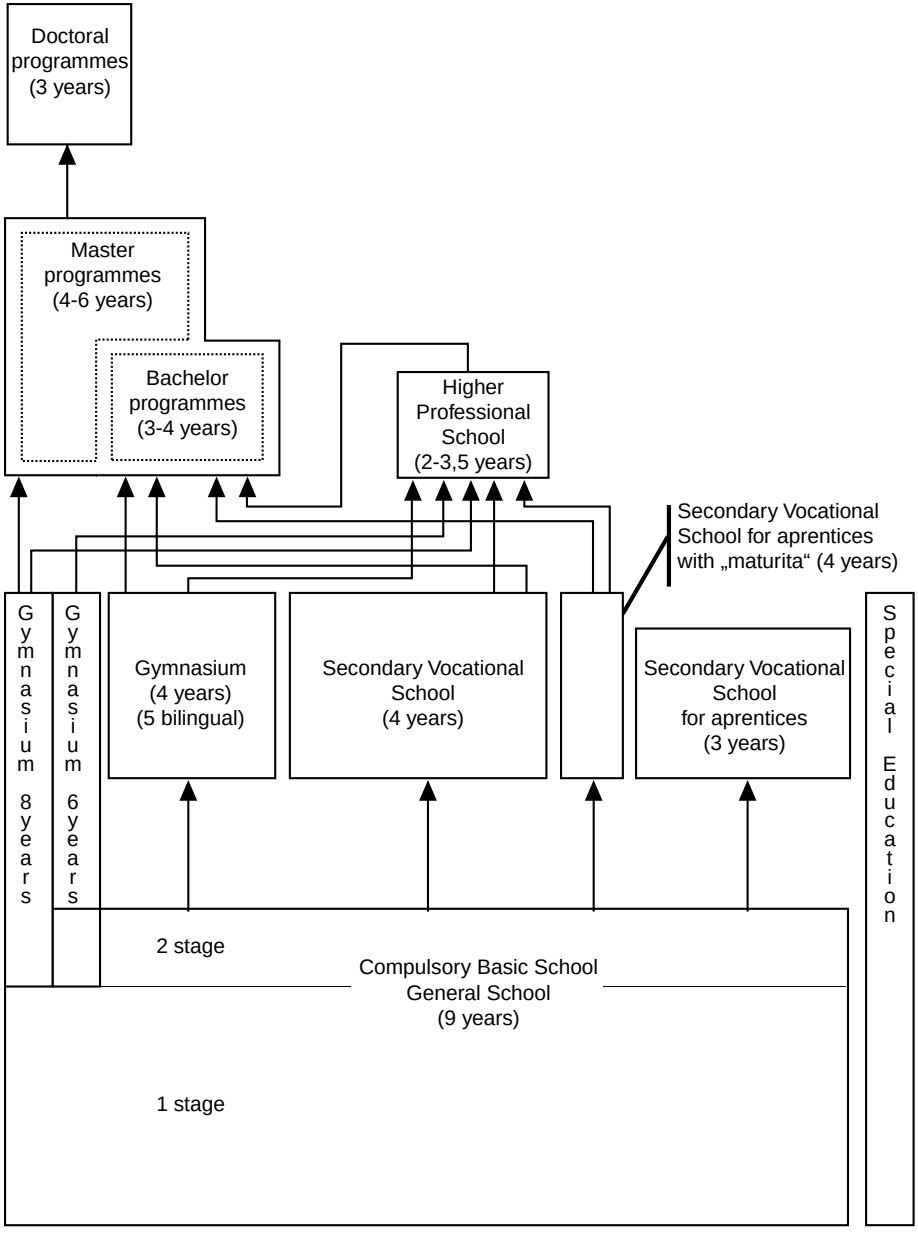


Figure 3: Study Programs



Christen Christensen
Dean of the National Danish School of Social Work
Åarhus, Denmark

Denmark

1. The Non-University Sector of Higher Education in Denmark

Danish higher education is divided into (I) a short, (II) a middle-long and (III) a long higher education sector. With a duration respectively of (I) up to two and a half years, (II) three to four years and (III) five years or more. In this paper, the focus will be on the middle-long higher education.

Compared to most other European countries, the Danish non-university sector is characterised by many and relatively small institutions:

- About 120 institutions form the non-university sector in Denmark (population: 5.5 million), whereas the number of universities is 11 (Denmark maintains a relatively traditional and narrow definition of a university);
- The Danish non-university sector consists mainly of institutions named a *seminarium* – about half of the sector (teachers and pedagogues) –, a *højskole* (social workers, journalists and certain types of engineers) and various *skoler* (physiotherapists, laboratory technicians and others);
- Nearly all of the 120 institutions represent only one type of education;
- The typical size of the student population is 300 to 500. However, some are bigger and many are smaller;
- Normally, the institutions are financed by the state, but some advanced courses, further education etc. would be financed partly by the students themselves;
- Funding is mainly based on the principle that for each student passing a term the institution receives a certain amount. Additional buildings are financed separately – also by the state. Many of the institutions in this category are independent, still funded by the state but with an extended freedom of action as for spending their income and respectively an increased responsibility in financial matters;
- A major part of these institutions are managed by a board of governors and a dean/director, a *rektor.* The board of governors represents the employers' organisations and relevant unions or associations. These external members form the majority of the board, while a minority is representing teachers and other staff members and also students from the institution;
- Members of the board of governors are appointed by their organisation – normally for a period of four years. The *rektor* is appointed – normally with

no time limit – by the Ministry of Education, but the board of governors has a considerable influence on the decision made by the ministry. This differs from the universities where the external partners have less influence and where the *rektor* is elected by a certain part of the teachers and for a limited period (re-election is very common);

- This may, however, not be one of the more important differences between the university- and the non-university sector in Denmark. The two main differences are: As mentioned above there are 11 universities compared to approximately 120 institutions offering middle-long higher education. This means that although most Danish universities are small by international standards, they are considerably bigger than the institutions in the non-university sector. Thus, of course the universities offer a wide range of education – even though only few are "full scale" universities;
- The second and very important difference is that with insignificant exceptions research is not included in the state-funded activities of the non-university sector. Although some of these institutions are successful in their search for funding through other sources, the institutions and the education and subjects they represent are characterised by very limited research activities. At the universities research is most important, of course;
- A third but less important difference should also be mentioned. In Denmark, the bachelor and Ph.D. degrees are both relatively new and they are restricted to the universities where you find the so-called "3 + 2 + 3"-structure referring to the duration of each degree: Bachelor/three years + master (in Danish a *kandidat*)/two years + Ph.D./three years. The restriction of this structure and titles to the universities has been criticised by the non-university sector. The universities, however, have defended their monopoly of offering these degrees even though they themselves never fully accepted the bachelor degree. Thus, rather few students leave the university with a bachelor degree and this degree is still not very popular on the labour market either;
- In the educational sector international cooperation traditionally has more or less been restricted to higher education. This again has been combined with research and the institutions responsible for this activity. Until the opening of the important European exchange programmes starting with ERASMUS, only very few international activities existed outside the university sector. Since the mid-eighties the various programmes have supported a significant development in this area involving most of the institutions in the non-university sector. This has been especially important for a country like Denmark, where the size of the population, the language and in general the limited international knowledge of the country should be accepted as obstacles.

It should be noted that important changes are approaching the non-university sector in Denmark. This will be described below.

2. The Non-University Sector in Denmark and Regional Aspects

There is no doubt that several institutions in both the university and the non-university sector were set up with regard to regional aspects. Until the beginning of this century, you would only find very few of these institutions outside Copenhagen.

The regional focus may not have a direct impact on internationalisation. However, regional aspects do influence the conditions on which international activities are organised.

In the same way in which a regionally-oriented policy may have supported the creation of an institution where it would not "naturally" have been placed, the same institution may in the effort to attract students and teachers from abroad realise that they also have to defeat traditional thinking that capitals and major cities are more interesting and offer more opportunities.

However, there are also interesting examples demonstrating that institutions in regions with a weak higher education tradition experience strong support from the local public authorities, which certainly is a help in the efforts to stimulate international cooperation.

With regard to regional aspects it is important to consider the size of the country and its population. Compared to most other countries, Denmark has a high density of educational institutions. Recent studies show that it is impossible to live more than 65 km away from a higher education institution in Denmark. This differs of course from neighbouring countries like Sweden or Germany.

Though not based on scientific surveys it is, however, a general impression that Danish non-university institutions – and the small universities as well – make a special effort to encourage international activities. Thus, it is often heard among exchange students that they have experienced a special hospitality and a more careful reception at smaller institutions in smaller cities than in larger institutions in big cities.

3. International Exchange and Applied Teaching and Development

International activities in universities and in the non-university sector in Denmark differ at least in the field of research. This is – as explained above – restricted to the universities.

But in general Danish non-university sector institutions benefit from their close relation to various labour market institutions, business, industry and public service institutions.

Below it will be described that only courses held in a foreign language (most often English) could be offered to exchange students. As this is still more common at universities than at non-university sector institutions, these insti-

tutions are able to offer instead opportunities for project work or, in some cases, field placements. In this respect the institutions' close contact to their labour market is important and the exchange students could normally get along with the English language.

4. The Boundaries Between University- and Non-University Education Institutions

As mentioned above, major changes are approaching the non-university sector of higher education in Denmark. Especially with regard to the large number of institutions in this sector and their predominantly relatively small size, the ministries of education and research have initiated a general debate on the structure of higher education in Denmark. No particular aims have been laid down for this debate, nor a time limit for specific results. However, a key issue is to increase the capacity of higher education in Denmark, especially in the non-university sector. The government has set the goal that 50% of all young people in Denmark should complete some kind of higher education, the number today being 39%.

Not only the capacity of the institutions, but also their size and range of subjects has been put on the agenda. With reference to a number of other European countries the ministry's report encourages institutions in the non-university sector either to merge or form centres consisting of several institutions offering different types of education. Also, cooperation with universities could be relevant or other ways of changing the structure in order to create larger and stronger institutions, with a view to scientific and financial flexibility as well as international competition.

Although important changes are already being implemented it is most likely that the boundaries between universities and other higher education institutions will remain relatively sharp compared to many other European countries. However, there are interesting examples in several regions showing that international activities have helped both parts to overcome the boundaries and have started a cooperation on a local basis. But it can hardly be said that these activities are of major importance.

5. Funding and Supporting International Activities

The ERASMUS programme is often mentioned as a turning point for international cooperation in the non-university sector in Denmark. Some forms of technical education and certain language courses may have had limited international contact before. The key to international cooperation traditionally being research, international activities in the Danish context were more or less limited to universities.

The ERASMUS programme introduced external funding for international activities. What was essential for this sector was the programme's definition of "universities", which was much wider than ever known in Denmark before. Suddenly nearly all institutions offering middle-long education were included and gained access to the programme. Few were ready to involve themselves in 1988, but during the following years a majority of these institutions took part in activities funded by ERASMUS.

Today there is also a debate in Denmark whether the SOCRATES/ERASMUS programme has had its time. At many institutions you would find the opinion that joining the programme is much too complicated and time-consuming, compared to the grants most often seen. Therefore, some never signed an institutional contract and many consider not to submit new applications.

Parallel to this development, some important changes have emerged. Most institutions have been inspired by ERASMUS and later programmes to spend money from their own budget to encourage international activities in general. This was very unusual in the mid-eighties, for technical as well as for political reasons.

The Ministry of Education has also supported international cooperation, especially during the last ten years. First, in the days when the non-university institutions received earmarked funding allocations, by reserving a part of the budget for international activities. Later, when the ministry changed its policy and stopped going into particulars of the institutions' activities, by supporting student exchange (outgoing as well as incoming) with an additional amount *per capita*. This alone would not make any institution go into student exchange, but it is generally accepted as an important help.

Apart from the universities, only the major non-university sector institutions have set up an international office. Most institutions, however, have reserved relevant working capacity to assist students and teaching staff for international contact. These individuals or the international office are also often responsible for general networking with partner institutions. There is no scientific basis for the judging of the quality and the capacity of international offices etc. It is, however, a general impression today that the expenses for these activities and the assistance they offer are generally acknowledged at the institutions. This is interesting because scepticism was often voiced during the first years of international cooperation.

6. International Cooperation and Language Issues

Only the 5.5 million population of Denmark speaks Danish. Although the language is partly spoken in Greenland, the Faroe Islands and in Iceland, it is certainly one of the less spoken languages in Europe. Danish, Swedish and Norwegian are very similar and would normally be understood without major

difficulties unless spoken with a strong dialect. Even in this group, however, Danish is regarded a relatively complicated language to speak and understand, but easier to read. Finnish is very different from these Nordic languages, but a minority in Finland speaks an easily understood Swedish.

Most Danish higher education students have acceptable English language skills, which is, of course, the combined result of good school training, the very small chance to speak Danish abroad and the fact that many young people in Denmark spend a time abroad after completing upper secondary school. Many other factors influence this question. English-language movies on TV and in cinemas are almost never dubbed or subtitled and many textbooks are not available in Danish but only in English. The command of German is much weaker among young people in Denmark, and still worse for French and Spanish. On balance, when compared to most other young people in Europe, Danish higher education students have good foreign language skills.

This is of course an advantage when Danish students are being exchanged. Teachers at Danish higher education institutions normally also possess sufficient ability – at least in English – to take part in international cooperation. Still, it would not be correct to say that there is no language obstacle for Danish students and teachers in international cooperation. Danish students, like Dutch students, for example, must always expect to communicate in a foreign language. However, seen in a wider perspective, this could be seen as an advantage for obtaining international skills.

Students from abroad very seldom learn Danish. Courses are offered to provide sufficient skills to take part in Danish social life, but the ability to speak and understand Danish in a scientific context is an exception. Thus, most courses, projects etc. offered to exchange students are held in English. This is of course debated, but many Danish students would regard such offers as a relevant training for their own career, too. In this respect, you find a difference between the universities and the non-university sector institutions. The tradition for teaching in English, reading English textbooks etc. is considerably stronger at universities than at most institutions in the non-university sector. The international activities especially of the last 15 years are, however, an important factor in increasing the language skills at non-university institutions, too.

It should be noted that the exchange of students shows a clear imbalance. Denmark sends more students than it is receiving from other countries. In typical Danish self-irony, this is sometimes explained with the statement, that “the climate is poor, the language is worse and besides the prices are too high” (!). Of course, Denmark also has a lot to offer its guest students, but it is a fact that Danish international relation officers, even though they are not the only ones in this regard, must fight traditional thinking that the UK or France are more interesting destinations than Denmark.

7. The Size of Institutions and its Impact on International Activities

As explained above the boundary between the university- and the non-university-sector in Denmark is relatively sharp. It has also been described that most non-university institutions are considerably smaller than the universities.

In the same way that the capital and major cities attract exchange students more easily than small towns, bigger institutions seem to be more interesting than smaller ones. Students no doubt associate big cities and big institutions with a wider range of possibilities both in scientific terms and in social life terms. This is most likely to be regarded as a fact.

As both smaller towns and smaller institutions in Denmark do participate in international exchange it is interesting to investigate how they are able to attract foreign students against these odds. At least three reasons can be pointed out. The students themselves might have a small-town background. They may also have "lost" in the competition for more attractive destinations. Finally, it should not be forgotten that once they are known by their partners, many smaller institutions gain the reputation that their reception, hospitality and care for exchange students is excellent. This of course reflects the everyday life at these institutions. The small number of students and teachers involves a closer relationship between both parts than you would normally experience at large institutions.

Though smaller institutions represent the possibility of being more hospitable, more flexible and more caring for exchange students, smallness cannot be regarded as an advantage in the Danish context. Smaller institutions in general offer fewer possibilities, a more "narrow" international atmosphere and restricted regional offers.

8. Non-University Institutions and Their Relations to Business and Industry

Relatively speaking, non-university institutions in Denmark enjoy fairly good contacts with business, industry and other labour market sectors. This is of course due to the strong element of practice or field placement which is often seen among this type of institutions.

However, this is hardly decisive for their ability to attract exchange students. But it could naturally be seen as an advantage. Especially because many exchange students perhaps want to experience the Danish "system" as much as they want to attend lectures at the institutions.

Thus, as mentioned above, exchange students coming to Denmark hosted by non-university sector institutions do not always follow courses. Taking part in various kinds of project work they benefit from the close relations between the institutions and business and industry, for example.

9. The Danish Non-University Sector and Lifelong Training

International activities should certainly be an important part of continuing education.

The Danish non-university sector offers relatively more up-dating courses and continuing education compared to the universities. However, these activities very rarely have an international dimension.

10. Internationalisation and Institutional Policy in a Danish Context

Today no doubt most Danish non-university sector institutions have a policy for international activities. This was not the case just a few years ago. But changes in the funding patterns as well as the necessity of clear objectives in relation to the SOCRATES/ERASMUS programme's institutional contracts have encouraged the institutions to explain their international policy.

Therefore this policy is most often coordinated with other parts of the institutional activities.

Thus the time is over when international contacts were established *ad hoc*. As much as we know that many contacts still have their background in a "professor-to-professor" relationship which could be characterised as accidental (scientific meetings, conferences etc.), no doubt only those contacts would be developed which are in accordance with the policy of the institution.

References

Internationalt samarbejde om højere uddannelse, Rektorkollegiets Sekretariat, 1997.

Kvalitet i uddannelsessystemet, En tværministeriel analyse, 1998.

Redegørelse om de videregående uddannelsers institutionelle struktur. Undervisningsministeriet, 1998.

Redegørelse om merit og fleksibilitet i de videregående uddannelser. Undervisningsministeriet 1999.

Uddannelses Redegørelse, Undervisningsministeriet 1998.

Internationalisation of Higher Education in Denmark, The Danish Rectors' Conference 1997.

Prof. Dr. Tiiu Evert, Vice Rector
Tallinn College of Engineering, Tallinn, Estonia

Estonia

In June 1998 a major breakthrough in the system of higher education was achieved as two new laws were adopted in the Parliament of Estonia – the Law on Vocational Education Institutions and the Law on the Applied Higher Education Institutions. The Law on the Universities had been adopted on January 12, 1995.

Tertiary education is offered by the following types of institutions:

1. Vocational education and training institutions. They offer post-secondary vocational education (two to three years of study, 120 credit points, a large proportion of practical training);
2. Applied higher education institutions. They offer diploma programmes (three to four years of study, 120 to 160 credit points, ISCED 5A) and higher vocational education (three to four years of study, 120 to 160 credit points, one third of the study programme is practical training, ISCED 5B);
3. Universities. They offer diploma programmes (three to four years of study, 120 to 160 credit points, ISCED 5A), bachelor studies (three to four years of study, 120 to 160 credit points, ISCED 5A), master studies (two years of study, ISCED 5A) and doctoral studies (four years of study, ISCED 6).

First it should be said that establishments of higher applied education in Estonia have developed according to the European principles of higher education and our four-year curricula are basically comparable with the curricula in Germany, the Netherlands, Finland and Norway.

There can be no doubt that only inhabitants with higher education can guarantee a better quality of life and enhance the competitiveness of Estonia on the world market. It has been under discussion in the Estonian society which spheres of life require higher education. The overall opinion is that to ensure economic growth the share of engineering in higher education should be increased in Estonia.

With higher education becoming more and more popular it is extremely important to decide how to use financial resources. As university education is more expensive than higher applied education an agreement should be reached which spheres of life require either type of higher education.

Comparing the present situation in Estonia with some other European countries, we may conclude that too many young people are being trained in economic studies: 18% of students study economics and every year 19% of first-year students begin their studies in this field. In Finland the corresponding figures are 10% and 10%.

In Estonia, 9% of young people study the humanities and 9% of first-year students enter this field of studies. In Finland, the corresponding figures are 17% and 17%.

A similar process can be observed in the field of natural sciences. In Estonia, 7% of all students study in this field and 8% begin studies (in Finland, 14% study and 17% are starting their training in the field of humanities).

In Estonia, the number of student places in technology is 6% less than in Finland. As training in the field of technology requires comparatively big investments, private higher educational establishments cannot compete with state establishments. Therefore, additional student places should be created in state establishments of higher learning to meet the need for the specialists in the field of technology.

The Significance of Applied Higher Schools in Regional Policy

Access to higher education among the population is an essential element of regional policy, as the living standard and the quality of life in a given area is clearly linked to the number of inhabitants having enjoyed higher education. In advanced industrial countries, essential steps have been taken to improve living standards and to extend access to higher education.

State higher applied schools in Viljandi, Narva, Tartu, Kohtla-Järve and Tallinn came into being in 1991 and 1992. Provision of applied higher education thus exists not only in the Western or South-Eastern parts of Estonia.

Estonia, in terms of both territory and population, is so small that in the traditional sense it seems irrational to create more institutions of higher education. But for purposes of regional policy it would be worthwhile. Consequently the solution comes from the strategic planning for the areas.

There is an another solution. State universities often open their sub-institutions or branches in the given areas. Is it reasonable? In Estonia we have comparatively more university education than applied higher education. Therefore, when establishing new sub-institutions, these could be applied educational establishments.

The Quality of Higher Applied Education

To ensure the quality of education it is essential that all the choices for the future profession would be made in due course and the educational levels would carry the full responsibility for it. The main problem in the educational system of Estonia is the low quality of preparation in the basic school. Although this is not an exclusively Estonian problem, in the European educational system the basic school has taken full responsibility for preparation of students to enter the chosen profession. It is more resourceful to teach stu-

dents in a higher educational institution who have received good education in secondary school. Therefore, we could avoid mistakes or lessen their amount in the future, thus avoiding the re-training of people.

As the admission to universities is limited, many people are left without professional education.

Since 1 September 1997, a “Standard of Higher Education” of Estonia became effective to guarantee the quality of higher education. This standard is a collection of requirements drawn up by the government for all levels of higher education. The objective of the Standard of Higher Education is to set goals for instruction geared to the acquisition of special, vocational or professional skills and the general requirements for graduation, including those related to the final thesis in the applied higher education institution or in the university.

One of the requirement of the Standard is that 50% of the lecturers in higher education institutions have to be holders of scientific or professional degrees, but this cannot be followed in Estonia today for several reasons:

- First, study for a degree is only the competence of state universities;
- Second, the universities have introduced the study for the professional degrees only recently (the latter is more important in the higher applied education than the scientific degrees);
- Third, the efficiency of studies for both these degrees is not sufficient yet.

We have to state that the possession of any degree is not valued very highly in Estonia today. The result is that the students do not graduate with a degree and often leave early for better positions. If this situation does not change, the universities will not be able to meet the requirements of the Standard in the near future either.

At the same time it is unusual for developed countries to set such high requirements for teaching staff working in the institutions of higher applied education. In Finland, the target for lecturers with a degree is approximately 30%.

In order to guarantee quality, the state institutions of higher applied education created a well-functioning system: they established close contacts with employer organisations, whose representatives concentrated in the bodies of councillors functioning within the institutions of higher education.

References

1. Arvi Altmae, Rector, Tallinn College of Engineering, *Issues of Applied Higher Education Institutions of Estonia.*
2. Reet Neudorf, Ministry of Education, Estonia and Elen Raudsepp, Tallinn Commercial School, *Tertiary Professional and Vocational Education in Estonia.*

Dr. Kaj Malm
The Rectors' Conference of Finnish Polytechnics
Turku, Finland

Finland

Background: The Emergence of the Polytechnics

In the late sixties, the first serious attempts were made in Finland to open the discussion regarding a wider scope of the HE system. High-ranking civil servants, evidently influenced by the German development, pleaded for inclusion of the engineering education into the system of higher education. At that time, however, the time was not ripe for such a break with the prevailing ideology, which emphasised the unification of vocational education regardless of *de facto* level. As a result a very complicated structure of vocational education evolved on a level which formally was classified more or less as the secondary level.

The late eighties saw a revival of the idea of a widening of the concept of higher education. At that time the Ministry of Education initiated a far-ranging discussion aiming at the creation of a dual system of higher education. The idea as well as the novel approach – presentation of the key ideas in large seminars instead of committee work – engendered considerable enthusiasm, and a few experimental polytechnics were set up in the early nineties. The Polytechnics Act was passed by the Parliament at the beginning of 1995, whereupon the first nine permanent polytechnics were established in August 1996.

The government which granted the first permanent polytechnic concessions had been established after parliamentary elections in 1995. Such was the momentum of the polytechnic reform that the new government – regardless of a new political basis – included the matter in its programme. According to the Government Programme the system of polytechnics should be established on a permanent basis under the aegis of the government. The Development Plan for Education and University Research[1] elaborates on this goal: "The reform of the non-university sector will be implemented during the planning period. All higher vocational and most college-level vocational education will be included in the non-university sector. The college level will cease to exist in its present form". Subsequently, the government has granted concessions to 29 polytechnics. The last decision was made in February 1999, and according to the present Minister of Education this number will not increase. On the contrary, some mergers in the future may well decrease the number.

1 *Education and Research. Development Plan for Education and University Research for 1995 – 2000,* Ministry of Education, Helsinki 1996.

According to the Ministry of Education[2], the principles underlying polytechnic education derive from the need for a highly trained expert work force in the labour market. Specifically, the following objectives for the reform are mentioned:

1. To raise the standard of education;
2. To react to changing needs for expertise and skills;
3. To make vocational education more attractive;
4. To improve the international compatibility of vocational education;
5. To make the vocational education system more functional;
6. To decentralise the administration of vocational education;
7. To reinforce the regional impact of vocational education.

According to the same source, the principal modes for implementing the polytechnic reform are as follows:

- Combining existing institutions to form polytechnics;
- Setting up a new degree system;
- Raising the standard of teaching;
- Evolving methods of study;
- Education-workplace interaction;
- International studies;
- Better library and information service.

1. Rationales of the Internationalisation Policy

During the present century Finland has undergone a vast transformation. At the turn of the century, Finland was a Grand Duchy of the vast Russian Empire, agriculture being the predominant occupation. On the threshold of the new millennium, Finland is a modern, highly industrialised republic, where, moreover, the industry is rapidly undergoing a structural change towards knowledge-intensive and high-technology production. One indication of the progress is that the research funding is projected to reach 2.9 per cent of the GDP during 1999, a proportion which compares very favourably with other OECD countries.

It is plain that the national languages, i.e. Finnish and Swedish, are not suited to major export efforts, nor do they suffice to guarantee the influx of knowledge and know-how which is essential. The membership in the European Union also has exerted a considerable influence on national policy as a whole. In fact almost every chapter of the present Government Programme includes references to the EU, and a whole chapter is dedicated to the EU. The free mobility of persons on the internal market, for instance, is of little use if the system of education is not transparent enough to guarantee recog-

2 *Higher Education Policy in Finland,* Ministry of Education, Helsinki 1998.

nition of degrees. As a matter of fact this point of view was important in the gestation stage of the Polytechnic Reform, and no doubt it will play a role in the future development of the system in spite of the stated goal of the government that "the Union's mandate should not be expanded in the fields of education and research"[3].

The Government Programme makes it quite clear that membership in the European Union is a way of safeguarding the well-being of Finnish citizens. Acting in the best interest of the nation implies i.a. that the structural fund programme should be used to the full in the national know-how policy, of course including polytechnic education. There are more altruistic motives for internationalisation, too. In the words of the Government Programme: "Finland will actively participate in the work to support human rights and to alleviate the world's refugee problems and in humanitarian aid operations."

These themes are reiterated in the Development Plan[4]: "The international perspective in education seeks to advance knowledge of foreign languages and cultures, improve vocational knowledge and skills and promote understanding and tolerance. Measures will be taken to promote ethical education, tolerance and multiculturalism, and to intensify the combat against racism and xenophobia. The educational needs of immigrants will be looked after."

A very special place in the internationalisation policy of the present government is taken by the neighbouring areas, which geographically speaking include the Nordic countries, the Baltic countries and Russia. The government emphasises the importance of developing the bilateral relations with these countries, and the Government Programme includes a rather bold statement to the effect that the policy concerning the neighbouring areas is to support the endeavours to stabilise parliamentary democracy and the market economy and to improve the state of the environment.

As the state of parliamentary democracy and the market economy in the Nordic Countries is almost peerless, the thrust of the government policy is quite clear. The former Soviet Union used to be a huge and stable market for Finnish industrial output, and the collapse of this market, combined with other problems, caused a considerable turbulence in the Finnish economy. The present destabilising forces in Russia have had an immediate, adverse effect on commercial cooperation. Thus, it is in the best interest of Finland to support stabilisation in this region. In this context it is significant that Finland lends its support to the inclusion of the Eastern European and Baltic countries in the European Union.

---

3 *Education and Research. Development Plan for Education and University Research for 1995 – 2000,* Ministry of Education, Helsinki 1996.

4 *Education and Research. Development Plan for Education and University Research for 1995 – 2000*, Ministry of Education, Helsinki 1996.

2. Priorities in the National Policy

As noted one of the priorities of the Finnish government is the promotion of European integration. It is likely that this policy will continue regardless of the political colour of the new government to be established after the parliamentary elections on 21 March 1999. The internalisation efforts of the polytechnics have been concentrated on cooperation with institutions in the EU countries for very good reasons. As Finnish export statistics indicate, a considerable part of trade goes to EU countries, and thus it is important to facilitate future cooperation by the means available to higher education. The active involvement of the polytechnics in the SOCRATES and LEONARDO programmes bear witness to this policy.

The so-called Nordic dimension is a pronounced aspect of Finnish foreign policy. The polytechnics have perhaps not utilised the exchange programme NORDPLUS, administered by the Nordic Council of Ministers, to its full extent, but cooperation with the Nordic countries should be especially effortless for the bilingual and Swedish polytechnics in Finland. Within certain disciplines, e.g. health care, the labour market works freely across national borders within the Nordic context (including Norway, which is not a member of the EU).

As one of the priorities of the government is to further bilateral cooperation with Russia, there are important programmes related to this goal. The strategic position of Finland on the easternmost border of the EU is reflected in a willingness to encourage the polytechnics to develop relationships with Russian universities and institutions. Some consortia of polytechnics receive extra allowances from the Ministry of Education for Russia-related cooperation.

The Ministry also encourages the polytechnics to develop cooperation with Asian partners. Naturally countries having significant trade or cultural contacts with Finland are singled out; especially the People's Republic of China engenders a considerable interest. Having balanced between the East and the West for decades, Finland has developed good contacts with the PRC. Actually, Finland in the early 50s was one of the first Western countries to yield PRC diplomatic recognition, and this longstanding relationship has been useful during recent years, when the modernisation of China has created potentially immense markets. In spite of the temporary economic setbacks to Asian countries other than China, some of these countries, notably Japan, remain of interest to Finnish polytechnics looking for cooperation in Asia.

The Ministry of Education has also set a goal for Latin American cooperation of the polytechnics in the year 2000. It is up to the following government to set the framework for this cooperation, but a major Finnish export campaign to South America headed by the President of the Republic underlines the importance of this region from the point of view of Finland.

The USA do not figure largely in the official documents related to educational policy. Nevertheless, no doubt due to the educational and work-related background of some of the key operators, the USA are part and parcel of many internationalisation programmes in the polytechnics, although for instance student exchange is hampered by the high tuition fees, in contrast with the situation within the EU.

3. Policy Development

The polytechnic system was set on a permanent footing during the present government, and therefore it is not possible to discern any strong developmental trends in the policy regarding the polytechnics and their internationalisation. An indication of the stability of the policy and the strong commitment to internationalisation is given by the fact that the Polytechnic Act, which was prepared by the former government, puts a strong stress on internationalisation, which, according to the Act, is one of the evaluation criteria used in granting permanent concessions to the polytechnics.

A historical background to the internationalisation of polytechnics can be found in the analogous development of the universities in Finland. A concise analysis has been delivered by Aaro Ollikainen[5], with references to the relevant committee reports of the Finnish Ministry of Education. Due to the restricted comprehensibility of these reports, composed in the Finnish language, similar references are omitted in the present paper.

4. Policy Implementation

The general guidelines for higher education policy (including internationalisation) are set by the Council of State in its development plans for Finnish education and research, which are approved for a period of six years, but may be revised during the planning period. The political responsibility for the implementation of the guidelines lies within the Ministry of Education, which has various steering instruments at its disposal.

The regulation of the polytechnics is based mainly on the Polytechnic Act, which contains provisions on the status of polytechnics in the higher education system, studies and degrees etc. According to the Act, polytechnics are licensed by the government, which, before taking decisions, obtains the opinion of the Higher Education Evaluation Council.

A licence for running a polytechnic can be granted to a local authority, municipal federation or registered Finnish foundation or association. A state-run polytechnic can be established on special grounds. As the majority of

5 Ollikainen, Aaro: “Finland” In: National Policies for the Internalisation of Higher Education in Europe. ACA, Högskoleverket Studies 1997:8, Stockholm 1997.

polytechnics are run by municipalities or federations of such, the steering power of the Ministry is mainly implemented through the consultations on results and objectives between the Ministry and the polytechnics. These consultations are now carried out annually, but in the next decade the Ministry-polytechnic agreements will be concluded for a three-year period.

The agreements define the common objectives, the mutually agreed mission statement, educational provision and various development objectives including international activities. The agreements also define the extra government funding, which is paid directly to the polytechnics. The few tens of millions FIM which are allocated towards these objectives are, in practice, the only really effective means of realising the internationalisation policy regarding the polytechnics. This state of affairs arises from the fact that the budgets of the polytechnics are not controlled by the Ministry; a large part of the resources used by the polytechnics is, in fact, included in the state budget, but the budgets of the different polytechnics are approved by their respective owners. The agreements between the Ministry of Education and the polytechnics reflect the national priorities regarding target areas and countries. The agreements for the year 2000, for instance, are most likely going to include an opening towards Latin America. Targets are also set for student and staff exchange.

Another steering instrument consists of the Ministry's decisions on the degree programmes of each polytechnic. To obtain reciprocity in student exchange most polytechnics have initiated degree programmes in English and other foreign languages. The role of the Ministry in encouraging the polytechnics in this respect has been seminal.

The long-term goal in student exchanges is to offer opportunities for one in three students to go abroad to study and train for at least three months before graduation. The 1999 goal for student exchanges is 5,000 Finnish polytechnic students abroad and 3,000 foreign students studying or training in Finland. The corresponding goals for the year 2000 are 6,000 and 3,500 students, respectively. The statistics for the long-term exchanges in 1997 were 2,462 students from Finland and 1,213 foreign students studying or training in Finland. It can be seen that the goals set for the future are quite ambitious. On the other hand, the strong commitment to cooperation within the EU which is seen especially in the Government Programme has affected the structure of the exchange programme; in 1997 about 76% of polytechnic students going abroad for terms longer than three months went to EU countries.

The number of degree programmes in English or German offered during the academic year 1998/99 was about 70, the corresponding number of non-degree programmes being about 90[6]. It may be noted that Swedish pro-

6 Study in Finland International Programmes in Finnish Higher Education 1998-99, Helsinki 1998.

grammes are not included in these numbers, because Swedish is one of the "official" domestic languages.

Under the Ministry of Education there is an expert body, the Centre for International Mobility, which assists i.a. the polytechnics regarding international educational cooperation.

CIMO liases with different groups: ministries, universities and polytechnics, enterprises, professional organisations as well as international agencies. The latter include the European Commission and organisations such as ACA, EAIE, NAFSA, NUFFIC, DAAD, HsV etc. The fields of responsibility of CIMO include national coordination of most of the education programmes of the EU (SOCRATES, TEMPUS, etc.)

The evaluation of the internationalisation measures of the polytechnics is the task of the Higher Education Evaluation Council, which has, as implied in its name, the overall responsibility for the evaluation of higher education in Finland. In addition to thorough evaluations of higher education institutions and whole fields of study and research the Council has supported thematic evaluation projects. One project initiated by a pool of polytechnics was dedicated to the internationalisation of the three polytechnics belonging to the pool, and the results of this project are quite encouraging at least from the point of view of methodological development. The Ministry of Education is also involved in the evaluation of internationalisation. A small part of the additional government funding which is granted for development of the polytechnics is allocated on the basis of performance. One criterion of performance is based on the success of the internationalisation policy, and the exact form of this criterion is at the moment worked out in a ministerial committee.

As a comparatively small proportion of the national administration of resources from the structural funds of the EU is under the Ministry of Education, the polytechnics are dependent on other ministries as well. In practice, this entails a close cooperation with regional bodies.

5. Effects of Internationalisation on the Polytechnics

In one sense at least, the effects of internationalisation have been as profound as possible. The creation of the system of polytechnics was to a large extent a reaction to the new challenges emanating from the membership in the EU. In this respect Finland only followed its traditional policy; as a small, politically neutral country Finland has been dependent on the behaviour of major nations in terms of security policy as well as foreign trade. This has also influenced the intellectual superstructure and the educational infrastructure. For various historical reasons the models adopted for education have been imported from countries such as Germany and the Nordic States. In the case of polytechnics, the German model has been especially influential.

Regarding the internal working of the polytechnics the internationalisation policy has had strong effects. As the polytechnics were formed through the amalgamation of former vocational colleges and institutions, there was a strong impetus to raise the level of education, and one of the most obvious means towards that end was to increase the interaction with foreign higher education institutions. The polytechnics therefore enthusiastically committed themselves to this task, and at the moment the quantity of international activity appears to be quite high, perhaps even calling for some coordination.

The various forms of international cooperation seem to be much the same in the different polytechnics, the differences being in emphasis. ECTS has influenced some degree programmes, and to a certain extent increased cross-faculty curriculum cooperation. Some polytechnics offer foreign degree programmes to their students in cooperation with e.g. British universities, and these have proved to be quite popular in spite of the fact that the corresponding degrees are not automatically approved by Finnish authorities. Nevertheless the overall effect is one of enrichment of the higher education field.

The degree programmes offered in foreign languages are also open to Finnish students, who get an opportunity to learn some major language and at the same time get acquainted with representatives of different cultures, thus acquiring competence for the international labour market. This is perhaps more important in Finland, which is ethnically relatively homogeneous, than in bigger countries. The internationalisation drive has also resulted in an increasing output of teaching of some languages, which earlier were quite rare in Finland.

6. Conclusion

International developments have had a profound effect on the Finnish polytechnic system. As an illustrative detail the term “polytechnic” itself tells much about the policy discussions. It is a firm goal of Finnish policy to maintain the dual system of higher education, and the Finnish term AMK, i.e. *ammattikorkeakoulu* (professional or vocational higher education institution), is quite suited to this end. Perhaps fear of academic drift similar to the British experience led to attempts to “Finlandise” the international terminology of education. Thus the term “AMK institution” was born, although experience soon taught that the internationalisation of Finnish education is not quite reversible. Of course there is no good English equivalent to the German word *Fachhochschule,* and therefore the less satisfactory “polytechnic” is still in use, even though it is to some degree detrimental to international cooperation in its lack of transparency.

The success of the attempts at internationalisation is certainly a function of the degree of international recognition of the Finnish system of education, and thus terminological issues are not to be underrated. Even though the

nomen est omen-thinking may not prevail, it is clear that recent developments in Germany regarding an alignment to the Anglo-American system cannot be disregarded in Finland. It remains to be seen whether the ensuing discussions affect the dualistic orthodoxy in Finland and how the resulting developments affect the international standing of the Finnish polytechnics.

Regardless of possible changes in the system of education the momentum of internationalisation in the Finnish polytechnics is such that at least quantitative progress is inevitable. With increasingly efficient evaluation of results one can expect a shift of focus from student and staff exchange *per se* to the substance of international cooperation.

Prof. Dr. Clemens Klockner
Rector, Fachhochschule Wiesbaden
Wiesbaden, Germany

Germany

In the early 1970s, Germany's universities and colleges of art and music were joined by a new type of higher education institution – the *Fachhochschule*[1] – with its own admissions standards, curricula and degrees. In fact, this step resulted in the three-way division of the higher education system based on the respective degrees awarded, albeit that this division was softened by many areas of institutional overlapping and dovetailing. Later, after unification of the two German states, the division was introduced to eastern Germany as well.

Within this system, the universities and university-status higher education institutions take the lion's share. A good three quarters of all students, that is some 1.3 million in number, are registered at such institutions. While a quarter of the students, some 420,000 in number, are studying at *Fachhochschule* institutions.

Fachhochschule study means preparing for occupational fields which call for the application of academic methods or artistic skills. Compared with university study, *Fachhochschule* studies are shorter, are generally more tightly organised, the semesters are longer, more lectures and courses must be attended each semester, and more written, invigilated examinations must be sat.

Characteristic features of *Fachhochschule* study include the practical internships completed before studies begin, practical study semesters completed during the studies, and practical projects completed in the form of study papers and *Diplom* degree dissertations.

In accordance with their education policy mission, that is to provide practice-oriented, academic degree courses, the *Fachhochschule* institutions only offer a limited range of subjects. They focus on the classical fields of engineering, computer science, architecture, civil engineering, business administration/economics, social studies, and design.

Within these areas, the *Fachhochschule* sector produces between 50% and 70% of all German graduates.

---

1 The *Fachhochschule* is a higher education institution which offers degree courses with a greater practical focus than the courses offered by universities, which have a greater research focus. The term *Fachhochschule* is being increasingly translated as university of applied sciences to reflect the higher educational and practical nature of these institutions. This corresponds with a decision taken by the KMK in September 1998.

The past 15 years have seen the *Fachhochschule* profile of academic teaching complemented by specific areas of performance in the field of applied research, technology and knowledge transfer, and academic continuing education and training. The range of research activities in which *Fachhochschule* institutions now engage extends from implementing pure research findings in areas requiring innovative solutions, concrete practical commissions and applications, and right through to product development work. *Fachhochschule* institutions perform this research and development work to varying extents, with differing degrees of intensity, in various organisational forms as well as in manifold cooperation models, ranging from collaboration with major corporations to projects with companies from the crafts sector.

On account of their limited research mandate, *Fachhochschule* institutions do not have the right to award doctorate or habilitation (professorial teaching qualification) degrees. However, after completing a short supplementary course of study, particularly qualified *Fachhochschule* graduates can be admitted to university for the purpose of gaining a doctorate, without first having to gain a university degree.

The cultivation of international relations has also played a special role in the development of the *Fachhochschule* institutions over the past 15 years. In Europe, in particular, the *Fachhochschule* institutions have shown great commitment and pursued many activities. In many cases they are ahead of the universities in this respect.

Although only around one quarter of all German students were enrolled at a *Fachhochschule* in 1995, they accounted for more than half the participants in the European mobility programme ERASMUS in that year. Around two thirds of the 30 German higher education institutions with the highest percentage of ERASMUS participants are *Fachhochschule* institutions. A European comparison shows that this is by no means a matter of course: In many European countries, non-university institutions are under-represented in the ERASMUS programme.

And in the development of new, international degree courses, Germany's *Fachhochschule* institutions again show a high degree of innovative drive and commitment. Around a third of the *Fachhochschule* institutions already offer international degree courses in which a specified proportion of the overall study time is spent at a foreign higher education institution, generally a university, and which often lead to the award of a double degree.

International postgraduate degree courses offered at *Fachhochschule* institutions also bear witness to the successful strategy of internationalisation in which specialisation in a subject area and cross-border cooperation go hand in hand.

An assessment and problem analysis report on *The Introduction of Bachelor's and Master's Degree Courses in Germany*[2] published in May 1998 shows Germany's *Fachhochschule* institutions to be running 88 double degree courses (64%), distributed among study areas as follows: 40 degree courses in engineering, two degree courses in science, 46 degree courses in business/economics.

By contrast, the universities only offer 49 double degree courses (36%), distributed among study areas as follows: 15 degree courses in engineering, three degree courses in science, 30 degree courses in business/economics, one degree course in languages and cultural studies.

More than two thirds of the double degree courses offered in the *Fachhochschule* sector are run in collaboration with partner higher education institutions in Europe. This reflects the way German *Fachhochschule* institutions concentrate their international relations on universities and colleges in Europe. A survey carried out by the Federal Ministry of Education and Science in 1994 showed that German *Fachhochschule* institutions had a total of 1269 international agreements worldwide, of which 84% had been concluded with partner institutions in European countries, with less than one tenth of these relations being concluded with institutions on the American continent, a little over 5% with Asia and the Middle East, and fewer than 1% each with Africa and Australia/Oceania. Half of all the cooperation agreements were concluded with partner higher education institutions in four countries, listed below in order of significance:

1. Great Britain and Northern Ireland;
2. France;
3. Netherlands;
4. United States of America.

Great Britain, Northern Ireland and France clearly dominated the field of international relations. Well over one third of all relations with foreign partner higher education institutions were concluded with a British or French higher education institution.

All in all, 63% of the cooperation agreements signed by *Fachhochschule* institutions were made with institutions in EU countries, with 16.5% being made with higher education institutions in Eastern Europe. Of the international agreements concluded with Eastern European higher education institutions, the largest share was with institutions in Poland, followed by partner institutions in Russia. *Fachhochschule* institutions from the new Federal States (neue Länder[3]) were particularly active in Eastern Europe.

---

2 Jahn, Heidrun, *Zur Einführung von Bachelor- und Masterstudiengängen in Deutschland,* Institut für Hochschulforschung Wittenberg e.V., May 1998.

3 The Federal States on the territory of the former East Germany.

The above-referenced survey by the Federal Ministry of Education and Science found that 51% of the cooperation agreements concluded by German *Fachhochschule* institutions with partners in France were made with the *Grandes Ecoles*, 25% with universities and 22% with the *Instituts Universitaires de Technologie*. The same survey showed that for Britain, 74% of all cooperation agreements involving German *Fachhochschule* institutions were made with former Polytechnics, 15% with "old universities" and 10% with Colleges of Higher Education.

Over and above this, the survey also provided some informative data on the international relations of Germany's *Fachhochschule* institutions. The willingness among business and economics students to study abroad was by far overproportional; making up only 19% of the total student body, these students accounted for 46% of all students studying abroad. By contrast, the participation rate for engineering students (56% of the student body, but only 39% of those studying abroad) and social studies students (10.5% share of the total student body, but only a 3.4% share of students studying abroad) was below average. Since higher education cooperation offers institutions the opportunity to conclude bilateral agreements covering the recognition of study and examination achievements, the experience gained with the practice of recognition was relatively good within this exchange programme. 40 per cent of the *Fachhochschule* students reported that their study and examination achievements had been fully recognised abroad, while 30 per cent spoke of receiving partial recognition abroad.

While German *Fachhochschule* students show a clear preference for higher education institutions in Western countries for their stay abroad, close to 50% of the professors from Germany's *Fachhochschule* institutions choose partner higher education institutions in Eastern Europe, and around 50% go to Western European partner universities and colleges.

The fact that Germany's *Fachhochschule* institutions above all cultivate their partner contacts with foreign universities or higher education institutions of equal status is logical since a comparable type of higher education institution cannot be found in most European countries (with the exception of the Netherlands). Although Germany's *Fachhochschule* institutions are observing with interest the initiatives being undertaken in some European countries in respect of establishing *Fachhochschule* institutions, involving various institutional and curricula aspects, the unresolved questions which such new establishment raises regarding the institutions, their admissions practice, their studies, degrees, and research do make it advisable to cultivate contacts above all on an informal level, and less in the field of institutionalised partnerships.

The sufficiently known "design faults" regarding the deficient validity of *Fachhochschule* degrees in their capacity as professional or academic qualifications continue to shape and/or hinder the appeal of Germany's *Fachhoch-*

schule institutions to this very day – in Germany and abroad. The recognition of *Fachhochschule* degrees is unsatisfactory in every respect, which exerts a negative influence on foreigners interested in studying. For this reason, the *Fachhochschule* sector expects the imminent introduction of Bachelor's and Master's degrees at Germany's higher education institutions to improve substantially this sector's competitiveness, its chance of attracting foreign students for studies at a *Fachhochschule,* and its prospects of gaining adequate recognition in an international context for degrees awarded by *Fachhochschule* institutions.

The Recommendations on the Introduction of Bachelor's and Master's Degree Courses and Programmes adopted by the German Rectors' Conference (HRK) in November 1997, and confirmed in principle by the Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder (KMK) in December 1998, is viewed by the *Fachhochschule* institutions as pointing the way forward for future discussion and as representing a decisive breakthrough. According to these recommendations, Bachelor's and Masters courses and degrees are to be:

- Offered by universities and *Fachhochschule* institutions;
- Modular in structure;
- Designed to lead to a professional qualification;
- Evaluated and accredited in an Germany-wide process based on international standards.

It is intended that admission to a Master's degree programme after successful completion of the first degree will require a special admissions decision on the part of the specific department. Academic degrees will not differ between type of higher education institution by means of a descriptive addendum (e.g. FH), although the performance profile of the higher education institution should be clearly communicated. Similarly, the structure of the content of the studies should be clearly detailed in a "Diploma Supplement". Qualified Master's graduates should also be able to apply for admission to a doctorate programme, whereby the decision on acceptance as a doctoral candidate will be differentiated and based on a subject specific, individual and *sur dossier* assessment.

The general conditions are defined by the HRK Recommendations, so that the universities and *Fachhochschule* institutions do have a different, but nevertheless equivalent opportunity to sharpen their profile in the international competition for foreign students and for acceptance in the professional world. These conditions will enable them to face up to the challenges which this process entails. Since the graduated system of awarding degrees over several stages is able to incorporate the characteristic features of national study systems, the strengths of German higher education can be realised from the perspective of the *Fachhochschule* institutions. Both types of higher education institution can incorporate their respective profile into this system,

which offers great creative freedom. The juxtaposition of higher education institutions in Germany can certainly institutionalise a horizontal diversity of educational facilities to accompany the vertical differentiation.

Help in raising the competitiveness of the German *Fachhochschule* institutions in the international field will be provided by a decision taken by the KMK in September 1998. Under this decision, the *Fachhochschule* institutions will be able to follow their German name with the English description of "University of Applied Sciences" in "official" contexts (e.g. documents, certificates, official names, etc.). In taking this decision, the KMK followed an idea tabled by the German Rectors' Conference, whose Senate voted in favour of this international description for *Fachhochschule* institutions in a majority decision.

The German higher education system has set itself a good course into the future. There is a new trend towards the re-strengthened internationalisation of Germany's higher education institutions. Concerted actions by the Federal and *Länder* authorities and by the higher education institutions themselves have initiated important steps towards strengthening the study focus on the needs of foreign students.

The reform projects which have been introduced will help students decide in favour of studying in Germany and will ease their stay in Germany as well. The introduction of Bachelor's and Master's degrees increases the appeal of the *Fachhochschule* institutions. Modularisation and credit point systems for academic achievement will additionally create reliable and calculable credit transfer criteria between various types of higher education institution and will promote mobility.

Prof. Dr. Socrates N.Kaplanis, TEI Patra, Greece
Ass. Prof. Dimitra Nanousi, TEI Patra, Greece

Greece

1. General Aspects

The Greek non-university education sector[1] consists of:

a. The Technological Education Institutions (TEIs), which form the main component of non-university higher education;
b. The Higher School of Tourism in Rhodes (catering, hotel management, etc.);
c. The Higher Schools of Commercial Navy Professions (captain engineers, tele-communications, etc.);
d. The Higher Schools of Theology / Ecclesiastic Schools;
e. The Higher School of Tourist Guides.

The TEIs are located all over Greece, following an equi-spread policy based on the population and regional demand for various disciplines. They are independent legal bodies, supervised by the Ministry of Education (MEd), and to some extent coordinated by it, for example in matters of staff recruitment, fund allocation, and development and running of courses. Over the last 15 years, the MEd has systematically granted more and more autonomy to TEIs. For the university sector, the same process started slightly earlier.

The MEd provides the funds for the operation and development of the TEIs, so that they can meet their targets. No specific criteria exist to measure the quality or performance of institutions both in the university or non-university sectors, or none are anyway known to the institutions. The MEd also controls the number of posts for teaching staff of all ranks. However, it provides without any such control funds to TEIs to pay part-time lecturers, who often lack proper or high standard qualifications. A careful examination would prove this policy to be completely ineffective, as it concerns the principles for a quality education. At the same cost the TEIs could hire a high number of tenured professors.

The MEd also tightly controls the courses and disciplines which the TEIs may offer, i.e. it decides on the titles and content of the courses, through an advisory body, the Institute of Technological Education (ITE), which is a semi-autonomous branch of the MEd. Together with DIKATSA, the ITE was delegated in 1988, by Professor S. Kaplanis in his capacity as the secretary

1 List of extra-University Institutions classified by region and subject area, in: *Survey on the Non-Participation of the Extra-University Sector in the ERASMUS Programme in the EC and EFTA Countries,* KIHO/EURASHE, commissioned by DG XXII, 2 December 1993.

in the MEd for the non-university sector, as one of the two bodies which represent Greece in the European NARICs network. The TEIs, then, appeared in Europe hand in hand with universities, as academic-level institutions. Hence, an element of internationalisation was introduced into the MEd's policy "by chance".

Another consultative body at national level, the Council of Technological Education (STE), was set up by law, but it did unfortunately not convene in the last six years. This body deals with budget allocation to TEIs, the new courses that the TEIs could be permitted to organise and it is responsible for the permanent teaching staff posts. The STE is also the body which deals with professional rights of TEI graduates, and as such has to deal with the European Commission's General Directive 48/89[234]. In principle, the STE discusses the professional rights of each TEI course and advises the Minister on the issue. The Minister signs the proposal and forwards it to the President of the Democracy for signature, turning it into a Presidential Decree. The STE is composed of the following actors and outlined in the graph below:

- Presidents of TEIs;
- Representatives of other ministries concerned, such as for labour, commerce, environment, energy, industry, economy, agriculture, etc.;
- Representatives of professional and scientific bodies, e.g. technical chamber, chamber of commerce, etc.;
- One representative from the rectors' conference;
- One representative of the students' union;
- Representatives of the political parties, etc.

The STE is governed by an executive, with the Minister of Education as president.

In 1996, the law 2327/31.7.1995 constituted an educational reform attempting to regulate in an integrated way for both university and non-university higher education various issues, such as:

- Quality in education, validation and accreditation issues;
- Credit transfer systems/ academic recognition;
- International collaboration;
- Innovation in education, ODL, etc.

It marked the end of the policy which existed when ITE and STE operated separately. The same goes for the SAP (Council for University Education)

---

2 Council Directive 89/48/EEC on a general system for a recognition of higher education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration. Before this general system for recognition, other sectoral directives were issued by the EEC and are still in effect.

3 *Recognition of Diplomas for Academic and Professional Purposes: Interaction to Create a European Area for Education, Training and Careers*, European Commission: DGXXII, interim report, 3 May 1994.

4 *Synergies Between Academic Recognition and Professional Recognition. Results of the Organised Debate,* report produced by DGXXII and DGXV: European Commission, Brussels 1995.

and STE (Council of Technological Education), which operated independently of each other and usually antagonistically. The education reform law tried to integrate those parallel bodies into one and split up its functions on the basis of themes. All of these were provided by the above-cited law no. 2327/31.7.1995, under the structure of the National Council of Education (ESYP), which has up to now never operated.

The duration of courses in TEIs is seven or eight semesters, or three and a half or four years. The last semester (7^{th} or 8^{th}) consists of supervised professional practice, in an organisation or in industry, either in Greece or in another EU country. The students are paid a salary whilst in placement, both from the TEIs and the enterprises.

This practical training, supervised and assessed, forms an integral part of the TEI studies and is a requirement for the award of the degree.

A fair number of students opts for a practical placement abroad. An analysis of the impact of this European educational adventure on students from the Greek non-university and university sectors under the ERASMUS, SOCRATES, COMETT and LEONARDO programmes is part of a study of the authors of this paper which will be published still this year[5].

The TEI courses with a duration of eight semesters are to be found mainly in departments of management and business departments, nursing, automation and applied arts, and in departments linked to agro-sciences, such as food, ecology, etc.

At a regional level the TEIs are linked with the professional and economic structures, the employers' chamber and the regional authorities. The structure which hosts these is the Regional Council of Technological Education. At the beginning (1983 to 1985), these bodies operated in every region of Greece where TEIs were located. Since then, almost all of them have turned inactive. They could well have an important role for the management of TEIs, with regard to employability and feedback information.

Instead the MEd promoted the creation of careers offices or liaison offices in every TEI (and university) to bring together TEIs (authorities, departments, staff, students, graduates) on the one hand and regional bodies, enterprises, entrepreneurs, employers' associations etc., on the other.

The links of TEIs with European professional bodies still remain on an individualist footing and depend on the personal motivation of some staff members participating in the operations of these bodies (for example EAIE,

5 Research was carried out by S.Kaplanis and D.Nanousi of TEI Patra covering 10 years of student placements, from universities and TEIs of Greece to other EU countries, in ERASMUS, SOCRATES, COMETT and LEONARDO. 99.5% success of these placements were successful, as all students, who are now professionals, agreed on the positive impact these programmes had in their lives. They made suggestions for the future and explained how benefits could be even improved.

EFQM, TEXT, ATTT, UETPs), which were established under the European education and training programmes and which still function today. These links have a positive impact on the TEIs international culture, transfer of experience, interaction, joint programmes and projects and they represent the only effective way to open the gates through mobility to the involvement of the TEIs in European educational collaboration, fostered by the European Commission's programmes and projects.

The types of institutions in Greek non-university higher education (types b,c,d and e) are less independent. They all function as state-controlled institutions. Type b is under the control of the national organisation of Tourism in collaboration with the MEd, which is responsible mainly for entrance exams of students and validation of course contents. Institutions of type c are under the Ministry of Commercial Navy, with the MEd playing the same role as above. Type d is under the control of the church and type e is under that of the Ministry of Culture, with the MEd responsible for course content and validation.

All institutions of types b, c, d and e taken together have an estimated population of 15,000 to 20,000 students. Courses last three to three and a half years. Their structures are less flexible than those of the TEIs and their international initiatives (contacts, courses, activities) are insignificant, due to a lack of autonomy and leadership based on modern management principles and due to the fact that their sponsoring and supervising bodies are others than the Ministry of Education. The latter is, in fact, the only source which provides support for and information on the European programmes. As these organisations have not changed their management system to respond to the modern challenges of internationalisation, the institutions suffer from a centralised system.

2. Regional Development Policy

Like the universities, the TEIs were established in every regional compartment of the Greek territory, except in Thrace and on the Ionian islands. In each of the latter areas, there exists one university, but no TEI. In all other parts of Greece, TEIs or branches of them have been established, consisting of minimally two schools with one or two departments. The policy was to fertilise through their creation social, cultural and economic development of the area.

The development of an internationalisation concept and policy was left to the TEIs themselves. Only in 1988/89 did the MEd coordinate and inject a European policy into TEIs, through the design of the first three ERASMUS ICPs for mobility and curriculum development, in which six Greek TEIs participated, three of them as coordinating institutions. This step represented a policy ahead of that in the university sector. This one and only centrally-designed and coordinated move by the MEd came about at a time when the author

was responsible for Greek non-university education and asked all TEIs to enter ERASMUS and when EURASHE was founded in Patra in 1990. For reasons of regional development policy, TEIs like the ones in Crete, Thesaloniki, Kozani and Patra, i.e. regional TEIs, were the first ones to participate together with the TEIs of Athens and Piraeus in the first ICPs. Overall, it needs to be stated that internationalisation, in terms of staff and student mobility, joint curricula, or joint module development, was left to the TEIs and universities themselves.

During the last two years, the National Operational Programme for the Initial Education and Professional Training (EPEAEK), coordinated by the MEd and funded by the ESF and the EBRD, introduced funding for international activities such as mobility, placements abroad, curricula at graduate or postgraduate level, ODL, quality evaluation in Greek higher education. The impact of this new policy is to be evaluated in a year or two from now.

3. International Cooperation in Universities and TEIs: A Comparison

A simple comparison of such European activities of TEIs and universities reveals the following picture. TEIs mainly participate in such programmes as SOCRATES, TEMPUS, LEONARDO, i.e. programmes of DG XXII. Universities mainly participate in R & D projects run by DGXII, XVI, V etc. This difference has its reason in the staff population, its status, the ratio of active staff researchers, promotion procedures based on academic performance, etc. The latter ones are catastrophic for TEIs. The staff is ranked in three levels. 95% of them are gathered in rank I, the highest, as well as in rank III, the lowest, mostly holders of a non-university degree. Level II has almost vanished.

The lack of postgraduate courses to provide young human resources with high-level training and research also causes stagnation in the TEIs. There is a controversy. Some TEIs, which have the scientific capacity to run postgraduate courses, have asked the MEd for permission to do so. However, since no specific criteria, academic and/or administrative, exist, nor any certain requirements concerning the structure, level and quality, the MEd has refused to do so. Undoubtedly, the development and running of postgraduate courses could contribute to the Europeanisation of education in TEIs and the upgrading of their courses and themselves.

4. The European Programmes

SOCRATES, LEOANRDO DA VINCI, TEMPUS, the EPEAEK national project[6], the Jean Monnet programme, etc. have brought TEIs and universi-

6 EPEAEK : Operational Programme for the Hellenic Education and the Initial and Professional Training. Funds available through the European Social Fund (ESF) and the European Bank of Regional Development.

ties closely together in terms of planning projects or sharing activities. This is the EU's contribution to the internalisation of TEIs. One must stress that such cases came about when the contractor of the European project was a university-type institution from another member state and the Greek partner institutions, universities as well as TEIs, were partners. The success of this type of collaboration may support wider and sectoral cooperation without discrimination against non-university institutions.

The organisational structures in the university and TEI sectors in Greece are almost identical. Collaboration with third parties in RTD and European programmes and projects are managed by a special Research Fund Committee which is flexible enough and enjoys a degree of autonomy from the university or TEI authorities. The careers'/liaison offices and the European programmes offices/committees are of the same status in the university and TEI sectors.

Foreign languages play an important role in TEI and university education. (Most) University staff have a good command of a foreign language, due to their international research activities. TEI staff recruitment regulations, as determined by the TEI constitutional law (1404/83), require a good command of one EU language at least. At the same time, TEI course curricula include foreign languages as a compulsory component, mainly English. Courses in tourism include English, French and German or Italian as compulsory languages. Thus, in principle, TEI graduates should have foreign language skills at a good level.

The size of TEIs varies, from the TEI of Athens with a student population of about 25,000 to the TEI of Epirus, Serres, with about 2,500 to 3,000 students. The small institutions are mainly in the periphery. The peripheral areas do not offer the same opportunities and advantages for the recruitment of high-standard scientific staff as the richer parts of Greece, as a result of their development and communication problems. Communication problems with the richer parts of Greece and other countries too, do not give opportunities and advantages for scientifically high standard staff recruitment. Hence, size, combined with the regional effect, affect TEIs and their expansion. Expansion depends mainly on top-level national policy.

The size of TEIs, on the one hand, and the population of tenured staff of generally about 50% part-timers not active in EU programmes, on the other hand, play a very important role in determining the degree of internationalisation of each TEI. A larger TEI has the advantage of a critical number of scientists available to arrange and promote the TEIs' internationalisation in educational life, training and projects.

Practical placements of TEI students mainly in Greek enterprises and organisations play a role in establishing close ties between the TEIs and the market. The COMETT and LEONARDO programmes promote(d) this concept at a European level. However, the non-existence of formally functioning feed-

back structures in the university-enterprise system[7] which would develop co-operation and assess exchanges (students, training curricula, mutual benefits etc.) did not permit any important evaluation of the impact of these programmes. However, in the last one or two years factors such as the operation of liaison offices or careers offices in the university and non-university sector, the perception of quality aspects and the evaluation of performance, and also some competition promoted through EPEAEK has given quite a thrust to the development of European collaboration for joint projects (training seminars, training material development, introduction of new technologies etc.). In summary, it is too early to clearly define the concrete results of such a policy, and the final benefits to TEIs.

According to the constitutional law (1404/1983), TEIs play a most important role in Greek higher education in postgraduate training, continuous training and lifelong learning. Up to now, TEIs all over Greece have successfully organised short and long training courses for professionals and university or TEI degree holders. Funding came from the ESF[8], COMETT, FORCE, LEONARDO, ADAPT, EPEAEK, etc. Participation was both national and international. These training courses were co-funded by the ministries of labour, education, tourism, culture, SME Organisations (EOMMEX), COMETT, LEONARDO etc. TEIs also run postgraduate courses in collaboration, in partnerships or through franchise agreements with foreign universities, mainly in the UK. Typical examples are the TEIs of Athens and Piraeus.

The pressure the TEIs put onto the authorities to extend their activities in developing and operating carefully designed and academically supported postgraduate and training courses will surely cause a kind of evolution in Hellenic higher education and give an impulse for its reform. It is also noticeable that the success of the TEIs in the domain of training courses is related to their professional rather than academic role, the latter being the main domain of the Greek universities. During the last years, however, the universities put much effort into liasing with social partners and undertake continuous training, too.

According to law, it is the departments in the TEIs and universities which have the competence for the internationalisation of their curricula, for bringing European components into their curricula, and for other international activities. Activities coordinated by the central liaison office, the research committee fund and the senate, insofar as they have international components, are also passed on to the various departments. The personality or

7 *Liasing Higher Education Institutes and Courses to the Socio-Economic and Industrial needs,* Report on a project funded by DGXXII. Coordinated by Dr.S.Kaplanis. Report by Professor .S.Kaplnais and Yves Boisselier, Brussels1995.

8 ESF (European Social Fund): several TEIs have run long courses, since 1985, in advanced professional training topics as required by professional bodies. It was the starting point for their collaboration with social partners in national and European programmes.

leadership of the heads of these units therefore plays a significant role in the development of an internationalisation policy.

The institutionalisation of this policy is capitalised through the quality evaluation processes which many TEIs and universities asked for. They try to develop and implement their (quality) model along the guidelines of EPEAEK, which do not differ from those of the European Commission's pilot project for the evaluation of quality of higher education institutions[9]. This process, which is based on the experience of the European Commission's pilot project on quality evaluation of courses in higher education, is an asset for making this policy part of the Greek institutions' quality policy, a policy which supports the integration of European components in the form of concrete, measurable and planned activities.

9 European Pilot Project for Evaluating Quality in Higher Education, Guidelines for Participating Institutions, ERASMUS Bureau for the European Commission, November 1994.

Gudbrandur Steinthorsson
Rector, Icelandic College of Engineering and Technology
Tækniskóli Íslands, Reykjavik, Iceland

Iceland

Introduction and Summary

This overview or report has been compiled at the request of ACA. The author has conferred with colleagues at the relevant educational establishments in Iceland and the viewpoints set forth hereinafter are to a certain extent a result of information and opinions received from colleagues, but for the most part based on the author's own experiences and reflections.

This overview does not contain any statistics. The time available for its preparation was too short for collection and interpretation of data that might have been relevant, and this was also considered to lie outside the scope of the report.

This report may be briefly summarised as follows:

The higher education institutions in Iceland, other than the universities, are characterised mainly by their approach to instruction being based on applying basic, theoretical knowledge to actual problem-solving. They have by tradition strong ties with business and industry, and those located outside the capital city area have significant links with the local community.

It is not possible to say that some deliberate regional development policy played any significant role in decisions to locate some institutions in the countryside, nor is it possible to ascertain whether the location has had any measurable effects on their international activities. A detrimental effect, at least, cannot be observed.

The fact that the emphasis is on applied teaching and research and development has no appreciable effect on the nature of international activities, apart from limiting the activities to the subject areas offered by each institution. This is not deemed to have had any detrimental effects.

If there is a typical spectrum of activities it can best be described as being characterised by the primary emphasis on student mobility and teacher exchange. Research, as a consequence of the general institutional structure and scope, is of less importance in this context.

The boundaries between types of institutions are getting somewhat blurred. There is no precise indication that this is a result of international activities or that such activities have influenced this development.

There are structural differences between these institutions and the traditional university, and these differences have some influence on the sphere of international cooperation. These differences are not, as such, an obstacle to international cooperation.

The funding of the administration of international activities is on the same basis regardless of the type of institution. A central office is funded through the state budget, as a separate item, but individual institutions must fund their own infrastructure from their annual grants from the state budget. Independent or privately owned establishments are at a distinct advantage here, having the means to obtain funding from other sources.

The foreign language qualifications of students are an obstacle to large-scale mobility. Not so much the qualifications of academic staff, although some reluctance to take part in international activities can be observed.

The size of an institution does have some impact on the breadth and depth of its international activities. This is by no means an inherent disadvantage.

The tradition of close ties with business and industry does provide certain opportunities. This has been made use of by arranging for, amongst other things, internships for foreign students and industry has in some cases co-operated in providing final projects for students.

For some of the institutions mentioned in this report continuing and lifelong education are not very developed. So far, international cooperation does not appear to have had an appreciable effect on this activity. How international cooperation can be made use of in this respect remains to be seen.

Until now internationalisation has not, as such, been institutionalised. However, the institutions accounted for in this report are taking or have taken steps to make international cooperation one of the items of their policy statements.

1. The Main Characteristics of the Higher Education Non-University System in Iceland

Up to 1997 one can hardly speak of a system in this respect. For the first time, a law defining higher education institutions of December 1997, effective as of January 1, 1998, described the formal status, role and structure of such institutions. This law, while making it possible to define the status of each institution, does not sufficiently take into account the differences between the so-called university and non-university sector. This law is as yet not fully operational, as additional legislation has not been finalised. The main flaw in the present legislation is that during the preparation of the bill being passed in 1997, sufficient measures to take into account the inherent difference between types of institution were not taken. The law, as it stands today, is overly biased towards the traditional university type.

Institutions classified as non-university shall therefore be selected from the group of those not involved in “academic” research activities. This classification encompasses institutions whose activities are mainly in teaching and to some extent in so-called applied research. Again, one should emphasise that this research is for the most part aimed at producing results that may be of immediate or almost immediate applicability, in the overwhelming majority of instances projects in cooperation with relevant branches of industry.

In this overview four institutions shall be briefly accounted for.

Tækniskóli Íslands, The Icelandic College of Engineering and Technology (ICET), was founded in 1964. The operation was at first modelled after the Danish engineering colleges and this similarity is still very much apparent. The college now offers programmes in engineering (civil, industrial, mechanical and electrical/electronics), in management and in technology for the health services (laboratory technology and medical imaging). All these programmes award bachelor degrees. The college is financed through the state budget. The rector is the chief executive officer and reports to the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. The College is situated in the capital city area.

Samvinnuháskólinn, Icelandic University College of Business Administration, traces its roots back to the year 1918 and was granted the formal status of Higher Education Institution in 1987. The college awards bachelor degrees but students can opt for a diploma after having completed two years of study. The college is an independent non-profit institution governed by a board of trustees and the operation is financed partly through tuition fees (35%) and through a contract with the Ministry of Education (65%). The college is situated in a rural area approximately 150 km north of the capital.

Bændaskólinn Hvanneyri, búvísindadeild, The Agricultural College, Department of Agricultural Sciences started operation as a Higher Education Institution in 1947, but the Agricultural College was founded about the turn of the century. As the name implies, this is a specialised institution and over 90% of the graduates are employed in the agricultural sector. The college awards the bachelor degree. This state institution, financed over the state budget, is answerable to the Ministry of Agriculture. It is located in an agricultural area, approximately 100 km north of the capital. This college is the only one in the group presented here that could be classified as belonging to the university sector. It has been included in this report because it is a highly specialised institution, i. e. not having the typical university characteristics of a multidisciplinary establishment.

Viðskiptaháskólinn í Reykjavík, Reykjavík School of Business (RSB), was established in 1998. Its roots go back to 1905 with the foundation of the Commercial College of Iceland. In 1988 the College established the School of Computer Science, which became the Department of Computer Science

of the new School of Business. RSB has two departments, the Department of Computer Science and the Department of Business Administration. It is privately run, governed by a board of trustees, and is financed through tuition fees and through a service contract with the Ministry of Education Science and Culture. Due to the recent start-up of RSB, little can be said about experiences or outcomes of international cooperation. It should be mentioned, though, that the College is already active in international cooperation.

A common trait, shared by all these establishments, is the close links with those branches of business and industry relevant to each institution. Of these the Agricultural College is the one that has a long research tradition. The others mentioned confine their research activities mostly to service and consultancy to industry, in many instances through student projects where supervision and endorsement by teaching staff ensures the relevance and level of quality required. The colleges situated outside the capital area have strong links with the local community. Also it may be said that most of the programmes offered by these institutions have formulated their entrance requirements and recruitment procedures in such a way as to give preference to students with previous work experience relevant to their chosen field of studies. In some instances such experience is a prerequisite, e. g. the ICET and the Agricultural College.

As to the structure of courses it should be noted that the law governing the operation of higher education institutions stipulates that courses shall be structured according to a modular system. This implies that each individual course is given a credit number rating according to the effort required to complete the course. The academic year is rated at 30 credit points (equivalent to 60 ECTS points), based on a full work load for the average student. The structure of individual courses, i. e. methods of teaching, evaluation procedures etc., vary from one institution to another and also within institutions according to the type of course or subject area.

Another common characteristic is that most of the institutions presented here are also engaged in or have close ties with the secondary school stage. In this way they serve the needs of a group of prospective students needing to enhance their qualifications in order to gain access to studies at a higher education institution. This is a well-proven system providing mature and motivated students with the opportunity to enter higher education, an opportunity not provided by the ordinary secondary schools.

2. Aspects Concerning Regional Development Policy

Of the institutions described in the previous chapter the two largest are located in the capital area. At the turn of the century, when it was decided to place the Agricultural College in its actual location, the concept of regional development policy had hardly been invented. The College of Business Admini-

stration was moved from the capital to its present location some decades ago and it is not very likely that any such policy had any major effect on this decision.

However, it can be said with considerable certainty that the presence of these educational establishments in the rural areas has been, and still is, in many ways quite beneficial to the local community. Their presence has an undisputed influence on the local economy, job profile and age distribution in the local community.

All institutions mentioned draw students from all over the country. Location does not seem to be the primary deciding factor when it comes to the students' choice of institution.

From what has been said here it becomes apparent that it is not possible to draw any conclusions as to the effect of any specific regional focus on internationalisation efforts.

3. Comparing the Different Types of Institutions

In the opinion of the author the terminology used to distinguish between the types of higher education establishments as "university" on the one hand and 'non-university' on the other is somewhat inappropriate, if not misleading to those not familiar with the structure of the educational system. This terminology implies a difference in status and/or quality. This difference in status exists, of course, but not necessarily to the extent that those unfamiliar with the system might assume from the terms used. A difference in quality may or may not exist, depending on the actual structure of the national systems of higher education. The author of this report does not have any suggestion for a change in terminology, but feels that this should be noted.

The type of institution with which this report is concerned puts the main stress on applied, as opposed to theoretical, teaching and research. The main objective, as far as teaching is concerned, is that their graduates shall be qualified to take on positions in business and industry, either as specialists or in a more general capacity. They are provided with the appropriate theoretical background and trained to apply that basic knowledge in solving problems and working out projects.

The university can be said to be more concerned with the theoretical aspects, knowledge for the sake of knowledge, the creation of and search for new knowledge, not necessarily aiming at directly or immediately applicable results. The traditional university can be said to produce graduates that find employment as scientists, academics or civil servants.

These differences are bound to have an impact on the nature of international exchange and cooperation activities of the institutions concerned. The international activities will mostly be limited to student exchange and exchange of

teaching staff. International research activities will be confined to projects with foreseen direct and (almost) immediate applicability. One would be tempted to speak of development rather than research activities.

The international activities of the traditional universities can, as a consequence of the different type of activities, be more varied. International cooperation on large-scale research projects is a real possibility, and for this type of activity there is a long tradition.

The aforesaid should be taken as a brief and very sketchy description rather than a quantitative or qualitative analysis. Also, it should be noted that it is in no way an attempt to judge whether the so-called non-university type of institution is at a disadvantage as a consequence of this (natural?) difference.

One is faced with two questions. Firstly, whether there is such a thing as a typical international activity spectrum of a non-university institution. Secondly, if this is the case, how it differs from that of universities. To attempt to answer the second question first one would say that the main difference, if any, lies in the different approach to international research activities. One is not prepared to answer the first question with a simple yes or no. The differences between institutions, though they may be classified as belonging to the same type, are such that a precise answer is not possible.

What is said above about the possible international activities of university and non-university type institutions is in some respects a reflection of the past, going back some years or even decades. The situation, the types of teaching and research activities undertaken by higher education institutions, has undergone marked changes over the past ten to fifteen years. Of this more will be said in the next chapter of this report.

The essence of what has been said in this present chapter can be summarised as follows: The key objective of the so-called non-university institution is the employability of the graduate. The so-called university sector places somewhat stronger emphasis on the graduates' scientific qualifications. This is bound to have some effect on how the different types of institution approach their international activities but this need not be a disadvantage for the so-called non-university type of institution.

4. University Versus Non-University Institutions

The world is changing, also the academic world. Even educational institutions change with the times. To give a fair idea of the higher education institutions in this country it is appropriate to reflect on the institutions themselves and give a brief account of the current institutions.

There is one large (5,000 students, large measured on the national scale) university in the capital and a smaller one, with approximately 500 students, in the north, its existence being the result of some regional development

policy. The capital also has a teacher training college which is classified as a university, the number of students being about 1,200.

The non-university type institutions are those accounted for in chapter 1. Of these the ICET is the largest with approximately 450 students.

It is a fact that the boundaries between types of higher education institutions are becoming blurred. In Iceland this trend is apparent and has been over the past years. The tendency has been for university-type institutions to engage in educational activities hitherto attended to by the non-university sector. In the past years one has seen educational programmes, sometimes programmes belonging to the vocational school system, being "upgraded" to "university status". A similar tendency, in the opposite direction, has existed within the non-university sector for some time, albeit on a smaller scale. In the past years there has been a tendency to place educational programmes in university institutions that one might consider more appropriate to assign to institutions of the non-university type. Also the variety of programmes in both types of institutions has been growing, and there appears to be no system whereby decisions are taken in this matter, i. e. which type of institution is to engage in specific activities.

5. Structural Differences

There are structural differences between types of institution. The main difference may be said to lie in the systems of management, including the decision-making procedures. In the university type institutions these processes are, due to the management structure, quite cumbersome and elaborate. Less so in the non-university type institutions, which, at least some of them, have a much simpler management structure that should, in theory at least, facilitate the decision-making process.

For example, at ICET decisions on international cooperation, i. e. type of activity, extent, etc., are in practice delegated to the individual departments, but the totality of activities is approved by the head of the institution. The internal distribution of funds is made by the head of the institution.

Funding for international activities is in principle on the same basis for all state institutions, whether of university or non-university type. The institutions are supposed to either obtain the necessary funds from the exchange programmes, such as the SOCRATES programme, and to fund activities from their own budget as granted by Parliament annually. No specified amounts are earmarked for this purpose in the budget granted to each institution.

There is a professional infrastructure. This is the central international office for higher education institutions which is located on the premises of the University of Iceland. Due to the geographic proximity to the University of Iceland and due to the administrative ties with that institution, other institutions

have found it necessary to provide for their own infrastructure. The central international office has though been of invaluable assistance to all institutions engaged in international activities as an adviser and coordinator and its value, also for the non-university institutions, should not be underestimated.

The central international office is financed as a separate item on the annual state budget and is thus financially independent of the university. Whether it is adequately funded may be a matter of dispute but most institutions find that their possibilities of providing adequate funds are rather limited compared to the need for support services.

One point of interest might be worth noting. This concerns the role of individual elements of the institutional administrative system when it comes to deciding whether and how to engage in international cooperation. Experience at ICET leads to the conclusion that the role of the head of the institution should primarily be that of encouraging those proposing to start such cooperation. It should then be the role of individuals within the system to take specific initiatives and establish and maintain the international contacts necessary for the proper and efficient execution of those activities. Whether a specific cooperation venture becomes a success or failure depends solely on how the individual actors in the process attend to their tasks.

6. Foreign Language Qualifications

In Iceland there is a long tradition for students to pursue at least part of their studies abroad. Up to the turn of the century the only academic programmes offered by Icelandic educational establishments were in law, medicine and theology. From this it is evident that all students who set their aims on something other than these disciplines had no choice but to go abroad for their studies.

Up to the seventies many disciplines were not taught at Icelandic institutions. The stream of students going abroad continued, albeit somewhat less intense than in the decades before. This is of course to be understood in relative terms, not in absolute ones, since, due to the ever increasing number of people seeking higher education, the number of outgoing students did not diminish appreciably. Only the percentage of the total student population going abroad decreased, not the absolute number.

Since the early seventies it has been possible to pursue most kinds of studies at higher education institutions in Iceland. This has had the effect that relatively fewer students go abroad. From the viewpoint of the national economy this may be considered a positive change but from other points of view one might say that this development has reduced the diversity of qualifications possessed by Icelandic graduates of higher education.

Students at postgraduate levels continue to pursue their studies abroad, not all of them, but a considerable number.

This was a prologue to the actual subject in question, whether the foreign language qualifications of students and academic staff are an obstacle to large-scale mobility and cooperation.

First consider the status of instruction in foreign languages at secondary school level, as such instruction is not provided at the tertiary level (unless this is a specific aim of the actual programme in question).

Up to the mid-sixties all those who intended to qualify for admission to higher education were obliged to take instruction in four foreign languages; one Nordic language, English, German and French. There were no electives or additional offerings within the formal school system. The overwhelming majority of language teachers had obtained degrees in the language they taught at universities in the country native to that language.

The present situation is somewhat different. In today's secondary schools pupils are required to learn three foreign languages; one Nordic language and English are compulsory, the third can be chosen from a group of several languages, German and French being the most popular. If one takes a random sample of the teachers assigned to teaching these languages there is absolutely no guarantee that any of them have stayed in a country where the language is spoken for more than fleeting visits.

The foreign language proficiency of students entering higher education leaves something to be desired. The instruction in foreign languages at the secondary school level seems unable to yield the results formerly considered the norm, let alone improve on the former situation. Teaching staff at higher education institutions are aware of this by the reluctance of the students to use foreign language textbooks, which in many subject areas are essential. One is also quite aware of some considerable hesitation to take advantage of the student mobility schemes, expected language difficulties being the reason most often given.

An interesting question could be if the advent of internationalisation of the media, especially the vastly increased access to foreign language television broadcasts, has enhanced the ability of students to communicate in foreign languages. One would automatically assume that, given the fact that the English language quite dominates the international media scene, increased and widespread knowledge of this language would be the result. This is apparently not the case. The vocabulary acquired through these media is extremely limited and often quite irrelevant to day-to-day communication between ordinary persons.

As far as teaching staff at higher education institutions are concerned one can say that the teachers often have studied in a foreign language environment. This, however, does not necessarily mean that their linguistic proficiency has improved sufficiently to ensure troublefree communication in those foreign languages used in international cooperation. All of the academic staff

have a working knowledge in at least one foreign language but few are fluent in foreign languages.

The foreign language requirements for access to higher education institutions are basically the same, independent of the type of institution. There is no evidence that students embarking on studies at one type of institution have better preparation in languages than those opting for another type of institution.

To conclude this chapter the following shall be said:

The standard of instruction in foreign languages has declined during the past two decades. This has had a somewhat adverse effect on the language qualifications of students in general. This effect is beginning to show in the case of academic staff.

The students' ability to communicate in foreign languages, or rather their fear of not possessing the required competence, is an obstacle to large-scale mobility.

7. Size of the Institution. Positive and/or Negative Effects

All the institutions covered in this report are small, some of them even minute when measured on the international scale. This has not been an insurmountable obstacle to international cooperation although it is bound to have some effect on how international cooperation is carried out.

A small size inevitably leads to some problems. The support services and infrastructure have to be organised otherwise than in larger institutions as the financing of the institutions depends to some extent on student numbers. Thus there will be less funds to invest in support services and infrastructure.

A small institution may not have the number of tenured academic staff that would be desirable, in many cases they rely heavily on external lecturers hired to teach maybe a single course and remunerated on an hourly basis. In the case of the institutions concerned here, this often has a positive effect on the teaching activities as these external lecturers come from relevant branches of business and industry and bring with them state-of-the-art knowledge and practices. These external lecturers have of course no obligation to take part in any activities other than the teaching process and therefore tend to be somewhat inactive when it comes to international cooperation.

A small institution will also be at a disadvantage regarding the variety of courses and programmes. It is bound to limit its activities and must specialise. This limits the opportunities for engaging in international cooperation.

A small institution can be a close-knit community of students, academic staff and administrators. This is a situation where the students can have easy and direct access to their teachers, they can be on speaking terms with the ad-

ministrative staff and in the case of the institutions that this report concerns they even have more or less direct access to the rectors.

At a small institution, with individual student groups of a manageable size, the contact between students and teachers is much closer than at larger institutions. This has a marked beneficial effect on the teaching/learning process. The teachers can afford to devote some time to individual guidance and consultation. This is particularly important.

All of the above-mentioned conditions are bound to reflect on the institution's ability to engage in international cooperation. The small size automatically limits the number and variety of activities that can be attended to. This is not necessarily negative as long as the institution's leaders and staff realise these limitations and confine their international activities to the subject areas where the institution has its main strengths. It is a matter of adjustment.

A small institution can in many ways take advantage of the intimacy that is an inherent element of its limited size when it comes to catering for the, sometimes somewhat special, needs of incoming exchange students. This is equally important as organising mobility for the institution's own students. Incoming students need at least the same attention as the institution's own students.

The author's conclusion is that, if properly taken account of, the small size of the institution can be an advantage as long as its leaders and staff realise the inherent limitations and confine the international activities to those subject areas the institution is best at.

Another conclusion based on experience is that it is imperative, when a small institution starts participating in international activities, to start in a small way, to limit the participation to few activities at the outset and give the activities sufficient time to develop. Later comes the time to start thinking about expanding the activities, seek more partners, etc.

8. Ties with Business and Industry

All the institutions concerned here have a long tradition of close contact with the relevant branches of business and industry. These contacts are reflected in the programmes, in the ways of instruction through real-life projects and through external participation in governing the institutions.

At the author's institution these contacts have provided certain opportunities for international activities. In practice these contacts have been used to create projects for incoming exchange students, as well as for its native students, and also to provide internships for foreign students who are required by their home institutions to complete periods of internship before graduating.

9. Continuing Education

Some of the institutions accounted for here are quite active in the field of continuing education, especially those situated outside the capital area.

The author's institution is itself not very active in this field and part of the reason for this can be that the institution is a partner in the operation of a continuing education institution in collaboration with several partners, among them the University of Iceland. By decree the university is the dominant partner and the other partners are as a consequence thereof somewhat inactive. Another hindrance in this respect has been the outdated and rigid system of remuneration to teaching staff. This hindrance, of course, only applies to the state institutions as the privately run or independent institutions have full freedom in allocating their resources and are not tied to the remuneration system imposed on state institutions.

The ambition of the author's institution is to take an initiative in the next months to start offering courses to individuals and enterprises in the main subject areas covered by the institution.

So far one cannot say that international cooperation has played any noticeable role in the continuing education activities of Icelandic institutions apart from some instances where instructors from abroad have been engaged. Nor can it be said that there is a visible connection with the international activities.

The main possibilities for establishing a connection of continuing education and lifelong learning with international cooperation would lie in the use of distance instruction, either through some device like the Internet or through interactive media.

10. Institutionalisation of Internationalisation

All the institutions mentioned in this report take part in some kind of international activities. However, a formal institutionalisation has not been on the agenda, but some change in this respect can bee foreseen.

Internationalisation is stated as one of the items in the policy statement of ICET, which in the past two years has been under preparation and has now been approved. In that policy statement the intention to take increased advantage of international cooperation is an important element. The actual strategic plan is being worked on and the outcomes of that are awaited. The other institutions with which this report is concerned have internationalisation either as a part of their policy or they engage in such activities on an *ad hoc* basis.

Dr. J. G. Corr
Director, Galway-Mayo Institute of Technology
Galway, Ireland

Ireland

1. General

Higher Education in Ireland has expanded enormously over the past three decades. Student numbers in state-aided institutes have increased from a total of 19,000 in 1965/66 to 102,000 in 1997/98 which represents a participation rate, for the relevant age cohort, in excess of 50%. Growth in student numbers has been accompanied by equally important qualitative changes resulting in a more diversified system. New types of institution, i.e., Regional Technical Colleges which later became Institutes of Technology, were developed in the 1970s and these have grown to become a significant component of the Irish higher education system. Side by side with institutional diversity came diversity of course provision opening up new fields of studies and providing a marked increase in the proportion of women availing of higher education. The extent of the growth by institutional type and by gender is illustrated as follows:

Full-time Student Numbers by Sector and by Gender

	1965/66			1980/81		
Institutions	**M**	**F**	**Total**	**M**	**F**	**Total**
Universities	12,156	5,530	17,686	15,318	13,950	29,268
Institutes of Technology	759	248	1,007	7,293	3,617	10,910
Total	**12,915**	**5,778**	**18,693**	**22,611**	**17,567**	**40,178**

	1993/94			1997/98		
Institutions	**M**	**F**	**Total**	**M**	**F**	**Total**
Universities	25,413	28,107	53,520	26,495	34,140	60,635
Institutes of Technology	19,902	14,771	34,673	22,836	19,035	41,871
Total	**45,315**	**42,878**	**88,193**	**49,331**	**53,175**	**102,506**

The significance of the non-university sector today is reflected not only in that it constitutes over 40% of enrolments but some 55% of new entrants to higher education in Ireland enter the Institutes of Technology. This is explained by the short-cycle (i.e. two / three year) nature of many of the courses in these institutions.

The structure of Irish higher education is binary with two separate institutional types, i.e. universities and Institutes of Technology. It has been government policy for some time to maintain this institutional diversity. The most recent Government White Paper (1995) stated “The diversity of institutions and the separate missions of the two broad sectors will be maintained to ensure maximum flexibility and responsiveness to the needs of students and to the wide variety of social and economic requirements.“

2. Institutes of Technology

The Institutes of Technology (formerly the Regional Technical Colleges) were established as autonomous corporate bodies under the 1992 Regional Technical Colleges Act. Thus they became self-governing institutions responsible for the conduct of their own affairs, subject to certain conditions laid down by the Minister for Education and Science. These included operating under an approved budget, keeping to the staffing establishment as approved annually by the Minister and offering only courses and programmes of study approved by the Minister.

Each Institute has a Governing Body to oversee the conduct of its affairs and a Director or President who is the Chief Executive Officer of the Institute. Membership of Governing Bodies is comprised of representative regional interests, industrial / commercial and professional interests, institute staff and student interests, as well as the Director.

There are currently thirteen Institutes of Technology in Ireland and plans are advanced to open a further Institute by the year 2001. They range in size from the largest – Dublin Institute of Technology with an excess of 10,000 full-time students to the smallest, at Letterkenny, Co. Donegal, with 2,000 students. The remainder of the Institutes range in size between 3,000 and 5,000 full-time equivalent students. The institutes are located geographically at regional level throughout the country and are thus strategically sited to deliver a range of higher education services to a catchment area within an approximate radius of 100km.

3. Courses of Study and Qualifications

The institutes are all multi-discipline and multi-level with regard to their academic activities. They were primarily established to support a planned process of industrialisation through the provision of technicians and technologists in such areas as Design and Manufacture, Production Planning, Pro-

duction Engineering, Laboratory Analysts and Quality Control as well as supervisory and middle-management. Thus each institute has normally three schools – Engineering, Applied Sciences and Business Studies / Humanities. Course programmes are generally applied / vocational in nature, were established in response to a regional and / or national labour market need and, very often, have work placement incorporated as part of the course structure. Undergraduate courses may be of two, three or four years' duration full-time. Students may graduate with a two-year National Certificate, a three-year National diploma or a four-year Bachelors Degree. More than 50% of students throughout the technological sector would be pursuing courses that lead to a National Certificate. A further 30% would be pursuing National Diplomas while somewhat less than 20% would be pursuing Bachelor Degree status. A small proportion of students (i.e. less than 5%) are currently engaged in postgraduate studies.

Course structures within the technological sector provide a ladder of opportunity whereby students can progress with credit from Certificate level programmes through Diploma to Degree level as appropriate. Frequently, Certificants and Diplomates re-enter the education system following a period in employment either on a full-time or part-time basis.

The National Council for Educational Awards (NCEA) is responsible for awarding Certificates, Diplomas and Degrees to students successfully completing courses at the Institutes of Technology. The Council has a statutory responsibility for the maintenance of course standards and the relevance of such courses to national needs. More recently, the largest institute, i.e. Dublin Institute of Technology was granted Degree awarding powers by Government and a process is currently underway whereby other institutes may apply to have delegated authority to make their own awards within a national qualifications framework. Currently, the Government is about to publish a Bill establishing an Irish National Certification Authority with responsibility for the development, implementation, regulation and supervision of the certification of all non-university third level programmes.

Admission to all higher education institutions in Ireland (i.e. university and non-university) is dealt with through a Central Applications Office (CAO) which acts as an agent for the institutions participating in a joint applications system. Applicants apply for places on courses using a preference system and are awarded a place based on a points system which measures prior academic attainment. There is, at present, severe competition for admission to courses in both sectors of higher education as supply of places does not match social demand particularly in high-profile and popular programmes.

4. The Developmental Role of Institutes of Technology

Institutes of Technology in Ireland are expected to be responsive to Government policies and strategies in the fields of economic and social develop-

ment. An important part of the mission of each institute is to engage in applied research, consultancy and training for industry particularly at regional level. Institutes are expected to support firms in accessing new technology and, through their programmes of applied research which are often carried out in partnership with industry, to assist the transfer of technology from higher education to local firms. A recent example of the responsiveness of Institutes of Technology to the needs of industry has been an initiative to address major skills shortages in the electronics and computing industries in Ireland. Special programmes were designed in consultation with the industries concerned. A system of work-based learning was built into the courses and, through joint monitoring of students progress by both parties, an accelerated output of additional qualified technicians was achieved to meet high-tech industries urgent requirements.

A major challenge facing Institutes of Technology is to implement a programme of lifelong learning. While all institutes have significant numbers of students pursuing part-time, continuing and adult education, some 90% of those pursuing mainstream full-time courses are school-leavers below twenty-one years of age. Apart from second-chance education, there is an urgent task in Ireland to upskill the workforce – particularly those in the age group 35 – 65 years. A recent Government Green paper on Lifelong Learning recommended:

(I) Continued promotion of active interaction between the workplace and institutions of higher education so as to create more flexible routeways between the world of work and education.

(II) Increased flexibility of the education and training system to provide opportunities to address the skills needs of those at work, particularly in the indigenous Small and Medium Enterprise (S.M.E.) Sector, through the establishment of customised education and training programmes and materials.

5. European and International Dimension

The establishment of the Regional Technical Colleges (i.e. now Institutes of Technology) coincided with Ireland's accession to the European Community in the early 1970s. This influenced many of these new institutions to adopt a European outlook, incorporating a European dimension in their mission statements and emphasising the importance of European languages, particularly French and German, in many of their course programmes. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, many of the institutes engaged in study visits to Europe to explore development in higher technological education and to establish contacts with their European counterparts. However, it was only in the mid-1980s with the ERASMUS and COMETT programmes that the Irish technological sector became actively involved in international affairs. The

designation, by the Irish Ministry for Education, of the Regional Technical Colleges as university-level institutions for the purpose of participating in the European programmes of higher education was a major boost to the non-university sector. Prior to this, these colleges had been regarded as local or regional institutions and their new recognised role in European higher education added an international dimension to their activities.

From the outset, the non-university institutions in Ireland participated actively in the ERASMUS programme. In 1989, one of the institutions – Galway RTC (now GMIT) was invited to join the "inner circle" in mechanical engineering of the ECTS six year pilot scheme. This was a privileged network of some eighteen institutions across Europe which were provided with enhanced facilities to exchange students and establish new academic protocols in order to recognise study in overseas partner institutions. The participating colleges in the network included some of the most prestigious universities in Europe and yet the Irish non-university institution acquitted itself well in that for a period during the six year pilot phase it was ranked the fourth highest in terms of incoming students. During the period of the ERASMUS programme, the non-university institutions in Ireland participated at a level comparable to their university counterparts, given their limitations of size and paucity of resources. A similar trend has continued under the SOCRATES programme although expansion in transnational linkages and student mobility has levelled off in recent years. The trends in student mobility under the ERASMUS / SOCRATES programme are summarised as follows:

OUTGOING STUDENT MOBILITY by INSTITUTIONAL TYPE

Universities:

	B	D	DK	ES	F	GR	IT	NO	NL	PT	S	FI	UK	A	Tot
1993-94	64	185	7	102	272	10	43	6	57	7	10	5	61	29	858
1997-98	77	277	10	161	374	12	65	2	59	3	2	7	26	32	1109

Non-Universities:

	B	D	DK	ES	F	GR	IT	NO	NL	PT	S	FI	UK	A	Tot
1993-94	30	82	12	19	111	12	16	8	24	6	6	7	70	0	403
1997-98	10	125	4	20	159	0	11	0	21	10	11	26	53	6	456

The Irish Institutes of Technology have, also, been active in the European COMETT and its successor, the LEONARDO Programme. Learning Partnerships (i.e. UETPs) were established in the late 1980s with participation by

Irish companies. Hibernia UETP is a Partnership made up of twelve Institutes of Technology and two universities which places students in companies overseas as well as placing incoming European students in Irish enterprises linked to one or other of the participating institutions.

In more recent years, Irish non-university institutions have become involved in linkages with their U.S. counterparts. Two Institutes of Technology are now active participants in the Trans Atlantic Training Alliance (i.e. TA) which is comprised of a consortium of institutions from both Europe and the U.S. This alliance, which has a number of manufacturing and service companies as associate members, seeks to encourage closer cooperation between higher education and industry in order to promote technology transfer, the use of new technologies in industrial training and education as well as the sharing of ideas on new approaches to improving the higher education – industry interface.

In general, the Institutes of Technology in Ireland are keen to expand the European and International dimension of their activities but, for a number of reasons, they are disadvantaged compared with their university counterparts:

- Because of the short-cycle nature of many of their programmes, (i.e. two years) outward mobility of students is confined to a small proportion of total enrolments, namely Diploma and Degree students;
- Current national skills shortages giving rise to excellent opportunities for technicians and technologists in the job market are influencing students to directly enter the labour market rather than devoting time to transnational exchanges;
- There is a serious imbalance in the inward / outward student flows resulting in institutions having to fund additional high cost technical places from within their own resources;
- Given the peripherality of Ireland within the EU and the associated high travel costs, many students, particularly those form lower socio-economic backgrounds, find it impossible to survive transnational exchanges on current student support levels;
- Institutions find it difficult to provide the necessary professional infrastructure adequately resourced that is necessary to maintain a viable international programme. For instance, those institutions that maintain a European / International office very often do so on the basis of surplus funds acquired through contract research, consultancy, industrial training etc.

6. National / International Representation

All of the Institutes of Technology, which were formerly Regional Technical Colleges, are represented nationally by a Council of Directors which conveys a sectoral view to Departments of State, State Agencies and organisations

as well as to the industrial and commercial world. The Council has a full-time secretariat which provides the professional support necessary for it to carry out its sectoral mandate.

At European level, the Institutes are members of EURASHE which represents the interests of (mainly non-university) higher education institutions at European level.

Arian van Staa[1]
HBO-Raad
Den Haag, The Netherlands

The Netherlands

Introduction

In The Netherlands, more than 60% of all students in higher education study at a "university of professional education".[2] Higher professional education (HPE) is therefore the most significant supplier of highly educated personnel to the labour market. In the academic year 1998/1999 a total of 285,000 students follow a programme at 59 *hogescholen.* The number of students grows every year; this study year there are 90,000 new first year students (a 5% increase). The number of university students has slightly dropped in recent years and now totals 160,000 students.

The HPE sector has experienced an enormous development during the last 15 years. In the early 1980s, there were more than 400 small institutions offering higher professional education. A major merger process took place, urged by the financial crisis of the government and the demand for more efficiency in higher education. In parallel with these scaling-enlargement operations, *hogescholen* have acquired more autonomy and a new financing system. The largest *hogeschool* now has 34,000 students. Some 16 hogescholen have more than 5,000 students.

With the professionalisation of HPE, the disparities between HPE and universities have been reduced on a significant number of issues, for example the duration of study, which is four years for both types of higher education. University study programmes in the fields of engineering, agriculture and natural sciences have recently been instituted to a length of five years.[3] Since 1993, both types of higher education fall under the Higher Education and Research Act.

It is no coincidence that, during recent years, the question has often been raised from within both the university sector and higher professional education as to whether the distinction between the two types of higher education

1 The author is employed at the HBO-raad, the Netherlands Association of Universities of Professional Education. She would like to thank Liduine Bremer and Frans van Kalmthout for their fruitful comments.

2 Since 1996 the English translation of *hogeschool* used by most institutions is **University of Professional Education.** The minister of Education, Culture and Science has recently allowed *hogescholen* to use this term in the international context. For the purpose of this text, in which the central topics concern the binary system in the Netherlands, the author has chosen to use the original Dutch term.

3 Medicine, pharmacy and veterinary medicine have a study length of six years; dentistry a study length of five years.

is still relevant. For the HPE sector, this is not about whether or not *hogescholen* should be granted university status, but about acceptance that *hogescholen* offer higher education programmes at a level comparable to that of the universities. Paramount for higher professional education is that the curriculum is based on the acquisition of professional skills; the evaluation of the quality of a programme occurs on the basis of recognition from the professional field.

The Dutch HPE system maintains a unique position in Europe, owing to both the size of the HPE sector within higher education and the extensive autonomy of the institutions. In this article, we will begin with an outline of the most important characteristics of *hogescholen.* Subsequently, a short explanation will be given with respect to the most topical questions on the binary system. Finally, the most notable characteristics of internationalisation will be discussed.

1. Major Characteristics of the HPE Sector[4]

Labour Market

The attractiveness of study in HPE is not only due to the types of programmes geared to the transfer of theoretical knowledge and the development of skills, but also to the good chances that an HPE graduate has on the labour market. 90% of the graduates have found a job within the first three months after graduation, and a year after graduation only three percent are not able to find work. The higher education sector actually faces a new problem: the demand from the labour market for HPE graduates is growing faster than the number of qualified graduates entering the labour market. A significant shortage of about 150,000 HPE graduates is expected in the year 2002.

Study Programmes

Hogescholen offer higher professional education concentrating on applied sciences and provide students with the knowledge and skills they need for specific professions. HPE provides both theoretical and practical training for occupations which require the HPE qualification. The courses are almost always closely linked to a particular field of employment. The *hogescholen* offer together some 125 full-time and part-time study programmes in seven sectors: education, engineering and technology, agriculture, health care, economics and management, behaviour and society and the arts. Some *hogescholen* offer programmes in only one sector.

4 This part is based on the publications *Het HBO: Theorie en praktijk hand in hand,* HBO-raad, 1998 and *The Hogescholen*, Higher Professional Education in the Netherlands, Nuffic, 1996

The strong practical orientation of the study programmes finds expression in internships, which usually account for 25% (up to an entire year) of the programme. Through internships students gain on-the-job experience in their field of training. In addition to full-time and part-time programmes, some *hogescholen* also offer cooperative education. Cooperative education has existed since the beginning of the nineties. In these programmes, the student completes a substantial part of the programme as a paid employee in a company or institute. The degree is the same earned on a normal full-time or part-time higher professional education programme.

Duration of Study

The duration of the study programme is expressed in study points (credits). The standard course consists of 168 study points which correspond to a four year, full-time study period. The maximum enrolment period is 6 years. To earn one study point the average student needs to study 40 hours. Study programmes are designed on the basis of a student being able to earn 42 study points in one year. The average programme entails a foundation year, known as *propedeuse. Hogescholen* have the right to expel students if they do not earn enough study points during this first year. The average student needs 4.2 years to complete his/her study. The completion rate (after five years) of each cohort is over 60%.

Part-time studies and cooperative education have the same study programme and consist of the same number of study points, but can be spread over a longer period.

Over the past few years, demand from business for postgraduate programmes has greatly increased. This is mainly for professionally-oriented part-time programmes for employees with a few years of work experience. Many *hogescholen* are meeting this need by offering, among other options, a master's programme.

Academic Titles

Graduates of 168-credit point programmes are entitled to an academic title and may place the title *baccalaureaus,* abbreviated as bc., or the title "Bachelor" (B.) after their names. Graduates in the fields of technology and agriculture are entitled to the title *ingenieur* (engineer) abbreviated *ing.*, which is placed before the name.

Qualification Framework

A new development is the implementation of national qualifications for every study programme offered in HPE. *Hogescholen* have the freedom to design their own curricula for the study programmes, but since 1997 the *hogescho-*

len have agreed that 70% of their curricula will be based on the national qualifications. The initiative to develop a national standard was taken by the association of *hogescholen,* the *HBO-raad.* The hogescholen collectively agree upon the standards of each study programme within the *HBO-raad.* The qualification framework is not regulated by law.

Qualifications are collectively developed by the faculties on the basis of a professional profile. This professional profile is drawn up under the auspices of a mandatory committee composed of professionals in the field. The profile must describe the core activities of the profession for which the course produces graduates, as well as a description of the tasks resulting from these activities.

Quality Control

The *hogescholen* have their own internal system of quality control. *Hogescholen* are required by law to monitor their own internal standards of quality. In addition, the *hogescholen* have set up a quality control system together in 1989, which is managed by independent commissions visiting the faculties about once every four years and evaluate, in an independent and public report, the quality of the educational programmes. This evaluation report illustrates how well the *hogescholen* meet the demands of the students and the labour market, and also initiates improvement in the quality.

Professional Field

Hogescholen work closely with employers and employers' organisations. In addition to the direct cooperation between the professional field and the faculties with respect to the development of the professional profiles, there is further cooperation in the local region. Most of the institutions which have, in recent years, merged into multi-sectoral *hogescholen* had already been playing such a role in the regional infrastructure for decades. Contacts with regional businesses are necessary in order to procure sufficient internship places, to ensure the quality of the internships and to bring professional skills up to date. Inversely, *hogescholen* are significant suppliers of graduates for the regional labour market. In particular, small and medium-sized businesses are important customers for graduates.

Legislation

It was only in 1986 that the HPE sector officially acquired the status of higher education. Between 1986 and 1993, HPE was given formal status under the Higher Professional Education Act. The Higher Education and Research Act came into effect in 1993. In this act, the HPE sector and the university sector fall under the same legislation. This act guarantees the institutions a large

amount of freedom concerning the direction of the education and the adaptation of the organisation to the times. This law allows *hogescholen* to react quickly and adequately to new social developments. They can independently adapt educational programmes, develop new courses, determine their own priorities, and invest in educational innovations in a timely fashion.

Costs

Hogescholen receive almost 75% of their total educational budget from the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science. This budget is increasingly based on "output financing". This means that a *hogeschool* receives more money if a student leaves the institution with a degree. In addition to government contributions, the *hogescholen* also generate income from student tuition fees (average about 20%) and services to third parties (average about 5%). The tuition fee for a full-time student is 1,250 EUR in the academic year 1998/1999. The study grant and loan system covers the students' costs for the tuition fee.

Over the past few years, the budgets of the *hogescholen* have been under severe pressure due to cutbacks and rising costs. As a result of cutbacks, the available HPE budget has decreased by about 8% over the past five years. In the meanwhile, the government has not compensated for the rises in costs for the same period. This trend will continue in the coming years, if no measures are taken. At the same time, the number of students in HPE programmes is increasing. The average realistic income (excluding housing costs) which is now about 24,000 EUR for each diploma, will fall by about 22% to approximately 19,000 EUR.

Association of Universities of Professional Education

All 59 *hogescholen* are members of the Association of Universities of Professional Education, the *HBO-raad.* The *HBO-raad's* most important goals are to develop higher professional education in relation to the needs of society, and to promote the collective interests of the members. The *hogescholen* work together within the association and strive to reach agreements concerning educational policy and financial issues. The association's task as an employers' association is to negotiate the collective terms of employment with the general trade unions representing the HPE sector. The *HBO-raad* is responsible for the quality control system in HPE. *Hogescholen* pay dues to finance the budget of the association.

2. Binary System

The Higher Education and Research Act separates the university sector from the HPE sector. The most important difference is that universities have the legal obligation to carry out research, in addition to providing education. The

question whether or not the differentiation between both types of higher education is still relevant is widely discussed both within and outside higher education. However, at this moment the government is not aiming to abolish the binary system. Nevertheless, the new Minister of Education, Culture and Sciences, Loek Hermans, does not exclude the possibility of a legal merger between universities and *hogescholen* in the near future. Recently, he has expressed interest in structural cooperation between institutions in both sectors.

The HPE sector, represented by the *HBO-raad,* does not aim at the abolishment of the binary system of higher education either. It does, however, request the Minister to remove a number of inflexibilities affecting *hogescholen* which are directly related to the binary structure. These inflexibilities mainly concern the legal exclusion of *hogescholen* from a role in the acquisition of new knowledge through applied research. The acquisition of new knowledge is, in the perception of the *hogescholen,* necessary for the permanent innovation of the curricula and the professionalisation of the teaching staff. A readjustment of components of the Act could be the outcome of negotiations which are currently prepared in the higher education policy plan. This plan, HOOP 2000, will define the general policy outlines for the coming four years.

Although the structure of the binary system is not formally reviewed, in practice a number of initiatives of cooperation are carried out. The Higher Education and Research Act gives institutions the latitude to experiment with and to implement new educational programmes, as long as these experiments do not aim at a legal merger of universities and *hogescholen* and do not require government funding. Two cooperation initiatives between universities and *hogescholen* are briefly described below.

Master's Programmes

At this moment, *hogescholen* offer roughly 50 master's programmes. These postgraduate programmes are not financed by the government. The master title is not protected by law as an official title offered in Dutch higher education, although university graduates are allowed to use the master title. However, the government has agreed to an experiment in which an independent organisation, the Dutch Validation Council (DVC), validates master's programmes in higher professional education. This experiment was begun in 1996 under the auspices of the *HBO-raad.* These master's programmes are mostly professionally oriented. To date, nine programmes have been validated and recognised for a period of four years by the DVC. Four programmes received a validation for a shorter period and four programmes did not fulfil the criteria and were therefore not awarded validation. The validation process is carried out by committees, the members of which are chosen on the basis of scientific and profession-specific expertise. Not only *hogescholen,* but also

universities and private institutions have expressed interest in a validation of their master's programmes by DVC.

The majority of the master's programmes in HPE are offered via franchise agreements with English universities. These master's programmes are subject to quality assurance in the UK and *hogescholen* award graduates the master's Degree on the basis of the English legal framework. *Hogescholen* view these master's programmes as an important product of theirs on the international education market. The programmes are mostly taught in the English language, which also makes them accessible for foreign students.

Cooperation between Universities and Hogescholen

At this moment several universities and *hogescholen* have set up cooperation programmes. It is foreseeable that in geographical areas where both sectors of higher education are situated close to each other, structural cooperation will rapidly develop in the coming years. An example of this new trend is the cooperation experiment started in 1998 between the University of Amsterdam and the *hogeschool* van Amsterdam. Besides cooperation in auxiliary services, both institutions offer students the possibility of following an "orientation" year before officially commencing their studies in higher education. In this year, which, by the way, is not financed by the government, students can become acquainted with programmes at both the university and HPE levels. In this way, students get an introduction to the variations in programmes and study process. In this way they can make a conscious decision before commencing their studies in higher education. Also, instructors at both institutions work together in this experiment. This is expected to facilitate the movement of students between university and *hogeschool and vice versa.*

General Issues Related to the Discussion on the Binary System

In the discussion about the future of the binary system, not only the issue of efficient itineraries of study in HPE is raised. This discussion is connected with the broad national and international policy developments in higher education, of which the four most important ones are briefly discussed below.

a Lifelong Learning

Diversification of the environment surrounding HPE is conducive to the diversification of the demand for the *hogeschool's* products and services. Thus, the general expectation is that participants are also changing. HPE will have to adapt to the ever-changing demand for education. The traditional student (aged between 18 and 22 and entering HPE directly after graduating from secondary school) will no longer be the most important customer. Non-tradi-

tional target groups (skilled workers, ethnic minorities, job seekers, etc.) will increasingly start to follow HPE programmes. Furthermore the fixed offer of programmes at fixed moments will pervade less in HPE. Flexibility, by way of a differentiated offer of programmes and the development of lifelong learning routes, is now a priority policy issue in HPE.

b Knowledge Institutions

Besides changing patterns in the participation in higher education, the diversification of the environment is likewise perceptible in the way in which HPE attracts investment. At present, + 5% of the budget of *hogescholen* comes from the provision of services to other parties. In view of the regional function which *hogescholen* serve for small and medium size businesses, *hogescholen* are active, in the framework of this (regional) "knowledge infrastructure", in offering particular products. Activities in the field of applied research can also be included in this respect. This means that the *hogeschool* is increasingly less a "school" where knowledge is transferred, and more emphatically an "entrepreneur in knowledge and knowledge acquisition". The *hogeschool* must translate this new knowledge into new, high-grade applications in the curricula. With this, the *hogeschool* has become one of the professional field partners in development and applications.

This development presents itself in the whole of higher education and illustrates that in this ever-changing environment, the missions of universities and *hogescholen* will remain different in some points, but at the same time will also exhibit large similarities.

c International Collaboration

Arguments with respect to internationalisation are also mentioned in the discussion about the future of the binary system. *Hogescholen* meet with obstacles in their international contacts and relationships, primarily outside of Europe, due to the unfamiliarity of the Dutch binary system and the place of the HPE sector in the system of higher education. Nearly all of the programmes offered in Dutch HPE are placed at the university level in countries which do not have a binary system. This is also the case for countries within Europe. Examples are the fine and performing art programmes offered in The Netherlands in the HPE sector, and also the programmes in journalism and education/teacher training, which are offered by universities virtually everywhere else in the world.

For programmes in, for example, engineering, technology, economics and business administration, which are offered in both the university and the HPE sectors, the distinction is no easier to understand for outsiders. The formal parameters used for the international evaluation of diplomas as a *typical* university characteristic have become less significant in the Dutch setting.

Research assignments and theses as compulsory components of the university curriculum are no longer exclusive “university” characteristics. These aspects of the curriculum have become less important due to the vocationally motivated elements (e.g. internships) taking a more significant place at a growing number of disciplines in the universities. It can be observed that these particular elements have increasingly become integral parts of the curricula in the HPE sector. Moreover, in most educational programmes in the HPE sector, a final thesis is now included in the curriculum.

Although some observers describe these developments as *vocational drift* in the case of universities and *academic drift* in the HPE sector, they clearly show the complexity and diversity of the binary system. In the context of this article, the complexity of developments in the binary system cannot be explained in detail, but the following trends are related to the issue.

Firstly, the differences between the university and the HPE sector can only be explained by the historical development of the higher education system in The Netherlands. Most *hogescholen* were founded as private institutions by industries and enterprises to meet their specific needs.

Secondly, the research tasks of universities are no longer directly linked in the organisational setting with the educational tasks, since most universities have placed research activities in special *research schools*. It is therefore difficult to differentiate the university from the HPE sector from an educational perspective.

Thirdly, also the individual student’s character cannot be clearly defined as “the” hogeschool-student or “the” university student. One third of all HPE students have the same entrance qualifications as the university students, and an important number of university students have followed an HPE programme before entering university.

Finally, with respect to the labour market in the Netherlands, the disparity between university and HPE graduates in personnel advertisements is becoming increasingly ambiguous for a large number of job functions, especially for jobs related to programmes offered in both sectors. This also demonstrates that the labour market does not clearly differentiate between the educational outcomes of the two sectors of higher education.

d European Policy Developments

An international development which will undoubtedly stimulate the discussion about the binary system is the Sorbonne Declaration, which, on the 25 May 1998, was issued by the Ministers of Education in France, Germany, Italy and Great Britain. In this declaration, it was expressly announced that these countries will strive towards a two-tier structure of higher education along the lines of the Anglo-Saxon model. The Bologna declaration, signed on 19 June 1999 by 30 Ministers of Education from EU/EEA countries also expresses

the commitment to achieve “the adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate”.

Moreover, in Germany the new *Hochschulrahmengesetz* (higher education framework act) will allow *Fachhochschulen* to offer master’s degrees as well as the bachelor’s degree. With this law, German legislation has taken the lead over the Dutch Higher Education and Research Act, which does not provide this possibility for *hogescholen.* One of the most recognisable characteristics of the German system is that the new legislation unsettles the binary system. It is also striking is that in the German discussion, the acknowledgement and recognition of the qualities of education and offers of the *Fachhochschulen* in the international context have been important arguments for the plea to be allowed to offer master’s programmes.

3. Internationalisation

National Programme for Internationalisation: STIR

All *hogescholen* are at this moment involved, in some way, in activities aimed at internationalisation. The Dutch government has played an important role in the stimulation of internationalisation of *hogescholen.* In 1988, the national stimulation programme STIR was instituted. Shortly before, the European programme ERASMUS was also established.

The primary goal of STIR was the improvement in the quality of higher education. Although STIR targeted both the university and the HPE sector, since 1990 priority was given specifically to HPE for extra means of stimulation. From 1993 to 1996, the government made 4.5 million EUR available annually for HPE, considerably more than the budget for the universities during the same period (0.9 million EUR annually). This extra stimulus for HPE was necessary because this sector was substantially behind the universities with respect to internationalisation.

The responsibility for the intensification of the international orientation and cooperation rested initially with the *hogescholen.* As a result of the new autonomy the government granted the *hogescholen,* the means for this new programme were conferred to the *HBO-raad.* In the inceptive years (1988-1990), priority was given to the mobility of students and staff. In the period from 1991 to 1993, emphasis was given to project applications for structural cooperation with foreign partners. In practise, STIR was still utilised during this period, to a large extent, to finance mobility. In the concluding period (1994-1996), the emphasis was on joint curriculum development within that structural cooperation.

The STIR programme ended in 1997. The former Minister of Education wrote to the Dutch Parliament in July 1998 that abolishment of this stimulus regulation was legitimate because internationalisation in higher education had

become “mature”. This interpretation of the situation of internationalisation in higher education was not endorsed by the *hogescholen* and universities. An independent evaluation of the STIR programme made clear in 1996 that the abolishment of STIR would most probably lead to a decline in student mobility, particularly in the HPE sector.[5] STIR had exercised a positive stimulation in internationalisation because the programme was student- and institution-friendly; the application procedure was simple; students could receive grants for internships abroad and, above all, STIR had no limitations for destinations outside of Europe.

Student Mobility

In the period between 1993 and 1997, over 3,500 HPE students went abroad annually with a STIR grant.[6] Half of these students went to destinations outside Europe. In the same period in the HPE sector, roughly 2,000 students went abroad per year within Europe with the support of an ERASMUS scholarship. LEONARDO scholarships were less frequently awarded to HPE students; between 1993 and 1997 roughly 400 students set out with a LEONARDO grant.

In 1997/1998, more ERASMUS scholarships were awarded to HPE students than to university students: 2,340 HPE students compared to 1,835 university students. If we compare these statistics to the total number of students in HPE (285,000) and the universities (160,000), one can conclude that HPE still lags behind, but is making up its deficit.

Besides the European programmes, the Dutch government has financed a limited number of scholarship programmes, in financial terms, since STIR was abolished. These scholarship programmes are, however, much less accessible to the HPE sector, owing to their selective character and, in some ways, bias towards the university student.

The number of students going abroad for studies or internships without financial support is not precisely estimable because these students are not included in the statistics of exchange programmes. On the basis of an extensive inquiry held annually under HPE graduates, a rough estimation can be made. Results of this inquiry show that 18% of HPE graduates in 1997 had study or internship experience abroad.[7] The *HBO-raad* estimated that 25% of these graduates paid the entire costs of their foreign study/internship themselves. This figure will undoubtedly increase, since STIR scholarships represented almost half of all financial support for mobility, especially for mobility

5 *Onbegrensd studeren*, J.Prins, A. Claassen & J. Warps, IOWO, 1996
6 *Bison-monitor, monitor van internationale mobiliteit in het onderwijs*, Nuffic, juni 1998
7 *De arbeidsmarktpositie van afgestudeerden van het hoger beroepsonderwijs, HBO-monitor 1997*, HBO-raad 1998

in the field of internships.[8] In the annual inquiry of 1998 again a 18% of HPE graduates mentioned a study or internship experience abroad. 48% of all graduates in agriculture have been abroad for an internship and also a substantial number of students in economics (25%) had an international experience during their studies.[9] The above figures show that HPE students are very interested in placements in companies abroad. Figures for the total number of university students who go abroad for studies or internships are not available.

Participation of HPE students in ERASMUS declined sharply (30%) between 1996 and 1997. This decline was already perceived during the final years of the STIR scholarship. It is not yet clear if this decrease in interest in studies/ internships abroad has become structural. In 1997/1998 the mobility rate stabilised on the level of 1996/1997. A study on mobility trends in higher education shows that not only the discontinuation of generic stimulation seems to have caused the decline in interest, but that other deterring factors, such as the strict rules of the student grant and loan system, also play an important role.[10]

Curriculum Development Projects

An overview of the participation in SOCRATES in 1997/1998 shows that *hogescholen* actively participate in all the activities of this European programme. The HPE sector participates in 30 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) projects, whereas universities participate in five ECTS projects. Furthermore, some 13 *hogescholen* participate in advanced and 13 in intermediate curriculum development projects, the same number of CD projects as in the university sector. Finally, participation in intensive projects is also equally divided (23 projects in *hogescholen* and 22 in universities).

For teaching staff exchanges, it is not possible to provide an estimated number. The statistics do not differentiate the take-up rate of the exchange of teachers at universities and *hogescholen.*[11] However, the exchange of teachers is difficult to organise, as teachers in HPE have a heavy teaching load and are less flexible than university teachers to leave the institution for a longer period.

Besides the SOCRATES programme the Dutch government has initiated in 1997 new programmes to stimulate cross-border cooperation between institutions bordering on Flanders and Germany, the intensification of activities on the international education market, and the cooperation between so-called

8 In the 1995/1996 roughly 50.000 students completed their study with a degree. It is estimated that 9,000 students of this cohort went abroad for study or internship. Of these students some 2,000 students received an Erasmus scholarship; 4,000 a Stir-scholarship and 400 a Leonardo scholarship during their study.

9 *De arbeidsmarktpositie van afgestudeerden van het hoger beroepsonderwijs, HBO-monitor 1998*, HBO-raad 1999

10 *Actuele ontwikkelingen in de studentenmobiliteit,* Liduine Bremer, in Thema number 5, 1998

11 Figures provided by Nuffic, the national agency for the SOCRATES programme in the Netherlands.

international consortia of educational institutions. Mainly, all activities in the framework of cross-border cooperation and international consortia aim at the stimulation of curriculum development projects and/or institutional cooperation.

Language Knowledge

The much-heard explanation that the lack of language skills is responsible for impeding students is not cited in The Netherlands as an obstacle for participation in exchange programmes. However, there is undoubtedly a link between the English language and the preference of students to do their studies/internships in Great Britain.

Language skills at the beginning of studies are not markedly different between HPE and university students, with the exception of the group of students who have completed primary vocational training. This group, roughly one third of the entering HPE students, often lack language proficiency. It is, however, not known whether this group makes less use of exchange programmes.

Professional Infrastructure

From the various evaluations carried out, it is apparent that STIR has provided an important contribution to the internationalisation of *hogescholen.* The extra financial stimulus given to HPE in comparison to the universities has given the *hogescholen* the necessary room to develop cooperation relationships and to integrate internationalisation into the comprehensive policies and management of the institutions. This development coincided with the creation, in the early 1990's, of large autonomous *hogescholen.*

The commitment of an Institutional Contract, which is part of the new SOCRATES programme, requires institutions to draw up a central plan of policy outlining the goals of internationalisation.

An investigation of Van Dijk shows that most universities have a centrally organised internationalisation office, so-called foreign offices[12]. These offices are generally staffed with more than five full time employees. *Hogescholen,* on the other hand, usually have fewer than two full time central employees and generally conduct their internationalisation activities decentrally. If these statistics are weighed against differences in numbers of students, the disparity largely disappears. Nevertheless, Van Dijk questions whether one full time employee is sufficient for an effective internationalisation policy.

The issue of effective organisation of internationalisation has been frequently brought up in recent years within the institutions (primarily in the universities) which had predominantly organised their internationalisation centrally. In

12 *Beleidsmatige en organisatorische vormgeving. Voor het uitbouwen en verankeren van internationalisering*, Hans van Dijk, in Thema, number 3, 1995

practise, much reorganisation was carried out during recent years, with the general tendency in universities to place internationalisation decentrally - within the faculties.

The organisational design of the policies of internationalisation displays great variation between the various *hogescholen.* The size of the *hogeschool* clearly plays a role in this, but is not wholly definitive. There are small, specialised *hogescholen,* for example in the agricultural sector, which have a highly professional organisation with regard to internationalisation. The conditions for a successful internationalisation policy are not so much determined by the size of the *hogeschool,* but by a clear mission with respect to internationalisation, which is widely conveyed within the institution and thus at the management level. This mission should for that matter be integrated in the general policies of the institution.

Differences in Internationalisation between the University and the HPE Sector

Universities have traditionally had an advantage with regard to two specific aspects of internationalisation. First, international cooperation has its roots in the research duties of the universities. In the 1980's, many universities did not have extensive networks in the field of student exchange, but research was often performed across borders. These scientific networks were used to establish institutional contacts and student exchanges in the framework of the ERASMUS programme.

A second area where universities have built up a long tradition of cooperation is in the Third World. *Hogescholen* have started development cooperation with organisations in the Third World only during the last ten years, with the exception of the specialised institutions for agricultural studies. One instance is, for example, the cooperation in the field of basic education, which started in 1997 with the objective of having teacher training institutions in The Netherlands and the Third World work together in the field of basic education. In the field of development cooperation, it cannot yet be said that the deficiency has been made up for. This can be ascribed to the unfamiliarity of the Third World with the HPE sector. There is also a lack of specific knowledge on this specific field within many *hogescholen.* Another point in this respect is that many Dutch mediators (e.g. at embassies and intermediary organisations) have a university background themselves, and are therefore unfamiliar with the offer and quality of higher professional education.

Future of Internationalisation

In the near future, *hogescholen* are expected to release more funds from their overall budget for the stimulation of internationalisation. To what extent the *hogescholen* will actually do this, one cannot say. In view of the difficult financial position of *hogescholen,* the general expectation is that only the

hogescholen which have explicitly included internationalisation in their mission statements (e.g. by instituting a fund for mobility) will exert themselves after 1999. Beyond student mobility, the question is likewise how far *hogescholen* are willing to invest in international curriculum development to supplement eventual activities within the framework of the European programmes. This does not mean that the need to participate in these sorts of activities would be diminished. This is not the case.

The present-day initiatives from the Dutch government are aimed at one specific area: the cross-border cooperation between institutions in the border regions of Flanders and Germany. Furthermore, universities and *hogescholen* have shown an interest to become active players on the international education market, among other things by the recruitment of paying students. An example is the foundation of the Dutch Education Centre in Indonesia, an initiative of some 30 institutions.

These priorities will most probably result in the decision by a number of *hogescholen* not to invest in these activities of internationalisation. Other priorities in the field of internationalisation will undoubtedly become increasingly more important. This will include the cooperation in the field of international distance learning modules/programmes and international accreditation of study programmes.

In the development of *hogescholen* towards knowledge institutions with a specific regional function, it is expected that *hogescholen* become more and more professional partners of industry. A new trend is the cooperation with local industries and the support of *hogescholen* in world-wide training services.

Widar Hvamb
Secretary General, The Norwegian Council of State Colleges
Svein Arild Pedersen
Director of International Relations, Agder College, Norway

Norway

This report is divided in two parts. Part I focuses on the general aspects of non-university higher education in Norway (points 1 and 4 in the ACA checklist for authors of the national reports). Part II gives more specific information on *Høgskolen i Agder/ Agder College* (points 2,3,5-10 in the ACA checklist).

In Norway, non-university higher education institutions are equated with the state colleges. For a short description of other institutions in the non-university sector, please see chapter 1, non-university institutions.

Part I: Non-University Higher Education in Norway

1. Non-University Institutions

The college sector consists of 26 state colleges and two art colleges, the result of the restructuring of 98 public non-university institutions in 1994. The colleges vary in size; from the smallest with 170 students, to the largest with 8,050 students. Around 75,000 students attend the state colleges (the number of students is roughly the same as for the universities).

In addition, there are several private higher education institutions, catering for some 10% of the total Norwegian student population. Private institutions may only receive state funding for recognised study programmes, but they are not automatically entitled to such support. In 1996, there were 19 private higher education institutions which received state funding for (part of) their activities, and three institutions with recognised study programmes without such funding. The private education institutions cover a wide spectrum of study programmes, from theology and religious studies, teacher education, nursing and social work education, to ballet, music, engineering, computer technology, business administration and marketing. Though most of these institutions offer programmes at the lower degree level, some have programmes for higher degrees, and two, the Free Faculty of Theology and the Norwegian School of Management BI, can confer doctor's degrees.

2. Typical Subject Areas

Most programmes are profession-specific, their graduates becoming professional or para-professional personnel in areas such as teaching at preschool or compulsory school level, engineering, social work, health services, administration, economics, librarianship, journalism, etc.

3. Structure of Courses/Degrees

Undergraduate level

Candidatus/Candidata magisterii (cand. mag.): this degree is offered at universities and state colleges, and at some university colleges. The *cand.mag.* degree normally requires four years of study, with exams totalling 80 *vekttall*[1], or 240 ECTS Credits. The *cand.mag.* degree implies a general education, which means that students have considerable choice when selecting subjects leading to the degree.

Høgskolekandidat: this is a final diploma or title awarded by the state colleges upon completion of a two to three-year study programme. A *cand.mag.* degree may be obtained by further study within the state college system (regional *cand.mag.*) or by attending university. In addition, a small number of state colleges offer the graduate degrees of *siviløkonom (siv.øk.)* in economics and of *sivilingeniør (siv.ing.)* in engineering. Other graduate programmes offered by the state colleges are in the process of being established.

Professional Titles: The professional study programmes give the right to use a professional title. Most of the study programmes last three years. Physiotherapists, prosthetic and orthotic engineers, and registered public accountants must have one to two years of practice after completion of studies to be recognised.

Høgskoleingeniør: three-year education from one of the fields of study at the Faculty of Engineering gives the right to the title of *høgskoleingeniør* (College Engineer).

Law protects both the professional titles and the title *høgskoleingeniør.*

Graduate level

In some cases the state colleges award graduate degrees. Graduate degrees are based on the cand.mag. degree, and may be earned by extending the major field of study beyond undergraduate level. Graduate degrees are normally awarded upon completion of two additional years of graduate study (40 *vekttall*/120 ECTS Credits).

---

1 At Norwegian institutions of higher education, courses are measured in *vekttall,* the Norwegian term for credit units. The normal work load for one semester is ten vekttall, which is equal to 30 ECTS Credits

Master's Degree

Some state colleges offer master's degree programmes in cooperation with foreign institutions. The foreign institutions confer the degree.

The state colleges have recently been given the opportunity to offer master's degrees on a trial basis. Several colleges are currently in the process of applying to the Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs for the right to introduce master's degree programmes from autumn 1999 onwards.

Doctoral Studies

Doctoral degrees are awarded upon completion of a three to four year academic programme at the highest level of study. Given the completion of certain criteria (currently being worked out), state colleges will from now on be able to award doctoral degrees. So far three state colleges are applying to the Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs for the right to award doctoral degrees.

4. Finance

Funding is provided almost entirely from the public budget. There are no tuition fees in the public institutions. Funding is based on the previous year's budget, with adjustments taking into account inflation and increased enrolments, and incremental funding for the latter varying according to the number and level of the new study places.

The financial conditions for higher education are well below (20%) the OECD level measured in means per student. Since the restructuring of the non-university sector in 1994, the state colleges have experienced large cuts and a steadily declining economy.

5. Governance/Management

Governance in tertiary education has shifted from regulatory mechanisms to an approach emphasising strategic goal-setting, close monitoring at the central political level and increased institutional autonomy in teaching and research. Recent legislation provides for streamlined governance arrangements, wider participation from external stakeholders on smaller governing bodies in the institutions and enhanced decision-making powers at the institution level. Permanent administrative posts exist for director, registrar, etc. Academic leadership up to and including the rector is elected for limited terms. The government has initiated a Network Norway Council to act as a general advisory body to the Ministry, produce strategies for quality monitoring, which has replaced specialised bodies and councils. Wide system evaluation and quality assurance processes are still evolving, with experience gained through pilot projects and institutional initiatives.

Each institution is governed by a Board and a College Council. The Board is an institution's highest governing body. The Board makes strategic decisions on the institution's educational, research and other academic activities and adopts plans for its scientific development in accordance with the goals established by the authorities for the sector and the institution. The Board consists of the Rector, the Vice-Rector, two to five members elected from among the academic staff, one or two members elected from among the technical and administrative staff, two or three members elected from among the students, and two to four external members. The Rector is the chairman of the Board. The College Council advises the Board on matters related to the principal directions of the institution's activities, or it raises important questions of principle relating to them. The academic staff, including Rector and Vice-Rector, hold the majority in the governing bodies.

6. Structures

The state colleges are regulated under the same structure and legislation as the universities and university colleges, and are on the same academic level. In 1995, a common Act for both colleges and universities was passed to replace separate Acts. The Act is very wide-ranging, addressing such matters as governance, admission regulations, institutional patterns, career structures, curricula, and the conferring of degrees. While institutional autonomy is largely present in teaching and research and there is increased delegation of governance to the institutions, the Ministry has substantial power, especially over budgets.

7. Research

Increasing and improving the research activity is a national goal for Norway, and the state colleges play an important role in this process with their profession-specific programmes. The colleges are viewed by the authorities as important actors in regional development in areas like research and the development of competence. They assume that colleges face the challenges in these fields, in order to further strengthen the regions across the country. Unfortunately, there has been, and still is, a struggle for the state colleges to be accepted as equals to other institutions of higher education, regarding the quality of research and development. Consequently, they stand a poorer chance of receiving research funds and other research support.

8. Regional Links

The state colleges, previously called regional colleges, have been a particular target for government policy, aiming at promoting the development and supporting the distinctiveness of regions, but also extending educational

opportunities broadly across the country and strengthening the scientific and technical basis for traditionally craft-based industries.

Partnerships between the state colleges and industry, the professions, the public sector and other "consumers" of tertiary education occur at local level. In addition, there are strong links with pre-primary, primary and secondary education institutions in the regions.

9. Boundaries between University and Non-University Higher Education Institutions

Several trends in tertiary education are contributing to the blurring of boundaries between university and non-university higher education institutions in Norway:

- All higher education institutions are regulated by the same legislation;
- The state colleges have been given the right (in principle) to award doctor's degrees;
- Some state colleges offer the same academic programmes as the universities and confer the same degrees;
- It is becoming easier for students to progress or move from institution to institution, i.e. between different state colleges or between state colleges and universities;
- Entry into state colleges has become an attractive alternative to university entry.

The universities have also regional roles and relations and the colleges are increasingly internationalist in outlook. Moreover, through a variety of central control measures, i.e. national curricula in teacher education, nursing and engineering, the colleges are part of a single national system. Local, regional and national features combine to form a unique blend. Tertiary education is experiencing substantial if often quite subtle change whereby local, regional, national and international roles and interests are being brought together with different emphases and balances in all institutions, whether large or small, college or university.

Another significant feature contributing to the blurring of boundaries is that universities abroad do not seem any longer to be concentrating on cooperation with Norwegian universities at the expense of the state colleges. On the contrary, there are examples that European higher education institutions appreciate the flexibility of the state colleges.

Full participation of non-university institutions in the European (SOCRATES/ LEONARDO DA VINCI) and Nordic (NORDPLUS) educational programmes necessitates conferences and seminars at national level, thus creating a meeting place for international coordinators from universities and state colleges. The Norwegian National SOCRATES Agency, the centre for International University Cooperation (SIU), acts as a "mediator" between universi-

ties, university colleges and state colleges. The dominant feature of such conferences is that institutions representing both categories are mutually inspired. Consequently, the internationalisation process in the tertiary system of education is a major factor contributing to broader contact and mutual inspiration which in its turn entails a blurring of traditional differences and creates greater similarities.

Part II: Agder College – A Case Study

1. Introduction

Agder College was formally established in 1994 through a merger of six previously independent colleges. Inspired by the organisational structure of the universities, Agder College is divided into seven faculties, namely:

- Faculty of Arts;
- Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences;
- Faculty of Education;
- Faculty of Engineering;
- Faculty of Health and Sport;
- Faculty of Mathematics and Sciences;
- Faculty of Music and Fine Arts.

Teacher education, a major unit at many of the Norwegian non-university institutions, is normally organised as a separate faculty. In the merging process Agder College decided on a different model by setting up an Advisory Committee for Teacher Education, relying on the academic resources of six of the faculties.

With 6,000 students and close to 600 academic and administrative staff, Agder College is among the largest colleges in the non-university sector, offering more than 100 academic and professional programmes. Some of the major professional programmes (teacher education, nursing and social work) involve school practice, practical experience in the national health service and public institutions in the region and abroad.

2. Internationalisation – Some AC Facts

Being the southernmost state college in Norway with easy access to our neighbours and the rest of the continent, Agder College has long traditions for international cooperation. This applies not only to research and dissemination, but also to student and staff exchange. Whereas research cooperation is difficult to measure since much of it takes place on an individual basis, student and staff exchange is institutionalised and therefore easier to trace. Such exchange has increased dramatically in the 1990s, especially since

1992/93 when Norway as an EEA member got full access to the educational and training programmes launched by the European Commission in the late 80s.

Agder College statistics show the following development in student mobility:

Academic year	Incoming students	Outgoing students	Total number of students
1994/95	39	61	100
1995/96	68	76	144
1996/97	94	62	156
1997/98	88	89	177
1998/99	107	115	222

In addition to an average yearly increase in total student mobility of 25%, the dominant feature is that we now receive more students than we send out in spite of foreign students' misconceptions about climatic conditions and their realistic ideas about the difficulties of learning the Norwegian language and surviving financially in a high-cost country.

Teaching staff exchange also increased after the introduction of the SOCRATES Institutional Contract. In 1998/99 about 10% of the academic staff will go on exchange, normally for one to two weeks.

Most international cooperation is channelled through approximately 75 partner institutions. The vast majority of these partners come under the Nordic and European educational and professional programmes, but over the past few years several bilateral agreements have been signed with universities in the USA, Asia, Africa and Australia. Interestingly enough, some of these government-supported cooperation programmes involve student and staff exchange and research. Research projects are normally within professional subject areas like economics, public administration, renewable energy and information and communication technology (ICT).

3. Agder College and the Universities – A Structural Comparison

Agder College and the other non-university institutions of higher education still have to catch up with the universities as far as international cooperation is concerned. This applies to the quantity rather than the quality of such cooperation, and the reason for this is historic rather than structural. Recent development indicates that Agder College is catching up with the universities. This is not least due to the fact that our institution, like the universities,

has allocated resources to establish an international office at the central level, manned by 4,5 administrative staff. In addition, there is growing awareness at faculty and department levels that academic staff members have to act in close cooperation with the international office to consolidate and further develop the quality and quantity of international cooperation.

Large numbers of students and more money from the government for research give the universities more room for allocation of resources to meet international challenges. Apart from the lack of resources caused by the substantial cuts in budgets for the non-university sector since the merging process in 1994, there are no other obstacles to international cooperation compared with the universities. For Agder College and the other state colleges it is a question of realising the importance of having an international approach. Agder College is fully aware that internationalisation in the broadest sense has become a new arena of competition in the tertiary sector, not least in the fight to recruit Norwegian students. It is our qualified guess that institutions in the non-university sector will increase resources for internationalisation purposes in the years to come and bring funding to a level which, relatively speaking, is equal to that of the universities.

4. Regional Development and Internationalisation – A Synergy Effect?

Being *the* regional institution of higher education and firmly rooted in the region, Agder College is conscious of its function as one of the major sources of inspiration in the economic, social and cultural development of the Agder region. We strongly believe in our role as one of the pillars in the local and regional society through a highly qualified teaching staff and sustainable academic and professional environments. In addition, we also contribute nationally and internationally by actively participating in different networks.

The firm local roots are safeguarded and further developed by frequent and mutually beneficial cooperation projects with local and regional industrial clusters, business life, *Agderforskning* (regional research institute), schools, the public sector and cultural institutions. This creates positive innovation, strengthens the regional interactive learning process and develops regional competence.

There is a growing understanding that the presence of Agder College creates positive effects in the region and makes it more attractive for new development and business projects. This is a win-win effect because as an institution of higher education (which in many respects is at university level), it becomes more attractive in the recruitment of both students and staff. It is therefore our ambition to become a university offering a combination of university and professional programmes.

There is, however, no direct link between our strong regional basis and international efforts and strategy. The international commitment is based on our

academic and professional interest in interaction with the outside world, the wish to be an attractive partner in student and staff exchange and last but not least to be able to offer the home-based students an international environment in the three campus towns. In other words, it is our faculties and departments who have developed this international approach based on their own and their students' need for European, Australian and American partnerships and government-supported research/exchange programmes with African and South East Asian universities. The most important inspiration has no doubt been the educational programmes initiated by the European Commission. It is our hope and ambition that gradually stronger interaction with regional business life will contribute to further develop our international cooperation.

5. Cooperation with Business and Industry

Two of the Agder College faculties, the Faculty of Engineering and the Faculty of Economics, are business and industry-oriented. It is, however, mostly in the case of the former faculty that this orientation has had substantial implications on the internationalisation process. The willingness of local and regional ICT companies and metallurgic/mechanical industries to welcome foreign students on placement for up to one year has in its turn enabled the faculty to send students and staff on exchange to higher education institutions abroad.

6. Applied Teaching / Research and Internationalisation – A Synergy Effect?

Teaching, research and dissemination are the prime tasks of any institution in the tertiary sector. The many study programmes offered by Agder College include both professional and academic programmes. Agder College also educates researchers in some selected subject areas.

Professional programmes at Agder College, based on applied teaching and research, depend on good contact and interaction with businesses and public institutions at home and abroad. This is reflected in our international cooperation through the Nordic and European educational programmes in addition to purely bilateral cooperation agreements. It should be underlined that the national cooperation aspect is far more important than the international one and that Agder College sees no exclusive and typical international activity spectrum specific to Norwegian non-university institutions, with one exception: our international partners in some of the professional programmes (engineering, nursing and teacher education) strongly request our cooperation in finding placements for their students. Being successful in this field, Agder College is able to send students and staff on exchange programmes to a carefully selected group of both university and non-university partners.

7. Foreign Language Qualifications

Being regulated by common legislation, Norwegian universities and state colleges demand the same qualifications when admitting students and employing staff. Consequently, there is no difference in linguistic competence between students admitted to universities and state colleges. English is their second language (taught in both primary and secondary school, at least 10 years of English instruction), and they graduate from secondary school with either German or French as the third language. As far as teaching staff is concerned, there is no substantial difference in foreign language qualifications between the university and non-university sectors.

Foreign language qualifications are nevertheless a major hindrance when sending students to universities where the language of instruction is not English. As long as our partner institutions in Germany, France, Spain etc. offer very few courses taught in English, the lack of language competence is a major factor contributing to less mobility from Agder College and other Norwegian higher education institutions than what the students desire.

The reluctance among teaching staff abroad to give courses in English is shared by Agder College teaching staff as well, with some exceptions, particularly among staff members in the Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences. This reluctance leads to specially designed courses for international students (in teacher education and public administration). Furthermore, it leads to the frequent and valuable use of placements in industry and public institutions for foreign students hosted by the Faculty of Engineering. It is therefore fair to say that Agder College would be able to receive more international exchange students provided that the academic staff would overcome the language barrier by offering more courses taught in English.

8. Is Size Important?

The bigger an institution is, the wider is normally the range of study programmes. In spite of hosting only some 6,000 students, a low number in international terms, Agder College offers more than 100 programmes. As we see, other factors than size are more important for the breadth and depth of international cooperation:

- The quality of the programmes offered by the host institution;
- The international orientation and enthusiasm of the academic staff;
- The administrative support offered by the international office.

The best way of achieving both quality and quantity in international cooperation is to bring academic staff together and give them the necessary administrative back-up.

9. Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning

Until 1995 there were great differences between the universities and state colleges concerning the obligation to offer and organise continuing education programmes. The universities were exempted from this obligation, but now all institutions in the tertiary system provide such offers in the field of their respective study programmes. For historic reasons and based on their combination of academic and professional programmes, Agder College and other state colleges have certain advantages compared with the universities when it comes to playing an important role in lifelong learning.

Continuing education, especially in teacher education and nursing, is one of the fastest growing activities at Agder College. A separate office was established as early as the beginning of the 1990s and is today manned by six administrative staff organising on a yearly basis 140 courses, conferences, seminars and workshops involving more than 5,000 participants. In addition, some 600 students are enrolled in 22 different continuing education programmes (credit courses and ordinary study programmes).

This activity has only to some degree involved international cooperation, mainly with other Nordic teacher education institutions. In addition, Agder College cooperates with the Danish Teacher Education College to establish a future long-distance continuing education programme in school librarianship. Apart from that, the international aspect of this activity has been limited to foreign participation at international conferences and an exchange agreement within social pedagogics, one of the continuing education programmes.

10. Internationalisation in a Strategic Perspective

Agder College has lately seen a major change in the institutional commitment to international cooperation. *Ad hoc* activities initiated in the early 1990s have been substituted by a more strategy-oriented approach. This new approach was to a large extent launched by two initiatives:

- The College Board, advocating the ambition to become the fifth university in Norway;
- The European Commission, encouraging higher education institutions throughout the EU/EEA area to develop their own European Policy Statement (EPS) in order to be eligible for financial support under the SOCRATES education programme.

The College Board initiative started a strategic process across the faculties, resulting in a strategy document in which internationalisation is one of several elements contributing to reach the overall aim of becoming the next university. This document is now being revised, and the College Board has singled out internationalisation as one of the focus points that will be given special attention.

Maria de Fátima Morgado
Vice-Presidente, Instituto Politécnico do Porto, Portugal

Portugal

Introduction

The Education Frame Law *(Lei de Bases do Ensino)* of 1989 clearly divided Portuguese higher education into two sub-systems: the university and the polytechnic.

The polytechnic higher education system had been created formerly, in 1973, but it was only after the publication of that Education Frame Law that the polytechnic system grew stronger and that thirteen of the existing sixteen polytechnic institutes were created in the major Portuguese cities. Three Higher Education Institutes of Engineering (Lisboa, Porto and Coimbra) were integrated in this system along with Four Higher Education Administration and Accounting Institutes (Lisboa, Porto, Coimbra and Aveiro). These institutes had been vocational schools created in the 19th century until in 1974 they were granted the status of independent higher education institutions.

The Education Frame Law states that the polytechnic education system "aims to provide a solid cultural and technical higher education, to develop the innovating capacity, critical analysis and to teach theoretical and practical scientific knowledge along with its application to professional activities".

It has not been an easy task to implement polytechnic education in Portuguese society because it has known only one higher education system in the last 700 years – the university. Parents, students and society in general did not believe in the possibility a new approach to the high level education.

The creation of the polytechnic education model coincided with a policy of massification in education, which lead people to associate this model with one only capable of granting a less dignifying status. This made (and is still making) the polytechnic model look less appealing to young people and their families.

Nevertheless, the number of students in the polytechnic sector has expanded over the past 10 years from 9.6% to 30% of the total number of students in the public sector. Considering the importance given to this education system in the development of the competitive capacity of the Portuguese community, these are extremely low figures.

However, the job market is constantly lacking technical staff with practical training and has always been most receptive towards the polytechnic institute graduates. This has greatly contributed to the progressive increase of the number of young people selecting polytechnics for their training.

According to the law that defines and regulates the status and the autonomy of the polytechnic institutes they should become a chief focus of development and support of the surrounding regions. The capacity of the polytechnic system to achieve its goals is determined by the applied nature of the knowledge transmitted and of the research conducted in the schools and by the strong links built with the job market.

The development of the polytechnics has happened at very different levels determined by the nature of the region where they are established and by the dynamism of the persons in charge of their management. In Lisboa, Porto and Coimbra there are big institutions with an important position in the higher education sector but they cannot be quoted as examples since, as we previously mentioned, they integrated long existing schools and precisely due the characteristics of the surrounding local environment.

The Institutes

Each polytechnic institute is composed at least of two schools with juridical personality and with scientific, pedagogic, administrative and financial autonomy. Depending on the surrounding regional necessities, the schools comprehend various areas such as Education, Engineering, Management and Agriculture. Other less common areas of study are Music, Theatre, Journalism and Nursing.

Each institute has a President (elected every third year by a college of delegates representing the teachers, the students, the administrative staff and the civil society) and two Vice-Presidents appointed by the President. The institutes also have a General Council that defines the institutional policy. The General Council is composed of the Presiding Board of the institute, of delegates from all of its Schools (some of which are elected and others *ex officio*) and of delegates from civil society appointed by invitation.

Each School has a Director or a Directing Board, a Pedagogic Council, also elected for a three-year period, and a Scientific Council composed of all the professors of the school.

Financing

The government grants the polytechnic institutes a state budget estimated according to the number of students enrolled.

The institutes have financial autonomy and tuition, fees and external services, *et cetera,* constitute self-obtained financial resources which might obviously be more or less significant according to the dimension and the dynamism of the institute itself.

Courses and Degrees

The polytechnic education system provides two kinds of courses: the *Bacharelato* courses which prepare students for an immediate entry into professional life and last three years, and the *Licenciatura* courses which provide a deeper training and last 4 or 5 years, depending on the area of the course. The five-year long *Licenciatura* includes the first three-year period of vocational training after which the student is fit to leave and begin professional activity and receives a *Bacharelato* degree. These five-year courses are thus called two-cycle *Licenciaturas.*

The design of the courses should include the capacity to modernise, to have creative action and to perform a permanent effort of adjustment to new situations for these will be constant characteristics in the graduates' working life.

The three engineering institutes integrated in the polytechnic system are the only ones to have horizontal spectre courses with an acknowledged tradition in the national market. The others have specific narrow spectre courses to answer regional needs.

Research / Development

The goals pursued by polytechnic education include applied research conducted in all the schools of each institute. Presently, each school carries out research with different amplitude.

Even though the institutes conduct some fundamental research projects, the number of existing projects is not very significant. On the other hand, research involving partnerships with external services or companies that are interested to incorporate quickly the results obtained is becoming quite significant.

The PEDIP (European Programme for the Development of Portuguese Industry), the CRAFT, the BRITE- EURAM, the EUREKA and other international research programmes support projects in which the polytechnic institutes are engaged. Several national research programmes finance also research in polytechnics.

One of the main (if not THE main) reasons for the creation of the polytechnic education was undoubtedly the belief that it should and would become a chief focus of development and of support to the surrounding region. This intent has been one of the primary concerns of all polytechnics' managers and has become quite significant particularly for those established in the countryside regions most in need of support. All polytechnics work to improve their links with the industry and with the regional services by making their knowledge and resources available for extension services and for the improvement of the modernisation process. The connection with the educational system is also privileged and the polytechnic education schools participate in its activities.

Internationalisation

The internationalisation process of the polytechnic education system has been a slow one but it has been evolving in a positive direction.

Student mobility is the most popular international activity in polytechnic schools but it has an insignificant quantitative expression. In 1997/98 only three out of 1,000 students displaced themselves benefiting from ERASMUS mobility programme. In that same period, 10 out of 1,000 university students participated in mobility activities.

However, even though the percentual difference towards universities is quite big, the Portuguese participation in international programmes for higher education is still very reduced.

These low figures reveal that Portuguese young people have little interest in participating in mobility projects but it also demonstrates the scarce interest of the teachers who do not promote the existing options nor appeal to their students to participate in mobility actions.

We could list several reasons that justify the low number of polytechnic students and teachers involved in the internationalisation process:

1. The polytechnic education system is quite young and consequently had to face its own growth and to respond to it before having the capacity and the means for considering an external opening and before putting its external policy into practice;
2. Most Portuguese teachers still find it difficult to accept the principle of equivalence between different plans of study;
3. Many of the polytechnic teachers combine teaching with the exercise of other activities in the industry or in the service area. This makes it difficult for them to have spare time to devote to internationalisation activities;
4. Activities of extension to the community have always been one of the main priorities of the polytechnic institutes, particularly of those established in the countryside. In a way, this priority rather limits their availability for other kinds of connections;
5. Portugal does not have a tradition for collective actions between higher education institutions. Our geographical situation and the isolation we experienced for a great number of years must undoubtedly hold some responsibility for the fact.

Nevertheless, the implementation of ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) has already some expression in the polytechnics' schools. In 1997/98 nine polytechnic institutes were granted a financial subvention to organise Information Packages for some of their courses.

The internationalisation of curricula and of course contents has absolutely no significance in Portuguese polytechnic education.

The international programmes focused on higher education (SOCRATES, LEONARDO DA VINCI, TEMPUS, ALFA) provide both the university and the non-university education systems with tools for the incentive of international cooperation, which can perfectly be adjusted to either education philosophy. The success of these actions relies solely upon finding at the schools motivated people capable of turning the internationalisation policy into a desirable goal.

Many of the courses taught in the new universities (and in some of the older ones as well) could easily and without modifications be taught at a polytechnic institute. This explains why there are many partnership projects between several European non-university institutions and Portuguese universities. However, an identical phenomenon occurs between Portuguese polytechnic institutes and foreign universities.

All institutions and / or schools have made an effort to create an internal structure to manage international programmes and accompany the growing institutional involvement in that kind of activities. They have striven to fulfil their role in spite of the insignificance of the resources available.

The participation in the LEONARDO DA VINCI programme has had a meaningful part in the training of polytechnic students for it has permitted them to have their internship in environments where they are asked to develop the vocational skills acquired.

The internationalisation of the Portuguese polytechnic education will represent a most significant input. The development of the Portuguese society and its contribution for the construction of a strong and solidary Europe requires that Portuguese young people acquire a quality technical and human training freed from geographical frontiers.

Lifelong Learning

The LEONARDO programme has also been important for the implementation of lifelong learning activities thus creating the opportunity for the development of small updating courses where professionals can benefit from the contribution of experts from several countries.

Lifelong learning is one of the chief concerns of higher education. The close connection of the polytechnic institutes with the social community gives them a determinant role in this area.

At this stage polytechnics are engaged to prepare distance lifelong training actions that will allow them to reach a broader number of trainees and to create new options for those who work faraway from the big city centres and therefore find it difficult to attend regular courses. A priority is to produce updated material to be used in the Portuguese speaking African countries.

Prof. Milan Vodopevic
College of Entrepreneurship
Ljubljana, Slovenia

Slovenia

1. Scope of the Sector

Slovenia is a small country, with only two million inhabitants and two universities. The establishment of independent non-university institutions became possible rather recently, when the Law on Higher Education was enacted in 1994. It is therefore no surprise that this sector is actually quite small. In fact, there are only six schools that meet the criteria of offering at least three-year courses of study, no Ph.D., and no affiliation with a university. The schools are the Polytechnic Nova Gorica, the Postgraduate School of Humanities Institutum Studiorum Humanitatis of Ljubljana, the GEA College of Entrepreneurship of Portorož, the College of Management and Business of Novo Mesto, the College of Hotel and Tourism Administration of Portorož, and the College of Management of Koper. As can be seen from the list, five of the schools are in fact dedicated to some form of business studies.

Interestingly, the schools are somewhat dispersed throughout Slovenia, with only two cases where schools are located in the same town[1]. Four of the schools, however, are located on the western edge of the country, three right on the Adriatic coast. Only the GEA College of Entrepreneurship and the College of Hotel and Tourism Management have campuses in the eastern section of the country, in Slovenske Konjice and Radenci respectively.

It is also noteworthy that four of the schools are colleges (in Slovene *Visoke Šole,* literally high schools). These institutions grant Level 6 degrees on the basis of a three-year course of study. The colleges are rather small: for example, GEA College of Entrepreneurship has a total of about 350 students enrolled in all three years of the programme of study, with about 120 of these being regular day-time students and the other 230 being weekend students. GEA College of Entrepreneurship, however, will expand in the coming year:

1 The GEA College of Entrepreneurship has campuses in Ljubljana and Portorož, and thus “shares” these cities with the College of Hotel and Tourism Management (Portorož, Ljubljana) and the Postgraduate School of Humanities (Ljubljana).

some 260 places are available for new students, thanks to a "concession" (subsidy) from the Slovene government.[2]

Governance of the schools is dictated by the Higher Education Act.[3] Each school must have a Senate composed of faculty members representing the disciplines taught at the school. In addition, each school has a Managing Board charged with the management of the school. Finally, these schools participate in the National Higher Education Council, sending a representative (usually the Dean).

While any school can of course engage in research, the right to bid for funds granted through projects of the Ministry of Science and Technology is not automatic. Schools must meet certain technical characteristics regarding facilities and staff, and then gain the approval of the Ministry to become recognised research institutions. Then they may bid for projects, and, if approved, gain research funding.

The growth of the non-university sector in Slovenia has not followed any plan or pattern set out by government officials. Instead, it has been characterised by the initiatives of educators wanting to provide new educational services.

2. An Example – the GEA College of Entrepreneurship

Background: Establishment of the School

The parent institution of GEA College of Entrepreneurship is the GEA College Training Centre, which was founded in 1990. The Training Centre was formed to meet a perceived need for short-term, very practical business courses. The Training Centre was founded by a number of institutions, including the Slovene Chamber of Commerce and Chamber of Crafts.

The Training Centre has constantly expanded its repertoire of courses available. The main courses include the Evening School of Entrepreneurship, along with specialised seminars in family business, finance, marketing and sales, franchising and entrepreneurship. Programmes offered via the Employment Office of the Republic of Slovenia to stimulate self-employment include Developing Entrepreneurial Ideas and How to Prepare a Business Plan.

---

2 According to the Razpis, which is an official announcement of programmes of study, the following number of places will be available next year:

Polytechnic Nova Gorica:	100
GEA College of Entrepreneurship:	260
College of Hotel and Tourism Management:	260
College of Management, Koper	350
College of Management and Business, Novo Mesto	210

At the same time, the Economics Faculty of the University of Ljubljana has 2,250 places open, and the Economics and Business Faculty of the University of Maribor has 1,710 places.

3 The Higher Education act was passed by the Slovenian Parliament on December 7, 1993. An English translation has been published by the Ministry of Education and Sport of the Republic of Slovenia, *The Development of Higher Education in Slovenia,* Ljubljana 1998.

Courses in health care management and management of enterprises employing the disabled are also offered, as well as courses in business consulting and tailor-made seminars for individual companies.

The Training Centre is actually a joint-stock company, with shares traded on the Ljubljana Stock Exchange. This fact does not, however, imply that the Training Centre is a wealthy institution. On the contrary. The Centre does not receive direct government support, but has provided training programmes for the Employment Office, Ministry of Economic Affairs and Ministry of Small Business.

After the adoption of the Law on Higher Education, the leadership of the Training Centre decided to open an undergraduate school. The rationale behind this move was two-fold: first, it was felt that contemporary business requires a very high degree of knowledge and training, and that such knowledge could not be adequately provided in short courses. Second, it was felt that training of a new generation of business people would be crucial to the long-term success of the Slovenian economy, and that such training could best be provided through a regular, undergraduate course of studies.

The GEA College of Entrepreneurship opened in the fall of 1996. The first generation of students numbered 120, with the majority (about 80), studying in weekend classes. The school operates in three locations: Portoroz, on the coast (the school's headquarters), Ljubljana, the capital of the country, and Slovenske Konjice in the east, near Hungary. The three locations are important to serve the weekend students, who are generally not in a position to travel too much for their studies. All of the regular students are served at the Portoroz campus.

GEA College of Entrepreneurship was formed to provide entrepreneurship education focused mainly on small business. This focus was and is distinctive in Slovenia. There is only one programme of studies: students must take a designated set of courses, with the only choice coming in their final year, when they can choose two electives from a menu of eight. The curriculum includes all the traditional business subjects, with special emphasis on small business management, internationalisation, and creative problem solving.

In addition, GEA College of Entrepreneurship follows a distinctive teaching philosophy, focusing on practical knowledge, participatory learning, student-teacher interaction and small class sizes. This teaching philosophy is very difficult to follow in the enormous class groups to be found in the universities in Slovenia.

The GEA College of Entrepreneurship is a non-profit organisation. It has a Senate and a Management Board. The Management Board includes two representatives of the shareholders of the Training Centre, the President of the School, the Dean of the School, a faculty representative and a student representative. In addition, the school's faculty and staff meet as a Colle-

gium, usually at least once a month. The Collegium serves advisory and information-dissemination purposes.

Just recently, a major step was taken when the Ministry of Education granted GEA College of Entrepreneurship a concession. This means that the Ministry pays for the costs of up to 100 regular day-time students and 160 weekend students at the school. There are some restrictions to the concession: first, the number of students is limited; second, the course of study must be in Slovene; and third, the amount of costs to be covered is limited to the national average of costs. Given the class sizes and quality of instruction at the GEA College of Entrepreneurship, costs are significantly above the national average. Nonetheless, the concession will make it much easier for students to attend the school (i.e. it will lower the price for the student by about 50%).

The next major step planned is the opening of an International Division offering courses in English to students not only from Slovenia but from other countries as well. Preparatory work is well underway, and the International Division is expected to open in the fall of 2000.

Internationalisation activities of the GEA College of Entrepreneurship

GEA College of Entrepreneurship has had a strong international orientation, perhaps unusually strong for an institution of its size. Most of the school's leadership have attended some training abroad, four of the eight full-time faculty members have Ph.D. degrees from the United States, and four part-time professors have Western master's degrees (two from the US, one from the UK, and one from Belgium).

The most important international connection of the Training Centre and later the GEA College of Entrepreneurship has been with Babson College of the United States. For six years now, the two schools have put on an annual conference called the BICEE conference (Babson International Colloquium on Entrepreneurship Education). The aim of BICEE has been to provide a forum for entrepreneurship educators to compare notes, share new techniques and insights, and learn from leading experts in the field. Through BICEE, GEA College of Entrepreneurship has built its reputation, and has established a very useful network of contacts.

The Training Centre signed a cooperation agreement with Babson College in 1994. The agreement stated that the two parties would work together to develop a programme of entrepreneurship education in Slovenia, and the Training Centre expressed its intention to begin an undergraduate school of business. Under the agreement, Babson helped GEA build its curriculum. GEA personnel visited Babson on many occasions to attend seminars, exchange ideas and gain training. Once the GEA College of Entrepreneurship was founded, several students were sent to Babson summer programmes as well.

Although the cooperation with Babson has been very fruitful, it has not led to the creation of a joint programme. For this reason, GEA College of Entrepreneurship has examined the possibility of finding a different partner from the U.S. with whom it would offer a joint programme. Negotiations on this matter are currently underway. Experience shows that such programmes are most frequent at the MBA level; joint undergraduate programmes or actual western programmes are not very common (an example would be the American University of Bulgaria).

GEA College of Entrepreneurship has also participated in European higher education internationalisation initiatives. It has been the recipient of two TEMPUS-PHARE grants. Under the first TEMPUS grant, the school established links with the following institutions: the University of Udine (Italy); the University of Economics, Vienna (Austria), the Esbjerg Business Academy (Denmark), the University of Bristol (UK), and the Polytechnic University of Catalunya (Spain).

The purpose of the first TEMPUS grant is to help GEA College of Entrepreneurship improve its curriculum, to generate new ideas for courses for small and medium-sized enterprises, to establish student exchanges and to help equip the schools library and computer facilities. The grant is now in its second year, and the grant activities have certainly greatly contributed to the school's development.

The second TEMPUS grant involves cooperation with only two other schools, the University of Torino (Italy) and the University of Helsinki (Finland). This grant has a curriculum component, but this time with a focus on "Europeanising" the curriculum of the school. In particular, GEA College of Entrepreneurship faces challenges relating to its International Division. For example, what should be the content of a business law course for a student body from various countries? Clearly, common elements of European Law have to be stressed. Similarly, an international marketing course must take into account the environment of the European Union.

The second TEMPUS grant also has a component that focuses on improving the delivery of placement programmes in which students receive academic credit for working in small enterprises and developing analyses of problems facing the enterprises. Both partner schools have extensive experience with such programmes, and it is expected that the TEMPUS grant will allow this experience to be shared and adapted to the Slovenian situation. Finally, the second TEMPUS grant includes some student exchange opportunities, with students travelling both from Slovenia to the European partners and from the European partners to Slovenia.

GEA College of Entrepreneurship has also made an application for the SOCRATES programme. It is expected that Slovenia will be included in SOCRATES starting in the year 1999/2000. Furthermore, the school has

entered into an agreement with the Jonkoping International School of Business (Sweden) for student exchange.

Another element of international cooperation at the GEA College of Entrepreneurship is in the area of research. The school was recently awarded a PHARE-ACE project, in conjunction with partners in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Macedonia. The project will study the obstacles to the establishment of new small business in each of the countries.

A final international cooperation activity is being carried out by the Training Centre, with spill-over effects to the College of Entrepreneurship. The activity is a programme to train the trainers in small-business consulting in Croatia. Training Centre and College of Entrepreneurship faculty members are currently training 50 trainers. These trainers will then proceed to train 400 consultants, with the help of the Training Centre and College of Entrepreneurship faculty, as well as teachers from the Croatian training company Croateh.

3. Do Non-University Internationalisation Activities Differ From University Activities?

The emphasis on internationalisation seen in the case of GEA College of Entrepreneurship may not be typical. The school's aim to provide high-end education both in terms of price and quality has been a strong motivation for seeking international links. Certainly, relatively few schools have received two TEMPUS grants.

At the same time, the school's focus on practical knowledge probably is typical of the non-university sector. So, in this respect, GEA College of Entrepreneurship's experiences may be indicative of the situation of other non-universities in Slovenia.

What we find in our cooperation efforts is that there are many schools in the European Union pursuing the same sort of activities. Many universities have realised the importance of courses aimed at those interested in international business, for example. Entrepreneurship education *per se* is more uncommon, but many full-fledged universities offer short-cycle training courses.

Regarding research, it seems that there are plenty of potential partners available for the kind of research that is most relevant to a non-university business school. The ACE project received by the GEA College of Entrepreneurship is a good example. It remains unclear, however, whether there will be other financing sources for such research in the future. This kind of research is not generally commercial: it may deal with issues of interest to a whole sector of the economy (e.g. small firms) rather than specific firms, and therefore would be most likely to gain support from national and European governmental sources.

Thus it seems that many of the internationalisation activities that are useful for universities are also useful for non-universities. Faculty and student exchanges and research cooperation are appropriate to both kinds of institutions, and a good “fit” may be possible even between universities and non-universities. Many of our TEMPUS partners are in fact universities, yet we do not see a major difference in our activities or orientation. This indicates that there is some blurring of the boundaries between the two kinds of institutions.

Of course, boundaries still exist: GEA College of Entrepreneurship has nothing to say about ideas for Ph.D. studies, for example. Nor is it likely that GEA (or other non-universities) would offer the level of theoretical training available in a university setting.

Within Slovenia, there are important structural differences between universities and non-universities. For one thing, the universities are public institutions, and therefore have much better access to government support. Staffing levels at the university are far higher, and this gives them advantages in writing grant proposals, lobbying, and many other activities. Also, until this year, concessions have only been granted to public schools; the extension of a concession to the GEA College of Entrepreneurship represents a significant (but far from complete) equalisation of opportunities in this respect.

The universities also have big advantages in disposing of an infrastructure to handle European and international relations. GEA College of Entrepreneurship only has one grant administrator and one part-time grant writer. Foreign students, when they come to the school, will probably be taken care of by the Dean for Student Affairs (actually a faculty member who has agreed to take on additional duties) and a member of the administrative staff who has various other responsibilities as well.

Foreign language qualifications have generally not been an obstacle for either students or faculty at the GEA College of Entrepreneurship. Students are required to take five semesters of English and German. Those students participating in exchange programmes with the United States and Denmark have had no significant problems with language. Also, most of the faculty members are at least competent in English; the exceptions have been given the opportunity to study further. Because of the school’s strong international orientation, language competency has not been and in the future will not be a problem.

Size certainly affects internationalisation activities. For example, if a school has only one professor of accounting, and this person wants to participate in a training activity abroad, it will be necessary to organise the activity when classes are not in session, which can be a problem. Furthermore, the small scale of GEA College of Entrepreneurship makes it difficult to justify hiring staff dedicated to international activities alone.

On the other hand, the fact that GEA College of Entrepreneurship is small has allowed us to maintain a high quality, and to hand-pick faculty. These attributes contribute to a demand for internationalisation.

The ties between GEA College of Entrepreneurship and the business community are also an important element in the internationalisation process. We believe that our links with the Slovenian small business and entrepreneurship community make us attractive to foreign partners. Conversely, foreign partners that have developed analogous links in their countries are of special interest to us. Our second TEMPUS grant relies particularly on this.

Because of its strong orientation to non-traditional students, GEA College of Entrepreneurship has effectively been involved in continuing education and lifelong learning from the beginning. In addition, the Training Centre provides a flexible form for such activities. In the future, such activities will certainly expand as the school seeks to provide further services to its alumni and to the community at large.

Whether and how continuing education and lifelong learning will be internationalised is less clear. Our first TEMPUS grant provided the opportunity for sharing of experiences in short-term programmes. But activities beyond the exchange of ideas and strengthening of curricula and programmes are not well-developed in this area.

GEA College of Entrepreneurship sees internationalisation as of fundamental importance for two reasons: first, the business world is rapidly becoming more internationalised, and it is crucial that students be adequately prepared for this. Second, the Slovenian market is very small, and it is crucial for the school's survival in the medium to long-term to seek a broader student base beyond Slovenia. In our view, the first reason alone is strong enough to compel all business schools to actively pursue internationalisation activities. The second reason is particular to Slovenia and the mission of the GEA College of Entrepreneurship.

Within our institution, international activities are not entirely institutionalised. The founding of the International Division will help to bring many activities under one roof. But international grant-writing and fundraising is not yet fully integrated with international marketing and international cooperation. In the future, our policy will be to treat all of our processes as fundamentally international, with Slovenian activities being only one aspect of our total, international activity.

Jean-Pierre Meylan[1]
Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education
Secretariat of the Swiss Council of Fachhochschulen /
Hautes Ecoles Spécialisées
Bern, Switzerland

Switzerland

Introduction

This is a case study about the transformation and upgrading of colleges of engineering and business, as well as higher professional colleges in the field of education, fine arts, design, music, health and social work into a new type of "University of Applied Sciences", called

Fachhochschulen (FH in German) or
Hautes Ecoles Spécialisées (HES in French) or
Scuole universitarie professionnali (SUP in Italian).

How will these FH/HES/SUP reach the same degree of "internationalisation" as their long-established counterparts, the universities and the federal institutes of technology, which already are the most internationalised in Europe?

The planned introduction of FH/HES has changed and will change the landscape of education and training in Switzerland. The previously non-university tertiary level will rise in status, and there will be greater recognition of its diplomas abroad. Like other countries, Switzerland will have a two-tier university system. Education at the traditional universities is directed primarily towards knowledge-oriented research, while that at the FH/HES will be application-oriented, preparing students for areas of activity requiring a scientific basis (planning, development consultancy, development of arts projects, etc.). The following pages are an attempt to give a short overview of the general principles and present state of development of the FH/HES, and how they are coping with the fact that until now, except for a few areas of study which are truly international, their profile has been mainly regional or national, hardly international. The typical Swiss mixture of a higher education policy which is both national and decentralised – much criticised for its pedestrian democratic rhythm – is nevertheless much better prepared for this than may be expected. There is a saying that the Swiss have more trouble adopting a national perspective than an international one, which seems easier for them.

1 The author is the Council's secretary. He expresses his personal views here.

1. *The Fachhochschulen / Hautes Ècoles Spécialisées:* a Brief Overview

General principles

FH/HES are planned for various areas of training. The federal government is responsible for some of these areas, although as the bodies responsible for the future FH/HES, cantonal authorities are also closely concerned. In other areas, the cantonal authorities alone will be responsible.

Areas of federal competence are technology, economics and management, agriculture, landscape and nutrition, and design. Areas for which cantonal authorities have the sole competence are pedagogics (teacher training, excluding vocational teacher-training), music, fine arts, social work, health, other (e.g. theatre, dance, interpreting/translation).

On February 18, 1993, the plenary assembly of the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) and Economics (VDK), the latter being responsible for vocational training, approved a document entitled "Theses on the Development of FH/HES and Vocational School-Leaving Certificates". These define the principles of the FH/HES in all areas of study. The most important characteristics of the new universities are laid down as follows:

- FH/HES must provide practice-oriented, scientifically-based training;
- They qualify students for a professional career requiring a high level of specialised knowledge and professional skill;
- They carry out application-oriented research and promote the transfer of science and technology, or take part in the development of educational or artistic research;
- Generally speaking, full-time study lasts three to four years (part-time study accordingly longer);
- Students are eligible on having completed their secondary level II education and having been awarded a certificate acceptable to an FH/HES. For areas of federal competence, this usually means an advanced vocational school-leaving certificate, an advanced certificate of general education (from a *Gymnasium*) or an equivalent certificate followed by practical experience. For the other areas of study (arts, music, health, etc.), entry requirements are more diverse but nevertheless very strict, and there is competition amongst the most able for a limited number of places;
- Generally speaking, senior teaching staff must have been awarded a university diploma as well as a teaching qualification.

In addition, the federal law on FH/HES, which was approved by both houses of parliament on October 6, 1995, and together with its executive ordinance was brought into effect by the Federal Council on October 1, 1996, applies to areas of federal competence.

Pursuant to the law, the Federal Council is competent to authorise the creation of FH/HES in these areas of study. It has appointed a Federal Commission for FH/HES (EFHK) to assess the establishment and operation of the FH/HES and to examine periodically whether they continue to fulfil the necessary prerequisites. The federal government is responsible for subsidising one-third of the investment and operating costs of the FH/HES in its areas of competence.

On the cantonal side, the coordinating body responsible for the FH/HES and for that part of the curriculum which is a cantonal responsibility is the Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) – or for training in health matters the Conference of Cantonal Health Ministers. For this purpose, the EDK has set up a Council for the FH/HES (FH Council).

These principles and the FHSG comprise merely the broad framework of the system. In addition, profiles for FH/HES have yet to be worked out in order to provide specific guidelines for training objectives defining possible areas of concentration, for teaching techniques, for applied research and development, for the qualifications required of teaching staff, for the conversion of existing institutions, etc. Such profiles already exist in respect of the FH/HES for technology, economics and management, art and design, information/ documentation, social work, health and music.

Cantons Creating Regional *Fachhochschul* Networks

Private organisations (non-profit-making or subsidised as public service bodies working on behalf of cantonal authorities) may be set up in cantons (the general rule) or regions to look after the FH/HES. These often band together to manage one or more institutions jointly. The already proven method of working through *concordats* (inter-cantonal agreements) is favoured, since it enables meaningful cooperation beyond cantonal boundaries. Such joint institutions enable the required minimum number of students – which vary according to area of study and type of specialisation – to be reached. In contrast to the present higher technical colleges, the new FH/HES are thus able to cross the boundaries between subjects and like other forms of university are in a position to offer interdisciplinary training. Joint action between a number of technology and economics departments is already planned in many cases, and further interdisciplinary breakthroughs are in sight (e.g. between art, design and music, between health and social work, etc.).

The conversion of the higher technical colleges into FH/HES has therefore provided an opportunity to redesign the tertiary education and training landscape and to structure it anew, in line with regional requirements. The extended function of the FH/HES (research and development working hand-in-hand with knowledge and technology transfer as new performance components), represents an additional challenge which has made it necessary to establish new focal points. At all stages of planning, existing conflicts of inte-

rest will have to be overcome. For example, an appropriate balance has to be found between regional interests (competition between regional claims to house the new institutions) and the more comprehensive interests of the private sector and of promoting science and technology, together with maintaining national quality standards in the recognition of diplomas.

Most cantons have ventured down new avenues in organising their FH/HES, whose interests some of them intend to safeguard by passing special cantonal laws on the subject. Most of the new institutions are public law bodies having their own legal status (as indeed is the case with all the other universities). This means that they are run independently and make their own budget decisions. It ensures maximum management flexibility and permits easy adaptation to new requirements and a high level of readiness to innovate. The new FH/HES are a typical product of a new type of administration which took place in the last decade, the so called “New Public Management”.

The FH/HES began their first year of study under their new status in 1997/ 1998 with approximately 4,800 Students. These networks are not yet fully established since different fields of study in the arts, music, health and education are only now beginning to be fully operational. By summer 2000 the first degrees will be officially awarded and the total population of the FH is expected to reach approximately 20,000 to 25,000 students (which is equivalent to adding two medium-sized universities to the Swiss overall number of ten).

This is not a substantial rise in the overall student population. Switzerland has a very low percentage of working population with a higher education degree; until now barely 9% – the lowest in Europe (France 24%, US 35%)! This is a paradox for a country with a very high performance in research indicators. If you add all the fields of study which will be included into the FH-scheme, the Swiss average will rise to 16%, which is the same as Germany and will be the European average. Thus in Switzerland, higher education has been less of a mass phenomenon than in other countries, and a part of the rise in numbers is due to the transformation of former colleges of further education into FH – a sort of gentrification of a whole set of institutions.

Competitive Research and Development Funding as a Lever for Internationalisation of the FH/HES

The expanded function in the field of applied research and development is not new to all the technical colleges. Many of today’s HTLs in the technology area are already strongly committed to this orientation, and can show a substantial portfolio of achievement. In the framework of federal research promotion, about SFr. 15 million go to HTL projects every year. In 1995, about 8,600 engineers with HTM diplomas were taking part in research projects in the private sector, often in cooperation with the federal institutes of technology. Projects promoted by the federal government, like Microswiss and the CIM centres which are already well established, bear witness to the excellent

starting position which has been reached. This function will be extended further, particularly with respect to knowledge and technology transfer projects.

However, other FH fields have still to build up a research and development culture of this kind. A 1997 report by the Conference of Swiss Universities shows that this has now been achieved by today's economics and business management colleges. It must be said that these future FH/HES in economics are at a competitive disadvantage in relation to the traditional university economics faculties, which are strong precisely in the field of applied research. A confrontation between the two types of university would be fatal for the FH/HES. This means that many of the future FH/HES in economics are already seeking cooperation with traditional economics faculties (in St. Gall, Neufchatel and elsewhere).

In the field of cantonal FH/HES, i.e. those in design, art and music on the one hand, and social work and health on the other, different and more open research and development concepts are being worked out. In these cases, research and development have a closer relationship to actual careers and for this reason are not as clearly distinguished, since most of them are included in study curricula and are self-financing. But much development work still has to be done in this area, too. The Swiss Science Council has taken up the question in cooperation with the FH Council, and projects for research promotion by the future FH/HES in music and social work have already been initiated. The Federal Council will be urged to recommend that the FH/HES should also benefit from the research promotion programme of the Swiss National Fund. The Swiss Conference of Health Ministers and the Swiss Red Cross (the bodies responsible for training in health matters) are also in the process of examining matters concerned with research and development in the FH/HES to be set up in their field.

As a conclusion, research and development is a privileged gateway to internationalising the FH/HES, as well as a way of keeping up a culture of innovation. Teaching mostly refers to a canon of accepted knowledge and has a tendency to officialise itself, to crystallise into local or regional traditions. Authorities think that by exposing the institutions to international competition, teaching will not be tempted to rest on its laurels, but will be encouraged to constantly revise its achievements in the light of new trends and scientific insight. Some institutions were already very open-minded, and also open to international cooperation, but others lacked this spirit.

2. The "Internationalisation" of the *Fachhochschulen*

"Internationalisation" in this context means:

1. The degree to which the FH/HES are open to international participation (students, professors, researchers, etc.) at all levels; individual mobility;
2. The extent to which this opening is really intended and effective;

3. The existence of a mentality of open-mindedness, a way of thinking in international dimensions;
4. The perception of the cultural dimension behind the opening: true internationalisation or simple functional globalisation?

General Remarks on the Degree of 'Internationalisation' of the Country and its Universities

The Church, monasteries and universities were the only truly "international" institutions in the Western mediaeval world. It was the universities, with their *nationes* which used the expression of nation which came to mean something quite different in the 19th century. It is worth remembering that the university nation referred to the community of students with the same place of birth living together in a college at the university. The essential characteristic of a university was to be "inter-national" and to manage itself, whereas academies pledged loyalty to a crown (no wonder that university students have always had the reputation of being seditious!). From this perspective, non-university higher education institutions should somehow be able to regain something of this old spirit of convivial internationality.

Although not a member of the EU, Switzerland has characteristics which make it more "European" or "international" than many others:

- It shares the culture and language of all its neighbouring countries;
- It has the highest percentage of foreign population (20%) and has the characteristics of an immigration country like Israel (although it refuses this role);
- It is the centre for many international corporations acting on a world-wide scale (pharmaceuticals, banking, insurance, food technology, watches, etc.) which promote a lot of research;
- Its commercial relations are world-wide, many technology enterprises occupy small but highly specialised niches, which compels them to sell to the whole world;
- Because of its smallness and federalist partition into linguistic regions, the ambitious have few chances of securing a high-ranking career in the sciences and in the arts at home. The Swiss have to travel far and wide, and they retain the *letís emigrate* mentality (like the Italians and the Irish), which has proven to be an asset in the 20th century;
- Switzerland is still one of the most sought-after resorts in the world, for leisure as well as for academic tourism.

Strange, therefore, that when going to the polls in 1992, this country refused to join the European Economic Area. The Swiss academic community, always fervently European, was outvoted. For universities this meant a lot of disadvantages. Bilateral negotiations and agreements with the EU should help to overcome these.

If we focus on the universities (the 10 cantonal universities and the two federal institutes of technology), the picture is the same:

- Highest proportion of foreign students in Europe (residents or mobile): 20% of the total student enrolment;
- 35% of all professors are foreign (of these alone 30% are Germans);
- There is a high proportion of Swiss professors or researchers abroad: mostly in Germany, but also in the United States and many other countries;
- Scientific research has become globalised: it is not only "publish or perish", it is also "move or perish";
- Research indicators rank Switzerland among the top researching countries, certainly *per capita*: this means that many Swiss researchers are working in the research-intensive Swiss industries scattered all around the world (brain-drain: not all trained Swiss come back);
- Since 1996, the federal government has expressed concern about the fact that more federal money is spent on promoting research abroad than inside the country (the projects being international, the money flows freely);
- The government has enabled the Swiss research community to participate in the big EU research programmes (through negotiations with the EU and by providing substantial financial support), it hopes to participate also in the 5th Framework Programme.

The Situation of the *Fachhochschulen* / *Hautes Écoles Spécialisées*

The FH/HES are still too young for their international involvement to be analysed on the basis of hard facts and figures. We can nevertheless make an educated guess, since we knew more about them when they had their former status. It is this status and the different fields of study which determine the degree of internationalisation. We should take a look at the specific fields of study and research, and should find a mixed picture: areas of self-sufficiency and areas of complete openness.

But first of all some figures on all FH (the following figures are only representative for the fields of engineering and economics):

- 12.2% of the students are foreign nationals (compared with 20% in the universities); these 12% are distributed as follows among the FH/HES: over 50%: in Western- or French-speaking HES (not surprisingly, since this region also has the highest degree of foreigners in the universities); 12%: in the FH of the Zürich canton and in the FH network of north-western Switzerland; less than 8% in all other FH/HES (in general you find the foreigners in the urban centres of Western Switzerland, around Zürich and Basle);
- The fields of study with foreign students rank as follows: design or applied arts 20%; chemical engineering 17%; economics 14%; construction and architecture 13%; technologies and engineering 10%; and agriculture 9%;

- The fields of study with a relatively high proportion of foreign students are – unexpectedly ! – music, art and drama.

By Swiss standards, and compared to the universities, this is a relatively poor result, by other standards (compared with other countries) it may be just average or even enviable.

The Different Meaning of Notions Like "Foreign" or "National" in Switzerland

The foreign students in the statistics are mostly no "genuine" foreigners. Officially, they are referred to as "non-nationals". Many of them are 2nd or even 3rd generation immigrants who are totally integrated even with a foreign passport (the statistics cannot sort them out for reasons of data protection). Many have Italian or Spanish passports, very few are German, this is a clue to our interpretation: the FH attract few non-nationals, because the few non-nationals who study belong to the "upward mobile" generation with grandfathers or fathers who began as immigrant workers. The universities have very few such people. For sons and daughters of immigrant workers of the 50s and 60s, the social and cultural passage into a university was more difficult than into an FH. The access of students to schools, which prepare for the universities (*Gymnasium Matura:* only 20% of the generation has access) was hindered by an early selection during childhood. Those who fall through the selection process for entry into the more academic secondary schools opt for vocational training (with apprenticeship, similar to the German system of *Berufslehre*). Thus, the FH/HES have become a second chance for students who had a less prestigious but nevertheless vocational career, and present an opportunity for access to higher education which they were denied. The main objective of the creation of the FH/HES seems confirmed: the FH/HES promote motivated young people with a less "academic" schooling. FH/HES are in a way recently "gentrified" universities of the professionals, the *universités des métiers.*

Non-Swiss readers interpreting this must bear in mind the specific Swiss concept of citizenship and nationality (the concept is founded on the *ius sanguis* like in Germany and not on the concept of *ius soli*): Around 900,000 young people, all born in Switzerland, among the two million foreigners in Switzerland remain non-nationals for different reasons:

- Either they are denied the right of Swiss citizenship because of xenophobic reactions in the municipality (which has the right decide on citizenship). Hopefully, this is much less often the case today than it used to be. Those who were born in Switzerland enjoy preferential treatment and shorter delays than "non-integrated" non-nationals;
- Or they do not want to become Swiss for specific reasons (this is more often the case than before): they want to keep in touch with their origins

(you can have dual nationality) and / or their EU-citizen passport gives them the advantage to move freely, work and live anywhere inside Europe – a right the Swiss do not have.

This second option is the reason why there are so many non-nationals among the young people in Switzerland. In other countries like France with its *ius soli* citizenship, most foreigners born in the country are *ipso facto* French.

Knowing this, we can more easily understand why the FH/HES population has fewer non-Swiss students than the universities.

The Former Status of the FH/HES as a Handicap to Their Internationalisation

Another reason for this relative self-sufficiency evidently lies in the regional character of the FH/HES and the regional labour market they service. This is a characteristic they share with non-university higher education institutions in other countries too.

There are some practical reasons for this weak international participation. They are due to the status of the institutions before they became FH/HES:

- Until now, the diplomas were not internationally recognised, unlike in the case of the international community of universities;
- With the lack of legal recognition as a higher education qualification, foreign students rarely benefited from student grants (from home or Swiss) and from the right of free residence (e.g. problems with visas) under the status of student: in some cantons they were treated as a part of the foreign labour force (as FH/HES students, they will be treated like any university student);
- Foreign countries were selective and unpredictable about recognising Swiss diplomas: they recognised some schools but not others – the criteria being set outside Switzerland;
- Mobility, formal recognition and cooperation with countries abroad was only bilateral and somewhat haphazard (it is still bilateral, but our partner countries have to accept the legal framework of Swiss FH/HES);
- Schools of the FH/HES type have a short curriculum: with courses lasting three to four years, the opportunities for individual mobility are limited, especially because of the very tight-knit and crisp pace of the study programmes of the FH/HES. It is easier to insert a year of study abroad if a course lasts five years plus a few years of postgraduate studies. Students have unfortunately become more sedentary and fear to lose contact with the home curriculum if they are away for too long;
- In the last 30 years, all over Europe, governments created schools and universities just on the doorstep of every young citizen. (No need to leave home and live in halls of residence or college dormitories. The bohemia of

identity-fostering college life belongs to the past). This has resulted in a sedentarisation of the student population in most countries. Like elsewhere, in Switzerland students today live in their parents' home ("Hotel Mama"!) for far longer. Or, they are mature students and have families of their own, which is very typical of the FH/HES population. The latter situation does not encourage mobility.

New Promising Efforts of "Internationalisation" in Certain FH/HES and Fields of Study

Despite all of this, there are characteristics which help to overcome these handicaps and encourage institutions to open themselves up. The FH/HES are all relatively independent and act pragmatically and individually. They developed initiatives on their own (and even financed them themselves) long before they became FH/HES, e.g. they participated actively in the ERASMUS and LEONARDO mobility programmes and in other EU programmes, sometimes in the form "paying guests". Regional trans-border relations with Germany, France, Austria and Italy are already a tradition which is very lively (universities, FH/HES, industry, culture, etc.), since participants do not feel "foreign" (they are neighbours!) even though they do not hold the same passports. Examples are the regional transnational cooperation in the Rhine valley (D;F;CH), the trans-Jurane cooperation (Besanaon, F – Neuchatel, CH), the very international region around Geneva (F; CH), the Italian-speaking Ticino with the Italian industrial complex around Milan (I, CH) or the cooperation around the Lake Constance (Konstanz, Baden-Württemberg; Lindau, Bavaria, the cantons of Eastern Switzerland and Vorarlberg, A). Although the distances bridged are small, there is the considerable advantage of knowing each other's systems and cultures. Only in or around Switzerland can you be a daytime commuter and still work or study in two countries at the same time!

Industry relations helped much to promote mobility: the globalisation of industry resulted in networks and corporations doing business and producing in several countries at the same time. This means that economists and engineers cooperate more often with foreign fellow economists and engineers on the same project and for the same corporation all over Europe. One and the same firm employs German, French, Austrian or Italian engineers inside Switzerland or outside. This form of internationalisation moves at a much faster pace than the internationalisation of the colleges or FH/HES which train this new type of multinational workforce.

Not all fields of study benefited from this boost. There are still fields of study and work which are less internationally oriented and remain within a national framework. One will need to take a closer look at the individual fields of study and professions in order to explain the different degree of internationalisation of the FH/HES.

Language Barriers Are No Serious Handicap to Internationalisation

The English language is more and more frequently used in FH/HES, as it is the case in the universities: in publications, colloquia, associations and sometimes even as a teaching tool. This is probably more the case in post-graduate studies and in research than in undergraduate studies. More schools begin to practice “immersive” language studies: i.e. English and foreign languages are taught in a content context and not as an artificial exercise. Swiss students have another language advantage (although they find it difficult and unnecessarily burdensome). All of them must understand at least one other national language and cannot simply content themselves with learning English only. The German Swiss, for example, learn French and English. They can communicate with the French directly and not need to take the detour via English. This gives them an advantage in knowing how to cope with different cultural settings. Learning languages is more than a function or a tool, it is learning to recognise other cultural values. Research results show that precisely these competencies are decisive in technical, scientific or economic working life. You can master a language and still lack cultural empathy.

Internationalisation of FH/HES in Specific Fields of Study

Engineering and Architecture

The oldest among the FH/HES (under their former status) are the engineering schools. These were slanted onto local and regional industries, as long as these industries acted with a regional or national focus. But these times are long gone. With the internationalisation or even globalisation of industrial production – and, parallel to this, a process of de-industrialisation and shift to service – and the software industry, the engineering schools had to widen their horizon. Unfortunately, in the past, the engineering schools at FH/HES level were not granted the university status which the two Federal Institutes of Technology (ETH/EPF) enjoyed. This would have linked them to the international scientific community and opened the very international world of fundamental research. Engineering schools, although active world-wide in technology and development and quite successfully so thanks to their industrial partners, have until now remained somehow parochial, in status and also in size. Now, as FH/HES, regrouped in bigger networks, they have the opportunity to integrate into the “academic” culture of science and technology. They benefit from participation in federal research promotion projects which are very often based on international syndicates, if not EU programmes.

Today the interim results of the process of internationalisation in the engineering schools among the FH/HES is quite encouraging: the number of joint research projects with foreign universities or schools of engineering is quite impressive. ERASMUS exchange contacts are frequent. The style of cooperation becomes more similar to that of the universities. Regional technical cross-border cooperation projects have become quite frequent: e.g. the

FH of Basle (Muttenz), close to the German-French border, engaged in a tri-national project of training engineers with the Université de Haute Alsace in Mulhouse and the *Berufsakademie* in Lörrach, Baden-Württemberg, all three being located in an area some 40 km in perimeter. The students move every year from France to Germany and Switzerland. A similar tri-national project is planned around the Lake Constance between the canton of St.Gallen, Baden-Württemberg and Vorarlberg in Austria.

Economic Studies in the FH/HES

Almost every FH/HES has a unit for economic studies. The diploma awarded is similar to a Bachelor of Business Administration. Seven of the universities also offer studies in economics, their diploma is similar to a Master of Business Administration. The economics faculties known to be more international are those of the Universities of St.Gallen and Lausanne.

Studies in economics at FH/HES are a very regional phenomenon. With their curriculum being very practical (mostly accounting, controlling and marketing) and modelled on the national legal and financial framework, their scope is not very international. Of course, their curricula are constantly revised in order to comply with international trends, but up to now there has been little effort to engage in more international interaction (exchanges, visiting professors, joint projects, etc.). As FH/HES, they will have to face this challenge and step out of the shadows. It is a paradox that economic studies are a totally globalised subject and that nevertheless Swiss FH/HES, although no less globalised than other institutions, remain regional in character (financial services excepted). Here (as in technology and science), English has become a *lingua franca*, a situation that fosters local self-sufficiency rather than opens gates to the world. This is a typically “a-cultural” way to internationalisation. In other words: to learn English in order not to have to bother about other languages is a fallacy.

FH/HES Studies in the Fields of Health, Social Work and Education

These fields of studies have little international interaction, at least in a school context, because of the professions, which are strictly regulated on the national level. In most countries this is the same, and therefore – apart from international professional organisations – exchanges are not on a level comparable with other fields. In education and especially in health Switzerland is “importing” a substantial labour force, but few Swiss go abroad. This is not a question of mentality but of a tight compartmentalisation of the social, health and education systems in Europe.

FH/HES Studies in Arts, Music and Drama

The picture in this field is quite different. In these fields professions are free wheeling and the labour-market is almost exclusively international. Careers,

training and research are highly competitive, very much as in the sciences. Switzerland with its decentralised, municipally sponsored cultural life provides a rich breeding ground for these professions. Emulation is high, especially because the expectation is that every career has to be sanctioned by foreign experience. Success comes with recognition from abroad, from Paris, Cologne, Düsseldorf, Barcelona, Milan or other cities, wherever the avant-garde happens to be located in a certain field. The FH/HES in these fields, i.e. the *Musikhochschulen, Hochschulen für Theater, Hochschulen für Gestaltung und Kunst*, etc. are very selective and attract a considerable number of foreign students, some of whom are willing to make substantial financial efforts to study. Here, internationalisation is common practice, the exchange of professors a habit. Artists, musicians, actors must travel from project to project, from assignment to assignment, from contract to contract. This inevitably creates a very multicultural community.

Instead of a Conclusion

Comments on the "checklist for authors" of the ACA project on Internationalisation of Non-University Higher Education:

1. *Higher education institutions in the different European countries share a number of common traits, but they also differ in many respects. We would like to ask you to briefly describe the major characteristics of your non-university system. Particularly important aspects should be: structure of courses/degrees, typical subject areas, size, finance, governance/management structures, role in research (if any), regional links (services for the community, industry, etc.), different types of non-university institutions and number of them.*
   Comment: See the descriptive part 1.

2. *We understand that many non-university-type institutions in Europe were set up with a special view to a regional development policy. If this applies to your institution as well, would you say that the regional focus has had a specific impact on internationalisation efforts in the view of academic staff on the importance of internationalisation, in the characteristics of the student population, etc.*
   Comment: The outline in part A shows that regional development is sometimes, but not necessarily contradictory with internationalisation. Swiss FH/HES were certainly created by and for regions and their development. This development is a way to link the regional economy and professional cultures to the world. Regions and SMEs use the FH/HES to obtain technology and knowledge transfer, which comes from all over the world. SMEs are not any longer only "regional", nor even "small" in size: some of them, especially "high-tech" SMEs, for which the FH/HES cater like the universities and the Federal Institutes of Technology, have links all over the world. More and more young economists and engineers graduat-

ing from the FH/HES put up spin-off trades, mobilise venture capital and set up their own businesses.

3. *In comparison with universities, non-university institutions are normally viewed as putting the stress on applied teaching and research (development). In how far does this impact on the nature of international exchange and cooperation activities of your institution? Is there such a thing as a typical international activity spectrum of a non-university institution? If so, how does it differ from international activities of universities?*
   Comment: The old pattern of successive steps: fundamental research – applied research – development – prototype – product – hardly applies any more. All distinctions have become blurred, many steps have inserted loops back to previous steps, procedures diversify, sidelines become main lines, etc. Thus, the FH/HES do not only engage in "application", but they create new patterns. Universities have successfully discovered for themselves applied research too, if it is only to gain access to more resources. Applying key technologies, some of which have been "imported" to new fields, leads to a "re-export" of the application abroad. Laboratories of Swiss FH/HES are in general excellently equipped and sometimes serve also for university-type postgraduate research.

   In short, the universities have an advance in internationalisation, they have the know-how and the experience. The FH/HES have not reached the same level yet, but there is no essential difference in the character of the cooperation, which is commonly scientific and professional.

4. *In many countries, the boundaries between university and non-university higher education institutions are getting blurred, partly as an effect of the increasing differentiation of the range of educational programmes offered by both types of institution. Is there such a trend in your country? Would you say that the international activity of non-university institutions has an impact on this process? In what way?*
   Comment: Distinctions between Research and Development activities of universities and FH/HES are becoming blurred, as already mentioned, especially in economics, where the universities are very practically minded and pragmatic (to a point that the Swiss Council of Research criticises them for neglecting fundamental research in some fields!). The institutions are nevertheless still very distinct, their organisational culture is different. FH/HES students do not have the social and cultural "habits" of university students. They are closer to business (real life) economy; when they learn, they "work" whereas university students "study". The youth cultures of the different institutions do not match: there is a social and cultural gap. In matters of research, FH/HES and universities are in direct competition in many fields (where a few leading-edge specialised research frontiers of certain fields are not concerned). This will gradually bring them to resemble one another more and more. A typical example is the

field of economics: there is little difference in the scope of research between FH/HES and universities, except for the prestige. The universities may be more proficiently international, but they do not shun to graze in the smaller fields reserved to the FH/HES.

5. *Are there structural differences in opportunity between your institution and universities when it comes to international cooperation? Is funding for both types of institutions on a comparable level? Do you avail of a professional infrastructure (international/European office) and is it adequately resourced?*
   Comment: The differences should be abolished as soon as the FH/HES have become stabilised. They should benefit from the same status as all other students. In the long run all services for students will merge. Already now, cantonal student counselling services or grant allocation offices work for both types of higher education.

6. *Would you say that the foreign language qualifications of your students (and academic staff) are an obstacle to large-scale mobility and cooperation? Are there different foreign language requirements for access to your institution compared to universities?*
   Comment (see also part 1): As mentioned before, knowledge of foreign languages is no handicap, because all Swiss students must be able to understand and make themselves understood in a second national language (German, French or Italian) and, of course, in English. We encounter more problems in asking for compliance with the first goal than the second.

7. *Do you think that the size of an institution impacts the possible breadth and depth of its international cooperation activities? Do you see this as an advantage or a disadvantage?*
   Comment: The different FH/HES are networks of relatively small schools. The smaller ones certainly have more limited capabilities for promoting international activities. On the other hand, smallness can instil the desire to be exposed to another culture, to escape a reputation of cosy provincialism. Small institutions are less inclined to indulge in a self-sufficient, isolationist mentality if they are in a competitive situation. In this respect, the competitively financed research and development portfolios of the FH/HES are a strong incentive to internationalisation. It is the profession which leads to internationalisation, not the school. The school follows the culture of the profession or the culture of research. For example: the FH/HES of Bern has a proficient section for “conservation and restoration” of works of art, of manuscripts, etc. It is very small, but its field of action is very international. The highly specialised tiny Abegg-Stiftung in the rural village Riggisberg (Bern) is one of the rare spots in world where precious, historic textiles can be restored. The Music Academy of Basel has a research section Scola Cantorum Basiliensis, which is small, but

world-famous for its research into the interpretation of historic baroque music. All these institutions do not belong to the university sector and they are very small. Their somewhat exceptional profile makes them partners of institutions of high prestige like the Ecole du Louvre.

8. *Non-university institutions often have close ties with business and industry, at local level or more widely. Does the tradition of these contacts provide specific opportunities for international activity? If so, how are these made use of in practice?*
   Comment: The links with the professions and the industry are the strength of the FH/HES. (See particularly part 1).

9. *The more applied nature of education in non-university institutions puts these institutions in a good position for providing continuing education and playing a role in life long learning. How would you describe the activities of your institution, and your ambitions, in this regard? What connection is there with the international activity of your institution?*
   Comment: Further training, post-diploma courses and degrees are a strong asset of the FH/HES. They are the biggest higher education providers in the country. The universities are imitating the FH/HES in this field. This market is unfortunately mainly national because of the limitations placed upon us by our national languages. The Swiss have not the advantage of being able to commercialise educational programmes, products or even diplomas on a world-scale like the Anglo-Saxon countries, since English is not one of their national languages.

10. *How is internationalisation institutionalised: are there links to other policy issues of the institution, are activities carried out ad hoc or in a systematic manner?*
    Comment: It is too early to speak about institutionalisation of internationalisation in the FH/HES. They will use the same service institutions as the universities.

Part II
The Bonn Conference

Dr. Hermann Müller-Solger
Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, Bonn

Cooperation of Fachhochschulen in Europe

1. At conferences like this one, one usually finds three types of participants, namely:
- ♦ The ones who really know the matter;
- ♦ The ones who know to ask the right questions about the matter;
- ♦ And the ones who believe they at least understand the matter and the questions. These latter are usually called generalists.

The farmer comes to see the vet. "My cow is sick". The veterinarian asks: "How has the cow been fed?". The generalist intervenes: "This is all subject to the CAP, the Common Agricultural Policy". You see, we are in Europe.

2. I am afraid I am such a generalist. I cannot offer you advice on how to organise new forms of cooperation between *Fachhochschulen* in the different countries of Europe, and I cannot engage with you in a detailed discussion on how to enhance the international dimension of your institutions through your curricula and examinations. What I can try to do is to put the historical development of the new types of institutions of higher learning, and of the differentiation process of the higher education systems more generally, into the framework of the present EU policy debate. Furthermore, I can inform you on some issues discussed in this country, and depict in a few remarks the main avenues that the German Federal Ministry is now going down in order to strengthen the development of the *Fachhochschulen.*

3. At the turn of the century and the millennium, the political rationale which led to the creation of the *Fachhochschule* in the 1960s is as relevant as ever. It could be summarised as follows:
- ♦ Create practice-oriented higher education institutions;
- ♦ Strengthen institutions of technical training which have anyway already grown into research-related establishments, thus flattening hierarchies;
- ♦ And open up paths for the faster completion of studies and a smoother transition to the labour market.

All these principles are today more relevant than ever. And institutions following this line of development can be proud to be among those which will certainly be further strengthened and gain in importance in the coming years.

4. Let me put this message into the context of a few policy issues which characterise the German EU Presidency:
- ♦ Take the Agenda 2000. The decisions on the financial forecast from 2000 to 2006 were in principle taken at the Berlin summit, on 24 and 25 March. I do not want to go so far as to say that the focus has now shifted from

agricultural policies to education and research. But in preparing the medium-term financial planning, there has been a debate pointing in this direction, in the sense that there will be a higher rate of increase for the rubric 3 expenses, which cover internal policy matters, than for the other rubrics;

- Take the Structural Funds. Objective 3 – "Development of Human Resources" received a higher profile and gained in importance when the number of the objectives was reduced from six to three;
- And take the debate on the European Employment Pact, which is going to be announced at the Cologne Summit on 3 and 4 June. The document on the Pact will cover three areas:
  a) Macro-economic policies with more coordination and concertation on taxes and industrial policies.
  b) Employment policies with the aim of further enhancing the Luxembourg process which requires member states to present national action plans on the basis of European guidelines defined by the Council.
  c) Policies for infrastructure such as the Trans European Networks, the TEN. The German Presidency has insisted that the infrastructure for research and education be mentioned as well.

How does this relate to the *Fachhochschulen?* I dare say that this type of institution can contribute a lot to the improvement of the employability of graduates and thus to the qualifications of the workforce. Exactly this is the intention of the Employment Pact: to focus policies on the improvement of the employment situation itself and of the employability of people.

5. The latter, of course, is a task which primarily concerns the ministers of education, science and training. That is why we have put this question on the agenda of the Council of Education and Science ministers, who will meet in Luxembourg on 7 June, i. e. a few days after the Cologne Council. Our task is to be a partner in the European Employment Pact, and to contribute to its implementation.

We are going to have a discussion document and two annexes on the table, one giving examples of good practice from Member States, interestingly one from Italy that describes a new policy of cooperation between higher education institutions and industry, and one spelling out in the format of a Memorandum of the Presidency views on "Youth and Europe – our Future."

We want to highlight that much can be done in education systems to better adapt to the needs of the labour market, and that it is useful to discuss this in the European framework. The European Employment Pact will not replace national, regional or even enterprise-based employment pacts. On the contrary, it will reinforce them. This means there is hope that European cooperation can truly enhance the efforts aiming at more employment opportunities.

Thus, our debate will have to concentrate on the employment aspects and on the European dimension of education and training. It is evident that the *Fachhochschulen* show models of combining these aspects which are exemplary.

6. There are now possibilities for further developing the European cooperation of the *Fachhochschulen.* The decision on the new LEONARDO II programme was finalised under the German Presidency on 26 April. During the next seven years, this programme will have 1.15 billion EUR at its disposal, which is a substantial increase on the present programme. For SOCRATES II, negotiations could not yet be concluded. The differences of opinion over the volume of the budget for this programme is still too large. The decision is now expected to be taken in November.

It is clear that all interested parties expect the *Fachhochschulen* to continue being very active partners in these programmes. They will thus underline again their main features, which are gaining relevance in a more and more convincing fashion:

- Openness to the world of work and their environment;
- Openness to international experience;
- Efficiency in the delivery of their teaching.

Forgive me for a little bout of patriotism when I specifically address the German *Fachhochschulen* here. I very much hope that they will continue to apply for projects and will involve their students and teaching staff in exchanges. I will not go into details of this. Later presenters from the European Commission, the DAAD and ACA can do this job much better.

7. For the Federal Ministry of Education and Research, it has long been a priority to develop the *Fachhochschulen* as an important sector of the higher education system. Please take a look at the *Fachhochschulen*-brochure of our ministry, which is available here. You will find there some very courageous perspectives for their further development, including, for example, the search for possibilities to raise the pay level of professors at *Fachhochschulen,* or the recognition that the teaching load should be reduced. This is certainly a language rarely heard these days.

Other perspectives are to broaden the scope of curricula of these institutions and especially to expand the *Fachhochschulen* system beyond the expansion of the university system. The percentage of students studying at *Fachhochschulen* should be increased as rapidly as possible from 28 to 40 percent.

We know that some crucial questions will remain open – for example, the status of *Fachhochschule* degrees with regard to entry into the public service. But here time is in favour of the *Fachhochschulen* and we are convinced that a certain competition between *Fachhochschulen* and universities will see the *Fachhochschulen* thriving.

8. You will be discussing new types of higher education institutions at this conference. The *Fachhochschulen* are fairly new creations. But with regard to their mission, there is certainly a parallel between their objectives and those of the older higher education institutions, the universities. Even the research-oriented universities inspired by the ideas of Wilhelm von Humboldt had as their objective to train people for the needs of the labour market and, particularly, those of the public service. We are nowadays witnessing a change of paradigm for the education institutions, which appears to have many implications. It is the change from the classical paradigm, which was framed to a large extent by the institutional patterns of the cloister and the military barracks, towards a paradigm where business categories such as quality management and institutional autonomy are more and more penetrating the setting of our educational institutions.

We hope to have a good discussion on this issue at a ministerial conference on the theme of “education and the economy” in Budapest at the end of June, which will involve education ministers from over 30 countries, i.e. the accession countries and the PHARE area countries. Through the work of OECD and others it is known that we are now ahead of a very important global trend and we are happy to know that we have good examples of this new paradigm which, continuously, has to be better understood and more forcefully developed.

You are taking on this task in your conference. On behalf of the Federal Ministry of Education and Research, I wish you every success.

Bernd Wächter
Director
Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), Bruxelles

The Country Reports: Some First Observations

In this paper, I shall try to give a first overview and analysis of the main trends of the country reports that ACA commissioned as part of its project on the internationalisation of non-university higher education in Europe. In order to put things into perspective, it might help to briefly depict the main lines of this overall project.

The ACA Project

The underlying assumption was that international cooperation in Europe's non-university sector still lagged behind internationalisation in the "classical" universities. This assumption was based on the fact that the institutions in question are all fairly young, in some cases actually only in the process of being created, and thus still more concerned with "domestic" issues. Second, it was assumed that the relative absence of "research" as a major task of these institutions would automatically result in fewer international contacts, and a lower level of international work. Third, the expectation was that the strong regional role and mission of many of these institutions would translate into a concentration on the closer environment, rather than foreign countries. Last, there were statistical indications, from the European Union's education and training programmes, but also from national providers, that these institutions were indeed less active on an international scale than their older brothers, the universities.

Despite such indications, there is little hard and fast knowledge about the international activities of non-university institutions. Most judgements are based on anecdotal rather than systematic evidence, and most knowledge has the heuristic status of "educated guesses". Thus, the first aim of the project was to test if the basic assumption of a lagging behind of the non-university sector is actually correct. A second interest concerned the question if there are any particular international activities that the non-university sector preferentially engages in. The applied or professional nature of the institutions and their close links to industry and business would lead one to expect that such fields and activities as continuing education, lifelong learning, technology transfer and internships might be especially common. Third, the aim was to find out which particular constraints, if any, hinder the institutions in their attempts at internationalisation. Are they underprivileged, in terms of funding and infrastructure? Last, the objective was to identify if there are any

particular opportunities for international cooperation in this sector which the older universities do not enjoy.

In order to gain an overview of the situation across Europe, ACA identified authors in the different European countries who would provide an up-to-date picture of the state of play in non-university higher education cooperation. These were found among rectors or representatives of these institutions' national associations. ACA provided a "checklist" of issues and questions for these authors, which specified the above points. But authors were perfectly free to ignore this aid tool and follow their own agenda.

Geographically, the scope of this first part, as indeed of the entire project, encompassed the countries of the European Union and the European Free Trade Association, as well as some central European countries. A further exclusion (or inclusion) criterion was that countries to be included needed to have a sizeable non-university sector of higher education. For the purposes of the project, non-university higher education had been defined by four criteria, namely:

- Not being a university, nor an academy of art or music;
- Predominantly offering courses of a minimum duration of three years;
- Not awarding Ph.D. degrees;
- Being institutionally independent (i.e. not a dependent part of a larger structure, such as a university).

This way, the project team identified 18 countries. 16 of these provided a country report (17 reports in all, among them two for Belgium). Two countries, Poland and Hungary, which have institutions of the type described, did not provide an essay.

The second part of the project consisted of an international seminar, held in Bonn in early May 1999. In this phase of the project, the earlier geographic logic of the country reports was substituted by a thematic orientation. By way of example, instead of concentrating on Norway or Portugal, presentations explored issues like mobility or curriculum development across Europe. This paper was presented as part of the seminar, in order to bring participants up to date with the main finding of the first phase.

Domestic Concerns

One out of ten items in the above-mentioned checklist encouraged authors to "briefly" describe their higher education system, and the place that non-university institutions takes there. This was to serve as a background to be able to better situate the international activities. In fact, many authors devoted the major part of their papers to this structural issue. On average, these domestic aspects and the international ones get about the same coverage. Is this indicative of the relatively low status of international cooperation as a

policy concern in non-university higher education institutions? Clearly, if essays on the subject of internationalisation mainly deal with domestic agendas, one would conclude that their authors attach much more importance to the debate at home than to international issues.

Identity

In the context of the above domestic concern, the self-concept, or identity, of the non-university institutions occupies an important place. Do the non-university institutions like to be what they are, i.e. do they have a positive self-image, or would they rather want to be "proper" universities? A majority of authors do indeed display a positive non-university identity. They give the reader the impression that the mission and tasks the institutions presently have should remain: a focus on undergraduate teaching, no basic research and limited applied research and development, a strong regional rooting, and overall a "vocational", "professional" or "applied" rather than an academic orientation.

About one third of authors either openly state or more indirectly imply that they would prefer their institutions to be universities. For them, the UK is the role model, and the aim is to overcome the "binary divide". Those institutions also often state that their preferred foreign partners are universities.

However, even those institutions with a positive non-university identity often draw attention to the fact that the architecture of higher education systems is changing, thereby gently raising a doubt if a clear-cut differentiation into university and non-university institutions is an adequate description of the structural realities. There are many statements to the effect that the boundaries between these sectors are shifting or becoming "blurred". The perception is common that a process of convergence is underway, with the universities displaying a "vocational drift" and the non-university institutions an "academic drift". In this context, it is telling that two types of non-university institutions, the German *Fachhochschulen* and the Dutch *hogescholen,* have been given the right by their respective governments to use the label "university" when they present themselves internationally (but not at home). Thus, the self-assuredness and positive self-image of such institutions could also have something to do with the fact that they do not regard themselves as non-university institutions at all. Such a perception would be corroborated by the fact that both the *hogescholen* and the *Fachhochschulen* have always refused to join European non-university organisations such as EURASHE, thereby implying that they play in a different league.

Beyond the question of identity, more or less all institutions complain about objective disadvantages in comparison with the university sector, in terms of funding and resources.

Homogeneity of the Sector

One of the – more hidden – questions of the project was whether it is possible to speak of a non-university sector at all. Is there enough commonality between the different types of institutions across Europe to legitimately regard them as constituting one single sector, with a certain degree of homogeneity? Or is the only thing the institutions have in common that they are not universities, but otherwise very different.

There are both similarities and differences. Differences concern above all size. The largest institution mentioned, in The Netherlands, has a student body of 34,000. The smallest schools have barely 100 students. Mergers have taken place in many countries, with the result that mini-institutions become rarer, and it appears that this process has not yet come to an end everywhere. While, with marginal exceptions, the institutions tend to be smaller than the vast majority of universities in their respective countries, in a European perspective, the average size of a non-university institution in one country might equal that of the average university in another.

The differences in the size of individual institutions are reflected in the share of the non-university field of the entire higher education system. The Netherlands lead the table, with about 60% of all higher education students enrolled in *hogescholen* (with an upward tendency), together with the non-university in the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium. In Norway, both sectors are equally strong in terms of student numbers. The share of Irish non-university institutions is 40% (55% of new entrants). Germany's *Fachhochschulen* make up, in terms of student numbers, about one quarter of the total higher education system. In other countries, the share is almost insignificant. This might, of course, change, given that the sector has only very recently been established in some countries, such as Austria, and where continuous growth in the coming years is agreed government policy.

Similarities concern first of all the duration of studies. Three to four year courses are the standard case. Of course, this result is to a good degree due to the selection of countries and institution-types in the project, and thus not surprising. Some institutions provide what they term "postgraduate" education, though in most cases these do not appear to be master's degrees, or in any event regarded as equivalent to the respective degrees universities would award. Again, Germany is or will become an exception, where the new higher education framework act provides *Fachhochschulen* with the possibility to offer master's degrees.

Secondly, the subjects ranges offered by non-university institutions show a high degree of overlap. The particular subjects may vary in individual cases, but there is a strong concentration on business studies, engineering, computer science, applied sciences, design and social work.

Third, despite a perceived or real “blurring” of borderlines between the universities and the non-university institutions, the general orientation of the institutions covered in the country essays is fairly homogeneous. As was to be expected, they can be characterised by a concentration on teaching and the lack of any basic research, as well as varying, but never overpowering levels of applied research. They play a strong local or regional role, and they enjoy close relations with the corporate world. Their overall orientation carries different names, such as “applied”, “professional” or “vocational”, but they all share an abstinence from any outright theoretical focus.

International Cooperation

Volume of International Activity

It is almost impossible to assess, to any extent of precision, the volume of international activity of the sector, be it in absolute terms, or in comparison with universities. The exception is student mobility, where some empirical data are available. The general impression is that of a lower volume of activity than in the university sector, which is explicitly stated by some authors. But such judgements do not take into account the size of the institutions. In other words, they do not permit any relative or weighted judgements on activity volumes.

Student Mobility

For most authors, internationalisation and student mobility are quasi-identical. This throws an illuminating light on the dominance of this activity in the overall spectrum of international cooperation. Any other activity, with the exception of staff exchanges in some cases, appear marginal by comparison. From analyses such as those conducted within the EUROSTRAT project of the Association of European Universities (CRE), we are aware that the university sector, too, views student mobility as the prime form of internationalisation. But the almost exclusive degree in which it figures in the country reports still constitutes a surprise.

Mobility of students exists in two forms: as the classical type, i.e. for study, and in the form of internships in companies. Again, a clear quantification is impossible, but the impression is strong that internships might constitute up to half of all student mobility. Internships thus play a much bigger role than in the university sector. Internship phases of considerable duration are mandatory on many courses, leaving it up to the student whether to fulfil this obligation in the home country or abroad.

Although student mobility is the most favoured activity, constraints are also mentioned. The most frequently named obstacle are the tight courses with a high number of contact hours, which make it difficult to integrate a study

abroad phase and anyway create the need for careful advance planning. In countries with a booming economy, students seem to be reluctant to go abroad, in order not to "lose" time and graduate as fast as possible. Less frequently stated than expected are foreign language barriers. One Nordic author states, however, that exchanges with France and the Latin part of Europe will remain difficult to arrange as long as there is no delivery of courses in English.

Other Activity Types

Teaching staff mobility comes a clear second to student exchanges. There is hardly any mention of the internationalisation of curricula, apart from one particular sort: the provision of courses partly or fully in foreign languages. One notable exception is Germany, where the author provides evidence that the number of "international degree courses" is higher in the non-university field than in the university sector.

A particular surprise was the virtual abstinence from any international cooperation in the field of continuing education and lifelong learning. The expectation had been that the predominantly "practical" orientation of the sector and its close links with the corporate world would result in enhanced activity in these domains. While underlining the political importance of continuing education and lifelong learning in statements which at times have the odour of a lip-service, hardly any concrete action is named. Some authors, though, are very open about this deficiency: the Danish report talks of "insignificant" activity, Iceland reports "no noticeable activity" and another points out the difficulty that it is unclear how to internationalise continuing education and lifelong learning.

Institutionalisation of Internationalisation

One question put to authors concerned the institutionalisation of internationalisation. The intention was to find out whether international cooperation and activity was carried out in an *ad hoc* and unsystematic way, or if strategies and priorities had been developed. Few authors took up this issue at all, and no one attached any heightened importance to it. In fact, a number of statements give rise to doubts if the concept was properly understood. Those who comment on the question fairly uniformly state that the days of ad-hocism are over, but the very formulations often are a simple rephrasing from the "checklist for authors" they had been provided with. One aspect, though, comes out clearly: whether there is strategic management of international relations or not, internationalisation has lost the aura of the marginal and the exotic.

Industry Links

Links with industry and business as a basis for international cooperation play a certain role in the majority of reports. In some cases, authors state that the

close links of the sector to the corporate world provide excellent international opportunities, though it rarely becomes clear which they are. There is one exception; companies figure high as providers of internship places, be it for incoming foreign students, or for home students abroad, through the international network the local/regional businesses are linked to.

Command of Foreign Languages

Foreign language command of students figures high in most reports. The most common statement is that knowledge of foreign languages should not differ between university and non-university students, since they have passed through the same secondary school system, with equal demands, and since entrance requirements do not differ between the sectors with regard to language. Beyond such general and, at times, less than forceful assertions, it becomes obvious that, unsurprisingly, English is the most common among the foreign languages mastered. To a lesser extent, there is also a concentration on the languages of the immediate neighbours, such as the other Nordic languages or German in the north of Europe. Only one author reports a decline in the mastery of foreign languages over time.

In a number of countries, courses with obligatory foreign-language components exist, though it remains unclear to which extent. Austria, where students receive instruction in English and, in some cases, additionally in two languages of neighbouring countries, is an advanced example. The same goes for the Slovene case, with five semesters of English and German, although the institution in question is very likely not typical of the country as a whole.

The above applies to home students. Statements on the language question with regard to foreign students are much rarer. They concentrate on ways to accommodate foreign students with no or inadequate command of the host country. The number of countries which do provide the offer of courses taught in English (not as language instruction, but as language of delivery) is higher than was expected, but not in the majority. Company placements are often quoted as a way around the language problem. From this, one gains the impression that English as (an alternative) language of communication is more common in companies than in the higher education institutions. This sheds some doubts on the credibility of often-made claims in the reports that virtually all staff master English comfortably.

EU Programmes

In some countries, particularly in cases where the non-university sector has only been established very recently, an international orientation is claimed to be part of the very rationale of non-university higher education. However, in the vast majority of cases, the European Union programmes have clearly

had the most important “trigger” function for international cooperation. In Central Europe, TEMPUS had this role, which now gives way to SOCRATES in general and ERASMUS in particular. Generally, the ignition programme appears to have been ERASMUS. Astonishingly, COMETT, and its “successor” LEONARDO are mentioned much less frequently, although one would have expected a high concentration on vocationally oriented programmes such as these. Overall, the EU programmes are given credit for their wide interpretation of higher education. Unlike many national schemes for international cooperation, they were open to the non-university sector right from their start.

Partner Choice

When choosing partner institutions and partner countries, many considerations play a role. A frequent one is, unsurprisingly, language. This puts the Anglo-Saxon countries at an advantage, as well as countries with very similar languages (Swedish, Norwegian, Danish) and also those countries which offer some of their courses in English. Apart from that, the non-university institutions display a preference for partners which are geographically close. Cross-border cooperation, such as those in the *Euregios* or *Dreiländerecks* (the German-French-Dutch *regio* of Aachen, Liege, Maastricht; the Upper Rhine Valley region around Basel, Mulhouse, Strasbourg and Freiburg, etc.). For those more “ambitious” types of institutions, which feel they belong to the class of universities, the attempt to find university-type partners abroad is important. For a wider range of institutions, such alliances are sometimes of a tactical value. This is the case with franchising agreements, which enable non-university institutions, through their foreign partners, to award master’s degrees they themselves cannot award. This “instrumental” type of internationalisation is, however, less motivated by inclination than by need.

Infrastructure and Resources

By and large, universities have long ago created an organisational infrastructure for international relations, in the guise of international or European offices, staffed with professionals for international exchange and cooperation, and for raising the necessary funding. It was one of the expectations behind the project that such an infrastructure was not available in all non-university institutions, and not staffed as adequately as in universities. Statements regarding this topic are not easily quantifiable, so that the reports only indicate trends and, at best in some cases, orders of magnitude. The general line of argument is that non-university institutions are disadvantaged in comparison to universities when it comes to a strong professional infrastructure. Very small institutions cannot afford the luxury to employ staff for these purposes only. In some of these institutions, an academic has been made responsible for the coordination of international cooperation, on top of teaching duties

with, in some cases, a reduction in teaching load. At the other end of the spectrum, the Norwegian Agder College with a student population of 6,000 employs a staff of 4,5 full-time equivalents.

Professional central or de-central units are, of course, only one aspect of an institution's organising potential. The involvement of teaching staff matters just as well. In this regard, comparisons with the university sector are almost impossible. However, two factors provide for framework conditions which are clearly less favourable. Compared to university professors, non-university teaching staff on average have a much higher teaching load, leaving generally less time for activities beyond instruction, among them international cooperation. Secondly, it appears that at least one manifestation of the "applied" nature of the institutions and their closeness to the world of business and work puts them at a disadvantage. They often employ, next to regular staff, professionals from industry on the basis per-hour honoraria. Such staff, valuable as they are in many other respects, very rarely take part in any extra-teaching activities, such as the organisation of international cooperation.

There are uniform complaints about the inadequacy of funds, for the institutions as a whole, and for international activity in particular. Although there is no quantification, and certainly no relative one (with universities), the impression is overwhelming that non-university institutions indeed have to make ends meet with less funds than universities.

Size and International Cooperation

Is size a determining factor in the ability of an institution to put in place successful measures in internationalisation? This was one of the questions contained in the "checklist". The answers are not uniform at all. There is the one group that concedes that there must be a "critical mass" in order to become able to efficiently engage in international cooperation. Mini-institutions, they maintain, suffer from structural constraints in this regard. A striking example is the institution where the responsibility for teaching a particular field or specialisation rests on the shoulders of one single person. This person is indispensable, and therefore very rarely available for missions and other activities which entail his or her absence. As could be seen in the preceding paragraph, there is also a correlation between size and the availability or otherwise of any professional organisation structure. The fact that size often goes with location seems to be important too. Capital city institutions tend to be larger than those in peripheral regions, and capitals and other centres are always more attractive for foreign institutions or students when it comes to choosing a partner institution or a place to study.

On the other hand, many authors maintain that, though not often perceived, smaller institutions often offer better conditions for foreign students or staff.

They tend to be less anonymous than larger structures, with relations between the hosts and the guests becoming more intimate socially, and supervision and support being closer and better.

Prof. Dr. Ulrich Teichler
Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung
Universität Gesamthochschule Kassel

The Impetus of the European Mobility and Cooperation Programmes on the Internationalisation of Non-University Higher Education

1. The Marginal Internationality of the Non-University Sector in the Past

The institutions of higher education considered to be alternatives to universities in terms of possibly:

- Providing shorter course programmes;
- Putting emphasis on practice-oriented education;
- Not combining teaching with research or to a lesser extent and with a more applied emphasis than universities, and
- Not being or at most marginally being in charge of academic reproduction, i.e. the training of future teachers and researchers on higher education, tended to be by far less internationally oriented than the universities. This was obvious in the past.

This state of affairs seemed to be natural, because, first, among the major functions of higher education:

- Research was most strongly internationally oriented, followed by
- Training of young academics, whereas
- Teaching was international to a lesser extent, and
- Service was mostly understood as a regional and local affair.

The more international a function of higher education was viewed in the past, the less it was the task of the non-university sector.

Second, we note that universities are more likely to attract foreign students, if:

- Their academic reputation is high;
- Their location is metropolitan;
- Their courses comprise large components of advanced students;
- They offer to a large extent fields of study which traditionally are prone to student mobility.

These factors do not only explain to a large extent different quotas of foreign students within any country, but also higher quotas at universities than at non-university higher education institutions, for the latter tended to have a lesser academic reputation, to be more widely spread across all regions, to be rarely offering advanced programmes and to play hardly any or a small role in providing programmes in some of the fields most prone to student

exchange, such as languages and philology, area studies and fine arts. One should add, however, that engineering, e.g. a field strongly represented in non-university higher education, belonged already for a long time to those fields with an above-average proportion of internationally mobile students.

In fact, up to the 1980s, most European non-university higher education institutions had no student exchange programmes, no international offices and no courses taught in foreign languages and often no expectation that their students might read texts in a foreign language or might be exposed to foreign cultures or comparative analyses.

2. The Mobilising Thrust of the European Programmes

There are four characteristics of the European programmes which explain why they could be the prince who kissed the "sleeping beauty" awake, as far as internationalisation is concerned. The programmes of the European Union had a mobilising effect due to their:

- Mass approach;
- Practice-orientation;
- Regional emphasis, and their
- Preference for "organised study abroad" and "curricular integration".

(a) *Mass approach:* ERASMUS wanted to ensure that student mobility is not anymore the exceptional experience of the academically most successful ones, the specialists of foreign cultures and societies and individualistic adventurers. The magic 10 percent target quota of mobile students set at the inauguration of the ERASMUS programme in 1987 underscored the intention that mobility, though not becoming more or less universal, should not be exceptional anymore. Equal participation with regard to socio-biographical background, field of study, region and type of higher education institutions and last but not least according to country were advocated and to some extent guided the award decisions.

The role of this mass approach might be demonstrated by the case of Germany:

- In 1995, the number of fellowships awarded to students at *Fachhochschulen* by the German Academic Exchange Service corresponded to 1.3 percent of an annual student cohort as compared to 3.5 percent at universities and other colleges (notably fine arts colleges). Beyond that, most DAAD fellowships are awarded to advanced and doctoral students, i.e. mostly to university graduates;
- ERASMUS fellowships were awarded in 1993/94 to 3.3 percent of *Fachhochschule* students of a single annual cohort as compared to 4.2 percent at universities and 5.1 percent at other institutions of higher education (see Wolfgang Steube and Ulrich Teichler. *Die Stellung der Fachhochschulen im Förderangebot des DAAD.* Kassel: Wissenschaftliches

Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung der Universität Gesamthochschule Kassel, 1998, mimeo.).

(b) *Practice-orientation:* The intention of the COMETT programme and the LEONARDO programme is to promote cooperation between higher education and industry in various ways, among others through internships abroad. This is especially attractive to the non-university sector where internships are more common than in the university sector.

(c) *Regional emphasis:* For most universities, Europe is one of various arenas of international cooperation. In some fields, closer ties exist to the academics in the U.S. than to those in other European countries. Some university programmes are specialised on specific countries or areas, such as Chinese Studies or Mid-East Studies, or address issues of developing countries, such as tropical agriculture. Even if university programmes have a European emphasis, such as Latin languages and literature, they take for granted that they are not exclusively oriented to Europe, and in the case mentioned also address Latin American culture and literature. A study undertaken on European study programmes in Germany found that about 90 percent of the programmes exclusively devoted to Europe were offered at *Fachhochschulen* (Marie-Josèphe Danthony. *Europäische Studiengänge in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Ein Modell der Europäisierung der Hochschulbildung?*, Dissertation), e.g. European Business and European Engineering.

(d) *Emphasis on "organised study abroad" and "curricular integration":* Although the ERASMUS programme officially required institutions only to ensure in some way that recognition of study abroad should be granted as a rule upon return, a "good practice" was advocated by the Commission of providing various means of academic and administrative support for the mobile students. Also, such programmes were widely viewed as the successful ones which required students to spend a period abroad as part of the home curriculum and even provided a "double degree" upon completion (see Ulrich Teichler and Friedhelm Maiworm. *The ERASMUS Experience.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1997). This was based on the experience gained in the pilot period of the Joint Study Programmes (1976-1986), which showed that programmes emphasising "organised study abroad" and "curricular integration" were most likely to grant recognition of study abroad (see Fritz Dalichow and Ulrich Teichler. *Higher Education in the European Community:* Recognition of Study Abroad in the European Community. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1986). Whereas many university programmes were open to any type of student mobility and hardly made a difference between individual student mobility and organised mobility in the framework of ERASMUS, many non-university institutions of higher education seemed to pursue an "all or nothing"-policy of Europeanisation. If they embarked on international cooperation at all, they were more likely to make a study period abroad mandatory and part of the curriculum.

3. Institutional Management and Infrastructure in Support of Internationalisation

In the framework of the regular evaluation research undertaken during the first seven years of the ERASMUS programme, the institutions of higher education involved in ERASMUS and LINGUA were asked in 1994 to report on their management and infrastructure in support of mobility and cooperation. 698 institutions responded to the questionnaire sent, among them 37 percent non-university institutions of higher education.

The data (see Table 1) do not lend themselves to easy interpretation, as the following examples show. First, there are some findings according to which internationalisation of universities was more pronounced than of non-university higher education institutions:

- 2.9 percent of academic staff at non-university institutions of higher education were foreigners as compared to 5.7 percent at universities. Universities were clearly more international at that time, as far as the composition of academic staff is concerned;
- The proportion of foreign students was 5.4 percent on average at non-university higher institutions as compared to 7.1 percent at universities. Universities are also more international in this respect. However, the difference is smaller in the case of student composition than in staff composition.

Table 1 European and International Aspects of Non-University Higher Education Institutions and Universities in the European Union 1999

	Non-university institutions	Universities
Foreign academic staff	2.9%	5.7%
Foreign students	5.4%	7.1%
Home students abroad	3.2%	3.2%
International office	59%	79%
Foreign language courses in more than 5 EU languages	7%	22%
ERASMUS students sent abroad	18	58
Groups of field of study with courses in foreign languages	22%	22%
At least one programme with mandatory study abroad period	32%	37%
At least one programme with double-degree	22%	33%
Cooperation with partners in curriculum creation/adaptation	51%	40%

Source: Unpublished data from survey on the Institutional Management for International Cooperation.

Second, according to some findings, universities seem to be more international than non-university higher education, but this difference is clearly linked

to the size of the institution. Actually, among the institutions responding, 47 percent of the universities and 13 percent of the non-university institutions had an enrolment of more than 5,000 students:

- 41 percent of the non-university institutions of higher education, as compared to only 21 percent of universities, had no international office or a similar unit, neither on central nor on departmental level;
- Only 7 percent of non-university higher education institutions provided foreign language courses (themselves or through other institutions) in more than 5 EU languages as compared to 22 percent of universities;
- Non-university institutions sent on average 18 students abroad, and they had on average 7 partner institutions abroad. The respective figures for universities were 58 students and 23 partner institutions;
- At non-university institutions of higher education, a larger range of academic and administrative functions related to student exchange were located at the departmental level than at universities.

If we control by size, the differences almost disappear (see Table 2). For example, 46 percent of small non-university institutions of higher education as compared to 34 percent of small universities have no international office, and 10 percent as compared to 6 percent of large institutions (more than 5,000 students).

Table 2 Organisation of Units in Charge of International Activities at ERASMUS and LINGUA Supported Institutions in 1993, by Type and Size of Higher Education Institution (percent of institutions of higher education)

	Type and size of higher education institution				Total
	University Up to 5000 students	University More than 5000 students	Non-univ. Up to 5000 students	Non-univ. More than 5000 students	
Central unit(s)	57	94	49	90	67
Specialised central unit	16	53	16	30	28
Interdepartmental unit	0	3	0	7	1
Unit on departmental level	11	33	19	60	22
Joint unit together with other institutions	3	13	6	13	8
Joint unit together with industry and commerce	1	2	0	0	1
Other	2	8	3	7	4
No specialised units	34	6	46	10	28
Total (n)	126 (218)	209 (200)	139 (216)	217 (30)	159 (664)

Question 3.2: Please describe the units specifically in charge of international activities.

Source: Friedhelm Maiworm, Winnetou Sosa and Ulrich Teichler. *The Context of ERASMUS: A Survey of Institutional Management and Infrastructure in Support of Mobility and Co-operation.* Kassel: Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung der Universität Gesamthochschule Kassel, 1996, p. 73.

Third, the non-university institutions of higher education look similar to universities in their European and international activities, but these findings cannot be interpreted as evidence that internationalisation and Europeanisation in the non-university sector has reached the same level as in the university sector:

- In about 22 percent of the groups of fields of study, programmes were offered solely or partly in a foreign language – both at non-university higher education institutions and universities;
- 1.4 percent of home students were abroad as ERASMUS students, and 1.8 percent with other means, i.e. exactly the same at non-university institutions and at universities.

In both cases, we have to bear in mind that more or less all universities were involved in ERASMUS, whereas this was the case only with a proportion of the non-university institutions. Therefore, the seemingly similar figures show that altogether courses in foreign languages as well as study abroad is much less frequent in the non-university higher education sector than in the university sector.

Fourth, there are indicators that European and international cooperation at non-university higher education, if undertaken, tends to be more intensive in some respect.

- We might interpret the following finding in such a way: A study abroad period is mandatory in at least one programme at 32 percent of non-university institutions and at 37 percent of universities. Similarly, a double degree is conferred in at least one programme at 22 percent of non-university higher education institutions and at 33 percent of universities. If we take into account that the total number of programmes at non-university higher education institutions is less than one third on average of those at universities, we can estimate that those elements of curricular integration are more common in programmes at non-university higher education institutions than in university programmes;
- 51 percent of the respondents at non-university higher education institutions stated that they cooperated closely with European partners in the creation or adaptation of the curriculum. The respective figure was 40 percent for universities.

The figures do not call into question that European and international elements were on average more visible and more pronounced at universities than in the non-university higher education sector. If we take into consideration, however, that many non-university institutions of higher education were late-comers on the European and international scene, we might consider this difference as surprisingly low and as an indication that non-university higher education is certainly on a fast track towards Europeanisation and possibly towards internationalisation as well.

Dr. Sybille Reichert
Universität Konstanz, Project Consultant for the Association of European Universities (CRE)

Emerging European Policy Profiles of Higher Education Institutions. The "Non-University" Perspective

In 1997, the CRE undertook an in-depth study of European policy development at higher education institutions (HEIs) all over the EU, looking at the contents and priorities of institutional cooperation policies and the reasoning and processes which led to their formulation. In order to understand the aims, ambitions and limits of the project which I am to present at this forum, one has to understand the historical context in which it was conceived and realised. At the time, the change from ERASMUS to SOCRATES preoccupied anyone dealing with European cooperation in higher education institutions. Thus the task of assessing European cooperation development was inextricably linked with that of assessing the impact of the changes implied in the new cooperation programmes of the EU. The CRE project, which came to be known as "EUROSTRAT II", took this moment of general reorientation seriously and tried to look for signals as to the present trends in European cooperation development and to assess the impact of SOCRATES on this development. At the heart of the project was the question as to the role and relative importance of strategic reasoning in European cooperation development. To understand the centrality of this question, we have to step back for a moment and describe what the change from ERASMUS to SOCRATES meant for HEIs.

The most visible changes of ERASMUS under SOCRATES seemed to be of a merely managerial nature, namely the introduction of the institutional contract which was to encompass all of one institution's cooperation activities, thus replacing the previous pattern of submission of applications by networks of cooperating institutions (Inter-University Cooperation Programmes). It soon became apparent, however, that this managerial change amounted to quite a challenge to institutions of higher education. In particular, the European Policy Statements (EPSs) which had to be submitted as part of each application challenged institutions to reflect on the goals and on their relationship with the planned activities. Furthermore, the new approach strengthened the responsibility of the central level of the HEIs regarding European activities in taking priority decisions and in providing support structures and resources for European activities.

In the light of these changes, the CRE (in cooperation with the Centre for Research on Higher Education in Kassel, Germany) undertook an analysis

of the quantitative and qualitative changes incurred in the process of submitting the first application. The study, which was co-funded by the European Commission, aimed to assess how institutions responded to the SOCRATES approach and whether the latter was likely to realise its aims.

The study was composed of three overlapping stages. As a first stage, all 1,600 EPSs which had been submitted by higher education institutions in Europe as part of their application for SOCRATES funding within the framework of the Institutional Contract were analysed. The second stage of this project pursued the investigation of strategic management and policy development at European universities further by undertaking and analysing 18 site visits to a range of different types of institutions in all countries participating in the programme with the exception of Iceland, Liechtenstein and Luxembourg. The aim of this second phase was to see the European Policy Statements (EPS) in the light of the institutional structures, processes and attitudes which conditioned their formulation and served their implementation. It was intended that a close comparison of institutional processes at a number of different kinds of institutions in Europe would help understand under what institutional conditions policies and strategic reasoning had or had not developed. Finally three major conferences bringing together a large variety of representatives of higher education institutions served to discuss and disseminate the findings of the study.

For the purpose of this forum, namely to shed some light on the internationalisation of non-university HEIs, it should be pointed out that only the first allowed a clear differentiation between different types of institutions. Most of the data gathered here was classified according to “university” and “non-university” institutions of higher education. In contrast, the results of the second part, in which given institutions were visited, do not allow any systematic differentiation due to the small statistical sample.

Of the overall number of applications and EPSs analysed (1578) in part one, 60% were categorised as non-universities, the largest proportions having been noted in Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands and Norway, Ireland, France and Portugal, all of which had more than 75% non-university institutions among their applications. Nevertheless, one should be cautious: the differences with respect to the EPSs which emerged when comparing the two categories of institutions may not necessarily be owed to the institutional type but rather to the size of the institutions and their disciplinary structure, as many “non-university” institutions of higher education are mono-disciplinary.

A close analysis of the EPSs revealed, first of all, that most institutions regardless of the particular institutional features followed a similar structure in the presentations of their European policies. After an introduction of the institutions, which usually managed to convey a relatively clear image of the institutional profile, previous European and international cooperation experi-

ence was described, mentioning numbers of mobile students and staff, involvement in other programmes, as well as regional and extra-European orientation. Usually, a description of the actual goals followed, emphasising certain activities. In addition, some institutions also described the consultation and decision-making processes which preceded the submission of the institutional application. Furthermore, some transversal issues such as language course provision, welcoming facilities, equal opportunity guidelines etc. were added to complete the statement.

Regarding the policy itself and its links to ongoing and planned activities, one should note that only 41% of all EPSs were assessed by the experts to be clear and targeted. The EPSs of non-university institutions were even often seen to be still vaguer than those of universities. A vast majority of all types of institutions see their involvement in European cooperation as a contribution to the enhancement of the institutional profile. 54% even find this an important consideration. The single most frequently mentioned goal relates to changes in student mobility patterns. Over two thirds of universities and under two thirds of non-university institutions emphasise this goal, thereby indirectly pointing to the continuing centrality of this activity in their view of SOCRATES, despite the programme's new rhetoric concerning other activities, the so-called "virtual mobility" of curriculum development. Nearly half of all HEIs mention teaching and learning-related impacts as goals. Here some differences of weighting can be observed between universities and other types of HEIs: While two thirds of both categories want to improve teaching quality, 70% of non-university institutions mention the aim of enhancing preparation for work, 17% more than among the universities. In general, non-university HEIs seem to care more about the student experience, qualifications and preparation for future careers. A more extreme divergence can be noted regarding specialised academic education, which is mentioned by 61% of non-university and only 28% of university institutions. Also cooperation with industry plays a bigger role in non-university HEIs than in university policies. In contrast, universities stress the improvement of teaching quality more often, as well as quality assessment in general, foreign language provision, recognition of study abroad, research-related goals and general academic education. The last two goals are mentioned twice as often by universities as by other HEIs.

Existing partnerships constitute the most frequently mentioned reason for undertaking the activities as planned (by more than three quarters of all institutions). Among the other reasons which pertain to the institutional setting, non-university HEIs mention their specialisations noticeably more often than universities. A perceived lack or low level of European experience which is to be redressed is also described more frequently by non-university HEIs. Specialised institutions with a smaller range of international activities were mostly interested in a general extension of these activities rather than in establishing priorities. Generally, it should be noted that most applicants, regard-

less of institutional types, believed that a general increase in scope and level of cooperation activities was needed and would be rewarded. Prioritisation was rare. Overall strategic thinking with respect to policy and management of European activities was judged by the experts analysing the European Policy Statements to be strong in a third of non-university cases and low in another third. Universities fared slightly better: more than half were seen to show strong strategic reasoning and only a sixth to be weak.

The analysis of the EPSs did not offer very detailed information on the processes preparing or following the formulation of these statements. Only half of the applicant institutions provided information on management processes, only a quarter made a reference to consultation and decision-making processes. Here, the site visits, i.e. the second stage of EUROSTRAT II offered more data. While the results of the site visit analysis cannot be easily categorised according to institutional types due to the small statistical sample, some general remarks still deserve mention in this context.

Most remarkably, it should be highlighted that most institutions (16 out of 18) used special procedures and managerial constructions to gather information, consult on policy and draft the SOCRATES application. In 10 cases SOCRATES committees were formed. Increased coordination and centralisation also led to greater transparency among the institutional decision- and policy-makers as to the level and spread of cooperation activities across the given institution. This was seen as a great plus of the new approach and often resulted in some surprises. Many interviewees saw this as the ground on which institutional self-reflection and goal definition could now build and believed that first steps had been made in that direction. However, shortly before or after the SOCRATES award was known (the moment of our visits), none of the institutions had decided on which priorities to set in case of limited funding.

While the opportunity for institutional self-reflection and the greater emphasis on institutional support of cooperation activities were generally appreciated and were linked to mobilisation efforts both with respect to the range of activities (more teaching staff mobility and curriculum development applications) and to the range of faculties or departments involved, individual academics clearly showed decreased motivation. SOCRATES was often called a programme for administrators rather than for academics, while the predecessor ERASMUS was felt to be owned by the academics themselves. Some appreciated the decrease of administrative work but many deplored the feared loss of networking opportunities. The multilateral partnerships were seen as the heart and success of European cooperation in education.

International offices clearly played an extended role at most institutions due to or simultaneous with SOCRATES. Often, it was felt that the level of international cooperation activities in general warranted an increase of IO staff. SOCRATES was also considered to be more bureaucratic, not just because

of the increased internal coordination efforts needed, but also the work needed to reach bilateral agreements with all partner institutions, often talking to institutional representatives at different levels. These agreements seemed to be taken very seriously at most institutions, i.e. in a quasi-contractual manner, rather than the more relaxed “some written record” which one sometimes heard Commission representatives allude to. But whether all of these changes were going to lead to a clearer setting of institutional priorities, possibly filters applied to bottom-up initiatives, was not yet visible. The consultation on the EPS (which in most cases was not regarded as a particularly important document) tended to be top-down, with the vice-rector for international relations and the director of the international office most centrally involved, while the activity application tended to be gathered in a bottom-up fashion with hardly any selection taking place. It is only now, two years into the game, that we will be likely to see what institutional choices were made, how policy compares to reality, and how institutional and individual initiatives combine, combat and fuse into a new institutional reality of European cooperation under SOCRATES.

Inge KNUDSEN, Director
Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences, Bruxelles

Student and Staff Mobility

Transparency 1

The young man on the transparency is clearly of a different epoch – wearing plus fours, obedient to a degree where angels' wings are growing from his back, studiously working away at his desk. He could well be a representative of the ideal student of my northern ideological background with its Protestant work ethics, but I would like to use him here as a representative of by-gone student generations. First of all, he is male – today more than half of the student population is female. He is sitting at a desk writing with a pen – today's student population works with computers and word processors. Today's students hardly ever sit alone at a desk – there are simply too many of them, some of them have even complained about the overcrowding of lecture halls.

When this studious young man pursued an academic career, only between two and five per cent of a youth cohort went to university (and I consciously use the word “university” because in those days higher education was identified with universities, although other types of higher education institutions did exist: architecture academies, music conservatories, engineering academies, etc., but they were specialised and “university“-like, they were often old and established institutions[1]).

Today, the various countries of Europe give access to higher education to between thirty and fifty per cent of a youth cohort, and as it is obvious that no society needs about half of a youth cohort trained as researchers, diversification in higher education is one of the most important results of mass education – diversification of degree courses, of institutions, of titles.

Transparency 2

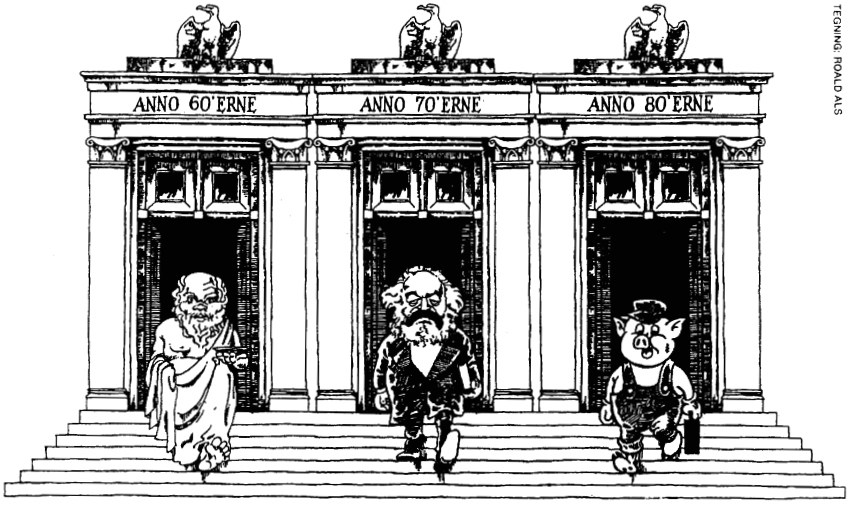
This is another way of looking at diversification – it is from the monthly publication of the national Danish Student Union back in the early 1980s, and it probably needs no translation (although it does say “The 60s”, “The 70s” and “The 80s“). The big entrance is that of the University of Copenhagen, and the figures should be fairly easy to recognise.

Much can be said about student reactions to state planning, but one thing is obvious; there was and is state planning, not just in the Nordic countries but throughout Europe, and not just because of budget constraints, although one often has the impression that higher education is governed by ministries of finance rather than ministries of education. For further reference to diversification, please see the Confederation decision texts on *Diversification* and on *Universities’ responsibility for their students* (both are on the Confederation web site under “decision texts” – http://www.crue.upm.es/eurec).

The main trends in higher education policies towards diversification have been:

- The need for sufficient education possibilities for a large population of students (there are references to this in the Irish country report);
- Regional and local needs – it is a well-known fact that the existence of higher education institutions in an area contributes to local economic growth, and it also keeps the young people “at home” (with the less posi-

1 A historical note: Academies in England were established already in the 17th century in opposition to the universities which were seen by the new élite after the Glorious Revolution in 1688 as backwards, reactionary, stale. The establishing of academies coincides with the establishing of the Royal Societies and is part-and-parcel of the general development towards the Industrial Revolution in the late 18th century – factory-owners were educated persons who promoted the sciences as well as art and literature. The academies in France, on the other hands, were established at about the same time, but were the invention of the Sun King, to ensure that scientific developments were promoted as well as controlled. It might also be worth mentioning that Napoleon set up academies in the countries he conquered, e.g. in Vienna.
This footnote has only been inserted to show that the term “non-university” can be used to cover a very wide variety of higher education institutions and not all of them are inventions of the 20th century.



tive effect mentioned in the Swiss report: "Hotel Mama"). There are several references to this in the Danish, Irish and Portuguese reports;

- A "division of labour" between universities and other higher education institutions, those with research obligations as well as those without. This trend has also led to some interesting combination possibilities, notably in recent years. The "division of labour" is, in most cases, part of state planning, not developed along the needs of the higher education institutions themselves (the examples from Austria and Finland where a dual structure has been established in recent years with the creation of polytechnics), something which often leads to strained relations between the different types of institutions[2];
- "Building on traditions" – the original models for higher education studies (mainly university studies) were the Humboldt university tradition, the Napoleonic model, and the Anglo-Saxon university tradition. They are still valid models, but need to be accommodated to modern society. Developments in this direction are already underway, with the Anglo-Saxon university tradition quite clearly in the lead in terms of adaptation and flexibility – a fact which has led a number of countries to think that the adoption

2 The whole discussion about a name for the non-university sector can be seen as a result of this strained relationship. Personally, I think that the term "non-university" gives a positive presentation, and the reports show that quite a lot of young people think so, too (see especially the Swiss report). One could say, in a provocative way, that the non-university sector has been able to meet the challenge of mass education whereas the universities in most cases have not. As mentioned above, with half a youth cohort entering higher education, one cannot pretend any longer that all of them are to be trained as future researchers. Furthermore, the young people entering higher education do not wish to be trained as researchers, most of them go there in search of a future career, and the explicit descriptions and presentations of degree courses in the non-university sector are often more attractive than the vague and general presentations of old-fashioned university studies.

of Anglo-Saxon models could bring the needed renewal into their own systems. But a restructuring of higher education needs to be based on the existing traditions, needs to be an adaptation to modern needs within the existing framework. Importing structures from other traditions is not necessarily a bad thing, but has to be done carefully and with the cooperation of all parties involved – something which has not always been the case, and the introduction of the Danish and Finnish Bachelor degree springs to mind immediately. Furthermore, the necessary links between different parts of the higher education system – between universities and the non-university sector, mainly – are not always established. Examples such as the *passerelles* in France and French-speaking Belgium show that efforts are made to ensure that students can take their credits along with them when changing from one sector to another. An overview of specific objectives for a higher education system reform is included in the Finnish contribution to the ACA report, a list which ought to be mandatory reading for all contemplating reforms.

The important challenge is to make the different parts of the higher education system cooperate, to make exchanges of experience possible and to benefit from the different developments so far pursued. The future of higher education cannot be achieved without closer cooperation between all sectors, and this includes closer cooperation in degree course planning as well. The future student will be any type of person, young as well as old, full-time as well as part-time, distance as well as campus, and future students will have obtained their skills in different ways, not necessarily through the established systems.

Transparency 3

This old map of Europe was used by Norman Davies when he published his book, *Europe. A History,* nearly two years ago. The etching is from *Cosmographia Universalis* (published in Basel, 1550-54) and shows Europe from a different angle than the one normally used. I use this illustration to show something about the challenges ahead: intensified cooperation between East and West, exchange programmes with participation of almost all of the continent, and the challenges arising from this.

The internationalisation of higher education has already been a challenge to all institutions, university and non-university sector alike. It has become part of the life of any institution of higher education to be able to send students abroad and, hopefully, it will also be just as commonplace to have mobile academic staff[3]. Staff mobility is presently at its lowest ever within the

3 The Confederation undertook a study for the European Commission in 1994, "Encouraging Medium-Term Staff Mobility". Unfortunately, the European Commission has never published the study, but it still gives a good overview of the various constraints and complications involved for anyone planning to go abroad for more than two or three weeks. The report is available (xeroxed copy) from the Confederation Secretariat.


AFRICA
OCEANVS
HIS
PANIA
HIB.
ANGLIA
SCOTIA
MARE MEDITER.
GALLIA
Parys
Rhenus fl.
GERMANIA
Albis fl.
BOHEMIA
DANIA
VANDALIA
SICILIA
VNGARIA
POLONIA
MARE BALTHICUM
SCANDIA
LITHVANIA
SCLAVONIA
MACEDO
LIVONIA
BVLGARIA
MOSCOVIA
SCYTHIA
MOREA
GRAECIA
TARTARIA
ASIA
POTVS EVX.

SOCRATES Programme and alarm bells ought to start ringing, and institutions of higher education ought to ask themselves why staff mobility is so far from being attractive. It is not only a question of languages, although this question will probably intensify with a widening of the exchange programmes to encompass all of the European continent, if the English language will not take over as a *lingua franca*.

Cooperation among higher education institutions at national as well as at European and international level will have to look at all possibilities to create better cooperation. The demand for transparency, flexibility and diversity is one to be met – it is a demand from students, from employers, from governments. A concentration on the different learning paths available to the individual student is one way of opening up, instead of the preservation of existing course structures for the simple reason of maintaining a privilege or a tradition. Starting to use the diploma supplement, proposed by the Council of Europe, UNESCO and the European Commission, is another way of ensuring that fair descriptions of qualifications obtained reach a wider public than the traditional one – graduates no longer seek traditional employment, and the "untraditional" employers are not always familiar with the structures of higher education, nor are employers in foreign countries. Young people should learn about entrepreneurship during their studies, regardless of the type of study and the type of higher education institution they have chosen. A higher degree of inter- and multidisciplinarity is needed – no single subject area or discipline is any longer sufficient to get to the bottom of problems and the future graduates need to acquire communication and cooperation skills, how and where to seek knowledge and solutions to problems by combining their efforts with others.

All this can only be done if all types of higher education institutions cooperate, also across existing dividing lines, share facilities, and provide increased possibilities for students and staff alike. Good luck!

Dr. Marijk C. van der Wende
University of Amsterdam / CHEPS

Internationalisation of the Curriculum. Which are the Challenges for the New Higher Education Institutions?

1. Introduction

This paper will discuss the internationalisation in the sector of new higher education institutions in Europe. It will review the main challenges faced by this type of institutions in their international activities and ambitions. A particular emphasis will be placed on the internationalisation of curricula. Some comparisons between the provision of internationalised curricula in the university and in the extra-university sector will be made, based on research on this topic among Dutch higher education institutions. In order to identify particularly promising approaches, a case study on good practice in internationalising the curriculum will be presented. Finally, some implications for the European Union programmes for cooperation in higher education will be formulated.

2. Challenges

The main challenges for the new higher education institutions seem to be related to their profile, status and position in the higher education arena. They are in general characterised by a relatively young age (as a higher education institution), a dominant teaching function, an orientation on applied research with often a quite limited capacity, and the absence of programmes leading to the highest research degrees (Ph.D.). Furthermore, challenges are related to the differences between professional requirements in various countries, and to the problems in overcoming these differences in terms of the recognition of qualifications. The main challenges can therefore be summarised as follows:

- To develop an international dimension and profile without a strong basis in international research cooperation such as traditional universities do have;
- To cooperate internationally with institutions of similar nature and/or level but with a different status;
- To respond to the requirements of the international labour market through dialogue and interaction with professional branches and organisations at the national, European and international level;

- To play an active role in overcoming the problems in the recognition of professional qualifications.

3. Internationalising the Curriculum

The second objective of the ACA project on Internationalisation in the Sector of New Higher Education Institutions in Europe was to identify particularly promising approaches for the future internationalisation of Europe's non-traditional tertiary institutions, which can be used as models of "good practice", but which will also inform political decision makers when it comes to updating current or devising new support schemes.

In this context, the internationalisation of curricula will be discussed as an area of activities with a great potential to respond in a systematic way to the above described challenges. Reasons for this are the direct relation of the curriculum with the strong teaching mission of the institutions concerned, and the possibilities that internationalised curricula offer to provide an international dimension for all students in direct relation to the international requirements of the professional field that they are being trained for. Moreover, the process of internationalising the curriculum offers important opportunities for institutions to cooperate with foreign partner institutions, so that joint or double degree programmes can be developed. It also creates possibilities to interact with professional bodies and organisations in order to establish strong connections between international professional profiles and the content of curricula preparing students for such professional requirements. Both forms of cooperation contribute to overcoming the difficulties in the international recognition of professional qualifications.

Based on a study on internationalisation of curricula in Dutch higher education, some basic data on internationalisation of curricula in the Netherlands will be presented below[1]. A comparison will be made between the situation in the new higher education institutions, called *hogescholen* or universities of professional education, and that in the traditional university sector.

1 Van der Wende, M.C. (1996). Internationalising the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective. Dissertation.

Table 1: Provision of Internationalised Curricula in Dutch Higher Education (data for 1995)

	Hogescholen	Universities
Number of internationalised curricula per 1,000 students	0.60	0.75
Language of instruction: English English & Dutch	 49.7% 18.4%	 68.6% 3.6%
Target group: Dutch Foreign Both	 28% 13% 15%	 10% 18% 16%

Table 2: Internationalised Curricula by Discipline Area (data for 1995)

Discipline Area	*Hogescholen*	Universities
Agriculture	12.3%	4.4%
Social sciences	11.7%	16.1%
Humanities	9.8%	16.8%
Econ. & business	44.8%	23.4%
Law	–	19.7%
Medicine & health	2.5%	11.7%
Natural sciences	–	0.7%
Technical sciences	19.0%	7.3%

Table 3: Internationalised Curricula by Type of Degree (data for 1995)

Diploma awarded	*Hogescholen*	Universities
Bachelor's degree	22.1%	–
Master's degree	39.3%	51.1%
PhD degree	–	1.5%
Diploma / certificate	17.8%	32.1%
Unknown	20.9%	15.3%

The above tables show that in 1995, the relative number of internationalised curricula in *hogescholen* was still lower than in universities. It should be noted, however, that the development within the non-university sector was stronger between 1990 and 1995 than that in the university sector, which already had a relative large number of internationalised curricula before

1990. It should also be said that the absolute number of internationalised curricula in *hogescholen* is higher than in universities, but that the level (and rapid growth in) student enrolment make that the relative number is lower. The tables also demonstrate that internationalised curricula in *hogescholen* are more often targeted at domestic students and, most likely in relation to that, are less often taught in English than in universities.

The dominance of internationalised curricula in business and economics studies is striking in both sectors, but particularly in *hogescholen.* The international labour market and according professional requirements in this sector seem to have penetrated the curriculum already to a large extent. This can also, although to a more limited extent, be noted for the engineering fields (technical and agricultural) in *hogescholen.* Finally, it is interesting to note that a large proportion of internationalised curricula in *hogescholen* is concluded with a master's degree. This degree is not foreseen for this type of institutions in the national regulation, but has been established on the initiative of individual institutions in cooperation with foreign (mainly UK) universities. The foreign partners provide the necessary accreditation, thus allowing in many cases the delivery of a double degree, which enhances international labour market opportunities for students.

4. A Case Study on "Good Practice"

Based on a curriculum development project and internal evaluation study which is carried out by one of the Dutch *hogescholen*[2], and in which the author of this paper is involved as an external consultant, below a case study on good practice in internationalising the curriculum will be presented.

The objective of this project on internationalising the curriculum is as follows: providing an international dimension in the curriculum for all students in order to prepare them optimally for the requirements of the international labour market.

The strategy employed for internationalising the curriculum consists of the following elements:

- Internationalisation of curricula is based on an orientation on the professional requirements for work in a European / international context, with the aim to develop curricula which correspond in terms of content and learning process optimally to these requirements of future professional performance;
- An integrative approach: combining the various sources and elements of internationalisation in order to create synergy between them and to contribute to the international dimension of the curriculum in various ways.

2 J. van Schijndel. Internationalisation for all Students. Policy Paper. Hogeschool van Amsterdam. April 1999.

- An innovation perspective: internationalising the curriculum is linked with other major domains of pedagogic reform within the institution, including the use of information and communication technology (ICT).

Examples and illustrations of these various elements will be presented below.

4.1 Orientation on the Professional Requirements in a European / International Context

It is widespread practice in Dutch *hogescholen* to formulate curricula that are geared towards the requirements of the profession in question. It is often through intensive dialogue with the bodies and organisations representing the particular professional field that the so-called “training profile” is adjusted to the “professional profile”. Alternatively, individual representatives of the professional field are represented on educational committees and evaluation and peer review teams. In the case of internationalised curricula such important dialogue and input can be sought through contacts with European or international professional associations, and/or though cooperation with partner institution in European networks or other types of arrangements. In some cases, professional organisations formulate explicitly what they think the international requirements of the professional field should include and how they could best be trained for in the curriculum (e.g. MBA programmes). In some cases requirements are expressed in more general terms (e.g. as is done by the European Round Table of Industrialists). In the European context, the General Directives for regulated professions may play a role in this respect.

Professional requirements, relevant in a European or international context, affect in the first place the formal aspects of the curriculum: the objectives and course contents. Below, some examples of such objectives will be presented.

Occupational Therapy
Students are acquainted with the situation in different European countries as far as the use of computer technology in occupational therapy is concerned. They are able to use European databases for advising in occupational therapy.

Food Technology
Students possess knowledge of and insight into differences in food patterns and eating habits in Europe, understand the different ways in which food is prepared in Europe, and have a flexible attitude which enables them to function adequately in the European food technology business.

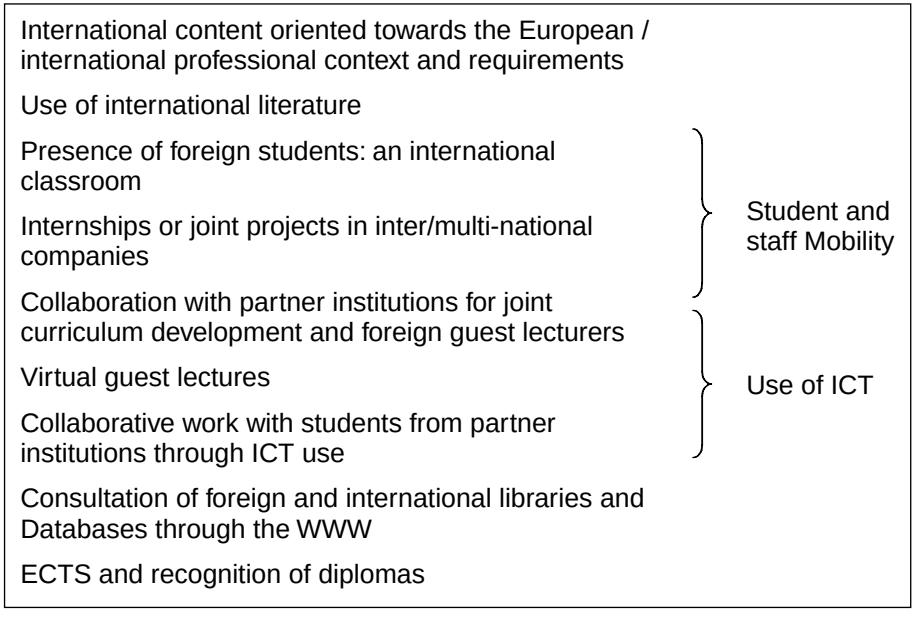
Paramedical Studies in Europe
Students are able to compare health care systems and to identify differences and similarities between the professional practice in various European countries.

Obviously these objectives concern the general aim and orientation of the curriculum and are worked out in more operational learning objectives and a set of practical learning activities.

4.2 Integrative Approach: Combining the Various Sources and Elements of Internationalisation

Besides the internationalisation of the formal aspects of the curriculum, an important contribution to the international dimension can be made through the internationalisation of the operational aspects of the curriculum. These include the teaching and learning activities, the delivery mode, the grouping of students, etc. The integrative approach refers to internationalising both aspects of the curriculum. This includes the choice of content which is oriented towards the European / international professional context and thus contributes to the type of objectives described above. Obviously, this is expressed in the use of relevant international literature and study materials. Furthermore, a number of other sources and elements of internationalisation can be used in order to internationalise the operational aspects of the curriculum. In doing so, previous internationalisation activities, such as the partnerships and networks established for the exchange of students and staff can be used very well. It is important to emphasise that both foreign students and staff can be considered explicitly as sources for internationalisation of the curriculum. This can be operationalis-

Fig. 1: Integration of Various Sources and Elements of Internationalisation



ed through their physical presence and/or via their on-distance involvement in teaching and learning activities. The latter refers to the fact that also new approaches in internationalisation such as the use of ICT can be applied. Above, an overview of the various sources and elements is presented in fig. 1.

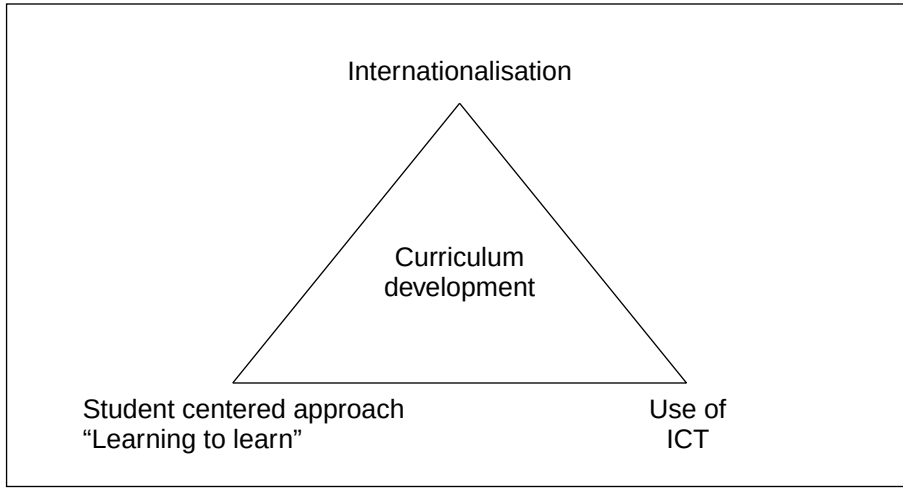
4.3 An Innovation Perspective: Linking the International Dimension with Pedagogic Reform and ICT Development

In the context of this project, and of the institution's internationalisation policy in general, internationalisation is considered as an innovation in higher education. Especially when the curriculum is considered, this innovation affects many different areas, concepts and aspects of learning processes and even of institutional life. Because of the central role of the curriculum, and in order to support the implementation of changes in it as effectively as possible, the relationship between this innovation and other reforms and initiatives affecting the curriculum were examined. Also from a management point of view, it is important to seek coherence between the various elements of the innovation agenda that an institution may have, since they often come from different groups, units or actors and therefore consist of separate initiatives. It is both for efficiency and for effectiveness that coherence between the various areas of innovation should be sought. Financial resources are always scarce and human resources are usually limited in their capacity to swallow *ad hoc* and diverse innovations. Finally, students benefit only from it when consistence and quality can be guaranteed.

It was found that the development of an international dimension in the curriculum combined very well with the two other main innovations planned for this period in the institution. They concern the introduction of the "learning to learn" concept in all curricula and the use of ICT in study programmes. The first concept refers to the development of skills and attitudes of students to direct their own learning process, to set their own objectives, to understand and improve their learning strategies, etc. This implies a student-centred teaching methodology that allows students to work independently and in close collaboration with fellow-students and which prepares them as well for lifelong learning. The use of ICT is aimed at allowing students to study more independent of time and place and to connect them to all possible sources of information and knowledge outside their own institution.

All three areas of innovation affect the curriculum, and coherence between the various innovations at both the conceptual and the practical implementation level will mutually enhance them. An example of this is the situation where students formulate a strategy in order to carry out an internationally oriented assignment, on which they cooperate closely with foreign students (either physically or virtually present) and during which they can consult international databases, foreign research centres, professional groups, etc. via ICT. Of course, many other situations and combinations are possible.

Fig. 2: Linking Internationalisation with Other Innovations and Curriculum Development



4.4. Management Implications

Consequences for the management of innovations were identified as:

- An initiating and facilitating role of the central level: the Board will ask the various faculties to include operational plans for internationalising the curriculum in the context of the yearly planning and control cycle and will seek to provide matching funds for these initiatives;
- A primary focus on management of innovations at the decentral level; faculties decide on which curriculum (elements) need to be internationalised, for which students, on which terms, and by whom (appointment of responsible academic staff member) and make adequate budget reservations for this;
- Direct cooperation of staff supporting the various innovation activities as coordinated by the academic staff member responsible for content by forming small interdisciplinary project teams that work in an integrated way on the international dimension, the learning to learn concept and the ICT elements;
- Monitoring of the quality of the various curriculum components that are being developed at the project level by quality assurance officers of the various faculties;
- Evaluation of these plans and of the policy initiative more widely will be coordinated by the central level (international officer). This includes important elements of formative evaluation by means of dissemination of information: knowledge management, database-wise and through informal meetings.

4.5 Strong and Weak Points

A preliminary evaluation of the strong and weak points of this approach and the context in which the project will be implemented resulted in the following assessment:

Strong

- Internationalising the curriculum holds a great potential for offering an international dimension in the curriculum for all students in order to prepare them optimally for the requirements of the international labour market. Before the launch of the new policy, already approximately 80 courses corresponding to the criteria for internationalised curricula could be identified (50 of which could be described and analysed in detail), with on average 25 students;
- With this approach, the institution and its various faculties is benefiting from its previous investments in internationalisation. In particular the international partnerships and networks with foreign institutions serve as a valuable contribution to this approach. They can provide the necessary input in terms of joint curriculum development, guest lecturers, the presence of foreign students and access to other international contacts and sources.

Weak

- The participation in international academic and professional networks differs strongly between disciplines. Some can benefit from previously developed contacts, other must still make a start in establishing them;
- The mobility of staff is limited. Very short term mobility for meetings or conferences is not a problem, but mobility for longer periods and for teaching purposes is, despite the financial support provided, only very limited. This concerns in particular those staff members going from the Netherlands to an institution abroad;
- Teaching and learning in a foreign language (English) seems to be problem for a number of students and also staff. For both groups encouragement and support (language training) should be provided;
- The ICT skills of a large proportion of staff are insufficient for the use of ICT in the teaching and learning process. Exceptions are found in departments such as informatics, engineering and business studies, where such skills are more common. In the other cases strong encouragement, support and training is needed.

5. Implications for the Role of EU Programmes

From the challenges stated above, basic data and the case study analysis, some implications for the role of EU programmes towards internationalisation in new higher education institutions can be formulated.

Increase Funding for Curriculum Development and ODL Projects
This paper demonstrated the importance of developing internationalisation activities in the curriculum area and also the support of information and communication technology, in order to allow a maximum proportion of the student population, including the non-mobile students, to benefit from an international dimension in their study programmes. EU programmes include and promote these possibilities. In reality, however, mobility still is the dominant feature and only a limited number of projects and budget allocations in other areas are made.

Linking Institutional and Professional Networks at a European Level
In the context of curriculum development projects and thematic networks, institutions should be encouraged and enabled to interact actively with partners from European level professional networks and associations. Such interaction will enhance correspondence between European and international professional profiles and requirements and the international dimension in the training profiles and thus facilitate the international recognition of professional qualifications.

Emphasis on Staff Mobility
For the activities described in the previous two points, intensive mobility of staff will be required. Even more than at present, various flexible forms of staff mobility should be promoted and supported.

Edward Dhondt, Secretary General, EURASHE
Anne-Marie van Oost, Project Manager, EURASHE, Brussel

Encouraging the Development of International Curricula in New Higher Education Institutions: a EURASHE Project

Let me first of all thank the organisers to have invited me as a speaker at this important conference, and let me express my appreciation of the excellent organisation. Secondly, I would ask you to excuse the absence of the president of EURASHE, Professor Sören Norgaard, who at this very time is participating in a EURASHE SPA-seminar in Tallinn, Estonia. I will tell you more about SPA, which stands for "Successful Project Applications", in a few minutes. Before doing so, I cannot resist the true EURASHE voice in me to briefly comment on the theme of the so-called new higher education sector, of which EURASHE may be considered as the most representative organisation right from its birth in 1990.

The New Higher Education Sector

I was struck by the appreciation that previous speakers expressed about a sector which is so terribly complicated. There was a unanimously positive approach, even from university associations such as the Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences. The term "non-university" is indeed a very negative one and does not reveal very much. In contrast, the word "university" has a magic ring and the university sector keeps holding the privilege of that name.

It is evident that the distinction between the university and non-university sector has become blurred over the last ten years. Moreover, there is no clear and internationally shared definition for the two types of higher education. On the contrary, a lot of confusion exists about the sector of polytechnics and colleges. In the first place, this is due to the tremendous variety in courses and disciplines or, to put it in a more technical way, to its wide differentiation and diversification.

Terminology in higher education is based on national concepts and is generally a product of historical tradition and background. The rapidly changing landscape of society and inevitably of higher education, which finds expression in a real massification of higher education, caused a fundamental rethinking of higher education. It is thus only logical that the fundamental changes which took place in society were mirrored in parallel changes in the world of education.

This evolution was determined by factors such as:

- Merger operations in many countries (e.g. The Netherlands, Belgium, Norway, Finland), which implied a substantial upgrading in quality;
- The growing importance of and interest in research and in long-type education;
- The internationalisation of higher education, which constitutes a key factor in a remarkable revaluation and reshaping of the higher education context outside universities.

Thus, the sector of colleges and polytechnics has made an enormous qualitative (and quantitative) progress. Undoubtedly it has some big trump cards such as flexibility in the curriculum, good links with industry and business life, cost-effective studies and a high appreciation of the labour market.

The fact that UNESCO and OECD prefer to use the term tertiary education is a positive example of the will to avoid any confusion in terminology, which is not in the first place determined by specific characteristics and quality. Hence the preference of some institutions to use terminology such as “universities of professional education” and “universities of applied science”.

Another example of the declining relevance of “typologies”, to use a nice expression coined by Ulrich Teichler, is the academic drift of many new institutions of higher education, which goes together with the vocational or professional drift of some universities, who become more and more interested in applied research. Thus, differences are fading away step by step.

As far as the academic drift of the non-university sector is concerned, it is for a variety of reasons my personal opinion that they should rather keep their specific identity than strive to become universities, in which case they would be absorbed and lost in an anonymous generality of universities. But sometimes status can be a dominant factor stronger than all others. To emphasise the complexity of the distinction, some disciplines and courses with a non-university label are established under the umbrella of universities (Italy, Spain). It turns out that the field of higher education is sometimes more complex in reality than in theory.

A good example is Belgium, with its short-type (one cycle, usually three years) and long type (two cycles, usually four or five years) education. Disciplines such as architecture, interpreting and translation belong to the non-university sector (only long type), although in most European countries they constitute a university discipline. Business administration (four-five years) and industrial engineering (four years, both long type) respond to the same characteristics. On the other hand, nursing can be either purely professional or academic. So you see there is still a lot to do in Europe, especially when you view developments in the context and spirit of the Sorbonne declaration. Undoubtedly, we need a reshaping and restructuring of the landscape of education in Europe. But the factor that influences the rigid or strict distinc-

tion between university and non-university is the phenomenon of internationalisation, which becomes, through the possibility of comparison, undoubtedly a growing challenge for higher education structures or patterns.

Finally, one must not forget that as a result of a directive of the European Council in 1988, many programmes shorter than three years were upgraded (to three years), and three-year study periods were extended to four years, which means a de facto devaluation of the distinction between the different types of higher education. Internationalisation has indeed become a very strong impetus for convergence. The growing convergence between the two types of higher education marks a positive evolution. But we may not forget that differences between the two sectors remain and that they will continue to exist.

Variety means richness and convergence does not mean uniformity. This does not interfere with the intentions of the Sorbonne declaration, which constitutes a very important attempt to bring some order into the (more or less) chaotic situation in higher education. But the non-university sector must be aware that all kinds of genuine higher education are part of the Sorbonne concept, which is of utmost importance for the future of the higher education institutions.

The Bologna Conference in June 1999 will probably prepare decisive orientations for higher education structures in the next decades and can be the start of a new classification in higher education. We cannot afford to miss the train. EURASHE will prepare a memorandum in which the particular characteristics and needs of the sector will be clearly expressed.

Let us keep in mind that the task and mission of higher education policy is to identify emerging demand and to implement structures relevant to this demand. For all disciplines and types of higher education.

“Preparing and Writing Successful Project Applications“

Let me now come to my second theme, international curriculum development in the sector of new institutions. On behalf of the European Commission, EURASHE has developed and is presently conducting a series of eight identical training seminars under the name of SPA – “preparing and writing successful project applications”. These seminars, which are conducted for multi-national target groups of international officers and other staff responsible for internationalisation at higher education institutions, aim at increasing participation and quality in the curriculum development measures in the ERASMUS chapter of the SOCRATES programme. The new higher education institutions outside the classical university sector are of particular concern. I said already that one of these seminars takes place this very minute in Tallinn, for participants from the Baltic countries. I believe that this training initiative will make a substantial contribution to the need of higher education to develop international curricula.

The seminars consist of hands-on training of two days each. Participants analyse successful and unsuccessful project applications in the field of curriculum development. This empirical approach is to contribute to the improvement of their own international curricula. The seminars target those persons who are responsible in their institutions for preparing funding applications. Priority lies not only in equipping participants to successfully apply for SOCRATES funds, but also to raise funds from other sources.

In order to achieve and enhance the quality and practical value of curriculum development projects in higher education, the training activities focus on developing a systematic approach to identifying and developing effective project management processes with an emphasis on preparing and writing applications. In particular, SPA participants are to be enabled to:

- Identify projects, address specific and practical needs;
- Assess the overall viability of a project;
- Create an understanding of the component parts of a project;
- Create an understanding of the political context, the resourcing, the philosophy and of practical implications;
- Present quality projects in a systematic, relevant and timely manner;
- Provide practical, hands-on experience in designing and writing project applications with maximum chances of success.

This systematic approach to preparing and writing effective project applications emphasizes the “what” and “how” and includes presentations and exchange of experience. Practical skills are of prime importance. All in all, the series consists of the following seminars:

Seminar 1:	Praha (CZ-HU-SK)	9-10 April 1999
Seminar 2:	Tallinn (EE-LV-LT)	7-8 May 1999
Seminar 3:	Katowice (PL-RO)	18-19 June 1999
Seminar 4:	Vigor (DK-FI-NO-S)	10-11 September 1999
Seminar 5:	Antwerp (BE-LU-FR-NL)	24-25 September 1999
Seminar 6:	Osnabrück (DE-AU)	8-9 October 1999
Seminar 7:	Porto (PO-SP-IT-GR)	15-16 October 1999
Seminar 8:	Galway (UK-IRL)	22-23 October *1999*

All training seminars are evaluated by the participants. I am proud to tell you that all seminars so far were rated as highly successful by those taking part. On a five-point grading scale (5 = excellent, 1 = bad) the seminars to date received grades between 4,25 and 4,83.

EURASHE believes that this programme presents an ideal opportunity for European co-operation by training and the exchange of experience. The major outcome will be presented on the EURASHE website, in order to provide a wider audience with guidelines on project development and management.

Dr. Ulf Lie
Director, Centre for International University Cooperation (SIU), Bergen

The Experience of Regional Cooperation in NORDPLUS

The NORDPLUS programme was established in 1988 by the Nordic Council of Ministers. The management of the programme was delegated to the HØGUT board, with representatives from the ministries of education and the institutions of higher learning in the Nordic countries. In 1998, the administration of the programme was put out on tender, and in January 1999 the Centre for International University Cooperation (SIU) under the Norwegian Council of Universities took over the administration of NORDPLUS. SIU reports to the HØGUT board (the steering group for Nordic cooperation in higher education). SIU is located in Bergen, Norway. The centre contributes to the international cooperation of higher institutions in Norway and runs several international programmes for the Norwegian government. It also acts as the Norwegian national agency for SOCRATES.

Nordic cooperation through NORDPLUS rests on three pillars:
- Educational cooperation;
- Relations to the rest of Europe;
- Nordic relevance.

Defining NORDPLUS

- NORDPLUS is a mobility- and cooperation programme for students and teachers at Nordic institutions of higher education. With a certain financial help, the programme aims to better link the institutions and contribute to a more coherent Nordic educational community, where the special competence of the individual institutions, students and teachers can be more fully utilised;
- In this way, NORDPLUS seeks to contribute to increasing the quality and efficiency of Nordic higher education;
- The NORDPLUS programme is open to institutions of higher learning, i.e. all public forms of post secondary education, including private institutions with national recognition;
- NORDPLUS first and foremost aims to strengthen Nordic educational cooperation and contribute to students' Nordic language competence and solidarity. The programme also seeks to enhance cooperation between the Nordic, the European and the global community.

Nordic Relevance

NORDPLUS is a programme for academic exchange in higher education. The Nordic countries cooperate in many fields and NORDPLUS is thus one

of many manifestations of Nordic concord and an enhancement of the Nordic dimension. The Nordic dimension is further defined with the emphasis on:

- Nordic competence and competitiveness;
- Nordic linguistic and cultural competence;
- Possibilities of specialisation and division of labour;
- Nordic dimension in the European educational community;
- The indigenous peoples of the Nordic countries.

Relations to the European Union

The Nordic Council of Ministers conceived NORDPLUS as complementing the EU/EEA education programmes, not competing with them. Three Nordic countries are members of the EU, the others are not. All Nordic countries can participate in the education and training programmes of the European Union, such as SOCRATES, LEONARDO and Youth for Europe. Access to other EU cooperation schemes, such as those for collaboration with third countries, is open only to the Nordic countries which are members of the Union. The NORDPLUS programme helps maintain Nordic cohesiveness in this situation and it allows the EU programmes and NORDPLUS to benefit from each others' experience and development.

The NORDPLUS programme is intended as a bridge between the immediate Nordic neighbourhood and the rest of Europe. In this respect, it aims to contribute to the region's peace, safety and stability and to mobilisation against crime. It also wants to promote research cooperation, environmental issues and equality between the sexes.

Educational Cooperation

NORDPLUS funds student and teacher scholarships, intensive courses, networks, development and travel. Its budget amounts to 30.7 million Danish crowns in 1999. Applicants have to apply annually, although continuity is secured through a preference for maintaining well-functioning networks. The programme is mainly organised around networks, not institutions. Some of these networks consist of as many as 30 participating institutions, such as the "Northern Light Network", which includes all Nordic universities. Some few networks consist of all academic environments within a particular field, e.g. the Nordic law faculties.

The student scholarships amount to 1,200 Danish crowns per month, plus a fixed table travel allowance. Students are guaranteed residence at the host institution and recognition of courses at the home institution. The scholarships are allocated by the networks and are for full time study/training in another Nordic country of a duration between 2.5 to 10 months. Between 70% and 80% of the total NORDPLUS allowance is spent on student scholarships.

NORDPLUS in 1999

Today there are more than 470 NORDPLUS contact persons at the Nordic institutions of higher learning. There are about 400 active networks with 360 network coordinators. Over 2,000 teachers and students participate every year in predominantly comprehensive networks.

SIU receives applications from networks once a year. In 1999 it received applications for a total of 84 million Danish crowns. This demand could be satisfied up to 37 percent, i.e. 30.7 million Danish crowns. SIU has created an on-line application procedure via internet. About two third of the applicants availed themselves of this opportunity in 1999. In the year 2000, SIU wants every applicant to use the electronic application device. It requires minimal administration, guarantees fast application handling and gives applicants immediate access to and verification of procedures and results. From the autumn of 1999 onwards, the NORDPLUS programme will also have electronic reporting via internet.

NORDPLUS Priorities

The NORDPLUS selection and allocation policy is based on the following priorities: “overriding” priorities, “network” priorities, “general” priorities and “variable” priorities. The overriding priorities were described above. The general priorities are:

- Quality and relevance;
- Long-term effects;
- Vulnerable and narrow subject areas;
- Balance in exchanges between countries;
- Division of labour;
- Innovative cooperation.

The network priorities are specialisation, division of labour, administrative resource management and exchange infrastructure. The variable priorities are the President’s prerogative. The presidency of HØGUT is of one year’s duration. The Icelandic president’s priorities for 1999 are:

- The sea, nature and the Arctic areas;
- IT and the Nordic languages;
- The western Nordic countries.

The Future of NORDPLUS

The present phase of the programme is now in its second of a three-year cycle. In 1999 and 2000 the HØGUT board will debate the future of NORDPLUS. The main reason for outsourcing the administration from the Secretariat of the Nordic Council of Ministers was to be better able to concentrate on programme policy issues. Already at this stage, the board has decided to pay

increasing attention to infrastructure resource management, to increase mobility among education and research environments, to have more emphasis on the Nordic dimension in the European educational community and to increase attention to the possibilities of specialisation and division of labour.

The years 1999 and 2000 will see the development of the administrative and academic cooperation through new databases and communication facilities on the internet. The NORDPLUS Newsletter appears regularly in paper format. The HØGUT board has been given the mandate to produce the foundation for a discussion on, and a proposal for, a new policy in Nordic higher education, encompassing the Nordic-Baltic area and defining relations to UNESCO and the Council of Europe.

Prof. Dr. Socrates Kaplanis
TEI Patra

The New Higher Education Institutions' Contribution to the Making of a Knowledge Society. Continuing Education and Training and Lifelong Learning

"I grow old ever learning, ever taught", SOCRATES, 5th Cent. B.C.

PART I

1a. Continuing Education and Training (CET) and Lifelong Learning (LLL) in the European Context and the Quality Management Policy in the Higher Education Sector

Since the mid 80s, it can be observed that the new higher education institutions in many European countries, which are institutionally independent from universities, try to increase their autonomy, strive to best serve their mission, hold themselves accountable to their stakeholders, who provide them with funding, constitute their clientele, and have an interest in their inputs, outputs and institutional processes. This trend can certainly be observed in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Liechtenstein, The Netherlands, Portugal and the UK.

Decentralisation, as an issue of educational policy, is visible in the form of decentralisation of higher education management in many countries, such as Ireland (implemented through NCEA), the UK (HEQC), The Netherlands (HBO), or Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Finland, and Greece. Responsibilities are transferred to the higher education institutions (HEIs) themselves. Decentralisation is the cornerstone of the initiation, design, and execution of market-oriented activities of HEIs. Likewise, accountability, linked to the principle of "value for money", has become a guiding principle for HEIs (compare the 'fitness for purpose'-definition, 10).

Without diverging from their "ethos of excellence" (11), HEIs cultivated higher-level professional continuing training and education through their two traditional missions, the provision of initial higher education and the pursuit of research and development (12).

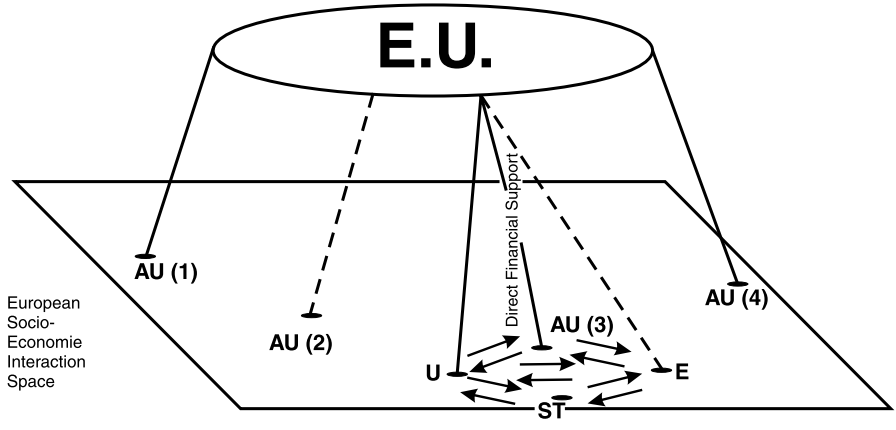
The debate on the *Memorandum on Higher Education in the EC*, conducted by the social partners, professional associations and the institutions, unveiled that professional higher continuing education and training has come to be regarded as equal in importance to high quality education and research.

However, this new framework of roles of Europe's state-funded and state-controlled HEIs found the institutions in a defending position when exploring the new realities. The challenges are:

- To adapt to market needs and the market's evolution by being responsive;
- To accommodate the need for massive education and training of adults in line with a LLL philosophy, i.e. to be flexible and efficient and to effectively contribute to the quality of life;
- To gain social recognition and credibility through dialogue (13, compare also figure1), and to develop synergy;
- To try to integrate a social dimension into CET and thus balance out the unduly economic or utilitarian approach in CET prevalent with other CET providers from the extramural space/market in all countries.

Mission, vision and strategic planning are basic elements of the Total Quality Management (TQM) approach and must be used in HEIs for continuous improvement, as we will see later on.

Fig. 1.



U: Universities
E: Enterprises
ST: Students

The role of the European Union, which is to support and supplement the activities of member states (articles 126 and 277 of the Treaty), has been carefully debated and examined (2) in this context with regard to social cohesion and the improvement of initial and continuing vocational training, the facilitation of vocational integration and reintegration into the labor market, the adaptation to industrial changes, in particular through training and retraining etc. (14)

Hence, in the responses to the *Memorandum on Higher Education in the EC* (2), the majority of countries recognised the high importance of transnational continuing education and training programmes such as COMETT, FORCE, EUROTECNET. Organisations like the Liaison Committee, CRE, ERT, EURASHE, ESMU (15) proposed actions on the basis of studies by CRE/ERT on lifelong learning.

The issue of learning at the workplace has to be seriously considered, tackled and evaluated. Accreditation of skills and qualifications acquired, through this mode, which falls under the LLL policy, has been debated at a European Union level, for example in the Commission White Paper *Teaching and Learning. Towards a Learning Society* (Brussels, 1995).

The greater impact of EU action programmes such as COMETT, LEONARDO DA VINCI, SOCRATES and TEMPUS and of the EC initiatives ADAPT and EMPLOYMENT is sought through transnational participation and the principle of complementarity to national policies, as supplemented by the European Structural Funds , for regions of objectives 1 and 4, mainly (16).

The fact that the HEIs's focus on the needs of the market and socio-economic needs and development is a fairly recent one makes them an object of interest and analysis.

1b. Quality Management Policy in Higher Education

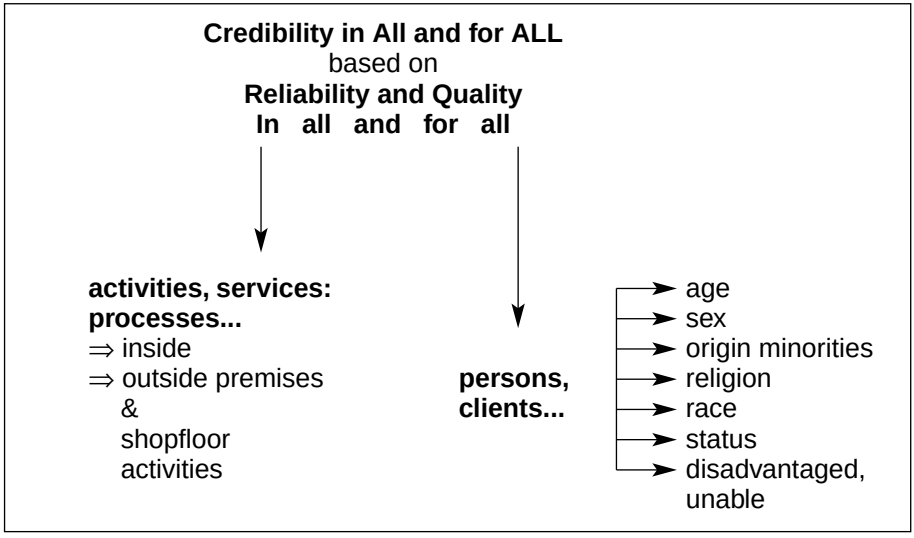
Non-university HEIs have yet not established a long-standing academic culture, as they are new and closer to business. Therefore, it is considered easier and more effective for them to develop suitable quality management models (17), in order to succeed in the following points:

- To be sensibilised HEIs, listening to the customer's voice;
- To be flexible and responsive HEIs, capable enough to provide JIT services, products or outputs, in general;
- To advance the development of society and the social partners, through the interaction presented in fig. 2, without being pushed to adapt themselves too much to the changing societal environment;
- To forge synergy at regional, national and international level, between the university and the overall education system, as shown in figs 1 & 2, to reach the much needed **Credibility in ALL and for ALL** (see fig. 2).

Credibility has to be pursued not only in a sectoral sense. It must also satisfy the requirements of a European dimension.

An education and training policy following TQM principles (18, 19) affects decision-making policies/bodies to legislate or take measures or actions at institutional, national/regional, European Union and international level. Through continuous training, cultural development and communication, new management initiatives and innovations, HEIs transform themselves into self-

Fig. 2.



sustained and independent organisms able to plan, develop and implement policies through partnerships and networks, and to play their role led by vision, mission and goals, and objectives communicated and understood by all customers, inside and outside the HEI.

1c. Vision, Mission, Goals

Vision

"Our vision is to be recognized as a premier international Higher Education Institution. We want each student to have at least one additional language, to have at least one quarter's experience in a foreign country (it can be directly linked to Sorbonne Declaration), and to be computer literate. We want our faculty to have international experience and to increase our international research programmes by 100 percent (from 10 countries now to 20). We want to increase foreign undergraduates from 10 to 15 percent to the student body.

We want our graduates to be competitive through out their life following L.L.L. strategy and schemes".

"We also want our institution to be the best HE Institute in which any people may come continuously to learn and work in an objectively operating environment. We want to be a HEI that knows what its clients will want ten years from now and what it will do to exceed all expectations. We want to be a HEI, whose employees and all the clients and suppliers are sure they may find a group of collaborators to acquire skills, knowledge, experience through a learning mode to be tailored to one's particulars".

This vision statement has to be compared with the vision of the Oregon State University (U.S.A.) as given in ref. 27.

Mission

"Our mission as a state funded HEI is to serve the people of this region, the nation, and the world through education, research, and services[1]. All these should be based on quality designed processes to contribute with accountability to a continuous development and satisfaction of all the stakeholders".

Remark: This mission may be well understood if goals and objectives are clearly expressed.

Goals

Goal 1. Serve people through instruction, research, and extension

1.1. Promote and recognise good teaching.
1.2. Adequately staff and support academic and training programmes essential to the university's mission.
1.3. Adequately support essential programmes of research and artistic creativity.
1.4. Periodically review programmes to shift resources to areas of need.
1.5. Use evening and weekend classes and ODL and technologies to make degree and training programmes available to nontraditional students.
1.6. In developing criteria, procedures for assignment of rank, evaluation, promotion and tenure, continue to recognise the varied roles of faculty in programmes.
1.7. Involve faculty and staff in extension programming and cooperation with other agencies to help our people solve problems, develop leadership, and manage resources.
1.8. Do the same for all customers of our institution.

Goal 2. Help students to achieve their full potential

Goal 3 . Expand research and artistic creativity

Goal 4. Attract, develop, retain excellent faculty and staff

1 Question to the readers : Please present indicatively types of services to be offered, i.e. CET, consultancy tests, etc. suited to your institution's quality policy.

Goal 5. Expand opportunities for minorities, females, disadvantaged, and disabled

Goal 6. Increase enrolments of outstanding students

Goal 7. Improve facilities and equipment

Goal 8. Improve library and computing services

Goal 9. Improve the institution's relationships with its constituencies

9.1. Create and maintain a clear image for our institution to emphasise quality of students, instruction, research, and services (training, CET, ODL, tests, consultancy, etc.).
9.2. Motivate our constituencies to increase their support.
9.3. Improve responsiveness of faculty, staff, and administrators to our customers.
9.4. Maintain programmes to evaluate our institution's effectiveness in meeting constituency needs.
9.5. Maintain close, productive relationships with community citizens, leaders and bodies.
9.6. Identify customers and build up links to liaise with them.
9.7. Identify or develop tools to achieve and evaluate the links' performance.

A clearer idea on the goals for a HEI as different from those of a university is obtained from a comparison of the above goals and objectives with the ones presented in ref.27 which concern the Oregon State University (USA).

To reach their mission, structural changes are to be introduced in the HEI for an effective management. A mission statement, such as the one above, shows clearly that training and continuous training is to become part of the culture of the university or the HEI with regard to its mission.

The legislation for both university and non-university higher education should either consider them really autonomous to build their vision towards their mission, or should specify their role to include services, training, CET, consultancy, partnerships with enterprises and even participation in boards and committees, both sides. This policy becomes obvious in the second part of this paper where a summary of the national policies for the university sector interwoven in a European web is given.

The introduction of quality management elements such as the peer review, where a part of the peers is represented by the socio-economic space, gives an impetus to the interaction and collaboration of HEIs with the industry and

enterprise sector, able to build a platform, where knowledge, skills, experience and a learning environment are accessible to anybody or any target group at any time.

2. Knowledge Society and Learning Society in the Third Millenium and CET

2a. The Amsterdam Treaty demonstrates the determination of EU to promote the highest level of knowledge for its people through broad access to education and its permanent updating. A society whose elements will be aware, sensitive and have available and accessible, throughout their life (LLL) whenever necessary, any adaptable education and training knowledge, experience, skills, methodology, dissemination of results, transfer of experience and know-how, through research and innovation, is a society which will produce wealth (CET concept). It is the production and dissemination of knowledge to all constituents, based on research, high quality education, training and innovation, which masters the socio-economic progress.

Due to the ever increasing socio-economic expectations, demands and the challenges of competitiveness even inside Europe, HEIs focused in professions' and market needs, take a major task increasing by the time. The infrastructure, the experience, the links established and forged between the HEIs and the enterprise sector and the social partners (SP), calls for both university and non-university HEIs to play a significant role which promotes interaction providing for:

- Quality education and training at initial level;
- Access to professions;
- Continuous training to accommodate employees to technological changes and advancements;
- Establishing a learning environment through modern technologies, offering chances to individuals to exercise their talents and develop creativity, innovative initiatives, an entrepreneurial spirit, etc.;
- Mobility even at transnational level and tailor-made short and long courses;
- Learning how to learn;
- Learning through working on site, accrediting skills acquired at placements, etc.

New structures and tools as well feedback systems to control that education and training systems in the socio-economic environment are developed according to the national education and training planning and to their cultures. These were influenced by the confidence and the bonds developed over the last 15 years through the EC's programmes and initiatives.

The second part of this paper provides information on several new structures, measures and other initiatives, which link effectively the higher education sector with the market at national and European level.

This interactive collaboration under the above principles supports a learning society concept, where the everyday persons' activities, either inside or outside the job, are part of a learning process throughout their life. It is thus becoming a culture (LLL concept).

Calls for advanced training or M.Sc. joint ventures or franchise courses, even transnationally, either full time or part time or under ODL methodologies to accommodate to professionals' needs, are often made. Europeanisation of M.Sc. degrees and transnational training is frequently met.

a. M.Sc with placements abroad for a project thesis (20) is a common phenomenon which has a longer effect and influences not only careers at European level, but also creates a multiplier effect.

b. M.Sc courses based on CDA projects under SOCRATES and tutorials via the internet, are educational innovations encouraged and supported through SOCRATES and LEONARDO DA VINCI. The non-university sector of all countries eligible to take part in SOCRATES even participates in CDA activities along with the university members from many countries without discrimination or bias.

It is worth mentioning here that SOCRATES II will include a CET – adult education and training policy which helps universities and the other HEIs to build a global policy and which gives the necessary accredited character to the CET type of activities.

In Greece EPEAEK, the national programme on initial education and professional training, includes a large CET project on modular and ODL types of learning. It seems to be a forerunner for the autonomy of universities and TEIs through fees (trainees have to pay), sponsors, and co-responsibility or co-design of these activities with the social partners. Trainees come from SMEs at an increasing rate over time. The success of EPEAEK in Greece was unexpected to many, as it broke with traditional attitudes, which are dominant in this country, due to it constitution (article 16), which implies that education is offered free of charge to all citizens.

However, in countries such as the Netherlands, where the non-university institutions (*hogescholen*):

- Are autonomous;
- Have adopted quality principles;
- Are systematically upgrading and updating their courses;
- Have established new structures to liaise to the market economy;
- Flexibility is attempted through the decentralised policy applied;
- Joint projects/ventures are planned and executed, and

- LEONARDO, COMETT and continuous training projects and courses (see related references in 20), are part of their strategy, the non-university sector gains its physiognomy, does not imitate or academise and serves the learning society in the most effective and reliable way.

On the other hand, the non-university sector is not rich and does not highly prioritise research and development, and the policy to bring to the end-user research and development results, through continuous training, is not the main task of the non-university institutions.

To fill this gap, one of their main tasks would be to liaise with universities to build a comprehensive global system with the academic and professional entities. Thus, each part of the system can contribute its expertise, in order to bring about a complete coverage of the clients' needs through:

- Updating in information, knowledge and skills;
- Making available structures and tools for using IT;
- Accreditation systems/bodies;
- Communication between all members and customers, inside and outside the HEI;
- Establishing a friendly, open learning environment;
- Establishing a European-wide or European dimension learning environment with technology transfer and innovation projects;
- Participation in academic and professional accreditation and recognition, through systems and bodies with institutionalised representation from both the non-university and enterprise sector (23,24).

The learning society (LS), as presented in the *Memorandum for Higher Education in the EC*, is underpinned by the synergy to be created between HEIs, industry (market) and the professions. This synergy may promote active partnerships on a continuous basis.

Cooperation of higher education with economic life in a European context was promoted to some extent through RTD projects, but mainly through, for example, COMETT, FORCE and EUROTECHNET and later on through LEONARDO DA VINCI. Their objectives were clear and supported CET, the training of trainers, needs analyses, structural development, etc. Through the COMETT programme, UETPs (University-Enterprise Training Partnerships) were established for this purpose either as sectoral or regional bodies/partnerships. In both types of UETPs, a European dimension / participation was a prerequisite for funding. This initiative gave a considerable boost for:

- Training needs analysis;
- Continuous training;
- Transnational placements of students and staff;
- The development of joint projects and ventures.

The FORCE programme complemented the COMETT UETPs' activities in the training sphere. The UETPs provided effective and necessary structures

also for other EU programmes. They did offer services for establishing small enterprises (Info Centers), they provided a support system to RTD and joint projects in education and training and they supported the dissemination of results and their exploitation. However, the transfer of RTD outputs to the end user through advanced training seemed to be a hard task for the non-university sector. The non-university HEIs must consider their collaboration with industry as part of their mission, and adapt themselves through special structures, to provide a form of continuing education which serves the need to maintain competitiveness through renewal and updating of all.

In the framework of a learning society, initial and continuous training will take us to a status where a periodically available training throughout the working life will become a rule, as part of or better a culture. The HEI are called to play a significant role in this.

2b. The European Training Programmes, European Structural Funds and the EC Initiatives

2b.1. The case of Southern Mediterranean countries (Greece, Spain, Portugal) in the mid-80s (26)

In mid-80s the Mediterranean countries (Spain, Portugal and Greece) planned changes in their education and training systems, due to their joining the EU. These influenced:

- Organised access to training centers for the young and for adults;
- Professional information for development;
- Linking these measures with general continuing training;
- Research in education and training, forecasting future needs, using modern methods in HRM;
- Upgrading of technical colleges to HEIs with a 'university physiognomy';
- The Spanish Cortes to achieve the adaptation of professional training to market needs, proposed in 1985 the General Council for Professional Training and Rehabilitation;
- Rational use of HR as a priority issue;
- Planning national projects for training and CET through the ESF;
- The access of Portugal to the EC attracted support to fund 10 centres of professional training as a measure to develop a quality workforce.

In Greece the Government, in order to provide the market with high quality professionals, changed the centers of vocational training (known as KATEEs) to Higher Education Institutions (TEIs) in 1983, offering courses focusing on professional and production or service needs, while at the same time making a step ahead in legislation for professional training and professional certification via TEIs with long training courses designed to update, upgrade and empower the unemployed or giving the potential to the trained ones, for

achieving better professional performance. This legislation was a revolution for Greece, and these structural changes still have to be understood and widely used for the benefit of all.

2b.2. European – wide Actions

The EC tries to balance university and non-university participation in programmes and networks and to disseminate the results to all concerned, targeting a multiplying effect, and to contribute through this policy to the making of the knowledge society or a "Europe of Knowledge", a concept discussed multilaterally for over two decades (25).

In 1986, the COMETT programme for training in technology encompasses high-level training of the young and of professionals through placements and training courses with joint groups of trainers and trainees, based on UETPs of a transnational character. This European cooperation programme offered training material and training periods either under traditional or distance learning methods. The DELTA programme for the development of distance learning technologies was of equal success. In detail:

COMETT I (1986-1990)
Offered funding for transnational cooperation in expertise and succeeded in:
- Creating 125 UETPs;
- Involving 100,000 persons in 720 short training courses;
- Involving 4,500 enterprises and 1400 HEIs and universities, as well as 2,000 other organisations of different kinds;
- Organising between 1987 and 1989 4,115 student placements and 216 staff exchanges.

COMETT II (1990-94)
During this phase the contribution of COMETT to European training and support of structures resulted in:
- 205 UETPs;
- 31,300 transnational student placements;
- 853 staff placements;
- 5, 700 short training courses offered;
- The involvement of 200,000 persons.

The PETRA programme supported initial training for young people. EUROTECNET, adopted in 1985, stimulated innovation in initial and professional training. The FORCE programme was adopted in 1990, with an investment in continuing training, the dissemination of good practice and innovations in management, training of trainers, the identification of skills shortages, technology and know-how transfer, etc. Both non-university and the university sectors participated in these programmes. In detail:

Initial and Continuing Training

- The structural framework was available in the both sectors and also in many enterprises. More details are given in the next chapter. However, networking of educational and enterprise organisations at a transnational level was facilitated through the programmes and gave added value to CET, which was an essential goal of these partnerships;
- This was supported by the ESF, national and EC programmes and joint funds with private organisations.

Carriers of CET

- Community Action Programmes such as COMETT, LEONARDO DA VINCI, as well as the Community Initiatives;
- Operational projects (UETPs, Chambers of Commerce, Syndicates, Social Partners).

In objectives 1 and 4 regions (16), training courses for professionals or unemployed are necessary to update and upgrade the workforce. It is mainly the ESF which gives support to achieve social cohesion.

The non-university sector combined the educational modules, offered traditionally towards the degree award, and transformed them into tailor-made training courses (short or long) targeting professionals, in order to update them, to upgrade the profession and indirectly those who pursue such professional activities, and to improve the competitiveness of those who did not yet enter the profession or were out of it.

New types of courses introducing and using IT in all the professions became very common, for example in Environmental Management, Environmental Protection, Occupational Health and Safety, automation processes and technology in Design, Production and Manufacture, expert systems in services, Biotechnology, etc.

The non-university sector offered courses which influenced the professions such as the ones above, and raised them from an empirical to a scientific level. Finally, the professionals gained social recognition. The non-university sector upgraded professions which were not yet accredited at the time, and also non-regulated, for example in Catering, Photography, Internal Design, Furniture Maintenance, or Nursing.

Non-university HEIs in countries with a good representation of these disciplines, such as Greece, Portugal, Spain, or Ireland, offered such training courses in collaboration with the social partners, at least at the level of training curriculum development. In the same period, the universities kept to their traditional ways.

The non-university sector participated and coordinated many projects, especially institutions from the UK (Polytechnics), the Netherlands (*hogescholen*), Germany (*Fachhochschulen*), Ireland (Regional Technical Colleges), Belgium/Flanders (*hogescholen*), and Greece (TEIs).

In this period, the non-university sector is strengthened, reformed and upgraded through changes in national educational and training planning and policies. (See part II of this paper).

There is a lack of structures and past performance in the sector, so that it can hardly be treated in the same way as the universities, since credibility is not strong in all of the non-university spectrum.

The non-university sector has a weak research tradition compared to universities, but it is strong enough in practical tasks, due to inherent links with the social partners, which were established in the years preceding their upgrading from vocational colleges to HEI.

The EU education and training programmes were welcomed as tools to become active at a European level in order to survive. A low profile benchmarking policy helped many of them to continuously improve. Innovation, enterpreneurship, short-training, flexible modular courses were the weapons of these young and smaller institutions, which proved responsive to society's needs.

The impact consisted very much in broad access to and updating of many professionals and adults. The European component in the whole policy is developed through short courses of transnational character.

From 1985 on, the ESF becomes the main source for training and continuous training in countries like Greece, Portugal, Spain or Ireland. The CET structures are oriented towards professions rather than to university-type activities of an academic sort.

The SOCRATES programme influenced HEIs greatly. A good portion of this sector participates in many activity types in SOCRATES. However, the cooperation of universities and HEIs and the social partners is a must. This synergy was to play a major role in the SOCRATES Institutional Contracts. For participation in projects for the dissemination and transfer of results, compare the Thematic Networks and the CD cases. Participation in the field of needs identification and in the design of learning activities of an interaction type, as above, will ensure the results to be widely transferred and used by all the interested social partners. The impact is expected to be stronger in the second phase of SOCRATES, where CET and any other LLL activity types and modes will be included in the Institutional Contract.

Part II

3. A Summary of National CET Features in Policy, Legislation and Practice in Higher Education and the Non-University Sector in Particular (8)

Germany

- The *Fachhochschule* (FH) is a strong partner for universities.
- National legislation and programmes of the federal ministry BMFT (1984-91) promote cooperation between enterprises and universities and fund training for technology transfer and university-enterprise consortia. The appointment of R&D personnel in SMEs is also fostered.
- Between 1986 and 1988, a project to promote HEI-enterprise cooperation was carried out.
- From 1986 onwards, HEIs offer advice, consultancy and training at faculty level.
- Funds were provided for RTD by private organisations, proving the productive interaction of the two worlds.
- The *Fachhochschulen* established good regional and industry contacts for placements, technology transfer and CET.
- However, private HEI were established to cater for market needs
- Individual contacts of professors with industry are a characteristic of this open and decentralised policy.
- UETPs coordinated placements, training, etc.
- Chambers of commerce and industry made agreements with *Fachhochschulen* for CET and technology transfer.
- Some important industry-initiated foundations and research associations run broad-ranging programmes and provide funds to *Fachhochschulen* for industry cooperation in research, too.

France

- The university sector is permitted by law to create public or private organisations with industrial partners.
- IUTs are part of the university structure, but independent to collaborate for education, training and CET (see e.g. COMETT, FORCE, SOCRATES, LINGUA, LEONARDO DA VINCI, & DELTA programmes and transnational projects).
- University staff is seconded into enterprises.
- Universities have created services for CET for enterprises which provide funds (since 1985). *La loi d' apprentissage* forces enterprises to contribute 0.6% of their personnel costs towards the institutional costs of organisations delivering training.
- The enterprise sector funds courses, chairs for research and the use of labs.

All these measures form an overall education policy picture where legislation, regulations and practice brings universities and IUTs into integration with the socio-economic and production sectors.

Greece

- In 1983, the Greek Parliament established the first 12 non-university higher education institutions (TEIs). TEIs were also made competent for advanced training and CET for professional groups.
- For the first time a specialisation certificate was introduced by law: It created access to the market and the professions and is associated to the TEIs.
- In 1985, CET started in TEIs through ESF funding and coordination of the Ministry of Education.
- Ensuingly, the COMETT, FORCE and DELTA programmes attracted the TEIs which became active in placements, training courses, consultancy and tests.
- In 1994, liaison offices were established in every university and TEI to bring closer university and enterprise courses professionally oriented and more practical, and by the time more regionalised, as teaching staff had links to local enterprises. Also, funding for CET enabled TEIs to increase their social impact and budget.
- Quality evaluation has now been introduced and encourages TEIs and universities to listen the customer's voice.

Internationalisation of the courses and of the institutional life have given a promising role to CET, and to technology transfer in several sectors. The degree depends on each TEI's attempt to gain nation-wide projects by using the new policy based on autonomy, decentralisation and competitiveness.

Denmark

- A Central Law in Promotion of Industry increases cooperation of enterprises with research institutions.
- The Ministry of Education and Research has agreed a formal representation of industry in education establishments and on the boards of management.
- The universities are self-governed. Links with enterprises are often met. In-service training is also offered to companies, as well as short intensive courses and consultancy.
- Science Parks on the campuses are independently governed.
- Liaison offices strengthen university-enterprise/industry interaction.
- Credit transfer systems between universities and non-university institutions are being established even within the country and credibility is steadily being developed for both of them.

- Project-based curricula at the University of Aalborg as an educational innovation bring industry closer to the university.
- The non-university sector is quite strong in training courses.
- Quality control started some years ago. A Centre of Quality Assurance and Evaluation of the HEIs was created in 1990.
- Student placements and theses give feedback for courses' updating, as both are carried out in industry. External examiners give feedback on course content and contribute to the adaptation of objectives to the real needs.
- On the boards of business schools or engineering colleges, representatives of the professional world are represented, a policy which complies with quality principles.

Belgium

- A decentralisation policy was started more than 10 years ago.
- Due to decentralisation, there is substantial collaboration at micro-level between universities and non-university institutions.
- The interaction of universities with enterprises and industry is legislated. Enterprises are represented on the HEI's boards.
- The UETPs established through COMETT are regionally independent. Enterprise personnel frequently acts as staff at HEIs (*hogescholen*)
- Technology centres link non-university institutions to market needs, offering tests, consultancy, trying RTD projects.
- The universities' role is teaching, research and services, while the task of the non-university institutions is teaching, but not external consultancy. Research is funded by industry. Post-graduate training and CET are funded in the case of universities. *Hogescholen* have entered into partnerships with UK universities to award joint M.Sc. degrees.
- Industrial placements are of growing importance and *hogescholen* participate in CET.
- Training courses for professionals and in-service training is a policy for the whole non-university sector.
- Participation of the non-university institutions in COMETT, FORCE, DELTA, short and long courses with multinational participation in trainers and trainees are also activity domains where the *hogescholen* have an impact.
- Transnational high-level professional CET is part of the non-university sectors' mission and strategy.

Ireland

- Universities and RTCs provide consultancy, applied research and other commercial activities. A national policy of tax relief is to encourage invest-

ment in research and development, patenting of inventions, funding HEIs for specific research and training activities.

- EOLAS, the Irish Science and Technology Agency promotes higher education-enterprise/university cooperation and also supports industrial liaison offices.
- The ERDF national programme promotes through the above interaction co-funding in collaborative research and development.
- As a result of placements programmes, industrial liaison offices were established in the entire higher education sector and with officers employed.
- Campus companies are a new idea to commercialise ideas flying in the campus.
- Growth of continuing education and training on a commercial and collaborative basis.
- Industry sends representatives into governing boards of universities and RTCs.
- Industry participates in curriculum development, in student placements and also, through the chambers of commerce and industry, in various cooperative programmes.
- Industry sponsors not only research and development on campus, but also their employees to attend master's programmes.
- RTCs were very active in all strands of COMETT. Placements of students and staff, short and long training courses, training material development and technology transfer are part of their policy and strategy.

The Netherlands

- Like Germany and Belgium, this country has a strong non-university sector (HBO). One of their objectives are the services offered.
- A 1986 law expressed the government's concern about the accessibility of scientific knowledge and the relationship of the HBO sector with the labour market. Hence, various national programmes supported collaborative development of products and innovation-directed research.
- This spirit is enhanced with the internships for both HBO and WO.
- All HBO sector institutions have board members from industry, too.
- Quality assessment schemes which include peers from industry are well-founded.
- Industrial liaison offices exist in all HBO institutions.
- Placements are an integrated part of the curriculum in the entire HBO sector.
- Industry funds guest professors and professorships, the receipt of internship and vocational training project students, trainee research assistantships. Large companies employ officers for contact with WO and HBO institutions. Industry funds projects and buys services coordinated by HBO.

Portugal

- From 1980 onwards, special structures and organisms were created for technological development and linkage of industry with HEIs, such as FUNDETEC, INEGI, INESC, ITEC, CESE. All of them became active in the COMETT programme at a later stage.
- Portugal has a very strong non-university sector, both in terms of size and activity, which pursues a continuous policy of decentralisation and accountability.
- In all institutions, industrial liaison offices have been established.
- Joint university-enterprise science and technology parks are one of the developments.

United Kingdom

- The polytechnics were integrated into the university sector, while the Further Education Colleges became more active in degree and vocational training projects/courses to fill the gap. The UK presents in its educational policy one of the strongest and mostly effective non-university sectors.
- From 1992-93 onwards, the Funding Councils provided earmarked funding to university and non-university institutions to meet the costs for developing CET courses for employers, employees and the adult workforce.
- In 1988, Enterprise in Higher Education encouraged and funded HEIs to become involved in enterprise-related activities.
- In the early 1990s, DTI and other institutions created schemes to support university-enterprise cooperation, not to mention Faraday Centres.
- In 1989, the National Training Task Force sought to prioritise training issues.
- Professional and industrial bodies are represented on the HEIs boards. Science and technology parks are linked directly to or generated by universities or (former) polytechnics (South Bank Science Park, Thames Valley, etc.)
- University staff are encouraged to participate in research and in its commercial exploitation through revenue-sharing schemes.
- Almost all universities and HEIs have industrial liaison officers.
- Accreditation by HEIs of company training courses (CATs) has had as a consequence that some big companies have nominated education liaison officers.
- Business and industry supports universities and non-university institutions up to more than 10% of their total income.

Finland

- Finland is a country with a very strong non-university sector. After an educational reform during the last ten years, 85 vocational Institutions have been integrated into 22 new types of higher education institutions, comparable to the ex-polytechnics or the *Fachhochschulen.* Cooperation with

industry is one of their targets, as their expertise is well-suited to meet the needs of the market.

- CET is one of the fasted growing areas in Finnish higher education.
- Finnish HEIs have taken initiatives for ODL, training schemes and needs analysis projects to adapt their courses. Quality management mechanisms to continuously improve higher education have been introduced in the majority of university and non-university institutions.
- University-enterprise cooperation is strong in both directions. HEIs offer training services when enterprises organise training on their premises and *vice versa.*
- Industry supports students and trainee placements as well thesis projects.
- CET schemes are very frequent in all HEIs in Finland.
- The Europeanisation of their efforts started in 1990 with COMETT II.

Austria

- Austria has developed the non-university sector similar to the German system of *Fachhochschulen,* which will run industry-oriented vocational training. From 1988 onwards, the law permitted university departments to act as entrepreneurs. The law supported joint activities.
- National programmes stimulate university-enterprise cooperation.
- In recent years, establishments for technology transfer and continuing education were established.
- This effort was supported through COMETT II projects. All the UETPs played a significant role in Austria, as this was the time the country joined the EU.
- CET is legislated for both the non-university and the university sector. There is a framework for certification.
- The university-enterprise link provides lecturers from industry to teach initial and CET courses in HEIs in Austria. Enterprises cooperate with HEIs by more than 20% for CET.

4. Conclusions

In many countries, the non-university higher education sector is relatively new and consequently not yet rich in experience, background and social acceptance. Expectations on the other hand are sky-high. This sometimes makes for a negative feedback. Funds made available for RTD are considerably less than those that flow into the universities. Non-university institutions are generally weak in RTD, and, as a consequence, in technology transfer projects at advanced level. Despite these disadvantages, some positive parameters and educational policy issues give them good score points. Their curricula are professionally oriented. Their academic staff, though academically less prestigious and not thoroughly involved in RTD projects, are aware of the market's needs, they are skillful and they contribute to effective solu-

tions and schemes to develop a high quality learning environment. Moreover, it goes without saying that

- Work placements and thesis projects in enterprises and industry are very often organised on a transnational level;
- Higher education-enterprise cooperation schemes, such as consultancy, tests, exchanges and CET, even on a European level, are quite common;
- The boards of non-university institutions often have representatives from the enterprise/industry sector;
- Quality management principles have been introduced and adopted. Also, peers come from enterprises/industry and from other EU member states;
- Industrial liaison offices have been established in the last ten years in the majority of the institutions;
- Spin-off units to commercialise RTD results and develop innovation have started up in both the university and the non-university institutions.

All these initiatives and educational innovations in the non-university sector give evidence of its flexibility and responsiveness and of its modern mission and strategies everywhere in Europe. The sector's success is based on European cooperation and collaboration, which is an issue of primary importance and a challenge not only for the institutions themselves, but also for political authorities at all levels.

5. References

1. *Memorandum on Higher Education in the European Community*, CEC, Brussels, 1991.
2. *Responses to the Memorandum on Higher Education in the European Community: Themes,* CEC, Brussels, December 1997.
3. *Quality and Relevance: The Challenge to European Education,* IRDAC, Brussels, March, 1994.
4. *ECTS, Quality Evaluation, Accreditation, Professional and Academic Recognition: Independent or Inter-Related Issues?*, J.Monnet Lectures by Prof. S.Kaplanis, Patra, June 1998.
5. International Conference on *The Tertiary Education in Europe and the Greek Case,* Proceedings, edited by Prof. S.Kaplanis, Patra, September 1989.
6. *Competitiveness, Growth and Job Creation – what Contribution Can Education and Training Make?* Report of the 1994 Cumberland Lodge Conference by H.J. Schmehr. EC TASK FORCE Human Resources, Education, Training, Youth, Brussels, July 1994.
7. "The European University of the Future: Matching the Learning Demands of the Knowledge Society with the Tools of the Information Society", Georges Van der Degree, in SEFI: *The First 25 Years*, Brussels, June 1998.

8. *European Higher Education – Industry cooperation: Advanced training for competitive advantage.* Communication presented by the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, Brussels, 1992.
9. For the UK, the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), for Ireland the National Council of Educational Awards (NCEA), for the Netherlands, the HBO, which coordinates the national quality evaluation project for the Dutch *hogescholen.* A similar organisation functions for the Flemish Belgian *hogescholen.* For Denmark, the organisation is the Centre for Quality Assurance and Evaluation. In Greece, universities and HEIs have lately been encouraged to develop quality evaluation models. The project is sponsored by the Ministry of Education through funds of EPEAEK, i.e. the National Operational Project for Education and Initial Professional Training. Funds come mainly through the European Structural Funds. Similar lines are followed in Portugal, Finland, Sweden and Germany, etc.
10. Quality then is simply meeting the customer's requirements, and this has been expressed in many ways by other authors:
    - "Fitness for purpose or use" – Juran.
    - "The totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs" – BS 4778, 1987 (ISO 8402, 1986) Quality Vocabulary: Part 1, International Terms.
    - "Quality should be aimed to the needs of the consumer, present and future" – Deming.
    - "The total composite product and service characteristics of making, engineering, manufacture and maintenance through which the product and service in use will meet the expectation by the customer" – Feigenbaum.
    - "Conformance to requirements" – Crosby.
    - Socrates Kaplanis – "A life attitude towards (re)-arranging operational and production system management and processes":
    - to care, to serve, to produce, to try, to develop, to create,
    - to improve, to achieve, to investigate, to respond in time.
      According to needs and expectations of an ever changing (internal – external) environment – clientele, but within the aims and objectives of the education institute and its ethos".
11. "A Quality Assessment project in the TEI of Patra forming part of the European Pilot Project for Quality". S.N.Kaplanis. *EFQM Conference Amsterdam 25-26.01.1996.*
12. *Responses to the Memorandum on Higher Education in the E.. Theme Report: Continuing Higher Education*. Report by Ron Gass, CEC publication.
13. "Accrediting something or someone", by Ph.D.Grosjean, *CESAER'S BRIDGE;* Quarterly Newsletter, 1997/1.
14. *Treaty on European Union* : article 3 case i & j and article 127.

15. L.C.: Liaison Committee of the European Universities; CRE: Association of European Universities; ERT: European Round Table of Industrialists; EURASHE: European Association in Higher Education; ESMU: Centre for Strategic Management of Universities.
16. In Objective 1 regions the ESF mainly co-finances mainstream training actions and employment subsidies. According to the report, these measures tend to be more focused on short-term unemployed or qualified young people and the report suggests that more should be done to target the disadvantaged and long-term unemployed. The ESF programme's focus is on improving the employability and qualifications of a wide variety of target groups. Given the diversity of programmes and evaluation methods, it was difficult to develop overall conclusions. While it is clear that the ESF has had a significant impact, early evidence indicates that some target groups have probably benefited more than others. Nevertheless, the report recognises that the ESF programmes in Objective 1 regions are perceived as a catalyst for the modernisation of labour market policies. In particular, programmes designed to strengthen education systems have proved especially useful. The main priorities for Objective 4 are:
    - ♦ anticipating labour market trends; training and professional re-qualification; assistance for developing suitable training systems. The report argues that these three priorities tend to be applied too rigidly and that more should be done to integrate the "anticipation" element into the other measures. On the whole, two types of project predominate Objective 4 – those targeted adapting to a specific "crisis" situation and those aimed towards continuous adaptation to a general change process, such as the development of new technologies. These projects often focus either on particular companies and their entire workforce or on categories of workers thought to be specifically at risk. While it is too early to draw detailed conclusions on the impact and effect of interventions under Objective 4 a number of benefits have been identified:
        a) introduction of improved training systems and infrastructure;
        b) development of innovative solutions for the problems of SMEs; increased attention to the link between anticipating change and the provision of training; and
        c) development of innovative selection and eligibility criteria.
17. "T.Q.M. in Services: Education, Social Services, Health Care", Lecture notes by Prof. S.N. Kaplanis, SOCRATES – ETF Professor at the University of Bucharest January – April 1999.
18. *A Hellenic Approach to Quality Management and the Decision Making* by S.N. Kaplanis & D.N.Nanousi. A project report for IMHE of OECD, July 1996.
19. *Implementing T.Q.M. in a University Setting*, by L. Edwin Coate, Oregon State University, July 1990.

20. “Student Practical Placements: A Model for Student Placements Across Europe” J.Monnet Lecture Notes, by Prof. S.N.Kaplanis, Patra, June 1998.
21. *TOWARDS A EUROPE OF KNOWLEDGE.* Communication from the Commission to the Council, the EP the Economic & Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. COM (97)563, Brussels, 12/11/1997.
22. White Paper on Education and Training, *Teaching and Learning: Towards a Learning Society.*
23. *Recognition of Diplomas for Academic and Professional Purposes: Interaction to Create a European Area for Education, Training and Careers,* CEC, DG XXII, interim report, 3 May 1994.
24. *Synergies Between Academic Recognition and Professional Recognition. Results of the Organised Debate.* Report produced by DGXXII and DGXV, CEC, Brussels, 1995.
25. *Liaising Higher Education Institutes and Courses to the Socio-Economic and Industrial Needs,* Project report funded by DG XXII, coordinated by Dr.S.Kaplanis, report by Dr. S.Kaplanis, Yves Boisselier, Brussels 1995.
26. New Pulses in Professional Training in Europe: GR, ES, PT, CEDEFOP Publications, No.1/1986.
27. *Implementing Total Quality Management in a University Setting,* Edwin Coate] Oregon State University, July 1990.

Dr. Franz Eberhard
Secretary General
International Association of Universities, Paris

Conclusions

At the end of a seminar like ours, I once heard a rapporteur say that that all he wanted to say had been said, and that he did not want to repeat it. Maybe this is what I should do. We have discussed for two days how not to miss the boat of international cooperation. I will do my best to avoid missing another one, namely the very real boat that will take us down the River Rhine this afternoon and which will expose us in a more tangible manner to this Rhineland country of myths and legends. We were reminded at the beginning of this seminar that it was not far from the venue of this meeting where Siegfried slew the dragon. During the seminar, I have at times been wondering which really are the dragons we all need to slay, because they belong to another era and prevent us from moving towards the future.

Here I am supposed to reflect on what are tomorrow's needs in international cooperation or, in the words of the programme, to draw the "preliminary conclusions" of our meeting. I would not want to claim to be able to draw, at this point, the conclusions of the seminar, preliminary or not. I will try to share with you some reflections that emerged from the seminar.

Coming from the International Association of Universities, which deals predominantly with universities, you might wonder what qualifies me, of all participants, to act as the rapporteur of a seminar devoted to the so-called non-university sector. The fact that this seminar takes place at a strategic moment, as someone remarked yesterday, pre-empts part of the possible conclusions. Clearly, a need was felt to organise the sort of discussion we had across the boundaries of different sectors of higher education, be they blurred or not, if we are to identify what is the task of the educational system vis-à-vis society and what the tasks and roles of the different actors are within that system. While the need for this discussion is very strongly felt, it was less clear to me what exactly we were discussing. Were we really debating, as we were invited to, the internationalisation of higher education institutions? Or did we not rather seize upon this opportunity to transcend our usual national discourses to discuss in an international setting questions related to the general mission and purposes of the various actors in a diversified system of higher education?

This leads me to three conclusions of a very preliminary sort:

First, the internationalisation of the debate is a good thing as such, even before we embark on the issue of operationalising internationalisation in the

institutions. And I would like to encourage the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), which took the initiative, to continue this debate, as there appears to be a need for us all to reach a higher degree of clarification of the objectives and respective roles in providing education and training for tomorrow.

Second, I would like to see the debate extended beyond the boundaries of Europe onto the global level. ACA is made up of national bodies predominantly from Europe, and predominantly supporting European cooperation. But all these bodies act within a global dimension of cooperation. It would therefore appear appropriate indeed for ACA to extend the geographical scope of the debate, and ask questions such as: What is the contribution that European higher education is called upon to make in an interdependent global context? What is the impact beyond Europe, whether we like it or not, and even if we are not always conscious of it, of any of our endeavours that we are deploying as Europeans? We need, I think, to become a bit more self-reflective in this respect, and to be ready to assume the global mission alongside our regional one.

Third: If there is a need to continue this discussion, we must lead it across the borderlines of the different segments or functions of higher education. Perhaps such “borderlines” are only a smokescreen. Still, one would need to look at the reasons behind that. And an international setting is necessary in this regard too, to allow us all to break out of some of the patterns of discourse into which we find ourselves usually locked as long as we stay within our respective national environments.

What did we discuss? I think there were four questions or large areas:

First, as Bernd Wächter pointed out, the close attention, already reflected in the country reports, that was paid to the issue of the “difference” which supposedly exists or does not exist between universities and other institutions of higher education, and the reasons and consequences of such an assumption within a national higher education system. This was a *leitmotif* that certainly ran through the whole of the first day and, in a way, prevented us from moving fully to the topic of internationalisation. We discussed questions of terminology, and whether the concept of two distinguishable sectors still reflects a reality or not, and whether these sectors tend to move towards each other and come to resemble one another or not.

Second, we discussed the consequences of the differences between the two sectors, perceived or real, for internationalisation. In this discussion, the general underlying assumption was that internationalisation was a “good thing” for the so-called non-university sector as well.

Third, the felt need of giving that sector a meaningful name and to describe it adequately within the European and the international context, not just the national setting, came up constantly.

Fourth, there was what I would refer to as the “unspeakable” question. This has to do with taboos that make us avoid addressing directly certain fears and status problems that we all may have. These questions are not regarded as academic enough to be dealt with openly. Instead, they result in a recourse to all sorts of seemingly rational arguments that allow us to avoid facing these very human concerns linked to any social constructions in a direct way. It would seem worthwhile, in order to overcome a certain deadlock over a number of issues, to break some of these taboos. I am of the impression that maybe some of these fears and status issues, difficult to address openly in a national context, might be more easily faced in such international setting as this seminar.

Here lies, for me, another argument to continue this cross-sector and cross-country debate. It may be useful, in this context, to remember that the debate inside the university sector itself is not so dissimilar from the one we heard here. While there the problem is not so much terminology, there are, of course, quite apparent differences of status, and also of function, amongst what are commonly called “universities”. My Association, which is a global one, has member universities from all over the world. While they share the name “university”, there are considerable differences with regard to a number of so-called “academic” standards. Just take the most obvious example, the most prestigious research universities in the North as compared to the younger institutions in the South, say Africa. But they are, as also other higher education institutions, certainly comparable with regard to their overall mission and their commitment to fulfil it, namely to serve the community which set them up for the purpose of higher level training and/or research and which supports them whilst placing expectations in them, and to whom they are accountable.

What gives that challenge an additional dimension is that the “community” inevitably tends to become more and more an international and interactive one. Hence, we need to become conscious of the global dimension of anything we do today. Any product you acquire today even in a small village is unlikely to have been produced exclusively with the know-how of the local community and its materials. Almost anything today benefits from international exchange of accumulated knowledge and expertise. From this perspective, internationalisation of higher education would appear simply as a matter of enhancing its quality and improving its competitiveness. However, its rationale transcends this important argument to include, for example, concepts such as solidarity and shared responsibility.

This leads me on to the question of terminology: First, we need to reach some degree of clarification, through using opportunities such as this for exchange and joint reflection, on the different ways in which we sometimes view what in reality we have in common. We need to describe our respective goals and differences and, in doing so, try to overcome some of the latent

fears linked to that exercise. This may further help in establishing or re-establishing self-confidence, by seeing more clearly what are really long-term commitments as compared to short-term issues, and what is the specific social responsibility that constitutes the true common denominator across countries, institution types and other differences. Only on the basis of such necessary clarifications does it make sense to approach again the sensitive question of naming the different functions or sectors. The common understanding, or agreement, would thus not so much be to describe them in a scientifically valid manner, but simply to be able to communicate without those strange linguistic contortions we at present often resort to.

From our discussion, I have noted two “non-negative” propositions to name the “non-university sector“: “College” was one, “Professional Academy” another. What I would suggest at this point is to test these two “labels”, and other positive ones you can think of, as to their acceptance with the national communities. If accepted, it would then simply be a matter of convention to refer to that sector in international discussions as the “college sector” or the “professional academies”, or whatever. This should not really obscure the differences that may exist within different national settings, just as is the case with the name “universities”. It would simply be a pragmatic way of acknowledging that there are different actors, from the traditional “universities” to those other institutions, established, for very good reasons, not to be like the universities, but to respond to needs that the universities had difficulties to comply with. Most questions of terminology, even in the scientific domain, are typically conventions agreed upon in a pragmatical manner. Let’s face it: the term “university” does not really say much about what the universities do. It is quite an arbitrary choice for the type of institution it designates, but the long tradition in which the term has been used has also consolidated the meaning we attach to it. Why should not a notion such as “college” or “professional academy”, once agreed upon, serve the same purpose for the sector we have here been dealing with? It would appear to me that, anyway, the questions of a common terminology should be settled as expediently as possible, so that we can move on without distraction to the discussion of the real issues of internationalisation and the substantive solutions that are called for.

I would now like to come to a last item, skipping a few others as time is running short. The underlying assumption of the organisers, and it was confirmed here, is that internationalisation is a good thing. Why? The main argument, and the one endorsed most often, is that it is a means of improving the quality of institutions and of making them more competitive, irrespective of their type, size and particular mandate.

I think that internationalisation is also inevitable for another reason. To illustrate that, I would like to go back to the historical underpinning of the European education programmes. ERASMUS started out as a sort of “mobilising myth”. There were almost no financial means, but there was an

idea: If you want to build Europe, you have to find ways of educating the European "citizen". This is more than just training European professionals or European leaders. I believe that the logic of the ongoing globalisation process leads us to a similar consideration, namely to train professionals, wherever they are, who have global competencies and who can act and take responsibility as global citizens.

The IAU last year issued a Statement on Internationalisation which you can find on our Website. In this document we do not speak of universities, but rather of higher education institutions, in general. Re-reading this Statement again in the light of our discussions here merely confirms that there is nothing in it that would not be fully applicable across the whole higher education sector, regardless of the type of institutions involved. Our point is that, when talking of the benefits of internationalisation, one should not only see this in terms of working abroad and selling abroad. There is the genuine function of higher education to bring forth a world citizen, who can "think globally while acting locally". It is important, I believe, not to loose sight of this function. It is for this broadly defined purpose of internationalisation that we need to create together a new "mobilising myth" that takes us beyond our European venture.

Here and there, in our discussions, images were used – and images are important. One was Siegfried killing the dragon. Another speaker evoked the Sleeping Beauty. That made me think of other tales collected by the German brothers Grimm. Some of these tales are rather horrible, like the one of Little Red Riding Hood, who went out into the forest of internationalisation full of good will to help grandmother and who ended up in the stomach of the wolf. But there is that other one about Cinderella, the girl who, by any standard, appeared not only less beautiful than her sisters, but generally disadvantaged – and it was she who did the useful work around the house. In one word, she was "challenged", to use the politically correct expression for "less beautiful", "unloved" and "over-worked". Yet finally, she was able to leave her closed environment and make a new future for herself. One can learn something from such tales, namely that appearances may be deceptive. What counts is the ability to assume, within shared institutional and personal responsibilities, one's genuine role and contribution, so as to allow all of us to move ahead, in higher education cooperation, as indeed everywhere else.