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Report
on
Trends and Developments in Higher Education in Europe
1998-2003

(in the contexts of the follow-up to the World Conference on Higher
Education – WCHE+5 – 1998-2003)

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Preface

The main purpose of this *Report on Trends and Developments in Higher Education in Europe* [in the context of the Follow-up to the World Conference on Higher Education – WCHE +5] is to facilitate, by bringing about a presentation of main trends and developments, a mid-term assessment of the direction of changes in higher education in this region since the World Conference on Higher Education (Paris, October 1998), particularly in regard to the provisions of its *World Declaration on Higher Education*, including the *Action Plan*, as well as to the conclusions of the European Regional Forum (Palermo, September 1997).

This report is structured in four parts. The first part takes a close look at the internal functioning of higher education in Europe, particularly at the ways in which the ever increasing demand for higher education is being met in line with **democratization of access**, and how this aspect is being combined with the increasing **concerns for quality in higher education**.

The second part of the report explores the relationships between the functioning of higher education and its external environment. These two aspects – **internal functioning** and **external environment** - are obviously closely related, but the ways the relations are shaped vary both in time and in space. The approach here is to look more closely at such issues as employability, entrepreneurship, technology transfer, and transnational higher education (TNE), considering them as important trends and concerns in the present development of higher education in Europe, which should also be seen from the wider perspective, that of the impact of globalization on higher education.

The third part refers to what is commonly known as the *Bologna Process*. The process was launched in June 1999, when some 30 ministers of education agreed to pursue a set of common goals in higher education. These goals, through a set of policy measures (later reinforced and expanded at the meeting of ministers in Prague in May 2001), mark what is widely regarded as a watershed in the history of higher education in Europe. Their main objective is the creation, by the year 2010, of the *European Higher Education Area*. The forthcoming meeting of ministers, in Berlin, in September 2003, will further the progress in this direction.

The fourth part of the report outlines a set of conclusions which, among other things, can serve as the basis to formulate recommendations for the future orientation of the WCHE follow-up strategy which will be relevant for European higher education, also taking into consideration the Bologna Process and the growing recognition of the need for a more coherent and forward-oriented reform of European higher education.

UNESCO-CEPES is pleased to acknowledge the contributions that have added their weight to the elaboration of this document by Stephen Adam, Professor at the University of Westminster, United Kingdom, and by Christian Tauch, Head of the International Department of the German Rectors Conference

(*Hochschulrektorenkonferenz - HRK*), Germany. Their expertise has proved to be highly valuable indeed in identifying the relevant developments in higher education in Europe. The inputs provided by the members of the Advisory Board of UNESCO-CEPES [which also serves as the WCHE Regional Follow-up Committee for the Europe Region] helped very much in advancing the drafting of the final version of the report by focusing it on the most important recent developments in European higher education.

This report represents the input of UNESCO-CEPES to the International Conference – WCHE +5, to be held from 23 to 24 June 2003, Paris, France. It is also our expectation that the information presented and the insightful analysis of the developments of higher education in Europe since 1998 will offer a basis for the formulation of recommendations which may contribute to the orientation of our further work on the development of higher education stipulated by the decisions adopted by the World Conference on Higher Education.

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Introduction

The UNESCO 1998 *World Declaration on Higher Education* provides the framework of reference; however newly emerging trends have appeared, and as such, they too deserve to be mentioned. In what follows, a synthetic picture of higher education in Europe is presented, without pretending to be exhaustive, in which the emphasis is put on those trends and developments which reveal their commonalities for the whole of Europe, while also pointing to certain sub-regional/local specificities. With these preconditions being specified, the following observations are made:

- The university, as a centre of teaching and research, is a genuinely European invention and, with a few exceptions, the existence of the university was inspired by and confined to European cultural, economic, and political dominance for a long period of time. This situation has long since changed, as the rest of the world adopted and adapted the idea, sometimes so successfully that today a number of European universities [and other higher education institutions] are increasingly aware of competition from their counterparts in other world regions. Traditional higher education institutions in Europe have also become increasingly aware of the challenges posed by new types of higher education provision, such as corporate universities and those organized as virtual universities. At the same time, aware of the needs of higher education institutions in certain developing countries, many European universities have launched, in partnership with them, various programmes of academic co-operation. It is within such a context that European higher education institutions are seeking **to strike the balance between their institutional and academic aspirations and needs for international co-operation and the challenges posed by various dynamic competitors** around the globe.
- Since the World Conference on Higher Education, one of the most visible and striking developments of higher education in Europe has been the **gradual convergence of Western and Eastern European systems and institutions of higher education**. For reasons that will be further explored in this report, most governments and higher education institutions began to feel that having joint discussions on the various burning issues in higher education would be to the benefit of all, no matter how different their national and sub-regional situations were and still are. However, one should point out that this trend of converging development in no way affects the inherent **diversity** of higher education in Europe, and even more when looking at the Europe Region [countries of Europe, North America, and Israel]. Indeed, this diversity must be preserved, even if convergences and common issues of concern are to be further considered.
- Higher education institutions in Europe have, for many years, felt the need for an in-depth reform of their structures. The key words of the debate have been very much those outlined by the *World Declaration on Higher Education*: coping with the "massification" of higher education, how to diversify institutions and programmes, recognition of degrees, quality assurance, accreditation and competitiveness of academic provision, promotion of the mobility of staff and students, the shrinking of public funding for higher education and the need to diversify funding sources, while preserving the responsibility of governments for the provision of higher education as a "public good",

the call for more institutional autonomy combined with increased accountability, globalizing trends in higher education. While there is a wide recognition that higher education institutions must accept the reality of competition for scarce public resources in the present-day socio-economic reality in which higher education functions, there is a voiced concern that open or overt deregulation of the sector will give rise to a retreat from the social agenda of the democratization of access to higher education. This concern is also argued in the context of seeing higher education as a “tradeable” service. One may also argue that the sudden need for a complete overhaul of higher education in Central and Eastern Europe after 1989, in turn, indirectly mobilized Europe to start serious policy debates about the need for an overhaul of higher education in Europe.

- The developments that are associated with the Bologna Process, and the subsequent “signpost” documents of *the Sorbonne Declaration* of May 1998, *the Bologna Declaration* of June 1999, and *the Prague Communiqué* of May 2001, indicated that the time was ripe for a large-scale initiative to achieve more convergence in European higher education. The creation of the **European Higher Education Area** [together with another strategic goal, that of the creation of the **European Research and Innovation Area**] now provides a principle framework for the long-term development of higher education in the region. If political “push” was essential for the launching of the *Bologna Process*, it now involves governments, higher education institutions, and international organizations, and has turned out to be the most effective lever for change that Europe has so far known in higher education. It is also stimulating discussions on higher education reform well beyond the boundaries of Europe.

- Finally, it should be reiterated that this report gives only a synthetic picture of the main trends that have taken shape in the course of the years following the WCHE, while also indicating those issues which are evolving and are going to affect the relationships between higher education and its wider environment. Higher education is indeed faced with a period of profound transformation, the same as with regard to its economic, social, technological, and cultural environment. Various competing paradigms are at work, and estimations and predictions are difficult to make. Widening both reflection and co-operation in the field seems to be the best approach, and this report, we hope, will provide an opportunity for just that.

2. Between Increased Demand for and Better Functioning of Higher Education

Since the 1998 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education, many developments have occurred in practically all the constitutive domains of higher education. In addition to public higher education providers, the institutional model which clearly prevails in European higher education, new providers have appeared like, for instance, those which are private not-for-profit, private for-profit, corporate, or those very much relying on the Internet and e-learning and which are usually referred to as the “virtual university”¹. The

1. For specific issues of functioning of this type of higher education see a report on “Teaching and Organization of Studies in the Virtual and Classical University: Conflict and/or Mutual Reinforcement”,

emergence of the private sector of higher education is one of the principle developments characterizing a systemic transformation of higher education in Central and Eastern Europe.

- For the time being, it is sufficient to point out that the ever-increasing demand for higher education, coming both from the young and adult population, is coupled with the expansion of enrollment rates all over Europe, despite certain national variations. It can be argued that the gaps with regard to access to higher education are less a matter of a specific national policy than the consequence of inequalities within particular societies.
- Within such a context, and considering the impact of the information and communication technologies (ICT) and the emerging “knowledge societies”, the important challenge to higher education originates in the ways in which academic quality is assured and enhanced. Paradoxically or not, at least in some countries, the more higher education is provided to a larger proportion of the population, the lower the quality of academic provision seems to be – hence the need to become ever more aware of the need to have in place a wide and efficient framework for academic quality management which is not only institutional and national, but also regional and global.

The main thread in the analysis that follows is that of exploring those internal developments of higher education that respond to the need to enhance academic quality.

2.1. Democratization of access and response to a demand

- The issues associated with access to and demand for higher education are numerous and challenging: universal access *versus* selection; from élite to mass higher education, but also shrinking numbers of students in some countries; changes in the ages of students; equity of access, and equality of educational opportunities, etc.
- With few exceptions (notably France and Germany²), participation in higher education grew in almost all countries in Europe between 1995 and 1999 [see Table 1]. The most spectacular increase took place in several countries of Central and Eastern Europe (Czech Republic - 50 percent, Hungary - 80 percent, and Poland - 108 percent). The figures most of all reflect a **rapid increase in the demand for higher education** and the ability of higher education – public and private institutions – to respond to this demand [see also Table 2, 3, and 4]. However, there are already indications that foremost, owing to demographic trends, further increases of student enrollment are less likely.

International Seminar organized by the University of Puerto Rico and UNESCO-CEPES, in collaboration with the Puerto Rico Council of Higher Education (PRCHE) and the Hispanic Educational Telecommunications System (HETS), 22-24 October 2001, San Juan, Puerto Rico on www.cepes.ro as well as No.4, 2001 issue of the UNESCO-CEPES review, *Higher Education in Europe*, which presents the papers of the meeting.

² The very recent development in Germany, however, shows an increase in student enrollment, after years of decreasing interest in higher education studies. The demand is particularly strong in medicine, veterinary medicine, and psychology, whereas students lost interest in engineering and in particular computer science.

- The clear message is **that the demand for higher education has increased in recent years but that it is now reaching a stage of levelling off**. This trend however may change, once a general trend fully impacts on Europe, namely the increasing demand for lifelong learning and continuing education. In this regard, the situation in the United States is quite indicative of the direction of changes in higher education, where the total student population enrolled in higher education corresponds less and less to the “classical” student image, that of full time students in the 18 to 24 years old on group in the US. The majority of adult learners are studying in evening classes or online.
- In all the European countries, the basic requirement for access to higher education is the successful completion of upper secondary education. In addition, many countries have introduced selection procedures for certain, heavily oversubscribed disciplines like medicine, dentistry, architecture, etc. The situation with regard to the countries of the European Union/European Economic Area (EU/EEA), as it has been described by EURYDICE for the period 1980–1998, is still valid: "... despite rising demand for places in higher education, the selectivity of the system has changed in relatively few countries over the period concerned. Countries selecting their entrants to higher education far outnumber those still granting open access, with roughly the same number of countries applying selection for most of their courses as for some courses only."³
- The situation in Central and Eastern Europe was characterized by **a rapid expansion of enrollment figures in the 1990s**. Access requirements include the upper secondary school leaving certificate plus entrance examinations in most countries, normally set by the institution or faculty. In most countries, some sort of *numerus clausus* applies, often for the state-financed/tuition-free study places. Additional study places are available for fee-paying students both in public as well as in private higher education institutions.
- The widening of access to higher education must also be linked to the development of private higher education institutions; particularly in Central and Eastern Europe [see Tables 2 and 3]. In some of these countries, the proportion of private institutions in the overall number of higher education institutions is remarkably high; in Poland – 63 percent, in Estonia and Romania – 60 percent, in Hungary – 52 percent. But it has to be kept in mind that a prevailing number of them are small institutions, mainly providing study programmes in the economic and the social sciences. Their infrastructures are often weak and have relatively unstable full-time academic staff. The rapid development of the private sector in higher education for which there has not been an appropriate legal and regulatory framework has led to the establishment of accreditation agencies [both as state agencies and self-regulatory bodies of the academic institutions] and to an emerging accreditation culture in the higher education systems of the countries of the region.

³ Eurydice, *Two Decades of Reform in Higher Education in Europe: 1980 Onwards*, Brussels: Eurydice, 2000, p.108.

- While widening the access to higher education, student mobility, both within and between institutions, becomes increasingly an important issue of concern, especially in the context of one of the main goals of the Bologna Process, which is **that of promoting student mobility**. The realization of such a goal has to be based on a “double approach” – use of incentives as well as the overcoming of obstacles and the elimination of barriers. When considering the functioning of institutions and their study programmes, student mobility depends very much on the system of credit transfer and credit accumulation. The **introduction of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS)** is viewed as the principle instrument in achieving greater student mobility – at local, national, and international level. For this reason, some higher education institutions are currently working, with the support of the European Commission, not only on implementing the ECTS across the whole continent, but also on widening ECTS to a credit and accumulation system that would include all forms of academic, professional, vocational, and experiential learning.
- In this context it is worth mentioning that the validity of arguments for valuation or even acceptance of “assessment and recognition of prior, often experiential, learning” is gaining ground in Europe. The discussion on lifelong learning made it inevitable that the problem of how to recognize prior non-traditional learning achievements would also be addressed. These are usually related to professional activities. In this regard, the introduction of ECTS promises to provide an important tool.
- Overly long duration of study and worryingly low completion rates in some disciplines and countries have caused governments and higher education institutions to experiment with new formulae like the two-tier structure that allows shorter courses with modularized course contents and, again, credit systems. Also, the institutional diversification of higher education has increased in recent years and continues to do so. In many countries with a binary structure [university sector/non-university sector], the access to more professionally oriented programmes, offered by the non-university institutions, had to be restricted because of the high demand for such courses. In particular, in Central and Eastern Europe, several countries have introduced a non-university sector or have strengthened their already existing college/ polytechnic sector. Such developments have often been accompanied by the definition of various bridges between the different institutions and programmes. **The introduction of higher education based on two tiers - undergraduate and graduate** in most European countries, facilitates the creation of very diversified study programmes, both from the professional to academic and research-oriented perspective, and therefore of highly individualized learning paths.
- Graduation rates provide an important indicator of the effectiveness of higher education systems and of their specific institutions. Any increase in the drop-out rate is a worrying indicator of an important human and financial waste of public and private resources. Although it is true that leaving higher education without a formal degree does not necessarily automatically amount to a total failure on the part of the concerned students or of waste, drop out rates provide important indications on the relative efficiency of education systems. On average, 30 percent of students in the OECD

countries drop out before they complete their first tertiary-level degrees. Not surprisingly, the drop-out rate for students tends to be higher in systems with predominantly long study programmes than in systems which provide the student with more choice and flexibility by offering shorter programmes. Thus in Ireland and the United Kingdom, where a majority of students are enrolled in course programmes of medium length, the dropout rates are around 15 percent, while countries with a tradition of "long" programmes of five to six years (e.g., Austria, Germany, Italy,) have above average dropout rates. This situation explains the particularly strong commitment to the reform of degree structures [one of the objectives of the Bologna Process] that countries with high dropout rates are showing.

- As for the participation of women in higher education, the enhancement of which was strongly advocated by the *World Declaration on Higher Education*, the paradox persists in a majority of European countries, that while the proportion of female students equals or even exceeds that of male students, women hold a relatively small number of posts in higher education teaching and research. It is also true that in many countries there are still more male higher education graduates than females. Therefore, it is all the more interesting to see that in quite a number of countries more men than women complete upper secondary education, but at the level of higher education this proportion is reversed. Such is the case, for example, in Denmark where 82 percent of men and 79 percent of women finish upper secondary education, but only 24 percent of men actually have higher education degrees, compared to 29 percent of women. In France, the proportions are: secondary education: 67 percent men and 61 percent women; higher education: 22 percent men and 24 percent women. When it comes to advanced research qualifications however, the situation is yet again reversed: men remain more likely than women to obtain such qualifications. Graduation rates from advanced research programmes such as, for example, doctoral degree programmes, are lower for women in all OECD countries, except Italy. On average, nearly two-thirds of all graduates at this level are men. A few countries have a fairly balanced record, such as Iceland, Portugal, and Ireland, whereas in some countries, even less than one-third of all advanced research qualifications are awarded to women. This fact has obvious consequences for the participation of women in teaching and research provided by higher education establishments. Therefore, the share of female professors in the countries of the European Union amounts to only 26 percent of the total academic staff. It is particularly low in Germany (9 percent), Ireland (12 percent), Belgium (14 percent) and the Netherlands (15 percent), while the highest shares were recorded in two Scandinavian countries - Finland (36 percent) and Sweden (33 percent).⁴ In this regard the promotion of good practice needs to be continued.⁵

- The student population has been undergoing important changes in terms of diversification of age and working conditions, these being related to both "just-in-time" training and "just-in-case" education. The development of markets in higher education is very much linked to the increased demand for higher learning and to the diversification of

⁴ Eurostat News Release, no 118/2001, <http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat>

⁵ Grünberg, L., ed., *Good Practice in Promoting Gender Equality in Higher Education in Central and Eastern Europe*. Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES Papers on Higher Education, 2001.

the student population and of higher education institutions. In such a context, some – mostly private – institutions have started to treat students as customers or consumers.

2.2. Lifelong learning

- A general appreciation of lifelong learning has been with us for a long time. However, more recent developments leading us in the direction of “knowledge societies”, with a new set of economic and cultural challenges, have recently transformed dramatically both attitudes towards lifelong learning and the ways different institutions and organizations act in order to meet the new and much more complex demand for continuing education. It is in such a context that conventional (traditional) higher education institutions are trying to reposition themselves, while the newly established “edu-organizations” (usually functioning as for-profit corporations) try hard to seize their part of “the educational market” and earn legitimacy for their services. The landscape of those developments is made even more complex by the emergence of the so-called providers of TNE)⁶ [see also Table 5 as well as Section 3.3. of this report]. The place of TNE in the general landscape of European higher education must be also seen in the context of the present round of negotiations carried out by the World Trade Organization (WTO) with regard to changes to the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) the direction of which is a liberalization of access to the market for educational services [for a better picture of the modes of such educational services see Table 6], including that of all forms of higher education and seeing it more as a “private” than a “public good”.
- The debate over these issues is quite heated in Europe, with a prevailing view among the leaders of higher education institutions (and even more among students) that governments not withdraw their support to the providing of higher education as a “public good”, its quality to be safeguarded. At least for the foreseeable future, the state, through appropriate governmental or intermediary/buffer bodies, will continue to play an important role in assuring appropriate standards at the institutional and programme levels.
- Parallel to national considerations, increased international collaboration is required to safeguard the academic quality of the degrees offered. In this effort, national governments have formed networks with one another to arrive at common definitions and mutually recognized quality assurance procedures. In this regard, international organizations represent a natural platform for such networking.
- There is an obvious link between the achieved level of qualification and the willingness to undergo continuing education later in life. Adults with tertiary qualifications are between two and three times more likely to participate in job-related training than adults who have not completed upper secondary education. "Education is

⁶ See, UNESCO-CEPES, *Transnational Education and the New Economy: Delivery and Quality*, Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES Studies on Higher Education, 2001 as well as two issues of UNESCO-CEPES review of Higher Education in Europe, dealing with TNE; no. 3. 2000 on Transnational Educational Provisions: Enabling Access or Generating Exclusion and no. 3, 2002 on Quality Transnational Education: A Shared Commitment for Sustainable Development.

thus one of several influences making adult training least common among those who need it most".⁷ This situation is indicative of the particular responsibility of higher education institutions in providing both lifelong learning and, just as important in providing their students with a positive attitude towards lifelong learning.

- The participation of the adult population in continuing education and training is already constantly increasing, albeit with significant differences in the various countries. As might be expected, there is strong empirical correlation between initial education and participation in continuing education and training. According to the OECD, the level of participation, in various forms of continuing education and training among those with tertiary education is an average of 47 percent for its fourteen European member countries. Among those with only lower secondary education, the rate is just 14 percent [the respective data for Canada is 33 and 8 percent, and for the United States - 47 and 15 percent].⁸ Higher education institutions, especially in countries with a low rate of participation, can take advantage of this situation and respond to this demand, if appropriate economies are to be created.
- While politicians and higher education representatives agree on the need to provide lifelong learning, many higher education institutions – and in particular traditional universities – are reluctant to go beyond the lip service they are paying and to develop concrete activities. While they agree that lifelong learning is important in the overall development of education and training, they hesitate to accept a central role for higher education in it. It is safe to predict, however, that the introduction of two-tier structures all across Europe in the framework of the Bologna Process will automatically lead to more “lifelong learning” in the sense that students will make use of the opportunity to leave the higher education sector after the first degree to enter the labour market and come back at a later stage to obtain a postgraduate qualification and possibly even further qualifications, depending on the developments in the world of work and their personal interests.
- Also in some fields, change is occurring under pressure coming from outside. Traditional distance education – which has only been offered by a minority of institutions – is undergoing dramatic changes as virtual and corporate institutions are attracting an ever growing percentage of students, particularly among the mature age group that is already employed. It is important in this context to convince higher education institutions, particularly the traditional ones, to overcome their reluctance and to make lifelong learning one of their priorities.
- In this regard, the findings of a consultation carried out by the European University Association (EUA)⁹ among its members [an organization representing more than 600 leading higher education institutions in 45 countries throughout Europe], on

⁷ See, www.bologna-berlin2003.de, “Main Documents: Salamanca Message”.

⁸ See, OECD, *Education at a Glance – OECD Indicators*, Paris: OECD, 2001, p.187.

⁹ See, Mary O’ Mahony, *Consultation on the EC Draft Memorandum on Lifelong Learning*, Geneva: 2001, www.unige.ch.eua.

their perception of lifelong learning identified three **main success factors in the implementation of lifelong learning** in higher education:

- there has to be an interaction between different policy levels for lifelong learning;
- the work has to be placed in a long-term perspective, and attention must be given from the beginning to the sustainability of initiatives, including the resource base and the quality of the proposed programmes;
- there has to be effective partnership among all the key actors.

Consequently, the approach of the higher education community to lifelong learning should not be reduced to its involvement in providing services to working adults seeking continuing professional development, even if this service is probably the most concrete form of such contribution. The culture of lifelong learning must start much earlier in the context of a comprehensive educational strategy of “knowledge transmission” the important component of which has to be the development of the capacity and of the willingness to learn permanently – embodied in this well-known phrase, “learning how to learn”.

2.3. Innovative approaches in higher education: Teaching, learning, and the use of information and communication technology (ICT)

- While the pressure from outside is mounting, owing to factors like decreasing public funding, new national higher education laws, competition from other national and foreign institutions, including virtual and corporate institutions, higher education institutions are being prodded by internal stimuli to promote innovations in teaching and learning in their “production functions” so as to increase both their internal effectiveness and their external efficiency. The main sites of innovative approaches in the internal functioning of higher education are represented by **curricular reform** and the **use of ICTs**. A mutual dependence between the two is being increasingly recognized.
- A consensus exists today among higher education specialists that study programmes have to become **student-oriented rather than teacher-oriented and that such a change requires an in-depth reform of curricula, a stronger involvement of students, and the use of ICTs**. Present developments in Europe indicate that indeed the attention of higher education in most countries is shifting towards the learning process and the students. The two-tier structures allow for flexible, individual, and interdisciplinary learning itineraries across the continent. The value of the Bachelor’s degree as a platform that allows the student a change of discipline, university, or country is increasingly being recognized. Almost all European countries are introducing the “modularization” of curricula structures and supporting the use of credit systems - ECTS, albeit with varying pace and alacrity at the institutional level. Such developments will directly affect progress in the introduction of the two-tier Bachelor/Masters degree structure, which is one of the goals of the Bologna Process.
- Traditionally in European higher education, the academic year is organized into semesters, even if the length and the exact dates for the beginning and the end of semesters vary considerably, which poses a certain obstacle to mobility. Emphasis on the

acquisition of skills and competencies rather than on purely formal criteria like names or lengths of programmes is at the center of the project appropriately titled “**Tuning Educational Structures in Europe**”.¹⁰ By defining general descriptors for the learning outcomes of studies leading to Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees and agreeing on more specific skills and competencies for certain disciplines, it is expected that adequate “tuning” will be possible within a respective study programme, gradually leading to the emergence of the common core structure of the study programme, a kind of “Euro-Bachelor” in a given field of study. This reform will not only contribute to the development of more **student-centered curricula**, but will also facilitate the **recognition of degrees across Europe**. The clear trend here is that of focusing on **learning outcomes**. All educational inputs should be valued from this perspective, while the framework of quality assurance, accreditation, and recognition of qualifications should be so developed as to take learning outcomes as key references.

- Another important development is the on-going discussion concerning widening the use of ECTS, including **credit accumulation**, which touches a large number of issues directly affecting the organization of studies, social assistance to students, study workloads, registration and certification of educational value of the given study experience [the complexity of which increases in the cases of courses provided by institutions using exclusively ICTs], teaching loads, contractual regulations for teaching staff, etc.¹¹
- One of the driving forces that brought European higher education institutions to join forces in their reform undertakings was the “efficiency concern” stimulated by the **worrying number of drop-outs** in many countries. In the context of curriculum reform and the heightened responsibility of higher education institutions for the employability of their graduates, many institutions have begun to set up professional support mechanisms, such as career centers and study guidance services.
- The ongoing reforms in Europe have shown that indeed the close involvement of staff and students is essential in attaining these objectives. The re-writing of existing curricula and the drafting of new, innovative, and multidisciplinary curricula can only be accomplished with the active support of higher education teachers while focusing on students. It is becoming obvious that it is in this area that the major stumbling blocks can be expected in the coming years and in which strong efforts of persuasion are required. The Bologna Process has provided a strong stimulus for Europe-wide as well as national discussions with all stakeholders, including students’ associations at European¹² and national levels, professional associations, and discipline-based networks, as well as the

¹⁰ See, Commission of the European Communities, *Tuning Educational Structures in Europe* (Closing Conference), Brussels: Commission of the European Communities, May 2002.

¹¹ A European conference on ECTS for transfer and accumulation was organized in October 2002 by the EUA and the Swiss Confederation. For the main outcomes of the meeting see, www.unige.ch/eua.

¹² The most representative student organization in Europe is the National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB), which has 44 members from 33 countries in Europe. Membership is open to democratic, representative and independent National Unions of Students (NUSes), who are open to all students in the country regardless of their political convictions, religion, ethnic or cultural origin, sexual orientation, social standing, are run and controlled by students, who hold democratic elections.

European trade unions of teachers in the higher education sector and research organizations.¹³

- It is a common understanding in Europe that in the twenty-first century most societies are expected to move to a knowledge-based economy [sometimes also referred to as a “new economy”], evolving societal organization towards “knowledge societies”. In this regard, the central role of the ICTs in various spheres, including that of higher education, has been highlighted by different national and international organizations. In unambiguous ways, the objectives of this development have been expressed by the European Council, a top political body of the European Union, in its March 2000 declaration, when it set the strategic goal for the European Union for the next decade:

"to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion".

But in order to achieve such goals, there is a challenging task to overcome an important gap in Europe in various fields and suggested ways to remedy the situation, in particular by linking ICT-skills and lifelong learning;

"a European framework should define the new basic skills to be provided through lifelong learning: IT skills, foreign languages, technological culture ...a European diploma for basic IT skills, with decentralized certification procedures, should be established in order to promote digital literacy throughout the Union".¹⁴

- The issue has been taken up in most European countries and a great deal has already been achieved with regard to the integration of ICTs into curricula and special courses, e-learning, and the equipping of higher education institutions with hardware and software. There is no doubt that the ICTs are having a strong impact on higher education today, being expected to bring about major changes in all areas – from management to teaching and learning, from staffing to the supply of study programmes. One such impact, which should be further explored, is related to the development of new ways to provide distance education, including TNE (see also Section 3.3 of this Report), the virtual university. In this respect, when evaluating the impacts of ICTs on higher education and the development of virtual universities, a UNESCO-CEPES project¹⁵ demonstrated that conventional and virtual universities should be seen as complementing each other with regard to issues like quality of teaching and learning, certification of knowledge, costs, development and ownership of infrastructure, equity (for learners as well as for teaching staff), cultural and linguistic sensitivity, and many other similar.

2.4. Quality assurance and accreditation

¹³ At international level, the majority of the European teachers trade unions in higher education and research are acting through Education International – IE.

¹⁴ Lisbon European Council: Presidency Conclusions, 23-24 March 2000, see <http://www.europa.eu.int/comm>

¹⁵ See, the Report of the International Seminar on Teaching and Organization of Studies in the Virtual and Classical University: Conflict and/or Mutual Reinforcement, (San Juan, Puerto Rico, 22-24 October 2001), Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES on www.cepes.ro.

- Higher education institutions are enjoying increased autonomy as state regulations are loosened, but at the same time, market pressures are threatening the newly granted autonomy and academic freedom. It is in such a context, over the past few years, that institutions have had to learn how to live with much more formalized procedures of external quality control imposed by governments, as a consequence of the liberalization of the way budgets are allocated. Higher education institutions now have to take these developments a step further by developing appropriate internal structures of governance and management, and above all, a quality culture of their own. Such a culture will increase the competitive advantage of given institutions both in the struggle for public funding and *vis-à-vis* the pressures of the market. Detailed concepts exist today for the internal evaluation of the various fields of activity of higher education institutions: overall strategic planning (the right mix between top-down and bottom-up); scientific support services (libraries, laboratories, etc.); teaching and learning; decision-making processes within institutions; research management; human resources; co-operation agreements.¹⁶ In all of these fields, the complementarity of internal and external quality assurance activities has to be defined. **For the time being, the collegiate model and the new institutional quality assurance model coexist in European higher education, but it is less clear how they can function in a complementary way.**
- One of the obstacles for a Europe-wide co-co-ordinated effort in quality assurance is that terminology varies tremendously from one system to another. The addition and handicap of the present situation is that the standards and criteria of evaluation are overly focused on inputs even though what matters most are the learning outcomes. So far, the new TNE providers are rarely taken into account by the national quality assurance activities, which are too much focused on the national systems and institutions of higher education. The balance between national concerns and international co-operation in the field has not yet been fully established. However, the creation of the European Network of Quality Assurance Agencies (ENQA) is an important step in the direction of **a pan-European framework of quality management.**
- Quality assurance and accreditation have a strong impact on the international recognition of academic qualifications, for which the Council of Europe/UNESCO Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications Concerning Higher Education in the European Region, adopted in 1997 in Lisbon and ratified, as of today, by 32 Member States from the Europe Region, provides the legal framework. The on-going Bologna Process gives a new context to the work related to its implementation. A pan-European network of national information and recognition centers – ENIC/NARIC Network – functions for the implementation of the Convention, while also developing new procedures and information documents in the field. The network cooperates very closely with quality assurance and accreditation agencies both at national and European level. In order to increase the transparency in the field of recognition a Diploma Supplement is being adopted by greater and greater number of the European systems and institutions of higher education.

¹⁶J. Taylor and A. Miroiu, *Policy Making, Strategic Planning, and Management of Higher Education*, Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES Papers on Higher Education, 2002.

- A positive evolution is that almost everywhere in Europe, the need for quality assurance mechanisms has started to be widely accepted. This trend is to a great extent related to the advancement of the Bologna Process in which European collaboration in quality assurance has been recognized as a vital aspect of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees as well as of the potential attractiveness and competitiveness of Europe in the world. Most actors in European higher education agree that in order to ease recognition procedures, to facilitate mobility, to increase confidence in the new curricula, and to avoid any lowering of standards, procedures for effective quality assurance are essential. All countries have some kind of quality assurance mechanisms in place; however, they vary significantly in terms of purpose, focus, and organization. While quality assurance is only an internal responsibility of higher education institutions in some countries, in the majority of countries there are agencies that also carry out external evaluation functions. Most of the countries in Europe have already created such bodies.
- In 2002, the European University Association (EUA), with the financial support of the European Commission, started a pilot project, the goal of which was to identify examples of good practice in promoting an internal quality culture in higher education institutions. Six networks of European institutions have been set up, each one concentrating on a different aspect of internal quality, and the results of the project will be presented at the Berlin Conference of European Higher Education Ministers in September 2003. This conference will review the progress made over the last two year with regard to the implementation of the goals of the Bologna Process.¹⁷
- Linked closely with quality assurance, a new development in Europe is the emergence of “accreditation”, defined as the confirmation by an external body [formal status of which can be that of a governmental agency, buffer organization, or professional/academic body], that certain [usually minimal] quality standards are met by the given institutions or/and study programme. There is no tradition of this procedure in most European systems of higher education. In the 1990s, a number of countries in Central and Eastern Europe have established accreditation agencies in the context of the systemic changes of their higher education systems, in particular the rapid development of private higher education establishments in this part of Europe [see also Table 3]. Generally speaking, the move to introduce and even to strengthen the place of accreditation in higher education can be observed all over Europe. It is illustrated by the fact that seeking accreditation from foreign, usually non-European agencies, is diminishing.¹⁸
- To avoid a maze of national quality assurance and accreditation standards, procedures, and agencies, greater co-operation in the definition of criteria and mutual recognition are considered essential. **The most important challenge in Europe today is the need for wide co-operation in order to develop regional and national standards and procedures of quality assurance combined with the will to safeguard the**

¹⁷ For more details on the project see: www.unige.ch/eua.

¹⁸ Rauhvargers, A. and Ch. Tauch, *Master Degrees and Joint Degrees in Europe*. Brussels/Geneva: EUA, 2002, p.24.

diversity of European higher education systems. In this respect, the UNESCO-CEPES project on *Strategic Indicators for Higher Education in the 21st Century*, particularly its components on standards and performance indicators for quality assurance and institutional accreditation, provides opportunities for exploring both existing standards and performance indicators and for formulating proposals for the increase of their relevance.¹⁹

2.5. The financing and management of higher education

- The period since 1998 witnessed a continuation of the trend that had, in some countries, begun as early as the 1980s: **more autonomy – especially in financial matters – for the higher education institutions coupled with increased accountability.** The increased autonomy in financial matters concerned several aspects: change from strict budget lines to lump sum budgets, introduction of more objective funding formulae, linking of funding to outputs rather than to inputs, contract-based funding (selling teaching and research services). In countries with a binary structure of higher education institutions, the non-university institutions were also granted similar rights to those of universities.

- **The diversification of funding sources by many higher education institutions is a clear trend in Europe today; however, it is not necessarily accompanied by a decrease in the rate of funding.** Moreover, it is a prevailing reality that education, in particular higher education [to some extent owing to its double – private and public good value], has to compete for public financial support against a wide range of other areas covered by public/government budgets. It is also correct to say that, at least in OECD countries, increased private spending on tertiary education tends to complement, rather than replace public investment. Figures for 1998 show, that OECD country, on average, spend US\$ 3,915 per primary education student, US\$ 625 per secondary education student, and US\$11,720 dollars per tertiary education student [in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs]. Expenditures per student in tertiary education exceed this average in the following European countries of the organization – Austria, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. While the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Spain spend around half of the amount of the OECD average.²⁰

- **The issue of students paying tuition fees, is at the crux of the whole debate on a decisive issue for the future of higher education in Europe; that of financing of higher education.** Searching of the Europe-wide solution has to take into consideration that different traditions concerning tuition fees continue to prevail. In Northern and Southern Europe, higher education free of tuition fees is dominant. In some countries,

¹⁹ For main findings of the project see, A. Yonezawa and F. Kaiser, eds., *System-Level and Strategic Indicators for Monitoring Higher Education in the Twenty-First Century*, Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES Studies on Higher Education, 2003; the Report of the Invitational Round Table on *Statistical Indicators for Quality Assessment of Higher/Tertiary Education Institutions – Ranking and League Table Methodologies*, 13-15 June 2002, Warsaw, Poland, no. 4, 2003 of *Higher Education in Europe*, and the papers of the Invitational Roundtable on Indicators for Institutional and Programme Accreditation in Higher /Tertiary Education, Bucharest, 3-6 April, 2003 on www.cepes.ro.

²⁰ See, OECD, *Education at a Glance – OECD Indicators*, Paris: OECD, 2001, p. 59.

higher education institutions have, as part of their financial autonomy in the past years, received the right to charge fees. However, **orientation towards a system based on charging tuition fees²¹ combined with a system of appropriate cost recovery and support system is a clear direction in which higher education in Europe is orienting itself.**

- The majority of countries in Central and Eastern Europe have a mixed system in which the government offers a number of state-financed places in public higher education institutions to the best students whereas other students have to pay tuition fees. At the same time, private higher education institutions whose existence depends on tuition revenues are also charging tuition fees. Gradually, various schemes of grants and student loans are finding their place.

- But it is right to conclude that the state, in most of the European countries, is and will continue to supply the largest share of funding for higher education institutions. At the same time, there is a clear shift in the roles of the two main actors – the state and the higher education institutions. **With the shift from detailed state regulations for all university tasks to more general frameworks, the limiting of the role of the State to one of supervision is a clear trend in policy making and governance of higher education in Europe.** Consequently, higher education institutions almost everywhere in Europe have earned greater freedom with regard to how they spend their budgets, the hiring of staff, administration and internal regulations, buildings and equipment, curricular planning, self-evaluation, development planning, etc. This will require that higher education not only be able to demonstrate good governance and management but also greater aptitude in the marketing of institutional teaching and research potential and services.

- In most binary systems, universities used to have more autonomy than non-university institutions, based on the principle of academic freedom in teaching and research. The transfer of responsibilities from the state to the higher education institutions was mostly accompanied by a strengthening of the governing bodies of the universities: they received more powers (more independent institutional planning within the framework set by the government) and today, in most countries, include experts from outside the university: industry, media, commerce, etc. This process has also strengthened links with the world of work.

- Whilst the problem of financing of higher education is constantly a “hot issue” in policy debate, two further topics, that of seeing higher education as a “public good” and “trade in higher education services”, are new highly controversial issues in Europe today. The opening of a new round of negotiations under GATS that considers “education” as a

²¹ The argument for introduction of tuition fees is based, among other things, on the substantial private gains, which vary from 7 to 19 percent, from “investment” in higher education studies. See, S.Blondal, S. Field and N. Girouard, *Investment in Human Capital Through Post-compulsory Education and Training: Selected Efficiency and Equity Aspects - Economics Department Working Paper No. 333*, Paris: OECD, July 2002. Also available through OECD Website at <http://www.oecd.org/econ>.

tradable service²² has generated strong arguments in the Europe Region.²³ There is no doubt that for many European academics and students, higher education should be further conceived as a “public good”, but it should not mean automatically that it is “free”. This is a particularly important consideration if higher education is required to meet the “mass quality higher education challenge”.

3. Higher Education and Its Environment

The period since the WCHE has witnessed significant transformations in the environment of higher education that, one way or the other, has greatly affected the role, the functions, the shape, and the mode of operation of higher education systems and institutions all over the Europe Region. The role of knowledge in these developments has increased; ICTs are more widely used; the labour market is becoming more global; democracy is spreading and is becoming well-rooted in most of the nation-states of Europe. Within such a context, higher education institutions are becoming more diverse, and at the same time, they are expected to provide services of a better quality and to be more entrepreneurial, thus contributing to economic and cultural development. In what follows, the focus of the analysis will be put on the employability of graduates, on the entrepreneurial roles of higher education institutions, and on the roles of the latter in transferring knowledge and technology. TNE, particularly related to the mobility of study programmes in the era of globalization, marks a prominent change in the academic landscape. We shall also focus on this change.

3.1. Higher education and the world of work: Employability and entrepreneurship

- *The World Declaration on Higher Education (1998)* sees “employability” foremost as the fit between what societies expect from higher education institutions and what these institutions really do. The *Declaration* calls for a better articulation of higher education with the problems of society and the world of work. Higher education institutions should thus provide both general education and career specific training, focusing on skills and aptitudes. Fulfilling this double task requires a strengthening of the links between higher education and the world of work.

- As for the notion of employability and closer links with the world of work, there are important variations of approaches, both in space and in time. Higher education institutions in Central and Eastern Europe repudiated such notions right after the end of communism because of “the very tight association with, and subordination to, the

²² The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) is a multilateral trade agreement aiming at the liberalization of the global economy. It came into affect in 1995 and is being negotiated under the auspices of the World Trade Organization (WTO).

²³ See the papers presented at the First Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education, UNESCO, Paris, 17-18 October 2002 which can be accessed on <http://www.unesco.org/education/studyinabroad/index.shtml>.

economic system that had prevailed during the Communist period"²⁴. Only in the course of the late 1990s did these higher education institutions acknowledge more readily that they had a crucial role to play in the emerging "knowledge societies". As for the higher education institutions in Western Europe, they did not have the same aversion to the demands of the economy, but many have not yet sought a constructive debate and co-operation with the world of work, especially in the cases of disciplines like the humanities and the social sciences. Governments reacted in different ways to the "massification" of higher education that began in the 1970s and its impact on employment. Some, like that of Germany, opted for institutional diversification by setting up a non-university sector, others, like that of Italy, tried to cater to increasingly different needs and expectations of students and employers by offering a broad range of programmes within the universities; and the United Kingdom even went in the opposite direction by abandoning its polytechnic sector and turning those institutions into universities.

- One characteristic feature of the Bologna Process, that occurred at a time when higher education institutions in the East and in the West, although departing from very different structures and problems, discovered a European dimension to their – apparently national – problems of graduate employability, has been that of initiating the joint work of seeking appropriate European and also national solutions. The Bologna Declaration states as one of its main objectives the promotion of the employability of European graduates. One concrete tool to this end is to be the introduction of undergraduate and graduate cycles, with a first degree after at least three years of study which should be "relevant to the labour market". The European higher education institutions view this issue in the following way:

"Relevance to the European labour market needs to be reflected in different ways in curricula, depending on whether the competencies to be acquired are for employment after the first or the second degree. Employability in a lifelong learning perspective is best served through the inherent value of quality education, the diversity of approaches and course profiles, the flexibility of programmes with multiple entry and exit points, and the development of transversal skills and competencies such as communication and languages, ability to mobilize knowledge, problem solving, team work, and social processes"²⁵.

- It is right to say that seeing the future development of higher education in Europe in the context of its contribution to the enhancement of employability is considered as one of the strongest sources of change and reform in Europe.²⁶ A broad debate, involving governments, higher education institutions, students, and representatives of the world of work, has started about employability, in particular after the award of the first degree at a

²⁴ See, P. Scott, "Ten Years: Higher Education in Central and Eastern Europe", in, *Ten Years After and Looking Ahead: A Review of the Transformations of Higher Education in Central and Eastern Europe*. Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES, 2000, pp. 341-407.

²⁵ See, *Salamanca Message* [Convention of European Higher Education Institutions on Shaping the European Higher Education Area, Salamanca, 29-30 March 2001] see www.unige.ch/eua.

²⁶ G. Haug, and Ch. Tauch, *Trends in Learning Structures in Higher Education (II) – Follow-up Report* prepared for the Salamanca and Prague Conferences of March/May 2001, Helsinki: National Board of Education, 2001, pp. 17-19.

Bachelor's level. New "professional" Bachelor's and Master's Degrees programmes have been developed in many countries. While concern has been voiced in some countries that Bachelor's Degrees might be geared too narrowly towards short-term employment in a particular profession, most decision-makers in governments and higher education institutions are seeing more clearly that there are various ways in which first degrees can be made "relevant to the labour market", *e.g.*, by teaching students core or transversal skills. The discussion on employability has also led to a strengthening (or the creation) of a polytechnic/college sector, *i.e.*, to more binary higher education systems in some countries. Many Master's Degree programmes are so designed as to make the graduates more easily employable. However, such a trend is also associated with more questionable degrees, with a weak academic background, but with an apparent claim to a closer link to the labour market. The distinction between "just in case training", provided mostly by classical institutions, and "just in time training", offered by the newly established institutions, many of them of a transnational type, has also generated the mushrooming of new types of degrees which are more closely linked to the labour market while less so to the classical academic division of knowledge. This situation is leading to a certain tension in the academic recognition of qualifications and in the traditional system of academic values.

- **In many countries in Europe, relevance to the labour market is also taken into account in the procedures leading to accreditation of certain programmes; often co-operation with professional bodies in the elaboration of new curricula is a legal requirement.** Such approaches are promoted for various reasons: high drop-out rates in some disciplines/some countries; labour market complaints about insufficiently skilled graduates; competition from abroad (TNE, corporate, and virtual universities); the need to combine "just in case" education with "just in time" training.

- The notion of "**entrepreneurial universities**" started to be influential in Europe by the end of the 1990s as many higher education institutions attempted to be both highly innovative with respect to their internal management and organization of studies, and strongly involved in programmes of co-operation with industry and the wider world of work. This development is very much related to changes in the academic institutional culture, since academics [and growingly also higher education graduates] are invited to be sensitive to practical problems and to act as "intellectual entrepreneurs", while their institutions are closely related to various corporations for facilitating the transfer of knowledge and technology or for carrying out practice-oriented research.²⁷ Increasingly higher education institutions are tending to become, not only knowledge depositories and transmitters, but also sources of solutions to many practical problems. They are thus asserting themselves also as "agents of development". In this framework, certain thorny questions are also raised in the context of traditional link between teaching and research, general attractiveness of the academic career as well as not less complex issues with regard to ethical issues, intellectual property rights, academic freedom and brain drain, which need further attention.

²⁷ See, S. Kwiatkowski and J. Sadlak, eds. *knowledge café for Intellectual Entrepreneurship through Higher Education*, Warsaw: Leon Kozminski Academy for Entrepreneurship and Management, 2003.

- The phenomenon of **brain drain** affects higher education and intellectual labour in many countries in Europe. Not even universities in wealthy and highly industrialized countries are spared this kind of loss.²⁸ The causes of brain drain are usually a combination of several factors – from inequitable pay scales and lack of opportunities for career advancement to attractiveness of better research facilities, and a better quality of life as well as preferences for different political systems and the desire to follow peers, friends and family members. In Central and Eastern Europe, and especially in some countries of South East Europe, the phenomenon of external brain drain coincides with that of internal brain drain where by state universities are losing their best researchers and teachers to industry and private higher education institutions because the latter offer higher salaries or more attractive working conditions.²⁹
- Higher education institutions and political decision-makers from all parts of Europe have begun to confront the problem through common efforts. Thus a series of conferences has been initiated by the German Rectors' Conference (*HRK*) and the German Academic Exchange Service - DAAD under the heading, "*Dialogue in Innovative Higher Education Strategies*".³⁰ There seems to be unanimity that a certain international brain drain is one of the inevitable consequences of globalisation and that it is neither feasible nor desirable to fully eliminate it [owing foremost to possible "brain-gain"]. Open societies have to present incentives rather than coercive measures to dissuade their citizens from leaving the country. The discussions are therefore focussing on the necessary reform steps to be undertaken by higher education systems in Central and Eastern Europe and on joint initiatives of both East and West to deal with the problem.³¹

3.2. Academic research and technology transfer in knowledge societies

- More clearly than before, "research" is perceived not only as the traditional realm of higher education and academe but also activity that defines their "relevance". The following statement from the recent policy document of the World Bank that; "Technological innovations and the diffusion of scientific and technological innovations lead to higher productivity, and most of these innovations are the products of basic and applied research undertaken in universities"³², refers to the global situation, however the statement is particularly true for Europe.

²⁸ Italy and Germany are two countries in which this issue is of increasing concern. See, *Alla ricerca dei cervelli in fuga*, Universitas, No. 86, December 2001, and *Brain drain – brain gain: Eine Untersuchung ueber internationale Berufskarrieren*, Stifterverband fuer die deutsche Wissenschaft, June 2002.

²⁹ See, P. Georgieva, *Higher Education in Bulgaria*, Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES, 2002.

³⁰ The first of these conferences, under the heading "Attracting young scientists – Strategies against brain drain", organised in cooperation with the Bulgarian Ministry for Education and Science, took place in Sofia on 18-20 October 2002.

³¹ In order to study this phenomenon UNESCO-CEPES has launched a project on *Brain Drain and the Academic and Intellectual Labour Market in South East Europe* see www.cepes.ro.

³² The World Bank, *Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education*, Washington DC: The World Bank, 2002, p. XXI.

- In spite of the diversity of the higher education landscape in Europe, research and technology transfer are becoming increasingly important topics all over the region. In particular, the European Union has started to take a strategic approach. The importance of university research has been highlighted several times by political and corporate leaders in Europe. The most clearly formulated and ambitious objective of the strategic role assigned to research is that of the European Union, and which was expressed by the European Council, in its Lisbon Declaration of March 2000, which set as a strategic goal of the European Union for the next decade; “to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth”.³³ Research, both academic and industrial, has to provide the basis for this ambitious endeavour, and universities therefore have a central place in this scheme. The determination of the European Union to implement this strategy led to the concept of **the European Research and Innovation Area** [this initiative was launched some months after the Bologna Declaration, the goal of which is, as already pointed out, the creation by the year 2010 of the European Higher Education Area]. The Sixth Framework Programme (FP6), which is the main funding scheme for research collaboration of the European Union, highlights the intertwined relation between the new discovery, knowledge production, technological innovation, and higher education. This is also why the discussions have been held to integrate more closely the two concepts of the European Higher Education Area and the European Research and Innovation Area.
- In most European countries, in line with the “Humboldtian university model”, research is a fundamental part of university missions. This tradition is not in contradiction with the fact that several countries maintain important extra-university research institutions, such as the CNRS in France, or the Max Planck Institute in Germany, and the Academies of Science in some Central and Eastern European countries. What is new is **the formulation of institutional mission statements in which references to research are also presented within the context of closer city, regional government, industry, and business co-operation.**
- A logical consequence of the importance attached to research is a growing attention to research training and the need for the reform of the organization of doctoral studies as well as perspectives for career development for young researchers. A number of European countries are embarking on vigorous initiatives to introduce structured doctoral studies, new graduate schools, new formal and financial conditions for doctoral studies, the development of post-doctoral scholarships, etc.³⁴ Moreover, it can be expected that at their next “follow-up conference to the Bologna Process” to be held in Berlin, in September 2003, the European Ministers in charge of higher education will formulate recommendations regarding the integration of the doctoral cycle into the

³³ See, Lisbon European Council: Presidency Conclusions, 23-24 March 2000, <http://www.europa.eu.int/comm>.

³⁴ UNESCO-CEPES has launched a project based on series of case studies focused on experiences and structures of doctoral studies while also providing for their comparative analysis in order to both identify convergences in the European systems and outline existing dysfunctions (*e.g.*, no uniform standards regarding admission requirements or teaching periods, weaknesses with regard to the processes of assessing and assuring the quality and relevance of postgraduate courses), see www.cepes.ro.

Bologna Process that has so far concentrated on the first cycles – Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees.

- It should also be mentioned that while it is not inconceivable that certain higher education institutions [e.g. the newly established private institutions, virtual, and transnational (TNE) higher education institutions] might not include research in their mission statements, focusing only on teaching, such a development is not in line with the well-established tradition of European higher education. Therefore, all efforts should be made to ensure that even in these institutions, students are not deprived of the chance to develop analytical and research skills, no matter how elementary they might be. At the same time, in order for higher education to assert itself as a factor of development through knowledge and technology transfer, **it is imperative for higher education in Europe to retain the integration of teaching and research and to avoid the eventual emergence of a fault line delimiting research and teaching higher education institutions.**

3.3. Transnational education (TNE)

- Transnational education (TNE) is a potent manifestation of the impact of globalization upon higher education, and is potentially the most significant one. The European experience with regard to TNE is both complex and undergoing rapid change. It is complex in the way it interfaces with the unique pattern of educational provision in Europe.³⁵ It has an indirect impact on every important aspect of European education, including such vital topics as: national control over the educational system, institutional autonomy, the notion of education as a “public good”, lifelong learning, consumer protection, recognition and quality matters. TNE itself is a relatively new development [at least in its present dimension] which is perceived as an awkward mix of beneficial and dangerous manifestations. It is alternately regarded as a threat or a benefit by different national higher education systems and even by various areas of the same systems.
- The **positive** aspects of TNE education include:
 - widening learning opportunities by providing more choice for citizens;
 - challenging traditional education systems by introducing more competition and innovative programmes and delivery methods;
 - helping to make European education more competitive;
 - benefiting European institutions through links with prestigious foreign institutions;
 - providing exporters the opportunity to access new sources of income.
- The **negative** aspects of TNE include problems associated with:
 - non-official, unregulated higher education providers (often franchise institutions and branch campuses) that remain outside official national quality assurance regimes and are not subject to internal or external audit/monitoring processes;

³⁵ For a discussion of this interface see, Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom, *The Business of Borderless Education: UK Perspectives*, London: CVCP, 2000.

- consumer protection – lack of adequate information (and therefore transparency) available to potential students, employers, and competent recognition authorities;
 - existence of “degree mills” and bogus institutions that exploit the public;
 - the unfair competitive advantage enjoyed by some TNE providers in regard to the strictly regulated national providers that can consequently lose income;
 - lack of recognition afforded to good quality TNE.
- The TNE phenomenon can present itself in various organizational forms such as franchising, joint programmes, branch campuses, off-shore institutions, corporate universities, various international institutions, various forms of distance learning and virtual universities [for a more elaborate definition of all those forms see Table 5]. One of the first attempts to define TNE is presented in the *Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education*, which was jointly elaborated by UNESCO and the Council of Europe.³⁶ The Code states that TNE includes:

“All types of higher education study programme, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one in which the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the educational system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national system.”

- The intricacy of relationships between different types of TNE providers, delivery mechanisms and programmes/awards creates a highly complicated situation. Charting these relationships is not an easy task. It is further complicated by a constantly evolving situation that includes an array of partnerships, consortia, articulation agreements, modes of delivery, public universities, private for-profit/not-for-profit organizations, off-shore institutions, and corporate universities and colleges. Furthermore, TNE providers inhabit different national education systems whose idiosyncrasies dictate different sorts of arrangements. In conclusion, it can be said that in order to deal with TNE a more solid informational base is needed.³⁷
- Over the past several years, when the TNE phenomenon started to draw attention, the principal reactions of European higher education institutions to it were generally negative. Frequently, it was been viewed as a challenge to the *raison d’être* of traditional institutions, to their traditional function, place, and established modes of activity. For the most part, this view (also held by many citizens, students, and education ministries) was sustained by a mixture of incomprehension and suspicion. At the same time, there is also a growing awareness of the benefits and opportunities that TNE can bring. Much of this increased awareness has come about by the realization that the World Trade Organization (WTO), under GATS, has potentially huge implications for a highly protected European higher education. It is not clear yet what effect GATS will have on “the liberalization of trade of higher educational services”, but it is quite clear that the following four forms in

³⁶ UNESCO/Council of Europe, *Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education*, Paris/Strasbourg: UNESCO/Council of Europe, 2000.

³⁷ In response to this demand, UNESCO-CEPES is testing a *Database on TNE Providers in the Europe Region* see www.cepes.ro.

which TNE can be provided – cross border supply, consumption abroad; provision via foreign commercial presence, and provision via the movement of natural persons,³⁸ must be seriously considered in a national and international context.

- When considering eventual further developments in the TNE in European higher education, the main trends appear to be: increased growth; more competition; concentration in certain sectors and cycles of education; potential to spread to new areas; market rationalization; more consortia and co-operation by European providers, but at the same time, much greater attention from national authorities, international organizations, and academic institutions and bodies with regard to quality assurance, monitoring, and regulation to assure balance between legitimate initiatives to promote greater educational opportunities while preserving the traditional values of higher education.

4. The Bologna Process in the Context of Globalization

The analysis presented in this report reveals the importance of the Bologna Process on the present developments and even more on the future shape of higher education in Europe. It may be that not everything that is happening in European higher education today or in the future is a direct consequence of the Bologna Process. Nevertheless, this process has gained such momentum that it permeates most discussions on higher education topics, if only by creating, for the first time, a genuine European platform for exchange and the conscious notion of "a European Higher Education Area" as a goal with distinctive features and a specific target date to be met – 2010. There is also clear understanding with regard to the so-called "external dimension" of that process and its place in the context of globalization.

- It is appropriate to reiterate the main items of the *Bologna Declaration* which was adopted in June 1999 by some thirty ministers of education of European countries. As such, it is a political commitment by its signatories to undertake reforms of their own higher education systems in such ways that an overall harmonization/convergence emerges from the process at a European level. It also sets out concrete actions with the following objectives:
 - the design of a common framework of reference of easily readable and comparable degrees, the articulation of studies into undergraduate and postgraduate levels, with first degrees relevant to the labour market and graduate studies requiring the prior completion of a first degree;
 - the generalization of ECTS (the European Credit Transfer System) – compatible credit systems;
 - a European dimension in quality assurance;

³⁸ See, K. Larsen and S.Vincent-Lancrin, *International Trade in Education Services: Good or Bad?* [Paper presented at the First Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education, UNESCO, Paris, 17-18 October 2002 which can be accessed on <http://www.unesco.org/education/studyinabroad/index.shtml>.

- the elimination of remaining obstacles to the mobility of students, teachers, and graduates;
 - an organized follow-up and implementation structure and process, based mainly on intergovernmental co-operation conducted in collaboration with higher education institutions and associations³⁹.
- While the process was initiated by European governments, the higher education institutions concerned quickly made themselves heard in the discussions and secured for themselves the position that is their due. Representatives of European higher education institutions met in Salamanca in March 2001 to prepare their input to the Prague meeting of ministers. They agreed on a set of goals and priorities that can be understood as constituting the "Mission of European Higher Education" - the *Salamanca Message*, which underlines the guiding principle of autonomy and accountability. It states that:

"Universities have to be able to shape their strategies, choose their priorities in teaching and research, allocate their resources, profile their curricula, and set their criteria for the acceptance of professors and students." While agreeing in principle with the idea of competition among institutions and among national systems and the emergence of private institutions, the *Salamanca Message* stresses that "the European Higher Education Area must be built on European traditions of education as a public responsibility; of broad and open access to undergraduate as well as to graduate studies; of education for personal development; and of citizenship as well as of short and long-term social relevance."⁴⁰

- The Bologna Process is conceived as an open initiative both in terms of issues to be further addressed and with regard to the accession of other countries to its commitments. In the course of recent years three more countries - Croatia, Cyprus, and Turkey - signed the *Bologna Declaration*.⁴¹ Several others have, in the meantime, expressed interest in formally joining the process at the next ministerial conference in September 2003 in Berlin. Such countries as the Russian Federation and Ukraine have shown an interest in being associated more closely with the discussions, while individual institutions and networks are preparing initiatives to introduce the firmly established elements of the Bologna Process, like ECTS or curricular reform. The same approach can also be observed in those countries of South-East Europe which are not yet signatories of the Bologna Declaration.⁴² **The Bologna Process is therefore the first truly European**

³⁹ The ministers of education agreed to meet once every two years to review progress and plan for next stages of the Bologna Process. They met in May 2001 in Prague, and their next meeting will be held in Berlin in September 2003.

⁴⁰ See, *Salamanca Message* [Convention of European Higher Education Institutions on Shaping the European Higher Education Area, Salamanca, 29-30 March 2001] see www.unige.ch/eua.

⁴¹ As of May 2001, there are 33 signatories to the Bologna Declaration: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United Kingdom.

⁴² See, Conclusions and Recommendations of the UNESCO-CEPES/European University Association (EUA) Conference on "The External Dimension of the Bologna Process: South East European Higher

attempt to reform higher education, involving the large majority of countries on the continent and arousing interest in many other parts of the world.

- The changes in progress, which have the potential to make Europe a more attractive study and research destination, have also drawn the attention of governments and universities in other parts of the world.⁴³ Interest is particularly great in **Latin America** where the idea of the European Higher Education Area has, from the start, been followed carefully by governments and higher education institutions. Both sides are now striving to create a "Euro-Latin American Area" of co-operation in higher education. Ministerial meetings with representatives from both continents took place in Paris in 2000 and in Madrid in 2002 to discuss ways of promoting the idea. Latin American observers will be invited to the forthcoming conference of European Higher Education Ministers in Berlin 2003. **Academic co-operation with the other countries of the Europe Region – the United States, Canada, and Israel will also be influenced by the Bologna Process** with regard to student exchange, the recognition of credits and qualifications, etc. Governments and higher education institutions in North America are observing European developments closely, mainly within the "Transatlantic dialogue" promoted by the European University Association (EUA) and the American Council on Education (ACE).

- The European Commission, one of the principal advocacy organization of the Bologna Process, is also contributing to the promotion of the European Higher Education Area in other parts of the world.⁴⁴ It is using the new momentum to re-orient and widen its support programmes accordingly. Thus co-operation programmes in higher education and vocational education and training with the United States and Canada were recently renewed. In addition to the support programmes with Latin America, the Asia-Link programme also deserves mentioning. The concrete example of the policy of the Commission is strengthening co-operation in higher education with the developing countries within the ERASMUS World 2004-2008 Programme, which aims at increasing the attractiveness of European higher education for non-European students and staff.⁴⁵

- The Bologna Process is foremost providing a reform agenda for most of the European countries. However, it is important to underline that such a pan-European process has local institutional consequences, while being affected by, or itself affecting, the globalizing waves that are emerging in the world today. Institutionally, one might say

Education and the European Higher Education Area in a Global World", Bucharest, 6-8 March 2003, see www.cepes.ro.

⁴³ Confirmation of the attractiveness of this European initiative has dominated the discussions held at the UNESCO-CEPES Jubilee International Conference on *Higher Education in the 21st Century: Its Role and Contribution to Our Common Advancement*, 6-8 September 2002, see www.cepes.ro.

⁴⁴ See, *Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council of 18 July 2001 on strengthening co-operation with third countries in the field of higher education*, <http://Europe.eu.int/scadplus/leg/en>.

⁴⁵ The Programme foresees a creation of 250 inter-university European Master's degree study programmes for European and non-European students. See, *Establishing a programme for the enhancement of quality in higher education and the promotion of intercultural understanding through co-operation with third countries, Erasmus World 2004-2008*, Brussels, 17 July 2002. <http://Europe.eu.int/abc/doc/off/bull/en>.

that by their own inherent virtues, universities have always been and still are institutions with a universal vocation. **How they may assert themselves as global players in a globalizing world** is, however, another matter, considering the emerging global market of higher education. When also considering the impact of ICTs, the globalized labour market, and the emerging knowledge economy, one may well conclude that both **the conceptual and the national borders of higher education are breaking-up**. We are truly faced with the development of what has been rightly called “**borderless higher education**”. Globalization is not just about what is “out there”, remote and far away from students, academics, institutions, and employers. On the contrary, globalization is economic and technological, political and cultural, and with clear implications for the academic work and higher education institutions. What is urgently needed is **further reflection on the substantive aspects of academic globalization, on such issues as a global framework for academic qualifications and their recognition, for students, for staff members, and for study programme mobility, as well as for the rules of market operations or for the provision of higher education as a public good**. It is only through such an approach that the ambiguities and uncertainties, and the risks and dangers operating in higher education may be addressed.

5. Conclusions

The trends and developments in higher education in Europe presented in this report have generally confirmed the principal challenges identified in the UNESCO 1998 *World Declaration on Higher Education*, as well as the conclusions of *the European Regional Forum* (Palermo, September 1997). At the same time, the last five years have also demonstrated a symbolic “turn of the Millennium” in European higher education. Thus in the elaboration of this report, special efforts were made to demonstrate the main aspects and possible consequences of those **new trends and developments**.

- The analysis, as presented, shows, that the need to respond to increased demand, better functioning, as well as to the profound changes in the environment of higher education, their systems and composition, higher education institutions have already had an enormous impact on higher education in Europe. As a way of concluding this report, we reiterate those main trends and developments which have not only influenced these developments but which are going to have a major role in the future of higher education in Europe:

- the adoption in 1999 of the *Declaration on the European Higher Education Area* and the launching of the Bologna Process, aiming at the development of a European Higher Education Area by 2010 [and its possible integration with the European Research and Innovation Area];
- the growing demand for higher education institutions to assert themselves, through teaching, learning, and research, as knowledge providers and learning organizations which contribute to the development of science and other levels and forms of education;

- the strong impact of information and communication technology (ICT) on the organization of studies and curricula and the modes of study programme delivery;
- the wide diversification of higher education providers, particularly the appearance and multiplication of TNE providers;
- the emerging markets of higher education at national, regional, and global levels, that generate clashes between two competing paradigms in higher education – the academic and the market paradigm; thus the need for strongly asserting traditional academic values while contributing to the appropriate shaping of the newly emerging values, such as those related to entrepreneurship and the development of knowledge economies;
- the increasing concern with academic quality assurance in higher education and the need to establish a new pan-European framework for quality assurance, accreditation, and recognition of qualifications, which should not only be relevant nationally, but also regionally and even globally.
- the need to develop a European qualifications framework focused on common references such as the sequencing of study cycles with specific descriptors of the profiles of degrees, introduction of ECTS, and Diploma Supplement;
- while the public financial support of governments to higher education is diminishing, the expectations of various stakeholders of higher education, particularly of students, with regard to the responsibilities of the state as a policy maker and as the main provider of public services, are growing; thus the need for governments to provide the most appropriate incentives for encouraging higher education institutions to be innovative and entrepreneurial;
- actions must be continued to reduce the gap between the level of development of higher education in the developed countries of the Europe Region and those from certain transition countries, especially those in South East Europe;
- while the demand for programmes of lifelong learning is growing, many traditional universities and higher education institutions are still reluctant to provide such programmes, thus allowing for the mushrooming of new providers of programmes, often of a lower quality;
- research in higher education is widely considered as the main driver of high academic institutional quality and of an enhanced contribution to the development of the new economies, even though many of the new higher education institutions, particularly those of TNE-type, are less concerned with developing research activities;
- the assertion of the complementarity between the professional training based on the needs of graduate employability and the education of citizens ready to fully participate in the promotion and preservation of democratic values;
- important role played by higher education in the emerging knowledge societies⁴⁶ brings about a growing recognition of the need for a more coherent and forward-oriented reform of higher education that calls for new policies and “a new generation” of policy documents and basic laws on higher education.

⁴⁶ See, Commission of the European Communities, *Communication from the Commission - The Role of the Universities in the Europe of Knowledge*. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities, 2003.

Aware of such newly emerging trends and challenges, UNESCO-CEPES will continue to act in such a way as to bring significant contributions mainly in two areas:

- to provide a platform for dialogues both in the domain of research on higher education and in that of policy making and implementation. In this respect, by its very mission and location, the Centre is in the unique position of bringing together higher education policy-makers, academics, researchers, students, and other stakeholders from the developed and the transition countries of Europe in order for them to accelerate the implementation of the Bologna Process and wider academic co-operation focused on a variety of types of partnership;
- rely strongly on the wider UNESCO framework [in collaboration with other international governmental and non-governmental organizations, arliamentarians, corporate sector, and media] in order to bring to such a dialogue a global comparative perspective which is so important in the world of higher education today.

6. Statistical References

Table 1: Number of students in the countries of the Europe Region 1995, 1998, and 2000 (or latest available).

Country	Number of students		
	1995	1998	2000
Albania	29,048	35,902	40,125
Austria	238,981	247,000	253,000*
Belarus	313,800	224,500	277,000
Belgium	352,630	357,000	352,000*
Bulgaria	250,336	267,302	243,595
Canada	846,409	1,179,000	1,193,000*
Croatia	86,357	91,874	118,851
Czech Republic	191,604	177,723	215,207
Denmark	166,545	183,000	202,821
Estonia	39,726	40,621	51,474
Finland	213,995	250,000	270,000
France	2,091,688	2,126,801	2,161,064
Germany	2,144,169	2,089,000	2,055,000
Greece	329,185	374,000	388,000*
Hungary	179,563	258,000	298,504
Iceland	7,483	8,000	8,000*
Ireland	128,284	143,000	161,000
Israel	198,766	150,000	198,985
Italy	1,775,186	1,869,000	1,792,000*
Latvia	44,064	76,653	89,509

Lithuania	75,559	107,419	99,140
Moldova	87,700	102,400	102,923
Netherlands	491,748	461,000	471,300
Norway	180,383	183,000	191,000
Poland	789,440	1,268,414	1,578,241
Portugal	300,573	352,000	357,000*
Romania	336,141	360,590	452,621
Russian Federation	4,458,363	3,597,200	4,741,400
Slovakia	91,553	110,707	125,896
Slovenia	47,908	77,648	86,804
Spain	1,591,863	1,746,000	1,540,596
Sweden	261,209	281,000	347,000
FRY of Macedonia	29,583	-	40,901
Ukraine	1,541,000	-	1,931,000
United Kingdom	1,820,843	1,938,000	2,024,000
USA	14,261,778	13,284,000	~14,500,000

* Information available for 1999

Source: National data collected by UNESCO-CEPES.

Table 2: Number of students and teaching staff in public and private higher education institutions in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (academic year 2000/2001).

Country	Number of students					Number of teaching staff
	Public	%	Private	%	Total	
Albania	40,125	100.0	0,0	0.0	40,125	3,075
Belarus	241,100	87.0	35,900	13.0	277,000	20,086
Bulgaria	215,676	88.5	27,916	11.5	243,595	23,329
Croatia	117,205	98.6	1,646	1.4	118,851	5,585
Czech Republic	213,207	99.0	2,000	1.0	215,207	14,890
Estonia	38,511	74.8	12,963	25.2	51,474	3,715
Hungary	255,943	85.7	42,561	14.3	298,504	22,873
Latvia	78,156	87.3	11,353	12.7	89,509	5,160
Lithuania	99,140	...
FYR of Macedonia	39,978	97.7	923	2.3	40,901	2,634*
Moldova	79,713	77.4	23,210	22.6	102,923	7,700
Poland	1,106,798	70.1	471,443	29.9	1,578,241	80,208**
Romania	322,129	71.1	130,492	28.9	452,621	26,977
Russian Federation	4,270,800	90.0	470,600	10.0	4,741,400	...
Slovak Republic	125,054	99.3	842	0.7	125,896	11,559
Slovenia	81,951	94.4	4,853	5.6	86,804	...
Ukraine	1,931,000	128,000

* Only for public institutions.

** Teaching staff indicates only full-time employees. In cases of multiple employment, a particular member of academic staff is counted depending on the number of institutions in which he/she is has full-time employment.

Table 3. Number of higher education institutions (public and private) in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (academic year 2000/2001).

Country	Number of institutions				
	Public	%	Private	%	Total
Albania	11	100.0	0	0	11
Belarus	42	73.7	15	26.3	57
Bulgaria	79	89.7	9	10.3	88
Croatia	17	65.4	9	34.6	26
Czech Republic	28	66.7	14	33.3	42
Estonia	14	40.0	21	60.0	35
Hungary	30	48.4	32	51.6	62
Latvia	20	60.6	13	39.4	33
Lithuania	38	90.4	4	9.6	42
FYR of Macedonia	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
Moldova	57	50.0	57	50.0	114
Poland	115	37.1	195	62.9	310
Romania	57	40.7	83	59.3	140
Russian Federation	607	62.9	358	37.1	965
Slovak Republic	18	90.0	2	10.0	20
Slovenia	37	88.1	5	11.9	42
Ukraine	816	83.3	163	16.4	979

Table 4. Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Country	Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants
Albania	697
Romania	2,020
Macedonia	2,045
Czech Republic	2,089
Slovak Republic	2,330
Moldova	2,393
Lithuania	2,590
Croatia	2,641
Belarus	2,770
Hungary	2,927
Bulgaria	3,045
Russian Federation	3,274

Slovenia	4,362
Estonia	3,677
Latvia	3,892
Ukraine	3,920
Poland	4,084

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<http://www.prb.org/template.cmf?template=InterestDisplay.cmf&InterestCategoryID=21>

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Table 5: Components of Transnational Education (TNE).

Franchising:	The process whereby a higher education institution (“franchiser”) from a certain country authorizes another institution or organization (“franchisee”), from the same or from another country, to provide its (<i>i.e.</i> , the franchiser’s) educational services (<i>e.g.</i> , the whole or a part of one or more of its approved study programme/qualifications).
Programme articulations (including twinning):	Referring to those inter-institutional arrangements whereby two or more institutions agree to jointly define a study programme in terms of study credits and credit-transfers, so that students pursuing their studies in one institution have their credits recognized by the other, and accepted for transfer in order to continue their studies.
Branch campus:	Established by a higher education institution from one country in another country in order to offer in this country its own educational programmes/qualifications.
Off-shore institutions:	Autonomous institutions which belong, in terms of their organization and contents, to one particular national educational system, but without necessarily having a campus in the country (or system) to which it belongs, and is established as an institution in another country.
Corporate universities:	Organize their own higher education institutions or study programmes offering qualifications, without their belonging to any national system of higher education.
International institutions:	Offer “international” qualifications that are not part of a specific education system.
Distance-learning:	A wide range of learning activities characterized by the separation of the learner from the teacher. These learning activities, or the framework within which they are organized, may or may not belong to the higher education system of a given country.
Virtual universities:	Institutions whose only contact with the student is by remote means (electronic or hard copy).

Source: adopted from Vlasceanu, L., and Wilson, L. “Transnational Education and Recognition of Qualifications” in *Internationalization of Higher Education: An Institutional Perspective*, Bucharest: UNESCO-CEPES Papers on Higher Education, 2000, pp.75-89.

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| www.esib.org | Website of the National Union of Students in Europe (ESIB) |
| www.unige.ch/eua | Website of the European University Association (EUA) |