

HERN Project

Year 2 Deliverables

Month 13 (November 2002) to Month 24 (October 2003)

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Appendix 1

DELIVERABLE N° 16

RESTRICTED

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

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Workpackage 2

Policy Paper

“Higher Education Reform in the Society of Change - EU enlargement, continuing education, employment, citizenship, gender equality”

Continuing Education Development Foundation

Riga, Latvia

The paper has been prepared as a general overview of the situation in Central and Eastern Europe with emphasis on the Baltic states and Latvia in particular

Introduction.

Higher Education: Development Tendencies in Europe and the World

Higher education is one of the driving forces of economic development and higher education institutions are important centres of educating the society. Higher education institutions are both accumulators and creators of knowledge. In the modern world where knowledge resources as development factors are increasingly dominating over material values, the importance of higher education institutions is growing.

The currently most important documents - international conventions, declarations and agreements relating to higher education are presented below:

- **The Big University Charter** (18 September 1988)
- **Lisbon Convention** (11 April 1997)
- **Sorbonne Declaration** (23 May 1998)
- **Bologna Declaration** (19 June 1999)
- **Agreement between the Governments of the Baltic States on Academic Recognition of Educational Qualifications in the Common Baltic Educational Space** (18 February 2000)
- **Salamanca Convention** (30 March 2001)
- **Prague Communiqué** (19 May 2001)

International conventions, declarations and agreements are focussed not only on the traditional role of universities in the development of higher education but also on their present task to become more open for the society in general. This idea complies with the role of higher education institutions in implementing lifelong learning and their active participation in the processes of change in the society. The supply of higher education in Europe is growing and so does the number of students. However the issue of quality of higher education, its accessibility and compliance to society needs, especially in countries of Central and Eastern Europe, becomes more and more important alongside with the issue of impact of the higher education on employment, citizens' participation, implementation of individual rights and freedoms and general changes in the society.

1. Topical Issues of Higher Education in the European Community Member States. Situation in Countries of Central and Eastern Europe

1.1 General goals and tendencies

The following important objectives of the European higher education should be singled out:

- Validity of diplomas/degrees obtained in one educational area in other fields – both in the labour market and for further studies;
- Access to the European labour market for graduates (including those holding a Bachelor's degree);
- Elimination of obstacles for mobility of students and teaching staff;
- Attractiveness of the European higher education for the world market.

These objectives may be reached with the help of:

- Reform of the system of degrees;
- Increasing transparency;
- Strengthening the role of the labour market;
- Promotion of recognition – both for further studies and the labour market;
- Promoting trust – through European co-operation in the area of quality assurance.

Higher education institutions as generators of knowledge

Knowledge generation functions of higher education institutions in Central and Eastern Europe become more topical. In this connection higher attention should be paid to research profile of each higher education institution and the general identification of higher education institutions profile in a country, which is particularly important with regard to those new higher education institutions that were established as a market service in the area of higher education. There are certain higher education institutions that have not elaborated their specific profile. Universities usually possessing much higher scientific potential have their very special mission in relation to the new higher education institutions. An essential function in this area is the offer of doctoral studies and assistance in terms of electing professorship into professors councils of newly established higher education institutions where there is a lack of research potential in the respective branch of science and difficulties with maintaining of academic research in certain branches.

Content and capacity of education

Universities should also provide their contribution in solving another topical problem and, namely, that of content of education and capacity of knowledge in education. Development of educational programmes on all levels requires increasingly pro-active approach and ability to forecast outdated of knowledge. It is important to understand what kind of knowledge and information and skills of formation of ideas create successful foundation for action of a human being in a changing environment and what can be gradually absorbed during one's lifetime.

Ecology of a man requires a human individual to develop autonomous management of one's own life in the world saturated with knowledge and information. In this situation the most important knowledge and skills are those that ensure personal **integrity** of a human individual managing change on a personal level during one's lifetime: values, upholding physical and mental health, refreshing education and obtaining of new education, learning new occupations, management and perfection of relations with other people (horizontal and hierarchical). The superiority of universities in this area is not absolute, however other higher education institutions may borrow from them the necessary experience in the area of developing scientific profile. At the beginning of the period of transformation in Latvia and other Baltic States in some areas, for example, in social work (assistance, care) there was shortage of stable educational programmes and also no scientific research. These are being created alongside the process of growth of higher education institutions.

Links between science and practice

Proximity or aloofness of science from educational practice is one of issues determining compliance of higher education institutions with the needs of the society practice. CEE countries still face an open question: whether higher education institutions are and will be proactive in relation to the rest of educational practice in these countries. This is a fruitful direction of exchange of experience between the present and new EU member states in order to determine success factors and obstacles determining influence of higher education institutions on an educational system.

Higher education institutions and demand for the offered education. Employment.

Higher education institutions and universities tend to focus more and more on the demand in the market of educational services and needs of their clients for education. At the same time this creates certain concerns about the ability of higher education institutions to successfully forecast the future vision and needs of the development of the society. We may only assume that higher education institutions are aware of their duty in front of the society and that national governments have asked them to fulfil this task on behalf of the society. The society receives little information about the process how this is done and criteria to evaluate the contribution of higher education institutions.

It is important to evaluate the input of higher education in the development of the system of education, including in the area of establishment and attainment of educational standards, expansion of use of information technologies and training of educational staff: teachers, education and career consultants, managers of education institutions and administration specialists, knowledge management specialists, development of teaching manuals, etc.

Higher education institutions should try to enhance employability of students: their readiness for self-employment and business activity, consequently it is important to create basic competencies in all fields of education that are necessary for a self-employed person or an entrepreneur, including knowledge of tax legislation, planning (financial planning, development of business plans), project development skills, personnel management.

2. Co-operation between the Baltic States in the area of higher education

General traits

In terms of the number of higher education institutions and students in the Baltic countries we see that Latvia ranks the first having that the biggest number of higher education institutions or 19 state founded higher education institutions and 14 higher education institutions founded by legal entities. In Lithuania there are 17 higher education institutions, of which only 2 are private education institutions; in Estonia there are 25, of which 11 are founded by legal entities where 6 establishments are university-type institutions. The requirements for a university level higher education establishment in Latvia are very high. The Law on Higher Education Institutions stipulates that the university shall carry out scientific research, results of research shall be published in internationally recognised research journals, there are several promotion councils and more than half of the academic staff has research degrees. There are 5 universities in Latvia matching these criteria. Comparing the number of students per 10 000 residents, we see that the number of students is again the highest in Latvia - 342 (including also part time students). The smallest number of students is in Lithuania - 201. In Estonia this figure is 320. Analysing the distribution of students according to Bachelor, professional, Master and doctoral studies in the Baltic States we see that the majority of students study in the Bachelor and professional study programmes and the smallest in doctoral studies. If we compare the Baltic States with the Nordic countries, for example Finland, we see that the number of students finishing their studies with the Master's degree is much higher. Obviously there is a higher share of students continuing their education after the first level and entering the labour market with the Master's degree. This tendency and consequently also the competitiveness of the Baltic States are worth considering. Comparing doctoral studies in Latvia and Finland we see that the proportion of doctor's degree holders in Finland is 11% against 1% in Latvia. From this we may conclude that Latvia should particularly develop its doctoral programmes. Common features of the Baltic States education area: educational traditions – education has always been on the top of the value scale of people in the Baltic States; the decline of the number of students at the beginning of 1990s and fast growth after 1995 and especially in the last 5 years; the range of the most popular study programmes is also quite similar, these are – law, economics, political science, architecture; there is a similar process of accreditation of study programmes; participation in international study and research programmes – TEMPUS, ERASMUS/SOCRATES, 5th European Framework Research Programme; all countries have signed the Bologna Declaration and the Lisbon Convention. The most important differences are in distribution of higher education institutions in a country. There are 2 major education centres in Lithuania and Estonia – respectively in Vilnius and Kaunas, Tallinn and Tartu. At the same time in Latvia all higher education institutions founded by legal entities and 15 state higher education institutions are found in Riga. Riga clearly dominates over all other regions. In the last few years the situation is changing in line with the regional education policy and new private education establishments and branches of state higher education institutions are being opened in the regions.

Fields of co-operation

Higher education institutions of the Baltic countries co-operate in the following fields, which should also be further developed:

- Studies in higher education institutions of a neighbouring country;
- International accreditation of study programmes and higher education institutions;
- All three Baltic countries have signed such important European documents in the area of education as the Bologna Declaration and Lisbon Convention;
- Teaching staff of higher education institutions and doctorate students organise joint scientific conferences and seminars, they carry out joint research and issue publications;
- Every year there are regular meetings between the representatives of the Rectors' Councils of higher education institutions of the Baltic States, Latvian Higher Education Council, Ministries of Education, etc. aimed to address study quality and further co-operation in the three Baltic states;
- The Baltic States is the first unique region in the Central and Eastern Europe where the three prime ministers of three countries have signed an agreement which may be treated as a foundation of the common Baltic educational space;
- International organisations treat the Baltic States as a single united educational area. This approach should be further supported and developed. The high level expert analysis was carried out simultaneously in the Baltic States by experts of the international Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development. The quality of higher education in the three Baltic States was positively evaluated, especially marking the achievement of the last decade in modernisation of higher education study programmes and integration in international community.

Focus for future activities

Future activities should be mainly focussed on the following directions:

- Study space of the Baltic States should be developed as a base for the joint Baltic – Nordic education area.
- Mutual accreditation of branches of higher education institutions in Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia should be promoted.
- Further development of agreement-based relations between the higher education institutions of the Baltic States in the area of students' exchange.
- It is useful to offer the expensive interdisciplinary Master's and doctoral study programmes jointly in one of the Baltic countries.

3. The tasks of higher education in the social environment of the state and in the society as a whole - example with the situation in Latvia

As a result of the dynamic quantitative changes in higher education in Latvia in the last 13 years the number of students in the country has gone up, reaching 120 000

students, including 26 000 students studying in study vacancies paid from the state budget. At the moment there are 33 in Latvia, which are founded by the state and other legal entities. Latvia ranks the third in the world (after the United States and Canada) as to the number of students per 1000 residents. However due to scarcity of financing, the quantitative change was not followed by the corresponding qualitative growth of studies. The state does not cover full costs of a study vacancy and in the result higher education establishment do not have practical possibilities of development. This is also reflected by the disproportionate distribution of students according to study fields: every second student has chosen to study social sciences. At the same time the state is lacking financial tools to implement its policy and priorities – to ensure equal development of all regions, to create knowledge-based society, to provide education opportunities for those people that are able to plan and develop new products with high added value thus developing those sectors of economy which are based on generation of new knowledge.

Key indicators of higher education

Total number of student in 2002/2003	118,845
Including and colleges covered by the project	72,803 (61%)
Of which study for the state budget resources	23,514 (32%)
Number of students per one academic staff member	29
Average financing per student	970 LVL
The share of students of natural and engineering sciences	17%
The share of academic staff with a degree in science	46%
Area of study premises per one student	11.1m ²
Area of student hostels per one student	3.2 m ²

Latvia is implementing the higher education policy, which foresees the development of in connection with changes going on in the society and context of lifelong learning. However there are many new where scientific and research profile is still in the process of formation. They develop very rapidly, yet the quality of education and offer of programmes is not matching the corresponding demand of the society. Ageing of teaching staff of and shortage of the younger staff is a serious obstacle for the supply of quality education. Therefore alongside other important aspects of development of, it is equally important to address the issue of quality of the teaching staff.

Development goals of the higher education

1) To ensure growth of universities compliant to strategic development objectives of Latvia by realising university reform programme with an adequate financial support:

- To harmonise structure of profiles of universities and study and research carried out in universities of Latvia in line with areas of university competence,

- To strengthen universities as the main base for targeted regeneration of academic and research staff, higher qualification workforce and employers resource in Latvia;
- To perfect the system where universities participate in attraction and implementation of international projects;
- To strengthen the role of universities in the development of regions in Latvia and their equalisation by creating close links with regional development agencies, councils and other institutions;
- To identify the study programme capacity of universities and changes of this capacity till 2007.

2) To promote academic quality and competitiveness of university graduates in the European labour market:

- To raise quality of higher education by reorganising the learning process in line with the Bologna Declaration and preparing graduates for the free movement of labour in the EU;
- To promote the uniformity of the higher education system of Latvia and development of interdisciplinary programmes, widening opportunities for students to choose their occupation during their studies;
- To strengthen the role of leading professors in training of students and to increase real wage of teaching staff in line with their contribution in the study process;

To develop higher education programmes matching interests of the labour market and students as well as needs of lifelong learning.

3) Actual structure of higher education degrees in Latvia – issues for future debate in the context of HERN project for improved EU higher education policy with regard to lifelong learning

Main types of degrees/qualifications

Inspired by the Bologna declaration and aimed at a transparent and easily understandable degree system in Latvia, the Law of Higher Educational Establishments was amended in the year 2000. Among other changes, system of degrees/qualifications was modified, mainly through introduction of two-tier bachelor-master structure also in the professional higher education. However, the transition is not yet completed therefore at present both programmes leading to the „old” and „new” degrees/qualifications coexist. We therefore believe that both the degree system before and after the year 2000 have to be mentioned here.

Before amendments of year 2000.

In **academic higher education** the two-tier bachelor/master structure was started as of 1991. It must be noted, however, that the bachelor and master degrees were interpreted as purely academic qualifications mainly aimed at preparation of graduates for further research activities. For this reason, the degrees could only be awarded „in a branch of science”, i.e. according to a list of branches of science approved by the Research Council. It implies that no interdisciplinary or professionally oriented bachelor or master degrees could legally be awarded. The

duration of studies for bachelor degree is set 3 to 4 years, for the master degree – no less than 5 years including bachelor phase.

In **professional higher education** two main types of programmes existed – the relatively short (2-3 year) programmes lead to „first-level professional HE diploma” which can be used as a labour market qualification or, alternatively, credit transfer is possible towards the longer professional programmes. The mainstream, however, were the longer – no less than 4 year programmes. The duration in some disciplines could be up to 6 (medicine) or 5 (dentistry, pharmacy, some other disciplines) years. These programmes lead to diplomas certifying a „Second level professional higher education qualification”. With the exception of the programmes in medicine, dentistry and pharmacy, holders of the II-level professional higher education diplomas were not eligible to further studies toward doctoral degrees. In the case if the programme comprised full standard for a bachelor degree, the holders could be admitted to master studies, although a bachelor degree was not awarded.

After law amendments of year 2000.

Not too much changes were made in the **academic** sector, except that the Standard for academic higher education was adopted which included aspects stimulating employability of graduates.

In the professional sector, the 1st level professional qualifications remain as they were, but a structure of professional bachelor/master degrees is introduced¹ to replace the II-level professional HE qualifications. The duration of professional bachelor programmes is set to 4 years in order to allow for substantial practical placement periods.

Professional bachelors and masters are eligible for further studies at master and doctoral level accordingly.

Degree/qualification structure in Latvia at present. Since the new structure will not take over immediately, at present both degree types exist in parallel, see fig. 2.

The diagram in Figure 2 shows structure of degrees and qualifications in Latvia as it is at present. After a full transition to bachelor and master degrees in professional higher education the second-level professional higher education programmes (marked with text in italic on the diagram) should only remain in selected professional fields, in which there is a strong motivation to keep long one-tier programmes and in which such programmes are likely to be kept in a number of other European countries (e.g. medicine and dentistry).

Integration of research and education. Efficient use of resources.

Taking into account the integration of science and education typical of universities, the competence areas of universities are defined on the basis of thematic grouping of education classification and the subordinate groups of sciences according to the classification of the Latvian Research Council. Evaluation of academic competence of universities allows to use scarce resources allocated for

1 Except medicine, dentistry and pharmacy where long one-tier programmes remain

higher education with maximal efficiency, respecting:

- The priority to train specialists needed to ensure economic growth and creation of knowledge-based economy in Latvia and able to work in sectors generating high added value;
- The need to train specialists to safeguard Latvian national, cultural historic and natural identity;
- The need to ensure sustainable regional development and maintain rapid GDP growth rates in Latvia;
- The growing demand for versatile academically qualified workforce both in the Latvian and European labour market having experience, rooted in independent work and research, and having acquired the generally applicable skills;
- Promotion of university specialisation in certain areas or their functional and even institutional integration in the areas where this is necessary;
- Interests of integration of education and priority research fields and the possibility to commercialise results of such research;
- The need to train a definite number of higher level professionals in regulated professions.

Resources that are necessary for development of universities in line with the thematic groups of education should be planned according to capacity of each university:

- Potential of academic staff, with proper accounting of full time doctors, associated professors and professors,
- Research potential, accounting of research projects, amount of financing of such projects, quality of infrastructure (research institutes, centres, etc.) and the scientific qualification of personnel involved in these projects
- Infrastructure for facilitating the study process (research laboratories, libraries).

Focus on practice and the Latvian labour market

Recent appeals and instructions on orientation of studies towards practice and the labour market requires considering the essence of education as an entirety, which consists of knowledge, ability and skills to act with responsibility. These skills are obtained in the process of education where the most important part is played by the activity having certain content and form of acquiring this activity. This is the process of learning knowledge and skills, formation of a morally acceptable views of a person or a human identity and these are remaining values that stay with the person also after the studied knowledge is forgotten. Implementation of form and content is the base of academic freedom, however this freedom is ensured by such important preconditions as premises and their equipment – respectively, the environment where the teaching staff may productively engage student in knowledge acquisition. This is the point of collision of rights of and teaching staff to autonomously choose the content and form and responsibility of the state as regards the possibility to realise this content in time and space. The individual vision of a teacher if it is based on the perception of what is needed for the development of a specific sector at the same time also means the right to

establish the study content and forms. Implementation of this mission enshrined in the notion of autonomy of is hindered by the mentality of people typical of a post-soviet area or “the small man syndrome” - to be present, yet remain unnoticed and not to stand out or assume responsibility or initiative to attain a certain goal.

Due to small GDP, the share of resources allocated to education in Latvia is considerably smaller than average in the EU member states. On the state level there is only one possibility to reach the level of competitive higher education under such circumstances - it is efficient redistribution and management of budget resources and international resources allocated for education. To implement the latter it is necessary to develop study programmes compliant with needs of the market and renewal of academic staff. This idea is more acceptable on the college level and accepted by universities with certain reservation. It is important to consider the harmonisation of tasks for employees with their professional ability (professional competence, social competence and competence in terms of methods of work). To pass over these competencies to students during classes there should be appropriate environment – a room and presence of a professor.

Shared responsibility of the state and higher education institutions

A special function of universities is to educate and prepare people for diversified activities in the modern society. The excessive orientation of universities towards implementation of short professional study programmes may lead to devaluation of their very special status. The mission and task of universities is further development through research, training and studies. Those who want to use universities as a tool to achieve other objectives or who doubt the unity of these tasks are undermining the position of universities not only for a longer period of time but also attempt to cut the central pillar of the whole West European culture. Taxpayers should receive the best what is available in the sector in the given period of time. The issue, which is still not seriously addressed in Latvia, is how much it costs and how universities fulfil these functions. The principle of shared responsibility of the state and means that the state should be involved only in general processes: establishing the framework of responsibility of, financial support, strategic guidelines and standards. should do the rest – they should identify goals and expected outcomes, which should be openly defined providing the society with grounds for trust in open, honest and qualitative work.

Potential models of development of higher education institutions

The developers of education models of Latvia still cannot decide between the two principles – the German scientific model and American commercial model - of development of. In case of the German model, are categorised according to their ability to implement more university-oriented or practically oriented studies, however both are based on learning knowledge and skills in the process of research. The American model, when the majority of do not provide the possibility of research work and only in a didactically perfect way offer the already known information directing graduates towards certain specialisation of the labour market is also currently considered as a model for implementation in countries of the European Union. In Latvia the practical meaning of these model is easy understandable as for quite a while and science were separated and both worked on a relatively high theoretical level (except for ideology dominated social and

humanitarian sciences). The National Development Concept offers the synthesis of the two concepts with a special emphasis laid on higher professional or college type education. The idea of the short college cycle - to train as fast as possible and enable the student to be the same as others is certainly the type of education with smallest costs. The idea of the university cycle that requires longer preparation, longer and more expensive cycle is to create a new labour market and a new and different product or service. Without much complication, employers not speaking about applicants are able to get oriented in the programmes. With the big number of study programmes that exist in Germany (in summer semester of 2001 their number went up till 382 programmes in Bachelor studies and 217 in Master studies – the same as in Latvia), only 25% of surveyed employers recognised that they were able to understand titles and awarded qualifications of graduates, yet the majority of them were ready to pay graduates the monthly wage exceeding three monthly wages of a professor in Latvia.

Human resources as capital

A human individual is more and more often perceived as capital, i.e. is as a usable resource. Also universities are confronted with this form of capitalisation of human existence when they have to fulfil the requirements in as short as possible time and lower costs to educate and offer the labour market the increasing number of trained specialists. Also and even their faculties (departments) start transition to business activity and service management, however they do not have adequate quality management and decision making structures in place. Ability to engage in scientific research, development of creative and critical thinking is left without proper attention. The result of such education is narrowly focussed ability to act which is easy obtainable yet very far away from creative activity and ability of innovation. Education, technical progress and capital are factors that determine development.

Investment into education as investment into development

Openness of science to the society may provide significant contribution as even those people who are not personally engaged in science still wait answers of researchers to questions relating to development of the society. Even in case of contradictions between the state, science and education that mostly originates from the loss of perception from the state (being the founder of a considerable part of and all universities) which is no longer able to recognise that only creativity in science and also art is a guarantor of innovation. Instead, the biggest emphasis is put on saving – not only in all fields of life but also in universities, which could be converted into business companies. What are the consequences from this for free, creative science? Everything will depend on the capacities and integrity of the buyer. This aspect should not be confused with the market-capable scientists who are able to convert the newly created product into a marketable offer or innovation. The two approaches are equally valid and needed. Yet, still in the next 10 years at least there will be a shortage of creators of new knowledge in Latvia even if there is a significant improvement in attitude towards science.

Potential negative impact caused by market economy and globalisation

Political focus on saving in all areas of life, including also education, signals about formation of new ideology. This ideology no longer speaks about values in general or fundamental values of life. Instead, there is clear domination of market-oriented values. The one who governs the markets also governs the new globalised world. Dynamic change of conditions of public life has a significant impact on younger generation. In the plural society where strong personalities are advertised as leaders and the focus is placed on “super success of super individuals” optimism is based on vague opportunities offered by globalisation and this results in situation which might be referred to as “the new predictability”.

The society is perpetually forced to go through restructuring, life deprived of routine, short-term economy. Each adaptation to the requirements of the labour market is valued above all and this attitude is also related to which face the demand to generate fast results, reduce budgets, implement flexible staff policy and even quickly adapt to the changeable demand of the public. Here we have to seek answers to three questions:

- 1) How can one can reach long-term goals if we have to live in economic conditions of short-term orientation?
- 2) How can institutions implement their commitments and stay loyal when they are constantly restructured and even stop operating?
- 3) How can one establish the remaining values if we live in the society, which concentrates and is focussed only on using short-term advantages of the present moment?

Orientation towards future is what science and higher education should ensure to any individual.

Competition in the labour market

It is important not to make a mistake in selecting one's occupation. The majority of students in Latvia today (full time, part time, public and private) have chosen to study social sciences (economics, business, law, sociology, political science, etc). The share of social sciences in public is smaller with the clear domination (above 80%) in private higher education institutions. 14 private higher education institutions of 15 have study programmes of social sciences.

A logical question is whether this is not going to result in overproduction of these specialists in the labour market after some time? Research workers of the Riga School of Economics carried out the study on the number of economic specialists needed in the Latvian economy at the present moment and what will be the need for these specialists in the nearest future. The results offer the following conclusions: firstly, the study of companies proves that renovation of management, economic and financial services structures has until now taken place mainly in enterprises and institutions that are located in Riga and the change has not yet affected more remote regions of Latvia. Secondly, rapidly developing markets, which appeared after regaining of independence, such as the real estate market, stock market, etc. demand specialists. Thirdly, there is a growing need for specialists able to investigate and forecast market development and develop different projects. Fourthly, introduction of information technologies in commercial

activity will open a lot of new opportunities, such as E-commerce. Fifthly, entry of Latvia into the new, enlarged EU will offer new challenges for specialists of all social sciences.

The general conclusion passed by researchers is that representatives of these professions will be demanded in the labour market for at least ten more years. This means that the future economists will have wide opportunities in the areas of studies and work. However labour market is gradual being filled by such specialists which will entail tougher competition in future.

Prospective sectors

The priorities established by the government are to train knowledge intensive high technology specialists in such programmes as:

- information technologies (IT);
- biotechnology, biomedicine, pharmacology, chemical timber processing;
- material technologies and production.

These fields directly will generate the biggest number of jobs in the nearest future (in all three Baltic States!). It in particular refers to the IT field. This also means that the trained specialists will have an interesting, diversified work, ability to earn well and form their careers. Another advantage is that modern technologies practically “destroy borders between the countries”. IT specialists may work not only on Latvia. There is no need to have an office – you may work from your home or any other location and this is certainly very comfortable and economically beneficial as it saves costs of arranging working offices. It will also be much easier for specialists trained in IT and natural sciences to find jobs in other countries than for those who have gained education focussed mainly on national needs.

Competitiveness

The people who are more flexible and responsive to challenges will have wider opportunities in the labour market. Therefore it is planned to develop such study programmes that offer interface between two sciences – for example environmental governance, culture, medicine governance or management. Those who will combine studies in several fields, for example, will study in the academic Bachelor or professional Bachelor study programme (physics, chemistry, mathematics), engineering sciences, etc. including IT or forest, food, agricultural sciences and in the Master’s programme of social sciences (for instance business administration or economics) will also have biggest opportunities in the labour market. These will be specialists with wide array of knowledge and understanding of production, market and community development processes!

Development of priority research fields of higher education institutions

It is necessary to develop the priority branches of Latvian science and study their commercialisation possibilities in universities having adequate research potential:

- to strengthen the role of universities in development and implementation of research projects in Latvia with a special focus on integration between education and science;

- to transform universities into EU inter-university academic and research co-operation centres;
- to develop research-based high level academic and professional studies in universities and doctoral studies and inter-university doctoral study centres;
- to promote co-operation of universities in setting up of new science and technology centres (parks) aimed at creation of innovative business environment able to produce products with high added value.

Tasks for the development of higher education institutions

- Agreements concluded between the government and universities on training of certain specialists should be developed as documents regulating partnership relationships and respecting the very special role of universities in the development of the society and the state.
- To develop programmes of training and development of university staff and a competitive and promoting remuneration system.
- In line with Article 8 of the Transition Regulations of the Higher Education Institutions to earmark in the public investment programme of the state annual budget financing for the development of university infrastructure on the basis of projects submitted by universities and needs of the national economy.
- To ensure state budget subsidies for the internal grant system of universities, to fund the development of research infrastructure of universities in their areas of competence and establishment of inter-university and university associated excellence centres.
- To ensure normal work of universities and guarantee their development it is necessary to urgently start implementation of provisions of Article 76 of the Law on Higher Education Institutions. The Cabinet of Ministers should pass the decision on transfer of the sequestered part of state property into the ownership of universities to support study process and research and enable universities to spend the resources they have earned.
- The status of universities as subjects of the derived public law should be enshrined in the Law on Higher Education Institutions and other legislation.
- Each university develops a separate action plan of implementation of the reform on the basis of areas of competence established in the University Reform Project and priority levels identified there. The universities attach their action plans to the University Reform Programme approved by the CM.

Universities develop annual reports on implementation of actions within the University Reform thus ensuring transparency of reforming processes.

Obstacles for the development of higher education in Latvia – recommendations of OECD experts

Recommendations of experts from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development:

- To focus more on links between higher education and labour market;
- To strengthen co-ordination between the Higher Education Council (HEC) and vocational education;
- To develop a more systematic and transparent link between the secondary education graduation exams and entrance examinations to higher education institutions;
- To develop a long-term financing policy including also alternatives for financial support to both institutions and students;
- Ministry of Education and Science, in consultation with HEC, should co-ordinate higher education among all the involved ministries;

Main tasks to reach the goal:

- Adoption of amendments to the Law on Higher Education Institutions;
- Update and review in the Cabinet of Ministers of the National Concept of development of higher education and higher education institutions in the Republic of Latvia;
- Programme of renewal of academic and research staff which includes also increase of the number of emeritus professors and development of doctoral studies;
- Development of study standards of higher professional education;
- Use of occupational standards as a base for professional higher education programme;
- Introduction of a stable and predictable system of public procurement.

Topical issues for universities and higher education institutions in the changing socio-political conditions

Social pressure and special requirements of the labour market have resulted in creation of a wide variety of higher education institutions and study programmes. Higher education has not been safeguarded from demands of the business world. Universities no longer are in the position of education monopolies. National higher education systems now have become so diverse and complicated both in terms of structure, programmes, student content and also funding.

Universities are the institutions that unite all traditional functions linked with development and transfer of knowledge: research, innovation, learning and continual learning. This is complemented by one more function, which has become very important in the recent years. It is international co-operation.

Universities and higher education institutions should encourage skills of critical analysis of social changes and should define and develop activities aimed at advancing progress of the contemporary society. The issue about the ability of

higher education institutions to involve their students in practical research and production of goods and services becomes important as a promoter of successful integration of new workers in the labour market able to avert their technological backwardness at the end of studies. This is particularly important in the area of communications and other new technologies, which develop (and also age) most dynamically.

Research in the area of social and natural sciences should be genuinely free and independent from political and ideological pressure and still serve more distant development goals of the society. In teaching sciences it is preferable to avoid purely academic approach and the same time one should not sacrifice quality of research to reach a short-term impact as this undermines the total result, including also science.

The task of universities and higher education institutions is, using their academic freedom and autonomy, to promote respect of cultural, economic, social, civic and political rights and freedoms of an individual highlighting the movement of the society in the direction of ethical culture and humanism rooted in general human rights. Promotion of gender equality in education and elimination of all types of ungrounded discrimination as well as promotion of social inclusion are topics that deserve growing attention.

Higher education and community profile from the perspective of gender equality

Lately employers have started to pay increasingly greater attention to the level of education of their employees which also becomes one of determinants of the size of their wages. Average wage of women working in different sectors has always been lower than that of men (thus for, example in 2001 average monthly men's wage in industry was 160 LVL, women's – 131 LVL; in the sector of hotels and restaurants men earned – 119 LVL, women – 84 LVL; in education: men – 151 LVL, women – 135 LVL). Only 39% of the total number of doctorate students are women. Interest of women to engage in research might be encouraged by bigger community support (employer, public opinion), perfection of conditions of research work and the support of the government, i.e. by acknowledging the doctoral degree as an important aspect of a civil servant's career. The factors promoting doctoral studies are possibility of personal perfection, future career vision, possibility to combine work and studies, flexible working hours, etc. In turn, the hindering factors are insufficient state support, overload (work + family), inadequate technical equipment of the working place (computer, research software, access to Internet, etc) and others.

Higher education institutions and the general needs of the society (sustainable development, openness of the society, access to lifelong learning)

The task of higher education institutions is to ensure sustainable community development. Therefore they should help the society to address and solve topical issues of development. Higher education institutions play an important role in the discussion of future of the society, such as the discussion of improvement of public administration both in the sector and territorial approach.

Higher education institutions train future intellectual and political leaders, managers of businesses and teachers. Universities, fulfilling this social task and using their institutional independence, have the opportunity to organise discussions of a wide array of ethical and scientific questions which should be addressed by the society in future and should serve as links with the rest of educational system. At the same time it is very important to maintain academic freedom and independence of universities without which they can hardly fulfil the above task.

The responsibility of universities for the general development of the society is particularly important in CEE countries as the research carried out in these countries may become the foundation for development programmes, it helps to formulate policy and train human resources both in the middle and higher level.

The quality of teachers' training and education becomes a more important issue for higher education institutions. They have the biggest responsibility for training of teachers and creating links with other level education and training institutions of teachers as well as for training of teacher's trainers – higher education establishment staff and education multipliers from among teachers themselves. The same refers to education of educational leaders. Students participation in meeting the needs of the society should be brought out in education of future teachers and educational workers - they should be involved in development of local projects and their implementation, practical research, etc.

Diversity of higher education institutions is a reaction to the change of employment structure and quality of employment: there are higher requirements for management, supervision and organisation of work. Also the intellectual requirements for employees are growing on all levels. There are higher qualification requirements both in industrial and agricultural production and service provision. This is connected with new technologies and abilities of people to use them. At the same time it is equally important for students to acquire basic understanding of the human environment – communication, interfacing, general human values. This is a growing need, which has to be satisfied by higher education institutions.

Contribution of higher education institutions, especially universities, in the field of science and technologies becomes more and more demanded. They should be ready to offer specialised training courses aimed at practical application of research and technologies and their studies. The success factor of higher education institutions is their ability to offer flexible interdisciplinary education and co-operation in creation of supply of such education.

Higher education institutions also in future will be placed for those seeking knowledge and learn skills of independent opinion. They will remain as places for many people who look for resources that provide meaning for their lives. Universities in particular should develop as culture reproducing and maintaining institutions and also as culture creating institutions. Cultural capacity of universities influences the human capital of the local community. Education for peace and peaceful education is the cornerstone of work of higher education institutions. Each higher education establishment faces the requirement to become an open higher education institution, where education and knowledge resources are offered both in full time studies and also as distance learning.

Openness means not only wider availability of education in peripheral areas, in homes of people but also more availability in terms of payment which involves optimisation of education services, taking into consideration the opportunities offered by new information and communication technologies.

In future it will be possible to develop such types of learning where people study not only themselves but also while teaching others. This implies free of charge services offered by students to the society and closer ties between higher education institutions and local community, purposeful participation of higher education institutions in local networks of partnership and co-operation, which, in turn, promotes learning educational needs of different groups of the society and the development of supply of educational services.

4. Development tendencies in other acceding countries – examples from Lithuania and Czech Republic

Example from Lithuania – strategy paper on Lifelong Learning as part of the National Development Plan 2002 – 2004

In Lithuania a Strategy paper on Lifelong learning has been developed:

1. VISION

Vision Statement in a Consultation Draft on the Strategy Paper on Lifelong Learning which was developed as part of EU Phare Programme, and in the context of the National Development Plan 2002-2004 (for the Republic of Lithuania) states:

A peaceful, prosperous and stable society characterised by learning opportunities in educational, community, business and family contexts, for all sections of the community, and by active involvement by over 90% of the active population in learning activities founded on the national cultural heritage and on universally recognised social and personal values, to enhance their contribution to the economic, social and cultural life of the nation, and to fulfilment of their individual economic, social, cultural and personal potential.

2. MISSION

Within that context, it is aimed to maximize the value of the country's greatest asset: people, *human resources*. This overarching purpose is expressed in a *Mission Statement*:

To optimise the use of all available resources, whether provided by Government, enterprises, municipalities, communities, voluntary bodies or individuals, towards the development of a comprehensive, coherent and cost-effective educational system which offers a range of opportunities for professional, social and personal development for all citizens of working age, and for young people preparing for working life, of a quality comparable with the best in Europe.

3. RATIONALE AND AIMS

This technological revolution has simultaneously transformed the way we do business (computers, e-mail, mobile telephony, Internet) and shrunk the working world to what is often referred to as a "global village". In parallel with these changes has been an increasing acknowledgement of individual human rights, so

that there is now an expectation throughout the advanced world (and beyond) that the fruits of the technological revolution should be enjoyed not by the few who control resources, but by the millions who create and sustain the new prosperity. Those raised expectations necessarily imply a corollary set of individual responsibilities, for the quality of life, for social order, for economic and social justice and for the environment. These parallel trends – technological change, globalisation and active citizenship – come together at the level of practical policy in creating an indisputable need for **Lifelong Learning in the context of higher education (HE)**, in Lithuania as in all advanced economies.

No longer can young people acquire, by the age of 25, a set of skills and qualifications which will see them through life. Increasingly, rather, what they will need is a set of broader, generic, adaptable skills that will enable them to constantly acquire new skills, new specialist knowledge and new ways of working. Learning, therefore, ceases to be an *episodic* experience, and becomes, rather, an abiding aspect of life: primarily economic life, but the same forces operate in the social, cultural and personal spheres.

Here one of the learning activities is emphasised, and the other is considered relevant:

- *Formal teaching/learning* that takes place in educational institutions. Here the teaching/learning activity has goals, is highly organised, and has a schedule, timetable, hierarchic system of assessment, formal requirements for entrance and registration. Formal education takes place in institutions; certain patterns, curriculum, methods and teaching/learning aids are planned well ahead. Students receive recognised diplomas and qualifications.
- *Non-formal teaching/learning* takes place along with the main education and teaching systems. It is similar to formal education, because they share one feature, i.e. institutions. Characteristically met by in service training, which is increasingly supplied by HE due to high demands for quality.

4. RECOMMENDATIONS

Therefore the notion in the White Paper on Higher Education (1999) emphasises promotion of idea of Lifelong Learning in the society and provision of Lifelong Learning opportunities among other responsibilities of higher education institutions, **the idea should be considered as one of the overarching recommendations for HE policy.**

Access to learning in HE

I. Higher education institutions play an important role in continuing training. In their evening and distance learning departments in 2001 there were about 40.000 students (which accounts for app. 40% of the total number of students in HE), more than 20.000 persons attended non-formal courses organised by higher education institutions. Country's orientation towards the development of knowledge-based society will increase the need for continuing studies in higher education institutions.

Therefore it is necessary to create support mechanisms for continuing (full time and part time) studies: legal basis, bonus system, compensated leave for educational activities, etc., **this should be considered as one of the recommendations for HE policy.**

II. Institutions do not have lifts, entries, libraries, toilets etc, adapted to people with disabilities. To ensure the required infrastructure for people with disabilities it is necessary to have sufficient funding that institutions usually lack. Certainly this problem is not the only one explaining why so little disabled learn in those institutions. Psychological barriers are still felt both among disabled and healthy people. Information technologies and knowledge-based economy open new opportunities for disabled to participate in social and economic life of the society. Various initiatives and programmes for disabled should be supported especially in the area of information technologies – **this is one of the priorities and recommendations for HE policy.**

Recognition of Non-formal and Informal learning and HE

Creation of system and methods for recognition of non-formal and informal learning in Lithuania has just started, but it is of extreme importance, if HE is to be made more accessible and user-friendly.

It is necessary to create a system for recognition of learning that would allow for formal accreditation of competences acquired elsewhere than in the formal system – **this should be considered as second recommendations for HE policy.**

Openness and Flexibility of Formal HE

There are limited possibilities for adults who have not acquired higher education earlier to participate in full time continuing education or retraining studies in universities. There is no system for transfer of credits either between the same or different levels institutions: an effective and rapid development of the system **should be considered as the third recommendations for HE policy.**

Quality Assurance

In order to achieve the goals mentioned above, a coherent and reliable education monitoring and quality assurance framework is needed. It was attempted to introduce modern quality assurance system based on self-assessment and external evaluation. As it's stated in the website of the Ministry of Education and Science: *"Education monitoring system is being created. Comprehensive and reliable information on the functioning of the system and the quality of education services will be accumulated. Therefore indicators of performance should be established and methodologies for external and internal audit of educational institutions – be developed"*. Development of the system should be considered as the fourth recommendations for HE policy.

Information Management

There are several bodies/institutions, which manage information on education in Lithuania (Department of Statistics, Ministry of Education and Science, Information Technologies and Prognoses Centre, Lithuanian Labour Exchange, Lithuanian Labour Market Authority, Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Crafts etc.) at

national level. No agreement concerning coherent data collection system, therefore, although in many cases information is accumulated in electronic format comparison of data belonging to different systems is rather complicated. As **the fifth recommendations for HE policy, the need to develop an effective and coherent information on education system, which is imperative in order to assure high quality is suggested.**

Education research

To reorganise education system and especially to ensure quality of provision it is necessary to carry out targeted and reliable education research, also, participation of Lithuania in international comparative education research. Integrated activities in the research both at national and international levels, particularly in the field of HE and Continuing education, HE in the context of LLL, and in the context of European and global trends – **the sixth recommended issue for the HE policy to be discussed.**

Example from Czeck Republic - Lifelong learning in the context of tertiary education

Current state

The area of lifelong learning (taking into consideration first of all its relatively narrow part – education of adults) is quite broad and diversified in the Czech Republic. It is influenced by several ministries and the offer of learning is the matter of the number of different educational institutions as well as commercial establishments. There are no complex statistical data available and so to monitor the activities in this area is very difficult. The professional estimation speaks about approximately 10 000 individuals studying different courses that can be considered as a type of tertiary education.

In accordance with the “definition” of tertiary education in the CR it is possible to include all educational courses, which requires, either explicitly or implicitly, prior completed secondary education (by the final exam, called “maturita”). Higher education institutions provide wide spectrum of differently focused courses besides the accredited study programmes. Just to give at least one example we may present for instance further education of medical doctors, lawyers or teachers, provided on the basis of special legal rules.

The basic legal provision related lifelong learning provided by higher education institutions comes from the higher education act of 1998, which says that: “As part of its educational provision a higher education institution may deliver, free of charge or for payment of a fee, life-long learning programmes designed either for occupational training, or leisure activity. In the event that successful graduates from life-long learning programmes with accreditation become students in line with this law, a higher education institution may recognize the credits they have earned in life-long learning programmes up to 60 credits which are necessary for due completion of the studies....”

The state concept of lifelong learning in the field of tertiary education is articulated in the White Book, which was prepared on the basis of national-wide debate and agreed by the Czech Government in 2000 (full text): *"In compliance with the world trends an accent is laid on the general concept of lifelong learning, the*

development of which can be achieved through diversified and transferable structure of not only tertiary sector, but the whole educational system offering modern forms of study and using information and communication technology. Such system enables the users the access to education and the possibility of their own choice of educational path corresponding to their interests and abilities in case of necessity to change it and continue in education throughout the whole life.

It is the overall world trend to stress the general concept of lifelong learning, which has a correlation with formation of diversified and transferable structures not only in the tertiary sector but in the whole education system.

Higher education institutions take part in the development of lifelong learning by way of organising programmes and courses in this framework and there is an expectation that such provision will *be extended largely in course of time*. Such activities must not end in the offer of study of individual subjects, courses and integrated modules in this framework, which would in practice be a copy of the contents of accredited study programmes. Such development would result very quickly in creation of two, in principle different groups of students in higher education institutions: those who would study in regular accredited study programmes free of charge, whereas the second group of students would be charged for the same kind of study. Such situation is not acceptable.

On the other hand it is highly desirable to recognise such education on the basis of relevant evidence when entering accredited study programmes, again, in compliance with the idea of the Bologna Declaration. Information and enlightenment activities will be oriented to the fact that the decisive factor is the achieved level of education, testified by a relevant certificate, not by an academic title. The offer should be regulated not only by the declared interest of potential participants, but also by the demand from the part of state (ministries, labour offices etc).

The leading role in lifelong learning will be played by new forms of study, based especially on using new information and communication technologies, which will influence the development of the whole tertiary system by decisive way. It is necessary to offer education opportunities within the system of lifelong learning for non-traditional groups of students, who for various reasons did not enter the tertiary sector of education or who have not finished such education, for employed people who have to extend their education because of demands of their profession."

This very important policy document was followed by the Government task for the minister of education to elaborate more explicit and detailed strategy of tertiary education as such including lifelong learning on this level. It was required to describe the current state, mid term goals to be reached to the year 2005 together with the tools enabling to cover suggested plans and the additional frame vision to the year 2010.

The Strategy comes stresses the fact that the level and quality of lifelong learning is very different in various parts of tertiary education sector. It admits that

the level and quality of lifelong learning is very diversified regarding different parts of tertiary sector of education. In some case it is the weak point of the institutional development while in others there is paid rather high attention to this type of

learning and the broad range of learning opportunities is offered including the university of the third age.

Goals for the next several years emphasised in the Strategy is as follows: **the lifelong learning will be emphasised in accordance with the world-wide trends. Connected with that the diverse and transparent structure of the whole educational sector with the offer of modern forms of study using the ICT will be supported.**

In accordance with the international development it is necessary to consider the all the time increasing interest of adult population to improve reached education level. It is expected that higher education institutions will empower the lifelong learning on the one of their main activities and they will shift their position to the real cultural centres of the respective regions. At the same time it is obvious that they are not expected to cover the whole area of lifelong learning opportunities but rather to collaborate with the large spectrum of possible partners.

The offer of lifelong learning should be preferably focused on the needs of those who from any reason could not enter tertiary education before and who would like to do so, for those whose occupation needs new and deeper knowledge etc. It will require the development and broad use of the new forms of studies and ICT implementation. It is suggested that the National Policy on Information Technologies would deeply discuss the ICT development including strategy of their use in education and connected professional services.

The importance of transferability and possible recognition of courses passed in the framework of lifelong learning within the initial education will be stressed.

Tools for receiving the Strategy goals:

The effective use of the provision of higher education act that enables or to cover expenses of lifelong learning courses using the lump sum from the state budget or to subject courses to payment.

The careful thoughts about the possible recognition of lifelong learning courses as the part of the initial accredited study programmes leading to the academic degree and provide clear and reliable information for applicants

The invitation and support of higher education institutions to elaborate projects dealing with lifelong learning and/or building-up centres of distance education and to submit them to the programmes of development financed by the Ministry from the state budget.

The last but very important policy level influencing the development of lifelong learning, this time as the responsibility of higher education institutions as the biggest and the most important part of the tertiary education sector is the so called **Long term plan of higher education development** elaborated by the Ministry of education in accordance with the obligation prescribed by the higher education act.

It calls for understanding of the European activities and documents based on the concept of the "learning society" or "information society", which should be taken seriously into consideration also in the Czech Republic. It requires that higher education institutions will be responsible for providing lifelong learning in a broad sense and they will reflect both the diversified interests of potential learners and

the needs of the state expressed by the state authorities. It informs about the Programmes of development inviting the higher education institutions to submit projects, which will meet the clearly articulated state priorities (currently they are focused on further education of teachers, preparation of re-qualification courses offered for unemployed people, courses for seniors and courses supporting the computer literacy).

Ministry expects that it will play the role of the co-ordinator of the activities in the field of lifelong learning at the tertiary education level and it will encourage the interest of the other involved state sectors as well as the interest of the commercial sphere. It will contribute to the development of the mechanisms of quality assurance and to the finding of proper and motivating financial mechanisms of lifelong learning.

Example of Poland - Remarks on continuing education and lifelong learning in the context of HE reforms in Poland

At present, it is very difficult to show a coherent picture of CE and LLL policy in Poland. There are several main actors involved in the LLL/CE:

- 1) **Ministry of National Education and Sport.** It elaborated a document "Strategy for Continuing Education up to 2010" approved by the Government on 8 August 2003. The document was partly based on the report "Modernisation of continuing education and adult education in Poland as integral parts of lifelong learning". Report for the Ministry of National Education and Sport prepared by the Institute of International Education, Stockholm University, in the framework of the OECD grant TF 02571/005.

Main parts of the document:

Factors determining national CE/LLL strategy:

1. Demographic processes
2. Situation on the labour market
3. Education system
4. New technologies
5. Globalisation
6. Increasing interest in education among wide groups of society

Strategic objective:

To support development of personality, stimulate innovation and creativity. It should lead to increased competitiveness, improved organization of work and creation of fundamentals of knowledge society.

The realization of strategic objective will be based on the following priority activities:

Priorities:

1. improve access to continuing education
2. enhance quality of continuing education

3. co-operation and partnership
4. increase investments in human resources
5. increase awareness of the role and importance of continuing education
6. facilitate access to reliable information, support and counselling

The strategy of the ministry does not take into account the potential of higher education sector (this sector is marginalized; according to the Ministry crucial role shall be played by regional authorities, labour offices and networks related with pre-university educational structures – secondary schools, teachers training centers etc.).

2) Academic community

There are several running projects, such as:

“Virtual Polytechnic” – initiative of several technical universities

“Polish Virtual University” – initiative of general universities

In order to correlate different initiatives of HEIs and to defend the interests of HE sector, the Conference of Rectors of Academic Schools in Poland (CRASP) created the Commission for New Technologies in Teaching and Learning. 1st meeting of this commission took place on 7 October 2003.

3) Educational “free market” (individual initiatives of state and non-state higher education institutions, private companies of different size – from large multinational firms up to SMEs etc.).

This market is very active, there are many small and larger enterprises offering various courses. Recently two chains of cable TV (one of them is called “EDU-SAT”) appeared. There are many academic teachers acting on that market (just to make some money); the quality of courses is usually not too high, without control mechanisms.

What next?

In near future there shall be significant changes in this picture. Lifelong learning and continuing education will be supported by European Social Fund. Many institutions and organizations are preparing applications, creating “strategic alliances”, looking for examples of good practice from abroad. As an example I can mention the conference “Using structural funds in building the knowledge society” organized by Malopolska and Toscana Regions (Krakow, 29 October 2003). On 5 November there will be a conference “Structural funds for higher education sector” organized by the Ministry of National Education and Sport.

Regional developments

Recently, “Malopolska Network for the European Summer University of Research and Innovation for Lifelong Learning” has been created (Malopolska is one of 16 Polish regions, the capital is Krakow). The partners are:

- Marshal’s Office of the Malopolska region
- The City of Krakow
- Regional Labour Office in Krakow
- Krakow Supervisory Office for Education

The Practical Education Centre in Krakow
Jagiellonian University
University of Mining and Metallurgy
State Higher Vocational School in Tarnow
The Teacher Development Centre of Malopolska Region

The consortium co-operates with several European regions (it took part in the Summer University in Lyon, 8-10 september 2003). It submitted an application to structural funds for creation of a regional e-learning platform.

The Malopolska model of co-operation in LLL/CE seems to be very promising. In coming weeks there will be several meetings and consultations concerning future regional LLL/CE strategy and joint applications for ESF grants.

IV. Conclusions. Challenges for higher education in the European Community to be considered in the future education policy

Knowledge management

Management of knowledge is becoming more important in any society.

Universities and higher education institutions should find their place in creation of management systems of national knowledge, which relates to management of processes and changes in various institutions (public administration institutions, enterprises, NGOs) and public administration sectors. Educational systems of every country will have to deal with the most complicated challenges in the area of knowledge management as they are responsible for ensuring paradigms of use of education resources in the society and are also responsible for production of teaching materials and multiplication of human resources of educational workers.

In conditions of the permanently growing volume of information and knowledge it becomes more and more complicated to establish the knowledge which should be obtained by a younger student and later an adult by various forms and levels of formal, informal education, educational institutions and everyday learning.

Universities and higher education institutions should identify methods how they can contribute to management of knowledge within the framework of an educational system and also directly – by forming networks with local communities and other stakeholders.

The task of universities and higher education institutions in this context is to reinforce the scientific foundation of lifelong learning and to justify the necessity of lifelong learning in all its aspects to ensure compliance of learning to conditions of human participation and needs of the labour market, society and individual perfection. Understanding of the road of human learning in modern world is needed not only for every individual to successfully manage one's lifetime but also for any institution and the whole society as learning is one of significant features of modern society and also a platform of competition between the countries.

Intercultural tasks

Higher education institutions are also responsible for creating foundation for the dialogue between cultures and religions. International co-operation between higher education institutions promotes not only proliferation of knowledge and

experience in specific areas of science but also generally between people living in different countries and representing different cultures.

International co-operation between higher education institutions in the European Community provides opportunities of wider exchange of experience between old and new member states and also countries representing various geographic regions. Higher education institutions of the European Community are considering their role in co-operation with the developing countries of Africa and Asia. This is particularly evident in the attempts of the UNESCO aimed at balancing development in different regions of the world with the help of international educational policy instruments.

Sustainability of co-operation between universities and higher education institutions takes the form of establishing thematic and regional networks of teachers and students exchange, creation and use of joint data bases, development of joint training programmes, international research, creation of innovation centres, spreading and aggregation of results of scientific research.

Higher education institutions and basic skills

Contribution of higher education institutions in the basic skills education today and in future is a debatable issue as the very definition of basic skills or key competencies is undergoing rapid evolution in recent years. The reason for such situation is the fact that shortage of basic skills, which earlier was associated mostly with the primary and secondary education content and quality, now more and more often is identified in adults of various age, including also students and graduates of higher education institutions. The basic competencies (skills) considered at the moment are: communication in one's mother tongue; in foreign languages (at least three); competence in mathematics; competence in science and technology; information technology skills; skills of learning; interpersonal and civic competence, entrepreneurial skills, general culture.

Main tasks of future policy

Key aspects of the higher education in the European Community that should be considered when developing the future policy of education are the following:

- Harmonisation of education and labour market in the context of the global higher education as a quality assurance indicator;
- Higher education as an advantage for the society;
- *Higher education without restrictions: new opportunities, new challenges;*
- Contribution of higher education in development;
- Input of higher education into the system of education and training;
- Contribution of the labour market in the educated society;
- Presence or absence of academic freedom and its impact on quality and development of higher education;
- Internationalisation and international co-operation;
- Role of research in higher education.

Recommendations for further work

1. Provision of holistic outlook. The goal of the higher education is, on the basis of ethical values, to provide a holistic world outlook on the man and the society; on change management and perception of change in the family, everyday life and occupation. The particular task of universities is to create such study environment where a student learns skills of independent scientific research, studies how to produce rather than reproduce,

2. Focus on basic competences. Higher education and especially continuing education should be more focussed on acquisition of basic competencies as higher education should cover the educational deficit created by dynamic technological changes,

3. Balance between professional and personal development. Higher education and continuing education should create a balance between education needed for personal self-perfection, vocational training (oriented on the labour market) and education for civic participation (co-operation),

4. Individual employment strategies. It is recommended that every student studies a course on "Self-movement in the global, regional and local labour market" which would teach such skills as "to find employment" and "to be employed", as the modern labour market brings great diversity of employment which simultaneously implies not only the understanding of individual lifelong studies but also the awareness of individual career and possibilities and strategy of employment;

5. Awareness of own identity. Higher education and continuous education should focus more on issues of awareness of identity (spiritual or world outlook, ethic, national, professional, age, gender and other) as the dynamic change of social roles, geographical location and workplace causes identity crises which are difficult for many people to overcome,

6. Competence for international networking. Leaders of higher and continual education should study competencies of international networking and international project management and skills of work with information technology and internet resources,

7. Updating the content of higher education. International mechanisms of updating higher education should be created. In the epoch of knowledge, technologies change the value of knowledge and skills and therefore it is necessary to systematically revise the scope and content of education to be acquired in higher education institutions. The scope of diachronic programmes should be reduced, with bigger emphasis laid on the synchronous aspect of problems,

8. Access to higher education. Accessibility of higher education and its quality have a direct impact on social status of people and also an indirect impact through income distribution between social groups. Therefore to promote the role of higher education institutions in the development of socially inclusive society the criteria of access to higher education to non-privileged groups – youth from rural areas persons from low income families, mentally and physically handicapped persons - should be clearly identified,

9. Integration of higher education with society at large. Links between the academic and professional higher education with employers, non-government organisations, local governments, technological and innovation centres, international organisations, etc should be reinforced; “integration” of higher education in life and the following increase of educational efficiency and quality should be fostered,

10. Universities as promoters of research and cultural developments. Universities should become the promoters of the research and cultural profile of other higher education institutions and act as educators of community leaders (educational workers, administration specialists, managers of production companies, leaders of non-governmental organisations),

11. Universities in global democratic processes. Universities, on the basis of their academic freedom, intellectual and cultural potential, should promote the development of the global peace culture by assuming responsibility of ethical and scientific assessment of topical problems for the society and involvement of people in public discussion.

Appendix 2

DELIVERABLE N° 17

RESTRICTED

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

Title: Higher Education Reform Network (HERN)

Project coordinator: University of Surrey Roehampton

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HERN Workpackage 3

The role of tomorrow's HE in fostering gender equity and employment

Notes for the development of policy recommendations in respect of higher education, equity and employment (HERN Deliverable 17) resulting from HERN Seminar 2 in Athens, 19-20 April 2002 and subsequent discussions.

National perspectives

Greece

The lack of participation of women in higher education is a common problem in all partners and consists a reason for serious concern. *In Greece*, based on the data of the National Statistics Office and the Examinations Department of the Ministry of Education, the presence of boys at the exact and technological sciences seems higher. In the departments of theoretical faculties the presence of girls is equal to that of boys, while it is observed that girls are over-represented in the faculties leading up to the profession of teacher, kindergarten teacher, literature and language teacher, theologian and foreign language teacher. In general, girls as compared to boys, have a very small percentage in technical vocational education, whereas their majority follows social and economic specialties while avoiding the technical ones. Empirical studies show also that there is a great difference in the university departments and the professions chosen by boys and girls. There is an obvious tendency on the part of girls to choose traditionally female professions and studies.

Netherlands

The same situation has been also presented in the *Netherlands*. In the last two decades, the female participation in higher education increased considerably, although the level of education is still lower than that of men. Nowadays, 18% of the women have got a degree in professional or scientific education against 23% of the men. Women are – traditionally- well represented in the social and cultural subjects, and although some real catching up is done, they remain underrepresented in the technical and economical courses. Few women consider taking up economical or technical subjects, because they are not (enough) stimulated to choose beta courses in secondary school. Furthermore, the presentation and acquisition of those subjects, the teaching ways of the staff and the atmosphere and culture at the colleges are highly “male” oriented. Also, girls are influenced by “own” prejudices and they hardly have any example to relate to.

Latvia

In Latvia, in general, women are more educated than men, but women choose to pursue the following fields of study: teacher training (84% from the total number),

humanities (80%), health and social care (73%), social sciences (64%), natural sciences and mathematics (46%), agriculture (43%), and services (37%). The percentage of women professors at the present moment reflects the male hegemony in the academic world too. Therefore it is also interesting to compare the gender situation not only by students, but also by academic staff of the higher education institution. The density of women working in higher educational institutions is 36% from the total number. But also it is necessary to analyze the further division of these 36%. A percentage of 4% from the total academic staff is professors, 7% associated professors, 25% docents, 44% lecturers, 16% assistants, 4% researchers. If we analyze professors (women) by their field of study we can see, that the division is similar of that preferred study programs. The biggest percent is in humanities and the most popular fields of study are the fields of health and health care, natural sciences and social sciences.

Czech Republic

Gender differences continue to exist in *Czech Republic*; women more likely enroll in fields related to the health professions, education and the social and behavioural sciences, and less in the natural sciences or industrial engineering fields. A slide increase has been in the enrolment of women in first-degree tertiary education programmes in technical disciplines and in post-gradual/ Ph.D.

Poland

Finally, the HE system in *Poland* does not have any particular policy of concerning gender equality in education; on the contrary, governing bodies have passed laws that reinforce stereotypes, supporting traditional family models, and discriminate against women in all fields of social life, including education. Although, there have been many discussions on the impact of education on the society, only few of them addressed the gender issue, either in education or in public life. Paradoxically, today, women in Poland are generally better educated than men. More young women

complete secondary schools and pass final examinations, and more women enter and complete universities (Women account 56% of the university graduates; on the other hand, educated women constituted 3,8% of unemployed people).

Interestingly, more women than men become students of business and management, a fact that provides hope that the future' s more influential and lucrative positions will be filled by women.

The female employee

The employment of female graduates and the inequality that describe their presentation in the work force, is another topic that engaged us in the Seminar. The recent changes in the work and jobs environment place higher demands especially on women for greater flexibility and adaptability. This means that women will have greater difficulty in planning and combining work and family life. Women feel more anxious than men about the changes in the labor market that will affect them. A look at total employment for women indicates they have a more insecure situation on the labour market. Women have temporary jobs to a greater degree than men. And to a much greater extent, they feel that they must adapt their working life to their family despite the fact that exactly opposite demands are placed on

them by work.. Young women between 25 and 35 years are more afraid of losing their jobs than other age group. They therefore tend to accept working conditions, which were not acceptable, just few years ago.

Women in Greece represent both in quantity and quality a rising power in the scientific force. However, in the labour market their percentages in higher posts are insignificant. Greece is found at the penultimate place together with Spain (12%) among 26 countries, while France and Luxembourg (9%) are ranked last, as to the number of women working as government officials, executives and business managers, even though women produce the 55% of the world wealth according to the United Nations development programme estimates. The situation is the same when it comes to academic hierarchy. The percentage of women at higher levels varies from 5% in Holland to 18% the highest one, in Finland, while in Greece it is 9,5%. Obvious differences also exist in the vocational aspirations of the two genders, through which the existing professional gender discrimination is reproduced in the labour market. Girls tend to prefer the Faculties of Theology, Medicine, Philosophy, Sociology, Foreign Languages and Law, while their presence in traditionally "male-dominated" scientific field is limited. An aspect of the inequality in labour market is also new technologies. The introduction of information technology in secondary education, have created a new field in which boys have an obvious advantage in relation to access, familiarization use and performance in new technologies.

Women earn less money than men. There is no way around that fact. When average hourly salaries are compared, women earnings are approximately 77% of men. When we say that women earn far less than men, we are stating this in comparison of men and women in the same occupation with the same education and experiences, and the same amount of time put into work. Different career and occupational choices can explain some of the differences between men and women's earnings, as can differences in the amount of time men and women spend in the labour market, and the relatively high incidence of part-time work among women. Contrary to popular myth this is not due to the fact that women get pregnant and have to leave the work force, neither that women leave the work force to spend time at home with the kids or that they work part-time and less hours than men. This is due to the historical burden and/or differences/ disparities between men and women role in society. However when we try to answer to question: *why there are so great differences between salaries of men and women* we must take under consideration that:

Some differences in salary are due to *differences in length of service*, regardless of gender, rank or discipline; and

Some disciplines have higher salaries due to market demands for professionals in those disciplines

Initiatives to promote the entrance of women into science

The female higher education initiatives nowadays are highly interconnected with labour market policies. The relation of the university with the labour market and especially the connection with the promotion of female-student population in employment is admittedly one of the most important issues. In an era of fast changes and under the fear of unemployment the university has placed its relation

to the labour market in a different perspective. Marketisation and deregulation are the key concepts nowadays. Of course, Higher Education Institutions neither were nor can or should be mere mechanisms of vocational training. Higher Education has been and always will be institutions of education, research, social service and free interchange of ideas. This does not mean that the university is indifferent to the professional situation of its graduates.

The technical colleges in *Netherlands* have initiated a high school project called *Prima Donna* to inform girls about career prospects. Another program, *Technika 10+* is meant to improve working conditions in technical jobs in order to attract more women in the near future. In the late nineties, the *Aspasia* project was launched, encouraging women to move on to higher ranks and positions in the scientific community. Additionally, in 1997 the Ministry of Education instituted the "Higher Education Award" and in 2001 the attention was focused on enhancing the position of female workers in higher education and preventing them from leaving the institutions. Finally, student exchange programmes promote internationalization. In European Erasmus Programme both foreign visitors and students from *Netherlands* have the opportunity to choose between a modern specialized orientation and an academic one. The students find this project very interesting and stimulating

In *Greece*, the study programmes of the University of Athens have two main objectives:

1. Provide guidance to the new female students towards the knowledge of applied notions and the knowledge of the specialty itself so that they can develop skills such as, analytical way of thinking, broadness of mind, inventiveness, and handling of options.
2. Cultivate in new students values and behaviors – acceptance of difference, acceptance of cooperation, undertaking of initiatives – and reinforce new skills, such as decision-making, adaptability, quick reaction to challenge.

Additionally, the female graduates of the Athens University Departments are in position to attend modern postgraduate programs and to participate in inter-European programmes through students exchange. At this point, it is worth mentioning the role of Career Offices in linking the universities with the labour market and facilitating the graduates' incorporation into jobs. Finally, the "entrepreneurship" programme, according to the Operational Programme for Education and Initial Vocational Training II focuses to reinforce the role of Career Offices, with a view to expanding their services towards specific population groups, such as female students. Great emphasis will be laid on: a) the provision of individualized guidance to the students, in order to help them understand the particular characteristics of various types of business, b) the organizing of special entrepreneurship events, c) the creation and publication of periodical informative newsletters and constant information of the students about the labour market through.

In *Poland*, a postgraduate programme on gender studies promote the establishment of gender studies as a part of academic structure. The final activities of the project are:

1. Meetings of students interested in gendered studies with future lecturers who introduce concept and ideas

2. Advertising gender studies in gender-focused publications, feminist periodicals and among academics and students
3. Popularising information about gender studies in Internet

Strategies and priorities

The strategies to enhance female participation in higher education must be an important objective. Methods and tools must be developed in order to increase the numbers of women working in the fields of science, engineering, technology and ICT. The University could be of further assistance to the major issue of gender equality by:

- Changing the view of female students against engineering and technology;
- Increasing the number of women in leading positions as well within the higher education system and in industry;

- Developing and implementing models for a gendered leadership;

- Developing a gendered pedagogy within higher education in order to attract more women;

- Developing support programmes for women during their university or postgraduate studies, especially in male dominated faculties;

- Developing postgraduate courses on gender and gender equality issues ;

- Integrating a gendered perspective on lifelong learning;

- Making academic career for women;

- Each Faculty/ Institute should devise formalized written career policies, procedures, and processes whereby compensation is awarded or improvement is possible;

- The Faculty, acting through its Administration and its Deans and department heads, should actively seek, hire, and retain female faculty, especially senior women faculty;

Great emphasis must be given on women's contribution to the world and national history, but mostly to the "non formal" history, literature, art, politics, as well as the gender role in relation to social class, nationality, race, cultural differences and the gender-based social inequalities. The implementation of such strategies could help the improvement of the female student's position regarding their equal access to the labour market and the society.

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Appendix 3

DELIVERABLE N° 18

RESTRICTED

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HERN Workpackage 6

Higher education institutions in an enlarging European Union: Sites for the construction of citizenship?

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This paper is a background document for the presentation given at the Annual Conference of the Society for Research on Higher Education (SRHE), University of Glasgow, 10-12 December 2002, and subsequently submitted for publication to Studies in Higher Education. N.B.: references have still to be added for purposes of publication.

'You can be from Spain, studying in Paris, perform in Prague, be Muslim and European at the same time, in the same way as you can be from Greece, speak French and follow English rugby. It is important that this diversity is promoted and fully integrated in the shaping of the concept of European citizenship in order to reflect the true picture of Europe today.' (Novacek, 2002: 1)

1. Introduction

This paper is one of the results of activities undertaken during 2002 by the Higher Education Reform Network (HERN) that were concerned with the theme of 'Citizenship and European Union Enlargement: the role of Higher Education'. HERN is a thematic project that was approved within the European Union's 5th Framework Programme with particular reference to higher education in relation to issues of governance and citizenship. The specific theme of 'Citizenship and European Union Enlargement: the role of Higher Education' constituted work package 6 within the HERN thematic project. In the recruitment of partners to the HERN project, priority was given to colleagues from the accession states that will become members of the European Union (EU) in 2004.

Research activities conducted by the present authors, on behalf of the Dutch coordinating partner with responsibility for this work package, commenced with a review of the recent literature in the area of citizenship. This was intended to provide the basis for a discussion paper that was to formulate major issues with regard to the key terms of 'EU enlargement', 'higher education' and 'citizenship'. The discussion paper was subsequently submitted to the partners in the HERN

project who were contracted to contribute to this work package. These included partners from Czechia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, and the United Kingdom. They were requested to submit country reports in response to the discussion paper that would be discussed at a one-day seminar held in Leiden in September 2002. Other partners in the HERN project, Bulgaria, Sweden and the United Kingdom also participated in this seminar. In addition to the country reports from the HERN partners, additional contributions were presented during the seminar by invited experts from The Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Following the seminar in Leiden, the participants contributed to an online electronic forum organised by the Society for Research on Higher Education (SRHE) in the United Kingdom, during a period of three weeks. This provided the basis for the further exchange of ideas and the development of the results of the seminar. On the basis of these diverse activities, this paper has been produced as a report of the results of the proceedings in this HERN work package to date.

The original project submission for this work package described the key tasks in terms of: a) the analysis of the role of higher education and the development of citizenship in the context and EU enlargement; b) the comparison of how higher education in the member and accession countries contributes to the development of citizenship at the European, national and regional and levels; and, c) to contribute an overview of European Union and national policies with reference to the role of higher education in the development of citizenship. On the basis of the review of the literature conducted by the present authors, it was proposed that each of the key terms, 'citizenship', 'European enlargement' and 'higher education', that formed the core of the HERN work package 6, need to be recognised as highly problematic and contested concepts. In the discussion document, the key question for further exploration by the HERN partners was formulated in terms of: how can higher education institutions make a contribution as 'sites for the construction of citizenship' in an enlarging Europe Union? It was proposed that some clarification of these key terms would be required before the HERN project partners could even begin to clarify the contexts in different countries let alone attempt to make any meaningful comparisons of developments that might be relevant to discussion of future policies in the EU, and the member and accession states.

On the basis of the review of the literature on citizenship, the initial discussion paper proposed that meaningful comparisons could only take place on the basis of a distinction between three levels of description and analysis: the European, the national and the sub-national level of the regions. At the *European level*, it was proposed that contributions from the partners should examine in particular questions and issue concerning the creation of employability competencies in European labour markets, and the contribution of mobility programmes in higher education to the creation of cross-border mobility. Contributions at the *national level* should focus upon questions and issues concerning the contribution of higher education institutions to the social inclusion of minorities with particular reference to migrant, ethnic, linguistic, cultural minorities and national minorities in host societies. With reference to the *regional level*, contributions should focus upon questions concerning the contribution of higher education institutions to, on the one hand, forms of co-operation between higher educational institutions and local interest groups in making a contribution to the generation of regional

economic development, and, on the other hand, the contribution of higher education to the vitality of active citizenship in regional and local communities in the form of competencies to participate in civil society. It was proposed to the partners in that we would be looking in particular at all three levels for both evidence of policy initiatives as well as the identification of the characteristics of 'good practices' in the form of case-studies. During the HERN seminar in Leiden, the plenary expert presentations and country reports were discussed in three workshops at each of these three levels. These workshops reported to the final plenary session and they subsequently submitted a written report of their deliberations to the co-ordinating institution. These contributions were used as input to the subsequent electronic forum and also make a contribution to this interim report.

This paper is structured around the description and analysis of citizenship, EU enlargement and higher education at the European, national and regional levels. Each of these three major sections commences with a discussion of recent contributions to the literature on changing concepts of citizenship at these three levels. In each section, attention subsequently turns to the description and analysis of the developments reported in the country studies contributed by the partners to this study. It should be pointed out that the authors of this paper carry the full responsibility for the findings and interpretations.

2. 'European Citizenship': a shifting, contested and fragmented concept

The literature on citizenship has long been characterised by dominant understandings of citizenship as a political and constitutional concept that refers primarily to the reciprocity of the rights and duties of citizens of the nation state. The concept of citizenship as membership of the nation was and still is largely seen as involving 'full membership' of the nation on the basis of equality in terms of all rights, and the reciprocal duties, in different spheres of life in the community. These involved: a) civic rights: such as the freedom from state interference in the management of one's own individual or group affairs; b) political rights: such as the right to vote and to be elected; c) social rights: such as the right as a citizen to education, health care, social insurance and benefits, etc.; and d) cultural rights: such as the right to freedom of thought and religion. While citizenship has been indeed associated - and still is to a large in the current internal political debates in member and accession states of the EU - with the rights and duties of citizens of nation states, the development of the EU as an economic and political entity has introduced the issue of 'post-national citizenship' in such supra-national polities. As Habermas has pointed out, we are witnessing throughout Europe the fragmentation of the notion of the nation state that was operational as the integrative core of modernisation processes since the late eighteenth century. In the Western European context since the Second World War, a significant distinction has emerged between the rights of citizens of nation states and their universal 'human rights' in terms of international agreements. Judgements made by the European Court of Justice have in this respect often granted rights to the individual citizens of member states that they do not enjoy under prevailing national laws. In this regard we again encounter the notion of a post-national membership where individual human rights and the rights of the citizens of a nation state can become divorced. This has led to a breakdown of closed concepts of citizenship

based on nationality in favour of a more universalistic concept based on the 'individuality' of the human being beyond membership of the nation state.

2.1 European citizenship as an unknown quantity

While citizenship may have a long tradition in Europe as a predominantly political and constitutional concept referring to the reciprocity of the rights and duties of the individual, the contemporary processes of globalisation and individualisation no longer imply that citizenship is simply a question of membership of a nation state. This has come to the fore in the EU since article 8 of the Treaty of Maastricht recognised the concept of European citizenship (see full text in appendix) that will also apply to the inhabitants of the accession states as part of the enlargement process. The development of the EU as an economic and political entity has introduced the issue of 'post-national citizenship' in such supra-national polities. In order to avoid the simplistic reduction of the concept of citizenship as meaning citizenship of a nation state, the recent literature has reformulated citizenship in terms of membership of and participation in a 'community'. The use of the term community in order to reconsider citizenship as involving membership of and participation in a community immediately raises three questions:

- the criterion for 'membership' of the community in question, and the issues of inclusion and exclusion ;
- the respective rights and duties of 'members' of a community and the related issue of the (re-) socialisation of the 'other' into membership of the community;
- participation by members in a community raises questions of democracy and the governance of the community.

These questions and issues are central to any consideration of citizenship in the context of European enlargement. The nation state could in this formulation constitute a community, but membership of other forms of community can also be envisaged as a basis of citizenship. For, example is the EU a 'community' in this sense as a supra-national polity? Is it also possible to envisage 'community' at the level of the region, even in the form of a sub-national polity?

We are moving into a new debate about citizenship in an enlarging, and at the same increasingly diverse and multicultural, Europe, and the need to discuss of the conflicting demands upon the rights and duties of membership of a multilevel Europe at the supra-national, national and regional levels. Problematic here is the challenge of the post-national sense of identity to the dominance of conceptions of national citizenship. Whether Habermas is correct or not with his argument that the nation state is in terminal decline, we face the challenge of re-negotiating membership of communities at the European, the nation and the regional levels, and the basis of membership of and socialisation into such 'communities'. This debate tends at the moment to focus on the challenge to the national, and indeed ethnic, conceptions of citizenship that is posed by international migration to Europe. The question becomes one of whether citizenship and nationality can be uncoupled in order to create a new pluralism in the sense of membership of Europe as a 'community of communities'.

It is at the level of the social rights of European citizens, however, that the prevailing situation is contradictory. Article 8 of the Treaty of Maastricht actually formulated European citizenship in terms of citizenship of the nation state. Despite the development of the single European market for capital, services, goods and labour, this means that the social rights of European citizens continue to be defined in terms of their membership of the nation state and that these rights are not automatically transferable in the supra-national context of the EU. This involves a significant restriction on the transferability of social rights within the EU that is one of the major reasons why the mobility of labour within the EU is limited and why European labour markets have failed to develop to any significant degree. It has to be recognised that no more than 4,4% of the population of the EU reside in a member state in which they were not born, and that no more than 1% of them are in employment. This low level of mobility is reflected furthermore in the 0,1% of the EU population who moved to take up employment in another member state in 2000. The restriction on the transferability of social rights within the EU is one of the major reasons why the mobility of labour within the EU is limited. It also partly explains why European labour markets have failed to develop to any significant degree. In response to this, the argument has been put forward that the development of a European citizenship demands the recognition of a post-national membership of the EU that should focus not only on the right to participate in the democratic governance of European institutions – this is at the core of the Maastricht understanding of European citizenship. The alternative is to focus on a non-exclusionary concept of social citizenship in Europe and the recognition of transferable social rights at the European level.

This requires shifting the debate towards the linking of citizenship and social rights entitlements to the European level together with the formulation of concepts of European citizenship predicated upon substantive equality between citizens of the member states. In this regard, citizenship does not need to be generated from a sense of national, ethnic, or regional identity, but should be mediated through arrangements for social citizenship at a European level. Such arrangements would seek to empower individuals both on the grounds of their active participation in the internal labour market, together with the guarantee of their entitlements to equal social rights at the supra-national level of the EU. Given the limited competence of the EU in the sphere of social rights, together with the fear of member states that labour mobility will land their national social and welfare systems with the burdens of 'failed mobility' in the form of paying benefits to 'foreign' nationals – although these are technically European citizens - this is the ground upon which the struggle has to be fought if the EU is to become an effective supra-national community conferring equal rights upon its members. Mobility in Europe must not be punished, but it should be rewarded with the social rights of membership of this community without reference to membership of a national state.

2.2 Social rights and mobility in the European Higher Education Area

It is of some relevance here to discuss the issue of social rights and mobility in terms of the EU's mobility programmes in higher education since 1988. One should not forget that some EU member states, including Germany and the United Kingdom originally opposed the ERASMUS programme as undermining their national sovereignty with regard to higher education. ERASMUS was rescued

when the European Court of Justice argued that higher education was a form of vocational education and thus fell within the competencies of the European Commission. In the course of 2002, the EU has loudly celebrated the achievement of one million students who have participated in the ERASMUS mobility programme since 1988. While this achievement needs to be recognised, this level of student mobility constitutes no more than 1% of all students involved in higher education in the existing member states and has for this reason alone to be considered as too little. If a European Higher Education Area is indeed to be created in the medium to longer term, the EU and the member states need to establish much more ambitious targets for participation in mobility programmes on a broad front. EU awareness of this challenge and the barriers to mobility was set out in December 2000 in the European Council's resolution with regard to a mobility action plan. Key objectives in this action plan include: a) to define and democratise mobility; b) appropriate forms of funding; c) increase mobility and improve conditions; and, d) the development of multi-lingual policies.

A number of factors are central to such an endeavour. One of the objectives of the new architecture for European higher education agreed in the Bologna Declaration is the promotion of greater opportunities for student mobility within the more flexible structures of the European Higher Education Area. As the European University Association pointed out in its response to the EU's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning in 2001, an increasing number of students in Europe need to have access to and the possibilities to acquire of a broader range of generic competencies than those made available by national systems of higher education. While much emphasis has been placed in recent years upon employability as making a contribution to mobility in the European labour market, other competencies have also to be taken into account. The effective long-term labour market mobility of individuals is based above all upon competencies in cross-cultural communication, sensibilities to the diversity of European cultures and in particular the acquisition of foreign languages. This involves more than the promotion of individual employability or the generation of corporate citizenship among graduate employees in multi-national organisations. It is also a question of awakening potential mobile European citizens to issues of European governance and of European citizenship.

At the Salamanca conference of higher education institutions in 2001, it was cogently argued that '*...the primary motivation to construct a European Higher Education Area is so that citizens...can benefit concretely from it and use their qualifications throughout the (European) region and beyond*'. In other words, higher education institutions are important locations where the value of citizenship can be worked upon in a multi-cultural and thus multi-lingual European context. The emphasis here upon multi-linguistic skills and the learning of foreign languages is predicated upon a notion of European citizenship in the form of linguistic citizenship that will stimulate mobility. The core of a European citizenship may lie in an observation by Pierre Bourdieu with regard to linguistic capital, where he states that this is never a question of the grammatical correctness, the truth or the beauty of what is being said alone. It is even more so the capacity to speak in ways that fit the context, to successfully claim the right to speak out in public, and the capacity to make people listen. These urgent questions of the legitimacy of speaking and listening, key issues for a full citizenship we would argue, and of the

context of social inequality are not addressed by the current citizenship policy. This is the core of what one can refer to as the strategic European competency of 'linguistic citizenship'.

In the more specific context of the acquisition of foreign languages, it is vital that EU takes steps to implement its own proposal in the 1995 White Paper that all European citizens should be enabled to acquire the capacity to express themselves in three languages. This has become one of the pillars of EU's more general concern with skills and labour market mobility as evidenced in the final report in 2001 of the high level task force. More specific targets were announced in February 2002 in the EC's Action Plan for Skills and Mobility, such that '*...all pupils to be competent in at least two European languages in addition to their mother tongue*'. The EU now needs to encourage the nation states to implement stronger measures to encourage the learning of foreign languages up to the end of compulsory initial education in order to promote the basic competencies of 'linguistic citizenship' in Europe. The Action Plan for Skills and Mobility proposed, for example, that '*By 2005 the relevant authorities in the Member States should have developed a strategy and timetable for achieving this objective. Identifying the requisite language teaching capacity, and proposing the use of appropriate technologies*'. Each member state could be required, for example, to develop and implement a national language strategy that would have to include targets. This is not only a requirement for the phase of initial education including higher education, but should also be extended to all adults as a significant contribution to post-initial and adult education within the EU's commitment to lifelong learning. One cannot be satisfied with the occasional European Year of Languages as in 2002, this has necessarily to become a decade-long commitment to and major financial investments in the promotion of the learning foreign of languages in Europe. It should not be forgotten that one of the major investments by adults in the area of lifelong learning involves the learning of a foreign language for whatever purposes. The EU invests little in such learning efforts by adult Europeans, and this is a question that demands serious attention in the form of a specific EU-funded programme for language learning by adults. It is unfortunate in this regard that neither the high level task force nor the Action Plan for Skills and Mobility referred to this specific problem and the need for both actions and targets.

Within the existing and potential mobility programmes there are clearly a number of issues that need to be addressed. On the one hand, while the number of students taking part in ERASMUS are rising rapidly in some countries for example in France and Germany, numbers are declining alarmingly for example in The Netherlands and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, there is a marked skew in the direction of flows of students between different EU countries with the majority of them moving from other member states to the United Kingdom. This is a pattern of mobility that needs to be addressed and indeed modified given the expectation that students from accession states will also opt to spend a period at British university. This means that the EU has to undertake measures to ensure that European universities do not loose out financially when they accept a certain level of EU-students and that such levels could be formulated in terms of targets to be achieved. This could be part of an institutional policy on internationalisation that would be made a requirement of all higher education institutions in Europe. Further more, European students, who are regarded as 'home students' for

funding purposes, have increasingly to compete with 'overseas students' coming from non-EU countries such as China and Korea who pay significantly higher fees. Such issues need to be at the heart of the implementation of the new ERASMUS World programme that the EU has designated for the period 2004-2008. This programme is the EU's response to the globalisation of the higher education market and aims to enhance the attractiveness of European higher education not only for European students but from other parts of the world and. Global demand for international higher education is estimated to rise from fewer than 2 million in 2000 to more than 7 million in 2025 as the total number of students world-wide grows from 97 million to more than 260 million. This involves a major shift in the demand by European students compared to the rapidly growing demand from Asia; the European share of the world market for international higher education will drop from 32% in 2000 to 13% in 2025. The EU is also currently considering a directive that is aimed at securing a broader distribution of incoming students from non-EU countries among the member states. Of the 400,000 such students currently attending European higher education institutions more than two-thirds follow courses in France, Germany and the United Kingdom. The new directive will be based on the simplification and harmonisation of visa and residence conditions for non-EU students.

The general case for lifelong learning and the more specific case of higher education immediately raise, however, a number of key issues with regard to the transferability of the social rights and duties of students involved in higher education when they participate as European citizens in EU mobility programmes. Such social rights pertain to their respective rights to make claims upon the national systems for student financial support in the form of grants and loans for the purposes of study abroad. These systems are highly diverse in the higher education systems of the existing EU member states, and there are in particular very significant differences in the levels of public financial support for students. Even within one member state, the United Kingdom, there are substantial differences between students in England and Scotland with regard to their rights to grants and their duties to pay tuition fees. While in other countries, such as Germany, no tuition fees are paid by students but there is very limited financial support in the form of grants, there are other countries, such as The Netherlands, where students do pay tuition fees but there is a universal system of grants and loans. There can be little doubt that such inequalities exert an influence upon potential mobility, while the tightening of regulations on the duration of higher education courses has had a negative effect on actual mobility in The Netherlands and the United Kingdom in the recent past. Throughout the EU member states there are also significant differences in the social rights of full-time and part-time students to financial support, that is when such a distinction in modalities of participation is recognised. While in The Netherlands, for example, the status of part-time students is legally recognised they have no rights to financial support, there is no legal status as part-time students in Germany and many other member states. In the United Kingdom, part-time students are legally recognised and may make claims upon financial support up to the age of 55, but part-time students in The Netherlands may make no claims upon financial support after the age of 30 and have to pay higher tuition fees over the age of 30. Not only are there very significant differences in levels of such financial support in existing member states, but highly significant new financial inequalities will confront students from

the accession states in the short and medium terms that will seriously inhibit their opportunities to participate in mobility programmes. Such differences in social rights and duties need to be urgently addressed and in particular in terms of EU enlargement.

In the context of promoting higher levels of mobility within the European Higher Education Area, the above issues direct attention to the European Court of Justice that has over the years arrived at a number of significant judgements that have favoured the recognition of the European social rights of citizens as opposed to national citizen social rights to public financial support in order to be mobile in higher education. Such decisions entail that: a) nationals of an EU member state have the right to use the public student financial support system of that state - in the form of grants and loans - when they attend higher education in another member state of the EU; b) nationals of a member state (e.g. Italy) resident in another member state (e.g. The Netherlands) have the right to use the public student financial support system of the country of residence (e.g. The Netherlands) when they study in their own (e.g. Italy) or a another member state (e.g. Sweden); and c) nationals of a member state have the right to use their entitlements to public student financial support systems in order to purchase higher education from a commercial provider of higher education based in one of the member states of the EU. The latter argument also calls for some clarification of accreditation procedures for example, when an Italian citizen finds that his acquisition of a degree from the Open University in the United Kingdom is not recognised for the purposes of graduate study at a public university in Italy on the grounds that the Open University is regarded in Italy as a commercial provider. While this can be regarded as a specific problem for mature students who acquire international qualifications via distance learning, part-time study and non-standard entry routes to either initial or post-initial higher education, this is a more general problem given that most European higher education systems do not recognise qualifications acquired through part-time study. Rights and duties in terms of financial support are thus also related to the need for a European-wide system of transparent accreditation of full-time and part-time modalities.

This question of public and private provision of higher education, together with the rights and duties of full-time and part-time students, becomes even more pertinent within the context of the arrangements agreed to within the Bologna Declaration that aims to promote increased flexibility between the Bachelor and Master phases of higher education in the European Higher Education Area. Above all, the distinction between the Bachelor as the initial phase of higher education and the Master as the post-initial phase of higher education is now contributing to fundamental problems in many countries including those of the financial rights and duties of students given this new distinction between two phases of higher education. Debates about this renewed structure and its financial consequences are interpreted in a very different ways in the EU member and accession states. This has above all major implications for the financial rights and duties of students in the post-Bologna arrangements at the national level. It is clear that a number of national governments, for example The Netherlands, are seriously considering Bologna as an opportunity to revise the system of student financial support that could have significant financial implications for potential student mobility in both the Bachelor and Master phases. One long-term consequence could be that the

initial Bachelor phase is recognised for the purposes of public systems of financial support for students, but that the post-initial Master phase will become a question of self-financed study without the universal right to systems of grants and loans.

These are some examples of the substantive problems concerned with the political economy of the social rights of European citizens and its impact upon mobility in European higher education that need to be addressed in both the existing and accession member states of the EU as part of the determination of the rights of European citizens to pursue higher education and the potential for realising a 'European Higher Education Area'.

3. EU enlargement: the enigma of 'national' citizenship?

The geographical area within which the process of EU expansion is currently played out is characterised by three fundamental ongoing historical transformations that impact upon the complex dynamics of European citizenship and questions of national identity.

The 'great transformation' of European enlargement and national identity

The first of these transformations stems from the collapse of the Soviet Union, the rapid demise of state socialism in the ex-Soviet sphere of Europe, and the new experience of national independence in the countries of the Baltic, Central and Eastern Europe, and the Balkans. After ten years of painful and as yet uncompleted processes of transformation towards liberal democracies and market economies, many of these countries are now negotiating their membership of the EU as accession states. These modernisation processes have thrown questions of citizenship and identity into sharp relief in many of these countries and in often very different ways. In the accession states, there are clear manifestations of the fear that the EU will replace the Soviet stranglehold and will threaten the rejuvenation of independence and national identity since 1989. This raises the complex issue of EU versus national citizenship and identity and the possibility of a post-national form of citizenship and identity. Perhaps more fundamental issues of citizenship and identity in these countries are associated with the emergence of conflicts associated with struggles for the rights of quite significant ethnic, cultural, linguistic and national minorities etc. This gives rise to complex issues of citizenship and identities in what are in effect post-communist multicultural societies with often very different problems relating to social cohesion, inclusion and exclusion.

The second major transformation is the process of economic and political integration of the existing member states of the EU. Among important issues here is the tense relationships between notions of EU citizenship – as agreed in article 8 of the Maastricht Treaty – and national citizenship and identity. There are four key questions with regard to citizenship and identity in the supra-national context of the EU. One involves the issue of multiple identities in a supra-national polity such as the EU and the notion of post-national citizenship. The second is a question of the citizenship rights associated with the single market context of the EU as discussed previously, and in particular whether the social rights of individuals can be transferred from the national to the European level in order to promote mobility. Thirdly, there is the question of the so-called democratic deficit in the institutions of

the EU and the problematic transfer to the level of the EU of the democratic processes associated with the liberal democracies of modern European nation states. Fourthly, there has been a significant trend towards regionalism in many member states of the EU and the rejuvenation of sub-national identities. The rise of regionalism in Europe – including both strong claims for actual secession from the nation state – as in with the Basques and in Northern Ireland - together with milder forms of claims for political or cultural autonomy, has undermined the consensus about citizenship and identity based on the nation state. In the United Kingdom for example, constitutional reform towards decentralisation has resulted in the creation of sub-national polities in the form of the Scottish, Welsh and Northern Irish parliaments that occasionally pursue policies within their powers that significantly diverge from those of the United Kingdom parliament in London. In the case of linguistic minorities, it should not be forgotten that the EU has a quite significant programme for both the recognition and financial support for minority languages that is also cross-border in its ramifications – an example would be the common languages which are used on an everyday basis by the habitants of the north of The Netherlands, northern Germany and south-western Denmark.

The third major transformation on the European stage involves the encounter with the consequences of global migration, including the results of de-colonisation, and the emergence of EU member states as multicultural societies with often quite significant diaspora of immigrant populations from in particular Africa and Asia. On the one hand, this involves, the migration to Europe of large numbers of people – whether as ex-colonials, economic migrants and political refugees - from third countries that are neither member states of the European Union nor the accession states. On the other hand, there are is the not insignificant potential of migrant flows between the European countries. Migration from East to West in an enlarged EU has become an issue in current negotiations about enlargement including the imposition of restrictions on the free movement of ‘new Europeans’ in the accession countries for periods up to ten years following their membership of the EU. This demands the recognition that an enlarging Europe is also a multicultural Europe embracing not only the cultural diversity of Europe itself, but also sources of cultural diversity from outside of Europe.

Taking these three major transformations together, it can be argued that at a time when the EU strives to impose its new-found supranational institutions on the future history of so many nations, Europe discovers its own deep seams of pluralism and differences. This is manifested in the very complex process where notions of nationhood are reconstructed, sub-national identities from past history are reborn, and ‘the other from elsewhere’ must be accommodated in some manner if social cohesion is to be achieved. This gives rise to some very complicated linkages between questions of citizenship and identity at the European, national and regional levels. In his contribution to this project, Field has suggested that: *‘There is a high risk that the enlargement process will drive a wedge between first class and second class citizens. As we have already seen from the popular response to Nice, those who are already EU members do not wish to share the benefits of membership with the applicant countries. The most remarkable example is of course the outcome of the (first) referendum (on enlargement) in Ireland. Citizens in a country which as a consequence of membership has experienced one of the developed world’s highest rates of*

economic growth were unenthusiastic about the prospect of offering the same opportunities to the citizens of countries which had just emerged from fifty years of occupation and dictatorship'.

A similar lack of enthusiasm can also be seen in some of the very disparate populist political movements elsewhere in Europe that have little in common except their fear of 'the other' and their supposed threat to national identity. Slightly different considerations apply to the European political class, and these of course are going to reach the final decisions on who is able to join and under precisely what circumstances. Changes in the political colour of governments will exert their influence as witnessed by the belated recent discussion in The Netherlands about the need for a referendum. Those circumstances are bound to ring fence some of the benefits of membership to existing EU members, and set limits to the rights and entitlements of citizens in the accession states. We will accordingly develop a two tier Europe, with first class and second class citizens. More accurately, one might say that we will acquire three tiers of citizenship. Under the current Treaties, citizens of larger nations count less than citizens of smaller nations. German citizens count least of all: they are represented in the European Council by ten votes, which comes to one vote for every eight million Germans. The citizens of Luxembourg (two votes, population under half a million) count most, with one vote for every 200,000 inhabitants. In the European Parliament, it takes over 800,000 Germans to elect an MEP, but only 73,000 Luxemburgers. This is a clear disadvantage to Scotland, whose inhabitants obviously deserve the same four votes as the Swedes, rather than making do, as at present, with a minority say within the ten votes allotted to the UK. Or perhaps it is four tiers, as there will be further increases in the numbers of non-citizens who live within the borders of the Union. This includes linguistic and other minorities who are excluded from the rights of citizenship in their own country, such as the Turkish minority in Germany, and Russian speakers in certain Baltic states. Enlargement will further complicate the position of asylum seekers and refugees from non-EU states.

Recent contributions by international organisations such as the World Bank, OECD and UNESCO, have suggested that the immigration is a necessity for economic survival in Europe given the low birth-rates and the ageing of the population in most European societies. What role can higher education play in the face of such an expected expansion of cultural diversity in Europe?

3.2 Managing diversity: a role for higher education?

An enlarging Europe Union is not merely a question of the economic and political integration of the existing European nation states and the accession states. It is also a cultural transformation that confronts the multicultural societies of Europe with the problem of the integration of often significant populations of new migrants and minorities. We encounter at national level quite significant issues of social inclusion and exclusion as part of the struggle to maintain social cohesion. Problematic responses to the multicultural nature of European societies in many countries is currently manifested in the significant political shift to the right, and the reworking of national identity and citizenship by populist political movements. There is a trend, if voting patterns in recent elections in many European countries are indicative of public opinion, of a shift towards the resurgence of the notion of membership of the nation as the basis for determining who is a citizen with the

rights and duties of the citizen. This strengthening of nationhood, national identity, and national citizenship gives rise to a sharpening of the criteria of membership of the nation, that in turn contributes to issues of inclusion and exclusion. The social reality of cultural pluralism in multicultural societies in Europe is now questioned as posing a threat to the national identity. Populist right-wing politicians throughout Europe are currently redefining the criteria of 'full' membership of the nation that resort to the quasi-natural features of historical national communities whose shared values and norms are threatened by the presence of 'the other'. From the viewpoint of any discussion of citizenship, such major transformations in most EU member states towards multicultural populations raises a number of fundamental issues concerning the respective rights and duties of different groups among the inhabitants of the member states. One result of this is a trend towards the 'enforced' initiation of 'the other' in the host 'nation' in the form of, for example, current proposals for the compulsory 'citizenship courses' for both 'new' and 'old' immigrants in The Netherlands; proposals that immigrants should speak the language of the host nation at home as in the United Kingdom; and command of the language of the host nation as a criterion of citizenship as in Latvia. As the country report in this study suggests such proposals offer a *'...good possibility for populist political parties to express radical standpoints on these issues before each elections in order to attract more broad electorate. This also disturbs development of friendly, sustainable environment in favour of naturalisation'*. This raises the question as to role of higher education as an appropriate social arena for the development of policies to integrate minorities and the construction of citizenship. It needs to be immediately pointed out, however, that such questions take on very different forms across the member and accession states. Policy documents from the EU and member states speak in often generous terms of the need to open up higher education to students from the minorities in order to promote integration and social cohesion. How this is to be achieved is quite a different issue and member states take quite different positions on the most appropriate strategies to establish trajectories for minorities in higher education.

On the one hand, the United Kingdom, for example, has placed significant emphasis upon the creation of 'short trajectories' that enable younger people without the appropriate entry qualifications for higher education to secure entry through alternative routes. One of this routes has taken the form of so-called 'access courses', and this has led to the development of a European-wide but British-led access network. Other strategies adopted in the United Kingdom include the 'post code' approach which is based upon additional – albeit marginal - funding for universities that are successful in recruiting students from post code areas that are identified as 'disadvantaged'. In this regard, targets have been set for each university and their performance in terms of their achievement of these targets is recorded in league tables that are published annually. It is now proposed in the recent policy document *Partnerships for Progression* to introduce an additional system of funding based upon the setting of recruitment targets on a regional basis as part of the widening-participation strategy.

On the other hand, most EU member states still continue to regard the possession of the appropriate entry qualifications to higher education as the norm for all population groups including members of the minorities. Such 'longer trajectories' involve greater degree of emphasis in educational policies upon the

successful participation in secondary education and the acquisition of the qualifications that are required in order to enter higher education. Another strategy, as in The Netherlands, is the promotion of the progression of minorities through secondary vocational education to higher professional education, after which university entrance becomes a possibility. One of the results of such policies is a relatively slow increase in participation in higher education by minority groups. In The Netherlands, for example, 6,6% of minorities enter university education, while 8,3% of them gain access to higher professional education. This means that 14,9% of minority gain access to higher education compared to 54% of the same cohort of the indigenous population. Such a policy also leads, however, to higher drop out-rates among students from the minorities with 25% dropping out before third year as against 17% for indigenous students.

In his contribution to this study, Glastra directs attention to the alternative strategies adopted by the minorities themselves in The Netherlands irrespective of the government's policies to promote their participation in higher education. He argues that one can easily over accentuate the significance of higher education institutions in improving the life chances of minorities. While women comprise no more than 5% of professors in Dutch universities, he points to the reality that Dutch universities are, in terms of their staff, a white male middle class stronghold with only 8 full professors from ethnic minority backgrounds, that is less than 1% of the total number of professors at Dutch universities. Like so many of the disadvantaged in Dutch society, members of minority groups in The Netherlands are learning to make their own inroads to citizenship. Glastra suggests that many newcomers turn away from the state and public institutions as employers and construct their survival strategies and a future in the commercial sector. He reports that: *'In my seminars for post graduate students of higher professional education in the field of cultural diversity, I meet many young, eager and well-organised members of ethnic minority groups. They will surely create their own multiple forms and practices of citizenship, with or without the help of the government or that of higher education institutions'*. Glastra refers to the rapid increase in minority student associations (2000: 31 2002: 81) that perform coaching, mentoring and advocacy functions for their ethnic communities in networks of highly educated minorities. He reports that they perform valuable informal educational and labour market functions through the use and development of their social and cultural capital independent of government endeavours. Of great importance here are the forces associated with the influences of globalisation, particularly in the economic sphere where nation states are no longer entirely in control of their own educational destinies in the current neo-liberal world order of deregulated capitalism. Arenas of political action must necessarily adjust to this new reality given the emergence of global deregulated markets and self-regulating social and cultural networks that are no longer governed by the nation state in the first instance. As Glastra remarks in his contribution to this study: *'Rather than taking a formal look at citizenship as membership status with rights and duties conferred upon the individual by the state, I would like to stress the opposite: citizenship might fruitfully be understood as the ways in which individuals and groups actively construct their membership claims and realise their actual membership of communities at different levels'*.

The case of the accession states adds additional complications in that the problems associated with minorities are quite different. In her contribution to this project, Jakobson deals with the complex situation with regard to minorities in Latvia, and in particular the enigmatic status of large numbers of 'non-citizens' in this accession member state. She starts by pointing out that the inhabitants of Latvia were suddenly confronted with citizenship issues following the re-establishment of the independent state of Latvia in 1991. At that moment there was a urgent need to determine the total number of Latvian citizens who would have the right to participate in elections for the new Latvian Parliament (the *Saeima*) in the first free elections. A Law on Citizenship was adopted that defined citizenship on the basis of whether individuals or their parents had been citizens of the original republic of Latvia before 17th June, 1940, when the USSR occupied Latvia. This meant that some 700,000 of 2,336,818 inhabitants were declared to 'non-citizens'. As a result of this a significant part of the inhabitants of Latvia are estranged from the rights and duties associated with Latvian citizenship. Since 1995, a naturalisation procedure for non-citizens has started and as a result the total number of non-citizens has decreased from 700 000 to about 514 000 (Board for Citizenship and Migration Affairs - July 1, 2002). These naturalised Latvians are now known as the 'new citizens'. But it is obvious, that the speed of naturalisation will continue to be rather slow, and at the moment of Latvia joining the EU, there will be a significant number of non-citizens. On the one hand, higher education is not regarded in Latvia as the appropriate arena for the integration of the non-citizens due to their comparatively low levels of education and lack of command of the Latvian language. On the other hand, it is significant that 40% of the new citizens from the minorities have acquired command of the Latvian language, while 40% of them have had a university education compared to 15% of the total Latvian population.

In comparison with its neighbour Latvia, Lithuania is described by Tereseviciene as a relatively homogeneous society. According to the last census of spring 2001, about 82% of the inhabitants are Lithuanians, 9% are Poles, while 7% are Russians and 2% are of other nationalities (Valstybės _inios/State News, 2002). According to article 30 of The Law on Education of the Republic of Lithuania in 2001, every citizen of the Republic of Lithuania has the right to study in Lithuanian or in one's national language, if the educational institution according to its regulations is obliged to provide studies in national languages. A relatively small number of students make use of this right to study in languages of the national minorities. The number of students studying in their national languages is actually decreasing and explains this fact in terms of the widespread understanding that the education provided in the national language is of higher quality. She also refers to the increase in instruction in English, German and French but points out that this is not a result of increasing numbers of students from EU member states: *'Most of the students adopt English, French or German languages as their studies languages for the sake of convenience. At present students from 42 countries of the world are studying in Lithuanian HE institutions. Major part of them come from Lebanon – 151 (or 22 % of all foreigners), from China – 55 (of 8%), Pakistan – 59 (9%), Poland – 36 (6%), Byelorussia – 67 (10%)'*.

In his presentation on Czechia, Novacek voices a positive view on the multi-cultural society when he argues that: *'Immigrants bring in cultural diversity and help to*

defeat racism and racist opinions', but he goes on to argue that, '*Cultural diversity is fine, but European citizens also need to be integrated. As the most racist areas in the EU are those with the most ethnic minorities, perhaps we need some time to allow people to become better neighbours and break down barriers of misunderstanding*'. It is significant on this point that he voices an argument that is also shared by the Latvian, Lithuanian and Polish contributions to effect that an important aspect of citizenship in the context of higher education is that students should be involved in the democratic management of their institutions in order to acquire the competencies of active citizenship. His own specific contribution, however, is his emphatic perspective on the understanding of multi-cultural society as an in essence cosmopolitan society that is based upon the pluralism derived from the generation of pluralistic linguistic capital. This is an interesting development of the notion that the institutions of higher education should necessarily be cosmopolitan communities that are sites of cultural and intellectual diversity. This could be considered, on the one hand, as an argument for the restoration of the ideal of the university as a meeting place of a cosmopolitan community of teachers and students from all over Europe who shared Latin as the common language of the Renaissance. On the other hand, it can also be regarded as an antidote to arguments that higher education is primarily a vehicle for employability and that English is the necessary global lingua franca of this endeavour. Novacek's vision of a modern European university is based upon the assumption that cosmopolitan communication in higher education is no longer national, but is European, international and indeed global but at the same time multi-lingual. He suggests implicitly that the current emphasis upon the acquisition of the national language by the minorities as the means to their integration in different European member states is to name the wrong problem. Active participation in daily life may require a common language, but active participation in the European Union as an community characterised by cultural diversity must necessarily encourage diversity on the grounds that demands a shared and negotiated acceptance of difference and the celebration of diversity. We encounter here what might be called a perspective on 'cosmopolitan linguistic capital' rather than the dominant assumption of the acquisition of 'national linguistic capital'.

In conclusion, we make reference here to some examples of policy-relevant questions and issues in the area of the endeavours of nation states to cope with the presence of minorities in the EU member and accession states. This is an issue that is constituted quite differently in the member and accession states that have significantly different histories in terms of collective memories of dominance and subordination in the form of: metropolitan centres and peripheries; supremacy and subjection; independence and dependence; empire and post-colonial diaspora. Such differences must be recognised as actively constituting the national agenda's in responding to minorities. Such historical relationships are reworked in their various responses to 'the other', and they must be necessarily rethought and reworked in the present and near to medium future of the European Union as a multi-cultural European higher education area. In the context of future policy formulation for higher education, it is appropriate to call for further empirical research on questions as to whether policies are in place at the level of the EU, the member and accession states that address the following issues of social inclusion and exclusion with regard to minorities;

- how are minorities defined in the different EU member and accession states, and which are the historical grounds for such definitions?;
- how are these specific minority groups to be understood and explained in terms of the socio-historical development of the respective member and accession states?;
- which specific minority groups and priorities are designated with regard to access to higher education?; (n.b. excluded from consideration here are questions of gender equality and the physical and mentally handicapped that are involved in other HERN work-packages devoted to these specific issues);
- how is specific attention devoted to ethnic, cultural and linguistic minorities, etc., in terms of their access to higher education?;
- which specific policy instruments have been put in place to enhance the use made of higher education institutions by such minority communities?

4. Higher education and citizenship in lifelong learning regions?

The tasks of European higher education institutions have become increasingly important, complex and extensive. They are expected, on the one hand, to contribute to economic growth and prosperity, and, on the other hand, to work on social inclusion and the achievement of social cohesion. Consideration of higher education's potential contribution to the promotion of lifelong learning in the learning society has recently become an important new point of the educational policy agenda throughout the EU following the EC's *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning*, the national responses, and the subsequent communication from the EC *Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality*. While the early discourse on lifelong learning in the EU was dominated by issues related to global competition and economic convergence, it has now been broadened with a second major strand concerned with the questions of governance and citizenship. These economic and social objectives in the current debate about lifelong learning both impact in significant ways upon the emerging discussion of higher education institutions as centres for lifelong learning. Beyond the concerns with competencies associated with employability, the discourse has developed a new concern with the competencies required by active citizenship. In EU and national policy documents increasing emphasis is given to the need to deliver lifelong learning through flexible and differentiated trajectories that can bring higher education closer to a more diverse groups of non-traditional learners. There is a recognition here that lifelong learning can be best delivered through partnerships that build upon the often solid experience of higher education institutions in regional economic development with a variety of stakeholders. At the same time they often have strong traditions of relationships with organisations in civil society among regional and local communities. As the EUA argues, '*Upon this basis, they participate in or even house broadly based centres of lifelong learning meeting the needs of different learners*'. Higher education institutions have to deliver a key contribution to the process of defining the competencies that are required. In the following we shall explore the employability and citizenship dimensions of lifelong learning at the sub-national or regional level.

4.1 Higher education and regional economic development

Globalisation of the economy and the development of ICTs are creating global, national and local learning environments that prompts rethinking about how citizens are educated and trained. The structures of higher education throughout the EU and national systems of higher education find themselves increasingly challenged on many fronts with the need to make a significant contribution to the transition towards knowledge economies that can compete in global and European markets. Such issues were specifically recognised by the EU in the Lisbon agreement that placed lifelong learning on the European agenda as a vital force in creating knowledge societies and determined that to this end 3% of the gross national product should be invested in higher education. There is an undeniable trend in higher education throughout Europe towards an emphasis upon enhancing the employability of graduates who will be able to find a place in the regional, national and European labour markets. Public investment, and indeed their own private investment, in higher education, are increasingly regarded in terms of their contribution to broad-based competencies, the self-management their careers, and maintenance of their employability through lifelong learning. National systems of financial support for students in the form of grant/loan systems are now being reconsidered in some countries in terms of the future income returns that students enjoy in later life. There powerful arguments here for higher education institutions to take a central role in lifelong learning at the regional level given that they are close to the labour market and the employers.

We need immediately to note two developments in this context of the economic importance of higher education in the global knowledge economy. On the one hand, individual students in higher education are encouraged to work on the development of their employability in the interests of the competitiveness of national economies in a form of 'economic citizenship' in the stakeholder society. On the other hand, there is a growing interest on the part of larger and especially multinational business concerns in the development of 'corporate citizenship' among potential recruits among higher education students. How are we to understand such programmes for 'corporate citizenship' in terms of the reciprocal rights and duties associated with membership of diverse and sometimes conflicting communities at the national and regional levels? How far does this radically differ in the global economy from the traditional role of higher education in the socialisation of members of the ecclesiastical, bureaucratic, technocratic and professional élites so well known to the administrative needs of the nation state? The key here is the recognition of the special skills that are needed when both citizens and employees wish to become more mobile. Young people are on the whole are becoming much more aware of the competencies they require in order to become mobile and that studying or working abroad for even a short period can be an effective way of preparing themselves for mobility. The mobile citizenship in particular requires social and cultural competencies such as acquiring foreign languages and intercultural communication. Within the context of lifelong learning this has not to be a part of initial higher education but also integrated into post-initial provision for those in employment. This is an area in which higher education institutions need to renew their long-standing expertise in, for example, the continuing professional development sector, where they face increasing competition from other increasingly commercial providers. Another area of

attention involves the role of traditional higher education institutions in the development of corporate universities, where companies are looking for more targeted tailor-made learning at global, national and regional levels. In some EU member states there is clear recognition that different kinds of higher education institutions are regarded as having distinctive missions. On the one hand, in The Netherlands, for example, government policy regards the universities as having a metropolitan commitment to contribute to the development of global and national knowledge networks, while the responsibility for the development of regional knowledge networks is seen as a task for the institutions of higher professional education and regional education centres for secondary vocational and adult education. On the other hand, all higher education institutions in the United Kingdom, including the leading research-based universities, are regarded as having responsibilities for making a contribution to regional economic development. In Denmark and Sweden, a number of new universities have been established that have been specifically designed to serve the needs of their regions. There is more over a very urgent need in all EU member and accession states to direct much more attention to the potential role of higher education in the EU's Euro-region programme for cross-border regional co-operation.

In the process of transformation to knowledge economies, institutions of higher education are now being called upon to make a more deliberate contribution to economic and social development at the national and more particularly at the regional level. EU and national policies increasingly regard institutions for higher education as stake-holders in society that should co-operate with other stakeholders in regional economic infrastructures such as regional, provincial and local authorities, public institutions, development agencies, large companies together with small- and medium-sized firms, employers organisations and trade unions. Institutions of higher education are expected to develop policies for developing their strategic partnerships with such groups with the aim of establishing regional 'knowledge infrastructures'. Within such strategic partnerships, higher education institutions are expected to make their generation of knowledge and their provision of educational programmes more accessible and responsive to regional needs. Such developments position higher education institutions as important stakeholders in the regional economic community and tend to emphasise their contribution to the promotion of the 'economic citizenship' and in co-operation with the spirit of 'corporate citizenship' among both public authorities and business at the regional level.

There is increasing recognition of the very direct contribution of higher education institutions to the regional economies. Higher education institutions make very real contributions to their regional and local economies in that they create employment for a wide variety of categories of personnel who earn their living by working for a higher education institution or benefit indirectly from the presence of such an institution. This is an aspect of the broader economy of higher education that is significantly absent in the contributions to this project but which has significant implications for the regional and local population. Institutions of higher education create jobs and incomes not only for the academic staff. They also demand support staff in the form of administrators, secretaries, accountants and financial staff, audio-visual services, ICT-support staff, restaurant and kitchen staff, porters, and cleaners. When institutions of higher education also manage conference

centres, residential accommodation, science parks, etc., they may make an additional contribution to the local economy that is of great significance. Estimates from the United Kingdom, for example, suggest that higher education institutions generate no less than 3% of all jobs and an equivalent contribution to the Gross National Product. This manifests an important injection into regional and local economies and the creation of employment opportunities. When the spin-off from co-operation with local industry and the establishment of university-based companies is added to this balance, the contribution of higher education institutions to regional and local economies is significant. An additional factor is the money spent by university staff and students on all kinds of local services. Throughout Europe, the establishment of higher education institutions seems to be recognised as making a vital contribution to local economies in terms of the creation of jobs for the local population.

Developments in almost all ex-communist countries since the early 1990s have been quite different. Within the university sector the emphasis has been placed upon the issue of ensuring the quality of educational provision in initial higher education. The contributions from accession states to this study have expressed this priority quite explicitly in terms of the re-establishment of universities in the transformation process since 1989. In his recent book with regard to this problem, *Universities after Communism* (2002), Dahrendorf points to a number of examples of successful transformation and indeed indigenously-generated models of reform that should be adopted elsewhere in the accession states. But he is very critical, however, of the slow speed of change that characterises the transformation of universities in the ex-state socialist countries. The reasons for such negative responses are explained by Dahrendorf in terms of political interventions and limited institutional independence; low levels of funding that impoverish both institutions, staff and students; traditional infrastructures and weak institutional leadership; a brain-drain among the younger generation and too many older members of staff; together with rigid curricula and outdated teaching methods. In his contribution to this debate, '*Universities are key in move to capitalist core*', Kozminski has argued that this is the result of a crisis in the forms of public funding of higher education in the post-communist states which have not as yet discovered the importance of higher education institutions for the knowledge economies of the future. He argues that the accession countries have to move from the state-funding of higher education institutions to the funding of students through vouchers. This is a position, however, that is characteristic of many international programmes that have sought to impose EU realities upon the very different situations of higher education in the accession states.

Higher education institutions in the EU need to develop a greater degree of awareness of their potential contribution to regional economic development. There are indeed quite significant differences between the both the EU member and the accession states in terms of the degree to which higher education institutions are involved in the promotion of regional economic development and well-being. This also applies to the significant variations in national policies on higher education in this regard. With reference to the differences between the EU member and accession states, it is above all necessary to recognise that the process of transformation to democratic forms of government and the development of market

economies has played and continues to play a significant role in the changes that have taken place since the early 1990s.

4.2 Higher education and civil society in the regions

Despite the current emphasis on the role of higher education institutions in regional economic development, however, such institutions often have (had) a tradition of providing support for other organisations and groups in the political, social and cultural dimensions of life in their regions. Contributions by higher education institutions to these diffuse spheres of life have often been important in working with and providing supporting for organisations and groups involved in the development or revival of civil society at the regional level. This is relevant to the current debate about 'active citizenship' that has been stimulated by recent contributions to theories of civil society, communitarianism, social economy, and associative democracy. Such theories point to the central role of voluntary associations, non-government, and non-profit organisations in the development of the competencies associated with active citizenship. They argue that such competencies cannot be acquired by individuals through their participation in the economic market-place or the political institutions of nation state. Instead they propose that the civic virtues of solidarity and mutual obligation are best learned in voluntary associations such as: families, neighbourhood associations, charities, churches, trade unions, co-operatives, environmental groups and mutual support groups, etc.

In the context of the discussions about higher education and citizenship, the forms of engagement by higher education institutions in the development of civil society in their regions has become an important issue. As the EUA report remarks, '*From this vantage point, the lifelong learning movement can be a political response to a wide range of questions*'. In defining the competencies to be acquired through lifelong learning it is important that skills are perceived to be for citizenship and the regional community as much as for employability and the regional labour market. The involvement of learners in lifelong learning should not be approached only in terms of the acquisition of employability competencies and being economically productive. Higher education institutions can be places where the value of citizenship and participation can be stressed. Most importantly, citizenship and learning are not solely the responsibility of individuals. This requires not only an approach to individual learners since the competencies associated with active citizenship are developed in interaction with other citizens. As the EUA report argues '*The citizen and the learner are part of a community and the collective benefits of both citizenship and learning should be stressed....*'. As referred to in the EC's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, this will lead to greater emphasis on the importance of civic and community learning, more scope for non-accredited programmes and the significance attached to the collective benefits of learning. This involves building bridges between formal and non-formal learning environments in order to dismantle institutional barriers and involve a broader range of providers of lifelong learning including community groups and non-governmental organisations.

This can be important in efforts to achieve Key Message 6 in the EC Memorandum that seeks to provide lifelong learning as close to learners as possible. In the EUA response to the Memorandum, it is argued that '*Citizens need learning close to*

them in at least two senses: close to them in the sense of “attainable” and close to them in the sense of “relevant”; people should be able to see how learning can improve their lives and the “citizenship”, and have access to learning’. This means that higher education institutions will need to be at the forefront of in this attempt to provide learning opportunities closer to learners in their communities, working with other agencies in the community to develop outreach and access pathways, and developing systems for accreditation of prior learning. This is to emphasise the importance of partnerships in the delivery of lifelong learning and the development of a learning society. With the EU context this means that it is necessary to strategically build upon the initiatives taken by different kinds of higher education institutions and their experiences with building partnerships for regional social development and social inclusion. This will demand significant investment by the institutions in the building of strategic partnerships with community groups, voluntary associations, trade unions, social movements and adult education providers.

Of particular importance in this regard is the growing interest throughout the EU and the member states in initiatives to develop regional networks in the form of learning cities and learning regions. In 2002, the EC called for proposals for European networks to promote the local and regional dimension of lifelong learning in its R3L initiative. This initiative is driven by the commitment to developing lifelong learning close to learners in the social, geographical and economic environments in which Europe’s citizens live. As such the R3L initiative is a pilot scheme and a first step by the EC ‘*to support through its programmes the establishment of networks between those regions and cities with well-developed lifelong learning strategies, to facilitate the exchange of experience and good practice’.* The call for proposals defines a learning region in a broad generic sense referring to a region, city, urban or rural area, regardless of whether its identity is defined in administrative, cultural, geographical, physical or political terms. It argues that ‘*The learning region must, however, have sufficient size to encompass and mobilise the key players for the purpose of developing lifelong learning as an important factor in promoting regional and local development, social cohesion and the fulfilment of personal potential and aspirations of its citizens’.* Potential key players are described as: a) local and regional authorities responsible for any aspect of learning; b) general and vocational education and training providers, with specific reference to higher education institutions; and, c) other organisations providing or contributing to learning opportunities of a formal, non-formal or informal nature. The call for proposals also sets out a set of themes that characterise the work of learning regions. In addition to the development of strategies for building regional networks for lifelong learning, these themes involve: a) active citizenship in the region; b) promotion of economic growth; c) social inclusion in the region; d) promoting the multi-cultural region; e) ICT and modern media in the learning region; f) funding lifelong learning in the region; g) support services for lifelong learning; h) measuring the performance and ensuring the quality of the learning region; and, i) promoting the European and international dimension of the learning region. The contributions of higher education institutions to the delivery of lifelong learning through the development of learning regions demands rigorous and detailed monitoring. To this end the EC should establish an European-wide observatory project devoted to the relationships between higher

education institutions and their regional communities. Both member states and accession states must be included in such an observatory project.

In his contribution to this study, for example, Marek has pointed to an optimistic view on the changing perceptions in Polish higher education about the regional role of higher education in the process of social transformation. On the one hand, he points to the priority given from the mid-1990s to '*....a series of TEMPUS institution-building projects responding to local democratic needs in the context of European enlargement*'. Examples of such projects included: training centres for local community leaders; regional centres for European integration; European expertise for educators and local officials; ecological training for municipal civil servants. He argues that, '*It was a good occasion to involve Polish higher education institutions in regional policy and at the same time to engage them in the pre-accession process*'. On the eve of membership of the EU he refers to the fact that in 2001-2002 regional strategy documents have been developed by Polish local authorities. In these documents the role of higher educational institutions was also been defined. In September 2002 Polish universities were encouraged to submit proposals within an operational program for regional development. Social inclusion, and equal opportunities were among the strategic objectives of local development. Marek argues that participation by the Polish higher education sector in regional development is now encouraged by both the appropriate national authorities and by local self-government in the programme for regional development. He suggests that co-operation with external stakeholders has become a key element of the institutional strategies of universities in Poland. He concludes that universities should play three roles in the region: education and training; research services, and the promotion of citizenship values through civic education.

Such arguments are informed, however, by a view on higher education institutions that ignores the broader issue of the university and the stakeholders in the regional community. In a highly critical paper, Tomusk has suggested that more serious attention to local and regional developments could lead to more effective results than attempts to merely copy recent trends in the EU member states and the United States that are quite inappropriate to the state of higher education in the accession countries. His analysis is based upon a critical analysis of the reform process in the accession states that concludes that little has been reformed in higher education institutions. Tomusk argues that reforms have not been driven in reality by the changing needs of societies seeking to transform either their economies or societies. He argues that reform has been based on the aspiration of academics to restore the Humboldtian ideal and their demands for the separation of higher education from the needs of the economically productive sectors of society. This was in effect a retreat to the élitist research-led university that was based on academic excellence and protected from the distorting demands of economic production that had prevailed under state socialism. A rude confrontation resulted when EU projects emphasised the contribution of higher education to economic growth and called for managerial leadership, accountability and efficiency. Emphasis upon the input from EU TEMPUS and PHARE projects to support institutional regeneration in this regard has been questioned by Tomusk. Demands for university-industry partnerships and managerial efficiency were exactly the opposite of what the academic élites in accession countries actually

aspired to. It has to be recognised that the decline of GNP by to 30 to 50% in some countries has led to a significant reduction in the public resources available for higher education – up to 90% in some cases. This has led to a struggle for survival, while the demand for participation in higher education has massively increased as a result of high unemployment and social insecurity. According to Tomusk, this has been a significant factor in the confirmation of self-protective responses by higher education institutions to social realities and constitutes a major contradiction in the expansion of higher education towards mass higher education. As a consequence, the policies of affirmative action applied by state socialism that gave preferential access to workers, peasants and those in military service have been abolished and replaced by access for those who can afford to pay. In this regard, he confirms Dahrendorf's argument that the universities in the East and Central European countries tend to shun wider access to higher education, seem to fear diversity and seek to maintain their traditional institutional boundaries.

As Tomusk cogently points out, there is no obvious connection between 'demand-absorbing' mass universities and the demands of the knowledge society. On the whole, the reform of higher education in the accession states is seriously constrained by the double-bind posed by the insecurity of institutions deprived of resources combined with the absence of alternatives, and the mass demand for higher education by individuals as a guarantee of employment. This results in the continuation of a traditional educational repertoire that involves mass lectures, the lack of active learning, little room for work in groups, and a reliance on the memorisation of facts. On the one hand, this strategy of returning to some notion of Humboldtian academic excellence has to be seen in terms of attempts to restore 'national universities' with a monopoly in the creation of national élites together with the production of renewed national identities. On the other hand, this endeavour stands in contrast with the policies of affirmative action applied by the ex-state socialist governments that gave preference in recruitment to distinct groups such as workers, peasants and those with a background in military service. The policies pursued in many accession states could lead towards elitism in recruitment in contrast to the widening-of-access that dominates the higher education agenda in many member states. On these grounds, we would argue that the EU has to examine quite critically the policies of the accession states with regard to their priorities in recruitment to higher education. They should be required to account for their measures to create equal opportunities for national minorities and in particular their policies towards European minorities such as the Roma. The latter were not referred to any of the country reports in this study.

While European higher education struggles to redefine itself in the knowledge society, the debate must not be formulated in terms of acquiring an appropriate place in the global higher education marketplace, but also in terms of their strategic repositioning in the learning society. This demands a fundamental rethinking of strategic partnerships between higher education institutions and stakeholders in the regional and local communities.

In conclusion, we make reference here to just a few key questions and issues that could provide the basis for monitoring the development of learning regions in an EU observatory project:

- what is the contribution of higher education institutions to the *economic development* of their regions?;
- with which other stakeholders do they co-operate?;
- what forms do 'regional knowledge networks' take?;
- what is the contribution of higher education institutions to *civil society* in their regions?;
- with which organisations and groups do they co-operate?;
- what kinds of activities are developed?

5. Higher education and citizenship in a turbulent Europe

At a time when the EU is in the final phase of its negotiations on enlargement to include countries in Central and Eastern Europe and the Baltic countries, together with the Mediterranean states of Cyprus and Malta, the fear of 'the other' and the supposed threat to national identity seems to have resurfaced in the consciousness of voters and politicians throughout Europe. Of no little significance in the current situation is an overwhelming tendency in public opinion and populist political parties in some countries to demonise the supporters of a particular religion on the grounds that it is 'not European'. In the still ongoing public discussion of the enlargement process, reservations in public opinion about enlargement have found expression in last-minute calls for referenda in a number of EU member states, and the question has been raised as to 'where Europe's border should be drawn?'. This has raised questions in some quarters, for example, about the status of Turkey as a potential accession candidate of the EU. We cannot permit ourselves to go along with this lemming-like response that in many EU member states is now posing a threat to the democratic political process itself and the closure of the public sphere for free and open debate. One could well ask 'what has this to do with higher education?'. We would argue that higher education institutions when at their best have traditionally sought to be international sites for the cross-cultural development of knowledge, the exchange of ideas, open debate and critical teaching. From the rediscovery of Greek culture by the Byzantine universities, the first European universities of the early Renaissance period, the Humboldtian reconstruction of continental European universities in the nineteenth century, to the entrepreneurial institutions of today's global knowledge society, higher education has manifested - with greater or lesser success in different historical periods - at least the potential to be sites for rigorous reflection upon, and indeed criticism of, the societies of which it is a part. Higher education institutions are not guarantors of democracy, but they do need to be seen to continue to play their part in supporting democratic processes, constructing active citizenship, and contributing to social progress.

The major conclusion drawn from this particular study on higher education and citizenship is that the EC's key policy objective of establishing a European Higher Education Area based upon lifelong learning needs to be more strongly formulated in terms of the development of higher education institutions as cosmopolitan sites for the generation of active citizenship at the European, national and regional levels. The core tasks of higher education in this respect should be formulated in

terms of the reworking of cultural differences between different groups of 'Europeans' at all levels into a 'cosmopolitan' acceptance of difference and indeed the celebration of diversity as enriching rather than threatening. With regard to the three levels at which we have attempted to understand the problem of higher education's contribution to the construction of active citizenship in an enlarging European Union, we shall refer here to the major conclusions that we have arrived at on the basis of this study.

At the European level, we have expressed concern at the limited degree to which the policies of the EU and the member states have actually contributed to the mobility of Europeans whether in the labour market or in higher education. At the heart of this problem is the formulation of European citizenship in the Maastricht and subsequent treaties in terms of the rights and duties associated with the individual's citizenship of an EU member state. European citizenship as such confers only a few minor additional rights in the sphere of governance of the EU. In our view, the key to the lack of mobility is based upon those restrictions that make it at least very difficult - and in practice impossible - for the citizens of member states to transfer their national social rights to the supra-national level of the EU. European citizens are effectively tied into the social rights associated with national citizenship that are based upon closed national systems of social welfare, employment law and pensions funds. Despite all efforts by the EC - with little help from the member states - to remove barriers to mobility only 0,1% of European citizens moved in 2000 to take up employment in another member state. There is a much higher level of mobility to - and within the EU - by citizens of non-EU states.

This immobility of the workforce in the EU is pertinent to the issue of the long-term future of the mobility of students - and perhaps staff - in higher education. Mobility programmes for students in higher education are increasingly justified in terms of the growth of mobility in global and European labour markets and the need to prepare and equip students with the competencies required for such mobility. Despite the celebration in 2002 of one million ERASMUS students since 1988, the reality is that only 1% of all students in higher education make use of the opportunities offered by current mobility programmes. Given the argument that the experience gained by students during a period abroad will lead them to consider working abroad as a realistic option, we would recommend that the EU and the member states have to invest a much higher level of resources in the mobility programmes. In terms of a minimum target to be achieved by 2010, we propose that 10% of all students in higher education should have participated in the ERASMUS programme for at least a period of three months. We would also suggest, more over, that a number of serious issues have to be addressed in the short to medium term. In the inflated terms of neo-liberal thinking about 'market failures', it is significant that a number of distorting factors play a role that could frustrate such an endeavour. The most important of such factors is the emergence of a global learning marketplace that makes it more attractive for higher education institutions in the EU to enrol 'overseas' students from non-member states paying much higher tuition fees rather than the active recruitment of EU-students. This is a real issue for higher education institutions who have to balance their books, but it also disrupts the achievement of EU objectives that are based upon the public responsibility rather than the market performance of higher education institutions. It is for this reason that we propose that the EU and the member states should

establish agreed mobility targets for the exchange of EU students. There should also be agreed targets in the direction of mobility away from the United Kingdom and towards other states. There is also a new problem in the context of EU enlargement where students from accession countries might well be excluded from mobility programmes on the basis of serious differences in student financial support schemes and the costs of living in different EU member states.

We have also expressed concern in this report with the 'market failure' that arises from distorted flows of students in terms of the possession of linguistic capital formulated in terms of the command of languages other than English. Our position is that of a resolute rejection of the widely-held acceptance that English is now the global and European lingua franca of higher education world-wide. We have proposed here, and will develop the argument in another paper, that student mobility has to be based upon the 'cosmopolitan' principle of the capacity to command at least one foreign language. It is our conviction that the EU and the member states have to agree targets for the implementation of the requirement voiced in the 1995 White Paper that the acquisition of at least two foreign languages has to be part of the compulsory curriculum up to the completion of secondary education and indeed into higher education. This would make not only a vital contribution to becoming a European citizen but would also make a much valued contribution to the promotion of employability.

At the national level, a number of the above conclusions will have important implications for the infrastructure and content of national educational systems in particular with regard to the development of national strategies for the acquisition of foreign languages. However, the core of our discussion on the generation of citizenship at the national level addresses the most crucial and possibly the most explosive political issue in most EU member states. Despite the ongoing reconstruction of so-called national identities in countries throughout the EU, it is all too obvious that migrant populations – stemming from the old colonialism, the period of the 'guest workers' from the rural areas of Morocco and Turkey, together with the migrants of the new global colonialism - struggle to get here, are here, they intend to stay here, and they will be here in ten years time. In some countries, as is the case of certain Baltic countries, the remnants of a state socialist empire 'who will not go away' constitute the problem. At the moment, however, public opinion in a founding member of the EU, The Netherlands, tends to focus on the issue of the incompatibility of 'our' and 'their' values and norms, and the need to compulsorily re-civilise the 'newcomers' into Dutch citizens. The reality is that we live in a Europe which is characterised, for a complex variety of historical, political, economic and cultural reasons, by the reality of immigrant and multicultural societies, and that this will constitute the future of the member states of the EU, whether indigenous populations like this or not.

It is on these grounds, that we have argued that higher education policies in the EU member and accession states have to fundamentally address the question of the presence of minorities and need to take urgent action to promote their social inclusion if medium to long term social cohesion is to be achieved. As we have indicated, however, there are significant differences in the approaches to social inclusion though higher education in the EU member and accession states. On the one hand, the majority of EU member and accession states continue to regard

non-selective access to higher education in terms of the acquisition of the appropriate qualifications at the completion of secondary education. Indeed, most countries do not recognise any alternative routes to higher education. This demands of members of the minorities that they have the capacity to persist in long trajectories on the road towards higher education, but this results in high levels of their dropping out. On the other hand, the United Kingdom has adopted the development of shorter trajectories in the form of access courses, together with the preferential systems of post-codes and the setting of regional targets for raising levels of recruitment from the less-advantaged groups including the minorities. We recommend that the EU undertakes a comparative study of the effectiveness of these longer and shorter routes to higher education in terms of their effectiveness as far as the persistence of minorities are concerned. In addition, we propose that special attention be devoted to the specific problems of political refugees, often with high levels of qualification in their countries of origin, who all too often experience serious problems in securing recognition of their qualifications and access to higher education and labour markets in EU countries. Although this was not an issue that we specifically addressed at the outset of this study, we have become convinced that it is vitally necessary for higher education in the EU member states to invest in the development of an 'intellectual class' among immigrant groups who are able participate on an equal level with the representatives of the 'indigenous population' in the public sphere and contribute to the vitality of inclusive democratic discourse.

At the regional, or sub-national, level of analysis, we have focussed in this study upon the role of higher education institutions in bringing lifelong learning closer to regional and local populations who are not necessarily the foremost traditional clients of higher education. It is at this level of involvement with regional and local communities that the potential of higher education institutions in making an effective contribution to active citizenship and social inclusion becomes most manifest. This is after all the level of day-to-day life in multi-cultural societies where higher education institutions can establish a dynamic interface with the active expressions of diversity that are present in their regional and local communities. Our study supports the growing recognition that higher education institutions are expected to make a contribution to both economic well-being and social progress in increasingly extensive and complex ways, but that this also involves efforts to include many of those social groups traditionally excluded from higher education. The inclusion of 'non-traditional participants' in higher education can conflict, however, with the widely held commitment of higher education institutions that their core business concerns high quality research and the provision of initial higher education for an increasing percentage of the younger generation in mass higher education.

We are of the opinion that it is indeed the right of all higher education institutions to determine their own positions in the global, national and regional higher education markets when they involve themselves in economic risks in such markets for individual consumers of higher education. It is also required, however, of all higher education institutions financed by public resources that they need to recognise their responsibility to engage in the provision of educational opportunities for the 'non-traditional' learners in their regional and local communities. The key problem here is, however, that the EU and member state systems have to recognise this

lifelong learning task in terms of the financial resources made available to higher education institutions, and, furthermore, that they make ear-marked resources available to this end. In terms of EU agreements, such as the Lisbon commitment that 3% of GNP should be devoted to higher education in order to facilitate the knowledge society, it would be more appropriate that targets should be set for the participation of non-traditional groups in higher education. In The Netherlands, for example, the investment of 2% of the GNP to higher education falls considerably far short of the 3% demanded by Lisbon. The additional 1% required to make up the agreed EU-target could be distributed in terms of 0,5% devoted to the promotion of the participation of non-traditional groups among the indigenous population in higher education, while the other 0,5% could be devoted to promoting the participation of the immigrant population in higher education. Should we start to discuss the social exclusion of the older generation, both indigenous and exogenous from active participation in the knowledge society, we can only conclude that government actuaries, together with the accountants of private providers, of 'the higher education' will have to redo their homework with regard to investments in and the returns from learning in the context of 'a life long of learning'.

The ostensible involvement of the EU member and accession states with the question of citizenship is fundamentally concerned with the need to give form to a more complete and far-reaching Union that is not based upon economic convergence alone. It is to be welcomed that the EU is also deeply engaged in questions of governance and citizenship. The expectation is that people will acquire the competencies for employability required for participation in the knowledge economy and the competencies to participate in the knowledge society as active citizens. In a Union in which many of its inhabitants seem to be deeply troubled by the presence of 'the other', it is vitally important to raise the level of efforts to stimulate higher education institutions to be vigorous sites for the construction of active citizenship. As this paper has argued, there are many concrete actions that will have to be taken if we are to achieve a socially inclusive and cohesive Union. This will be a Union that recognises, welcomes and builds upon the rich seams of diversity present in the member and accession states. Is to be hoped that the ongoing discussions in the European Convention on the future governance of an enlarged EU enlargement will address these very real issues of citizenship at the European, national and sub-national levels. In all of this, the key to EU policies will require the promotion of mobility within the EU.

As Field concludes in his contribution to this study:

'It is not the job of universities to persuade people to vote for Members of Parliament or Members of the European Parliament, but it could and should be our job to help them understand their relationship to the wider community, and appreciate their own responsibilities to it. Creating active citizens through higher education in a wider Europe is a demanding task. It is also eminently achievable'.

Appendix 4

DELIVERABLE N° 19

RESTRICTED

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HERN Workpackage 6

Citizenship and European Enlargement: the role of Higher Education

Policy Recommendations to the European Commission, Member States and higher education institutions

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The Global and European Policy Context

The European Commission and the Member States have committed themselves to the strategic policy of developing the European Union as an area of lifelong learning in support of the transformation of the European Union and the Member States into the world-wide leaders of knowledge societies in 2010. Two key issues are prominent in this process, namely the enhancement of the competencies of the citizens of the European Union and the Member States with regard to both their employability and their active citizenship. However, it is clear that globalisation, economic competitiveness, new information and communication technologies, migration and social inclusion present continuing and growing challenges to the success of such endeavours. This is particularly the case with regard to the role of higher education institutions in the context of the now advanced process of European enlargement from fifteen to twenty-five Member States in the course of 2004. Much is expected of the contribution of institutions of higher education in the creation of knowledge societies.

Work package 6 of the HERN-project addressed the specific issue as to how higher education institutions can contribute to the development of citizenship competencies. The central question posed in this work package was how higher education institutions can make a contribution as 'sites for the construction of citizenship' in an enlarging European Union? This work package has explored how higher education systems and institutions are addressing this challenge in current Member and Accession States. The active partners in this work package involved Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, The Netherlands and the United Kingdom, while the Bulgarian and Czech partners in the HERN-project also contributed to the work package. Although we have not studied other countries in this work package, knowledge gathered from previous participation in European networks, projects and studies suggests that many of the policy issues are common to both the more long-established and the new Member States of the European Union.

The policy recommendations that follow reflect the analysis conducted during this work package of the distinctive contributions of higher education to the development of citizenship at three levels: a) the supra-national European level, b) the national level, and c) the sub-national level of the regions.

European Citizenship and mobility

At the *European level*, the European Commission and the Member States should take immediate steps to evaluate the transparency and coherency of policies and programmes that are intended to support the development of employability competencies in European labour markets, and the contribution of mobility programmes in higher education to the promotion of cross-border mobility in the Europe Union.

Employability competencies

The Commission and the Member States should support further research into the structurally low levels of labour mobility in relation to the development of employability competencies in higher education. The Commission and the Member States should recognise that the willingness of no more than 0,1% of European citizens to take up employment in another Member States in 2000 is an indication that this low level of mobility seriously undermines the principle of the single European market for capital, services, goods and labour.

The Commission and the Member States should recognise the urgent need to revise the current narrow emphasis in national systems of higher education upon the enhancement of employability competencies. We support the argument of the European University Association in its 2001 response to the *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning* that an increasing number of students in Europe will need to have access to and the possibilities to acquire a broader range of generic competencies than those made available by national systems of higher education.

The Commission and the Member States need to recognise that cross-cultural competencies are required if the citizens of member states are to become more mobile and contribute to enhanced levels of mobility in European labour markets. On the whole, young people are becoming much more aware of the competencies they require in order to become mobile, and that studying or working abroad for even a short period can be an effective way of preparing themselves for European mobility. The mobile European citizen requires in particular social and cultural competencies such as intercultural communication and the command of foreign languages.

The Commission and the Member States need to pursue more vigorous policies that recognise that the labour market mobility of European citizens is based upon their development of competencies in cross-cultural communication, sensibilities to the diversity of European cultures and in particular the acquisition of foreign languages. The Commission and the Member States should also recognise that this involves more active policies in the awakening of potentially mobile European citizens to issues of European governance and of European citizenship.

The Commission and the Member States should take all necessary measures to ensure that the construction of the European Higher Education Area should make a contribution to the employability competencies that will open up European labour markets for graduates of higher education. We support the argument formulated at the Salamanca conference of higher education institutions in 2001, that '*...the primary motivation to construct a European Higher Education Area is so that citizens...can benefit concretely from it and use their qualifications throughout the (European) region and beyond*'.

European citizenship and linguistic capital

The Commission and the Member States should review the measures that are required to ensure that the European Higher Education Area is a multi-lingual community. Such a multi-lingual community should be based upon an understanding of European citizenship in terms the learning of foreign languages and multi-linguistic competencies. The core of a European citizenship should be linguistic citizenship that is based upon linguistic capital, or the ability to communicate in other languages. These competencies are at the core of what we refer to as the strategic European competency of 'linguistic citizenship' that will also stimulate mobility. In this context, higher education institutions are important locations where citizenship can be worked upon in a multi-cultural and thus multi-lingual European context.

The Commission and the Member States should take steps to implement the proposals in the 1995 White Paper on Teaching and Learning to the effect that all European citizens should be enabled to acquire the capacity to express themselves in three foreign languages. This has become one of the pillars of the Commission's more general concern with skills and labour market mobility. Specific targets were announced in February 2002 in the Commission's Action Plan for Skills and Mobility to the effect that *'...all pupils to be competent in at least two European languages in addition to their mother tongue'*. The Commission now needs to secure the co-operation of the Member States in order to implement the appropriate measures to encourage the learning of European languages.

The Commission and the Member States should commit themselves to the development and implementation of programmes to encourage and support the learning of foreign languages. The Commission and the Member States should not restrict their efforts to a year of the European Year of Languages, as in 2002, but should take the strategic measures that are necessary for a decade-long action programme committed to major financial investments in the promotion of the learning of foreign languages. The Action Plan for Skills and Mobility in 2002 proposed, for example, that *'By 2005 the relevant authorities in the Member States should have developed a strategy and timetable for achieving this objective'*. In line with the initiatives to require Member States to prepare National Action Plans on Employment and on Poverty and Social Exclusion, we propose that the Member States should be required to prepare National Action Plans for the acquisition of European languages. Such plans should include targets to be achieved in primary and secondary education, higher education and adult education.

The Commission and the Member States should regard this as not only a requirement for the phase of initial education including higher education, but that such a decade-long foreign language programme should also be extended to all adults as a significant contribution to post-initial and adult education in terms of a contribution to the promotion of lifelong learning and the knowledge society. The Commission and the Member States should recognise that one of the major investments by adults in the area of lifelong learning involves the learning of another European foreign language, whether this is for the purposes of employability or other purposes. The Commission and the Member States should invest additional resources in the learning efforts undertaken by adults in the form of a specific programme for the learning of European languages by adults.

Mobility in the European Higher Education Area

The Commission and the Member States should examine the implications of existing financial arrangements that are intended to encourage increased mobility within the architecture of the European Higher Education Area. Such an examination should not be limited to the Commission's mobility programmes but should include national arrangements to promote of greater opportunities for student mobility.

The Commission and the Member States should urgently conduct an evaluation of the effectiveness of current mobility programmes in the area of higher education. In the course of 2002, the Commission has rightly celebrated the achievement of one million students who have participated in the ERASMUS mobility programme since 1988. The Commission and the Member States should recognise that the current level of student mobility comprises no more than 1% of all students involved in higher education in the Member States. In order to create a European Higher Education Area, the Commission and the Member States should now urgently establish a range of far more ambitious targets for participation in mobility programmes. We recommend that the Commission and the Member States should now develop specific initiatives and the appropriate funding that will ensure the participation of 10% of all students in higher education in one or other form of European mobility programme.

The Commission and the Member States should investigate the barriers to mobility in higher education that are caused by differences in social legislation and student funding arrangements. In the terms of the Commission's Mobility Action Plan, such an investigation should include: a) to define and democratise mobility; b) appropriate forms of funding; c) increase mobility and improve conditions; and, d) the development of multi-lingual policies.

The Commission and the Member States should urgently address a number of issues with regard to the existing mobility programmes. On the one hand, while the number of students taking part in ERASMUS are rising rapidly in some Member States, for example in France and Germany, numbers are declining elsewhere, for example in The Netherlands and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, there is a marked skew in the flows of students with large numbers moving from other Member States to the United Kingdom. The Commission and the Member States need to address this problem and seek to modify these flows of student movements given the expectation that students from Accession States will also opt to spend a period at a British university. The Commission and the Member States should establish targets for more balanced flows of students between Member States that would commit all higher education institutions to the achievement of mobility targets within the European Union.

The Commission and the Member States should address key issues with regard to the transferability of the social and financial rights of students involved in higher education when they participate as European citizens in mobility programmes. Such rights pertain to their respective rights to make claims upon the national systems for student financial support in the form of grants and loans for the purposes of study abroad. These systems are highly diverse in the higher education systems of the existing Member States, and there are in particular very significant differences in the levels of public financial support for individual

students. There can be little doubt that such inequalities have negative effects on mobility and that this will apply in particular to students in the Accession States.

The Commission and the Member States should address in particular the very significant differences throughout the European Union between the respective rights of full-time and part-time students with regard to participation in mobility programmes. This distinction between full-time and part-time modalities for participation in higher education is not currently recognised in most Member States, while part-time students often have fewer rights than their full-time colleagues. Part-time students have serious problems in meeting the requirements for participating in ERASMUS. Such differential arrangements result in general that European mobility programmes work to the disadvantage of part-time students, most of whom are older lifelong learners. The Commission and the Member States should consider the need to develop more flexible short-term modalities in mobility programmes in the form of intensive projects.

The Commission and the Member States should be congratulated for its recent efforts to address the internationalisation of higher education on a global scale. Such issues need to be at the heart of the implementation of the new ERASMUS World programme that the Commission has designated for the period 2004-2008. This programme is the European response to the globalisation of the higher education market and aims to enhance the attractiveness of European higher education not only for European students but from other parts of the world and. Global demand for international higher education is estimated to rise from fewer than 2 million in 2000 to more than 7 million in 2025 as the total number of students world-wide grows from 97 million to more than 260 million. This involves a major shift in the demand by European students compared to the rapidly growing demand from Asia; the European share of the world market for international higher education will drop from 32% in 2000 to 13% in 2025. European students, who are regarded as 'home students' for funding purposes, have to increasingly compete with 'overseas students' from non-EU countries who pay significantly higher tuition fees. Of the 400,000 such students currently attending European higher education institutions more than two-thirds follow courses in France, Germany and the United Kingdom. The Commission and the Member States should actively pursue proposals with regard to a directive that is aimed at securing a broader distribution of incoming students from non-European Union countries between the Member States.

Citizenship and the management of cultural diversity

At the *national level*, the European Commission, the Member States and higher education institutions should give priority to the contribution of higher education institutions to citizenship through the social inclusion of minorities and with particular reference to ethnic, linguistic, cultural and national minorities.

The Commission and the Member States should be reminded that at a time when the European Union strives to impose its supranational institutions on the future history of twenty-five European states in an enlarged EU, Europe is discovering its own deep seams of pluralism, diversity and difference. This is manifested in the very complex process where notions of nationhood are reconstructed, sub-national identities from past history are reborn, and 'the other from elsewhere' must be

accommodated in some manner, if social cohesion is to be achieved. This gives rise to some very complicated linkages between questions of citizenship and identity at the European, national and regional levels.

The Commission and the Member States should take account of the consequences for higher education of two fundamental historical transformations that characterise the ongoing process of enlargement of the European Union. These transformations impact upon the complex dynamics of national identities and citizenship in the Accession States, but they also impact in particular upon the multicultural nature of all Member States.

The great transformation

The Commission and the Member States need to recognise the specific problems of the Accession States that stem from the as yet uncompleted processes of transformation from state socialism towards liberal democracies and market economies. These modernisation processes have thrown questions of citizenship and identity into sharp relief in many of these countries and in often very different ways. Fundamental issues of citizenship and identity in these countries are associated with the emergence of conflicts associated with struggles for the rights of quite significant ethnic, cultural, linguistic and national minorities with often very different problems relating to social cohesion, inclusion and exclusion.

The Commission and the Member States should recognise the very specific issues associated with the situation of minorities in the Accession States belonging to the ex-Soviet sphere of Europe that will soon become Member States of the Union. In Latvia, for example, the legislation defining national citizenship effectively defined the 700,000 ethnic Russian residents as 'non-citizens' of Latvia. As a result a significant number of the inhabitants of Latvia are estranged from the rights and duties associated with Latvian citizenship. In 1995, a naturalisation procedure requiring acquisition of the Latvian language started and has resulted in a reduction of these non-citizens to 514,000 by 2002, while the ethnic Russians form 30% of the population. It is clear that the speed of naturalisation will continue to be slow, and at the moment that Latvia becomes a Member State there will still be a significant number of non-citizens. This now has important implications for higher education. On the one hand, higher education is not regarded in Latvia as an appropriate institutional arena appropriate for the integration of the minority of ethnic non-citizens on the grounds of their supposed comparatively low levels of education and lack of command of the Latvian language. There is no instruction in Russian in higher education. On the other hand, it is significant that 40% of those from the Russian minority who have become naturalised have acquired command of the Latvian language, while 40% of them have had a university education compared to 15% of the total Latvian population. The Latvian government has recently announced plans to phase out teaching in the Russian language in secondary education that could endanger the opportunities of the ethnic Russian population to follow higher.

The Commission and the Member States should also consider the specific situation of the minorities in Lithuania. According to the last census in spring 2001, about 82% of the inhabitants are Lithuanians, 9% are Poles, while 7% are Russians and 2% are of other nationalities. According to article 30 of the 2001 Law

on Education, every citizen has the right to study in Lithuanian or in one's national language, if the educational institution according to its regulations is obliged to provide studies in national languages. A relatively small number of students make use of this right to study in languages of the national minorities. The number of students studying in their national languages is actually decreasing and is explained in terms of the widespread understanding that the education provided in the Lithuanian language is of higher quality.

The Commission and the Member States should recognise such examples are indicative that higher education institutions in the Accession States tend to shun wider access, seem to fear cultural diversity and seek to retrieve their traditional institutional boundaries. In Ralf Dahrendorf's terms, this process needs to be recognised in terms of attempts to restore 'national universities' with a monopoly over the creation of national élites together with the production of renewed national identities. This has resulted in the re-establishment of a traditional educational repertoire that seeks a return to some notion of academic excellence insulated from the need of a changing society. The policies pursued in many Accession States could lead towards elitism in recruitment in contrast to the widening-of-access that dominates the higher education agenda in many member states. This reform process is seriously constrained by the double-bind posed by the insecurity of institutions deprived of resources combined with the absence of alternatives, and the mass demand for higher education by individuals as a guarantee of employment. The result is a struggle for survival in a threatening environment, while the demand for higher education has increased massively as a result of high unemployment and poor social security. This has been a significant factor in the self-protective responses by higher education institutions to harsh social realities but at the same time constitutes a major contradiction given the changing needs of society for new competencies. This exclusive endeavour stands in contrast with the policies of affirmative action applied by the ex-state socialist governments that gave preference in recruitment to distinct groups such as workers, peasants and those with a background in military service. On these grounds, we would argue that the Commission has to follow quite critically the policies of the accession states with regard to their priorities in recruitment to higher education. They should be required to account for their measures to create equal opportunities for national minorities.

The Commission and the Member States should give more specific and urgent attention to the position of the Roma throughout the European Union. The latter were not referred to any of the country reports in this study. The Roma constitute significant minorities in a number of the Accession States in Eastern and South Eastern Europe, but we were unable to identify any specific programmes in this network to promote their integration in higher education.

The multicultural mosaic

The other major transformation on the European stage involves the encounter with the consequences of global migration, including the results of de-colonisation, and the emergence of EU member states as multicultural societies with often quite significant diaspora's of immigrant populations. Taken together, these transformations demand the recognition that an enlarging Europe Union is also a

multicultural Europe that embraces not only sources of cultural diversity from outside of Europe in addition to the cultural diversity of Europe itself.

The Commission and the Member States should endeavour to raise public awareness that the enlargement of the Europe Union is not merely a question of the economic and political integration of the existing European nation states and the accession states. They should also make clear that enlargement is also a cultural transformation that confronts the multicultural societies of Europe with the problem of the integration of often significant populations of new migrants and minorities. At the levels of the Member States there are quite significant issues of social inclusion and exclusion that constitute the struggle to maintain social cohesion.

The Commission and the Member States should undertake research on the role that higher education can play in the face of the development of cultural diversity in Europe. This is a question of the role of higher education as an appropriate social arena for the development of policies that are intended to integrate minorities at the national level. It needs to be recognised, however, that such questions take on very different forms in the Member States and accession countries. Policy documents from the European Union and Member States often speak in generous terms about the need to open up higher education to students from the minorities in order to promote cultural integration and social cohesion. How this is to be achieved in practice is quite a different issue, while Member and Accession States often adopt quite different positions on the appropriate strategies to establish trajectories for the inclusion of minorities in higher education.

Higher education and cultural diversity

The Commission and the Member States should initiate specific activities to investigate the contribution of higher education institutions to the development of the European Higher Education Area as a multi-cultural community. In the context of future policies for higher education, it is also appropriate to call for comparative empirical research on questions as to whether policies are in place at the level of the EU, the member and accession states that address the issues of higher education and the social inclusion of minorities. We propose that a European level initiative should involve Member States in the preparation of National Actions Plans on Higher Education and Social Inclusion. Such National Action Plans should report on policy initiatives and institutional performance with regard to: how are minorities defined in the different EU member and accession states, and which are the historical grounds for such definitions?; how are these specific minority groups to be understood and explained in terms of the socio-historical development of the respective member and accession states?; which specific minority groups and priorities are designated with regard to access to higher education?; how is specific attention devoted to ethnic, cultural and linguistic minorities, etc., in terms of their access to higher education?; which specific policy instruments have been put in place to enhance the use made of higher education institutions by such minority communities?; are there benchmarks for levels of participation to be achieved by higher education institutions?

Citizenship in the regions

At the regional level, the European Commission, the Member States and higher education institutions should focus upon the development of strategic partnerships between higher educational institutions and regional stakeholders to enhance the contribution of higher education institutions, on the one hand, in the generation of regional economic development, and, on the other hand, in the promotion of active citizenship in regional and local communities that constitute the vitality of civil society.

The Commission and the Member States should support initiatives which encourage higher education institutions to contribute, on the one hand, to economic growth and prosperity, and, on the other hand, to enhance social inclusion and the achievement of social cohesion. In recent policy documents from both the Commission and the Member States there is increasing emphasis increasingly extensive and complex tasks of European higher education institutions. While the early discourse on lifelong learning in the European Union was dominated by issues related to global competition and economic convergence, it has now been broadened with a second major strand concerned with the questions of governance and citizenship. These economic and social objectives in the current debate about lifelong learning both impact in significant ways upon the emerging discussion of higher education institutions as centres for lifelong learning in the regions.

The Commission and the Member States should systematically support initiatives which recognise that lifelong learning can be best delivered through partnerships that build upon the often solid experience of higher education institutions in regional economic development with a variety of stakeholders. At the same time they often have strong traditions of relationships with organisations in civil society among regional and local communities. As the EUA argued in its 2001 response to the Commission's Memorandum of Lifelong Learning, '*Upon this basis, they participate in or even house broadly based centres of lifelong learning meeting the needs of different learners*'. The Commission's recent R3L initiative on learning cities and regions is to be welcomed

Higher education, employability and regional economic development

The Commission, the Member States and institutions of higher education should build upon the powerful arguments for higher education institutions to play a central role in lifelong learning at the regional level. They are close to the regional and local labour market and often have extensive contact with social partners and other stakeholders. This is an area in which higher education institutions need to renew their long-standing expertise in the continuing professional development sector, where they face increasing competition from commercial providers in the education and training marketplace for post-initial higher education.

The Commission, the Member States and institutions of higher education should commit themselves to support the significant contribution that regional partnerships between higher education and stakeholders can make to the transition towards knowledge economies. Such issues were specifically recognised by the Commission and the Member States at the Lisbon conference that placed lifelong learning on the European agenda as a vital force in creating

knowledge societies. The Member States now need to take the appropriate measures to the end and that they should insure that 3% of the gross national product is invested in higher education. This will require in many member states a significant increase in expenditure on higher education.

The Commission and the Member States should support the an undeniable trend in higher education throughout Europe towards an emphasis upon enhancing the employability of graduates who will be able to find a place in the European, national but above regional labour markets. Public investment, and indeed their own private investment, in higher education, are increasingly regarded in terms of their contribution to broad-based competencies, the self-management their careers, and maintenance of their employability through lifelong learning. National systems of financial support for students in the form of grant/loan systems are now being reconsidered in some countries in terms of the future income returns that students enjoy in later life.

The Commission and the Member States should take account that there is clear recognition in the Member States that different kinds of higher education institutions can have distinctive missions. In The Netherlands, for example, government policy regards the universities as having a metropolitan commitment to contribute to the development of global and national knowledge networks, while the responsibility for the development of regional knowledge networks is seen as a task for the institutions of higher professional education and regional education centres for secondary vocational and adult education. All higher education institutions in the United Kingdom, including the leading research-based universities, are regarded as having responsibilities for making a contribution to regional economic development. In Denmark and Sweden, a number of new regional universities have been established that have been specifically designed to serve the needs of their regions.

The Commission and the Member States should encourage institutions for higher education as important stakeholders in the regional community to co-operate with other stakeholders in the regional economic development. These include regional, provincial and local authorities, public institutions, development agencies, large companies together with small- and medium-sized firms, employers organisations and trade unions. Institutions of higher education should be encouraged to develop policies for developing their strategic partnerships with such groups with the aim of establishing regional 'knowledge infrastructures'. Within such strategic partnerships, higher education institutions should be supported in making their generation of knowledge and their provision of educational programmes more accessible and responsive to regional needs. Such developments should position higher education institutions as important stakeholders in the regional economic community and tend to emphasise their contribution to the promotion of the 'economic citizenship' among both public authorities and business at the regional level.

The Commission and the Member States should also encourage the recognition of the direct and important contribution of higher education institutions to regional and local economies. Higher education institutions make very real contributions to their regional and local economies in that they create employment for a wide variety of categories of personnel who earn their living by working for a higher

education institution or benefit indirectly from the presence of such an institution. This is an aspect of the broader economy of higher education that is significantly absent in the contributions to this project but which has significant implications for the regional and local population. Institutions of higher education create jobs and incomes not only for the academic staff. They also demand support staff in the form of administrators, secretaries, accountants and financial staff, audio-visual services, ICT-support staff, restaurant and kitchen staff, porters, and cleaners. When institutions of higher education also manage conference centres, residential accommodation, science parks, etc., they may make an additional contribution to the local economy that is of great significance. Estimates from the United Kingdom, for example, suggest that higher education institutions generate no less than 3% of all jobs and an equivalent contribution to the Gross National Product. This manifests an important injection into regional and local economies and the creation of employment opportunities. When the spin-off from co-operation with local industry and the establishment of university-based companies is added to this balance, the contribution of higher education institutions to regional and local economies is significant. An additional factor is the money spent by university staff and students on all kinds of local services. Throughout Europe, the establishment of higher education institutions seems to be recognised as making a vital contribution to local economies in terms of the creation of jobs for the local population.

The Commission and the Member States should take account of the very different developments in the ex-Socialist Accession States since the early 1990s. There the emphasis has been placed upon ensuring the quality of provision in initial higher education as part of the transformation of universities. It has to be recognised that transformation of universities in these states is characterised by the slow speed of change. In contrast with the growing autonomy of higher education institutions in many Member States, this slow speed of change results from centralist political interventions and limited institutional independence; low levels of funding that impoverish both institutions, staff and students; traditional infrastructures and weak institutional leadership; a brain-drain among the younger generation and too many older members of staff; together with rigid curricula and outdated teaching methods. It can be argued that this major problem is the crisis in the forms of public funding of higher education in the post-communist states that have not as yet discovered the importance of higher education institutions for the knowledge economy. The Commission and the Member States need to recognise that the current emphasis upon 'demand-absorbing' mass universities in the Accession States does not stroke well with the demands of the knowledge society.

The Commission and the Member States should recognise and take steps to address the decline of GNP by to 30 to 50% in some ex-socialist Accession States. This has led to a significant reduction in the public resources available for higher education – up to 90% in some cases. This has led to a struggle for survival, while the demand for participation in higher education has massively increased as a result of high unemployment and social insecurity. This remains a significant factor in the confirmation of self-protective responses by higher education institutions to social realities and constitutes a major contradiction in the expansion of higher education towards mass higher education.

The Commission and the Member States should recognise that the long-term input from TEMPUS and PHARE projects to support institutional regeneration should be rigorously evaluated as a basis for supporting future programmes for higher education reform in the Accession States. Reforms have not been driven in reality by the changing needs of societies but by aspiration of academics to restore the Humboldt ideal of *bildung* and an emphasis on academic excellence. Reforms have been based on the demands for the separation of higher education from the needs of the economically productive sectors of society and that higher education should be protected from the distorting demands of economic production that had prevailed under state socialism. The reality of TEMPUS and PHARE projects was often a confrontation process when these European Union projects emphasised the contribution of higher education to economic growth and called for managerial leadership, accountability and efficiency. University-industry partnerships and managerial efficiency were exactly the opposite of what the academic élites in accession countries actually aspired to. The Commission and the Member States should take initiatives to support higher education institutions in the Accession States to develop a greater degree of awareness of their potential contribution to regional economic development. It can be argued that more serious attention to local and regional developments could lead to more effective results than attempts to merely export recent trends in the Member States, and the United States, that are quite inappropriate to the current state of higher education in the Accession States. There is furthermore a very urgent need in the Accession States to direct much more attention to the potential role of higher education in the EU's Euro-region programme for cross-border regional co-operation.

Higher education and active citizenship in the regions

The Commission and the Member States should recognise that higher education institutions have a tradition of providing support for other organisations and groups in the political, social and cultural dimensions of life in their regions. Contributions by higher education institutions to these diffuse spheres of life have often been important in working with and providing supporting for organisations and groups involved in the development of civil society at the regional level. This is highly relevant to the central role of voluntary associations, non-government, and non-profit organisations in the development of the competencies associated with active citizenship. The civic virtues of solidarity and mutual obligation are best learned in voluntary associations such as: families, neighbourhood associations, charities, churches, trade unions, co-operatives, environmental groups and mutual support groups, etc.

The Commission and the Member States should support initiatives to encourage the engagement by higher education institutions in the development of civil society in their regions. As the EUA response to the Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning argued, '*From this vantage point, the lifelong learning movement can be a political response to a wide range of questions*'. In defining the competencies to be acquired through lifelong learning it is important that skills are perceived to be for citizenship and the regional community and that higher education institutions can be places where the values of citizenship and participation can be enhanced.

The Commission and the Member States should recognise that the acquisition of citizenship competencies is not solely a question of learning undertaken by individuals. As the EUA report argues '*The citizen and the learner are part of a community and the collective benefits of both citizenship and learning should be stressed....*'. This will lead to greater emphasis on the importance of non-formal civic and community learning in groups, neighbourhoods and communities, more scope for non-accredited programmes and the significance attached to the collective benefits of learning. This involves building bridges between formal and non-formal learning environments in order to dismantle institutional barriers and involve a broader range of providers of lifelong learning including community groups and non-governmental organisations.

The Commission and the Member States should provide more systematic support for initiatives that seek to implement Key Message 6 in the Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning that stresses the provision of lifelong learning as close to learners as possible. In the EUA response to the Memorandum, it is argued that '*Citizens need learning close to them in at least two senses: close to them in the sense of "attainable" and close to them in the sense of "relevant"; people should be able to see how learning can improve their lives and the "citizenship", and have access to learning*'. This means that higher education institutions will need to be at the forefront of in this attempt to provide learning opportunities closer to learners in their communities, working with other agencies in the community to develop outreach and access pathways, and developing systems for accreditation of prior learning. This is to emphasise the importance of partnerships in the delivery of lifelong learning and the development of a learning society. Within the European context this means that it is necessary to strategically build upon the initiatives taken by different kinds of higher education institutions and their experiences with building partnerships for regional social development and social inclusion. This will demand significant investment by the institutions in the building of strategic partnerships with community groups, voluntary associations, trade unions, social movements and adult education providers.

The Commission and the Member States should more systematically provide support for initiatives intended to develop regional networks in the form of learning cities and learning regions. In 2002, the Commission called for proposals for European networks to promote the local and regional dimension of lifelong learning in its R3L initiative. This initiative is driven by the commitment to developing lifelong learning close to learners in the social, geographical and economic environments in which Europe's citizens live. As such the R3L initiative is a pilot scheme and a first step by the EC '*to support through its programmes the establishment of networks between those regions and cities with well-developed lifelong learning strategies, to facilitate the exchange of experience and good practice*'. The call for proposals defines a learning region in a broad generic sense referring to a region, city, urban or rural area, regardless of whether its identity is defined in administrative, cultural, geographical, physical or political terms. It argues that '*The learning region must, however, have sufficient size to encompass and mobilise the key players for the purpose of developing lifelong learning as an important factor in promoting regional and local development, social cohesion and the fulfilment of personal potential and aspirations of its citizens*'.

The Commission and the Member States should take specific measures to support initiatives in the Accession States with reference to the development of active citizenship in regional and local communities. There are some indications of optimistic developments, for example in Poland, with regard to changing perceptions in Polish higher education about the regional role of higher education in the process of economic and social transformation. On the eve of membership of the Union, regional strategy documents have been developed by Polish local authorities in 2001-2002. These documents defined the role of higher educational institutions in regional regeneration and development. In September 2002, Polish universities were encouraged to submit proposals within an operational program for regional development. Social inclusion, and equal opportunities were among the strategic objectives of local development. This is indicative that the participation by the Polish higher education sector in regional development is now encouraged by both the appropriate national authorities and by local governments in programmes for regional development. It also suggests that co-operation with external stakeholders is becoming a key element of the institutional strategies of universities in Poland. It is argued that universities should play three roles in the region: education and training; research services, and the promotion of citizenship values through civic education. Ralf Dahrendorf has pointed to such examples of good practices in the transformation process, and that these indigenous self-generated models of reform could be adopted elsewhere in the Accession States.

The Commission and the Member States should establish an observatory project that would monitor the development of learning regions and the roles of higher education institutions throughout the Member States. Such a project would be concerned with questions such as: how do higher education institutions contribute to the *economic development* of their regions?; with which stakeholder do they co-operate?; what forms do regional knowledge networks take?; what is the contribution of higher education institutions to *civil society* in their regions?; with which regional and local groups do they co-operate?; what kinds of learning networks are developed?

Higher education and citizenship in a turbulent Europe

At a time when the EU is in the final phase of its negotiations on enlargement to embrace ten countries in Central and Eastern Europe and the Baltic countries, together with the Mediterranean states of Cyprus and Malta, the fear of 'the other' and the supposed threat to national identity seems to have resurfaced in the consciousness of the voters and politicians throughout Europe. We would argue that higher education institutions when at their best have traditionally sought to be international sites for the cross-cultural development of knowledge, the exchange of ideas, open debate and critical teaching. From the rediscovery of Greek culture by the Byzantine universities, the first European universities of the early Renaissance period, the reconstruction of continental European universities in the nineteenth century, to the entrepreneurial institutions of today's global knowledge society, higher education institutions have manifested - with greater or lesser success in different historical periods - at least the potential to be sites for rigorous reflection upon, and indeed criticism of, the societies of which they are a part. Higher education institutions are not guarantors of democracy, but they do need to

be seen to continue to play their part in supporting democratic processes, constructing active citizenship, and contributing to social progress at the European, the national and the regional levels.

A Final Recommendation

The Commission and Member States should seek to develop common approaches to the development of higher education institutions as sites for the generation of active citizenship at the European, national and regional levels. This should become an integral element of the key policy objective of establishing a European Higher Education Area based upon lifelong learning in the knowledge society. The contribution of higher education institutions to the development of the competencies of active European citizens should be approached in comprehensive and inclusive strategy of development by the appropriate authorities at the European, national and regional levels.

Appendix 5

DELIVERABLE N° 20

RESTRICTED

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

Title: Higher Education Reform Network (HERN)

Project coordinator: University of Surrey Roehampton

Reference period (see technical annex): from 1 Nov 02 to 31 Oct 03

Date of issue of this report: 31 Oct 2003

HERN Seminar 4 Domain 2 – GOVERNANCE

“Governance challenges for different nation institutions in managing change”

University of Sofia, Bulgaria
January 23-25, 2003

Seminar Aim

“The seminar aims to identify forms of institutional adaptation and innovation that address the need for effective and equitable policy making in HEIs through exploration and analysis of the implications of existing governance change projects on HEIs in Bulgaria and other Central and Eastern European countries.” (Ivan Kent)

The seminar will seek to answer some questions:

What can Central and Eastern European countries learn from HE governance in UK and Sweden?

What are the main common features and differences among countries in HE governance exercised at the national, institutional and student level?

What are the bridges that could link political ambition to practical reality across the future landscape of higher education in Europe?

Participants

Ilze Buligina (Continuing Education Development Foundation, Latvia)

Maya Evtimova (Sofia University, Bulgaria)

Marek Frankowicz (Jagiellonian University, Poland)

Barbara Hengstberger (University of Linz, Austria)

Atis Kapenieks (Continuing Education Development Foundation Latvia)

Ivan Kent (University of Surrey Roehampton, UK)

Vesna Kova_ (University of Rijeka, Croatia)

Agata Kozielska (Jagiellonian University, Poland)

Marinela Mihova (Veliko Turnovo University, Bulgaria)

Libor Novacek (Centre for Higher Education Studies, Czech Republic)

Nikolay Popov (Sofia University, Bulgaria)

Julia Preece (University of Botswana/ University of Surrey)

Petra Schedler (Leiden University, the Netherlands)

Helge Strömdahl (KTH Learning Lab, Royal Institute of Technology Sweden)

Rumiana Taulova (Ministry of Education and Science, Bulgaria)

Julian Whitney (British Council, Sofia University, Bulgaria)

Betty Woessner (SRHE, UK)

Programme

Registration is 16.00 - 17.00hrs on Thursday 23 January, at the meeting room of Ganesha Hotel, .

Steering Group meeting

The steering group meeting will be held at the meeting room of Ganesha hotel. on Thursday 23 January from 17.30 to 20.00hrs.

Seminar venue

The seminar sessions on Friday and Saturday will be held in conference room 213 at the Faculty of Primary Education of Sofia University

Accommodation

Rooms will be booked for participants at two hotels located within a 10-minute walking distance from the seminar venue:

RAI 90 HOTEL

13 Lidice St.

1113 Sofia, Bulgaria

tel/fax: +359 2 729690

tel/fax: +359 2 709133

tel/fax: +359 2 736223

GANESHA HOTEL

26 Alexander von Humboldt St.

1113 Sofia, Bulgaria

tel/fax: +359 2 718798

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Principal Contact

Nikolay Popov: tel: (+359 2) 73 54 240 fax: (+359 2) 72 23 21

e-mail: npopov@fnpp.uni-sofia.bg

Seminar programme**Thursday, 23 January 2003**

Arrival & Taking rooms at the hotels (RAI 90 HOTEL and GANESHA HOTEL)	
16.00 – 17.00	Registration for the seminar - GANESHA HOTEL, Meeting room
17.00 – 17.30	Welcome cocktail - GANESHA HOTEL, Café
17.30 – 20.00	Steering group meeting - GANESHA HOTEL, Meeting room
20.00	Dinner at restaurant

Friday, 24 January 2003

9.00 – 10.00	Seminar session 1 – Introduction, setting the scene for the seminar – a Bulgarian overview. (Seminar chair: Nikolay Popov)
10.00 – 10.30	Coffee break
10.30 – 12.00	Seminar session 2 – The key HE governance issues in East and Central Europe: 5 x 10 minute presentations of key issues (key issues drawn from and substantiated by written papers) given by Bulgarian, Czech, Latvian, Croatian and Polish partners and followed by short plenary discussion to capture key points.
12.00 – 13.00	Lunch at the faculty student/staff dining room
13.00 – 13.45	Seminar session 3 – Developments within the EC – Swedish and UK perspectives: 2 x 10 minute presentations of key issues followed by plenary discussion.
13.45 – 15.30	Small group discussions (coffee break included in timings) aimed at exploring and analyzing the issues and working towards some draft conclusions. Working groups will focus on HE governance at the national, institutional and student level.
15.30– 16.00	Plenary review of progress and look forward to next session.

Saturday, 25 January 2003

10.00 – 11.00	Seminar session 4 – Working groups gather to revise their conclusions from previous day and focus on producing firm guidance and advice based on analysis of the situation in East and Central Europe and the developing direction of EC policy.
11.00 – 11.30	Coffee break
11.30 – 12.30	Closing the seminar – Where next for this discussion? – Plenary session

Some useful information

Bulgarian currency

The Bulgarian currency is Lev (BGL). USD 1 = BGL 2 (roughly). Although there are possibilities of payment by credit cards, payment in Bulgaria in most cases is still done in cash. **DO NOT CHANGE OUTSIDE CHANGE BUREAUS OR BANKS !!!** You can use your Visa card at any ATM in Sofia, the charge is about \$1 per withdrawal.

How to reach the hotels

After arriving at Sofia Airport you can take:

Bus 84. This is the cheapest way. The price of the bus ticket is BGL 0,4 (USD 0,2). You must get off at the Pliska Hotel bus stop. The walking distance from that bus stop and both hotels is 5 minutes. You should buy 2 tickets (one for you and one for your baggage) and perforate them in the small perforate machines immediately after getting on the bus.

Minibus 30. The price of the ticket is BGL 1 to 2 (USD 0,5 to 1). If you take a minibus **DO NOT FORGET TO TELL THE DRIVER** to stop at the Pliska Hotel bus stop. (Minibuses stop only on passengers' wish).

Taxi. The price is up to BGL 20 (USD 10). This is without a doubt the most comfortable way. **DO NOT ACCEPT** any offers by taxi drivers who may meet you in the airport hall. **TAKE A TAXI FROM THE TAXI STATION** located in front of the Sofia Airport building. "OK Taxi" is a good company (their phone 973 21 21 is written on their cars).

Appendix 6

DELIVERABLE N° 21

RESTRICTED

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

Title: Higher Education Reform Network (HERN)

Project coordinator: University of Surrey Roehampton

Reference period (see technical annex): from 1 Nov 02 to 31 Oct 03

Date of issue of this report: 31 Oct 2003

Workpackage 7

“Governance challenges for different nation institutions in managing change”

eForum Report

Seminar 4 was run successfully at the University of Sofia in late January 2003 (see Deliverable 20). The Bulgarian partner had had difficulty participating in previous eForums and requested technical help from SRHE which was provided during the visit to Sofia.

There had been problems with some partners' hardware configurations when using the original version of Groove (see www.groove.net), the software used to run the eForums. The project purchased licenses for an upgraded version of Groove which eliminated almost all the earlier problems, except in the case of the Bulgarian partner.

The SRHE technical expert was able to make a complete reinstallation of the software and to check out hardware and networking configurations. Despite this, Groove still did not work on the local machine used for the project, though it did work on the SRHE portable connected to the local network.

It was concluded that the root of the problem was that the University of Sofia computer was running Microsoft Windows Millennium version which was proving to be incompatible with Groove. Microsoft Windows products are very expensive in Bulgaria and the university could not afford to upgrade one machine's operating system specifically to run Groove.

SRHE attempted to continue to run the eForum for those who could access Groove and use email for document exchange with those who could not. SRHE had already created an area in the HERN website for the eForums. This was originally intended only as an information point and reference. The website could, however, be accessed to download documents as an alternative to Groove and SRHE quickly posted all the papers from the seminar and invited anyone wishing to make comments to send documents to SRHE which could also be posted on the site. Though a more cumbersome procedure than using Groove it was still workable. In the event neither it nor Groove was used very much.

Following discussions between the project manager and SRHE it became clear that technical problems (as experienced by the Bulgarian partner) could not explain the extremely limited success of the eForums. Despite continuous encouragement it was found that engagement was limited and genuine interaction almost non-existent. None of the partners would offer a reason for the absence of collaborative energy and it was not possible to find any other explanation other than something about the technology was proving to be a barrier or disincentive to involvement. It was decided to make one more effort with groove after the Stockholm Seminar and then to review options.

Appendix 7

DELIVERABLE N° 22

RESTRICTED

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

Title: Higher Education Reform Network (HERN)

Project coordinator: University of Surrey Roehampton

Reference period (see technical annex): from 1 Nov 02 to 31 Oct 03

Date of issue of this report: 31 Oct 2003

HERN Seminar 5
Domain 2 – GOVERNANCE

*“Addressing inequalities of gender participation in
institutional decision-making”*

Learning Laboratory, Royal Institute of Technology,
Stockholm, Sweden

March 13-15, 2003

Seminar Aim

The seminar aims to enhance policy formulations in relation to gender participation in institutional decision making systems through seminar and website discussions that will:

Explore some of the tensions between institutional change, the position of women in HE and impact of this on the development of women's roles in the wider society

Exchange and integrate different theoretical frameworks in relation to gender and institutional change in different national contexts

Explore the implications of different institutional behaviours on staff development for women in HE

Produce a conference paper on "The position of women in HE and implications for wider society".

Contribute to a briefing paper for the influence of future policies for HE governance and internal management

Participants

Katerina Argyropoulou (University of Athens, Greece)

Eva Engström (Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden)

Marek Frankowicz (Jagiellonian University, Poland)

Myszka Guzkowska (University of Surrey Roehampton, UK)

Mats Hanson (Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden)

Ivan Kent (University of Surrey Roehampton, UK)

Agata Kozielska (Jagiellonian University, Poland)

Louise Morley (Institute of Education, UK)

Libor Nováček (Centre for Higher Education Studies, Czech Republic)

Nikolay Popov (University of Sofia, Bulgaria)

Malgorzata Radkiewicz (Jagiellonian University, Poland)

Despina Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou (University of Athens, Greece)

Maria Slowey (University of Glasgow, Scotland)

Helge Stromdahl (Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden)

Hanna Westberg (Institute of Working Life, University of Stockholm, Sweden)

IBetty Woessner (SRHE, UK)

Programme

Thursday 13 March

- 13.00 Onwards: arrival at reception Hotel ARCADIA, Körsbärsvägen 1, Stockholm
- 16.00 Business meeting of Hern-project partners
Chair Ivan Kent, Hern-Project co-ordinator
Location: KTH Learning Lab at KTH
- 18.00 Welcome reception

Friday 14 March

- 08.30 Welcome
- 08.30 ***Objectives of obstacles for the practical efforts towards gender***
- 10.00 Coffe break
- 12.00 Lunch
- 13.00 ***Should gender sensitivity be an integral part of Leadership in HE***
- 14.30 Coffe break
- 16.00 Closure

Saturday 15 March

- 09.00 ***The impact of the fundamental goals for HE on the roles of women in wider society***
- 11.30 Closure

Appendix 8

DELIVERABLE N° 23

RESTRICTED

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

Title: Higher Education Reform Network (HERN)

Project coordinator: University of Surrey Roehampton

Reference period (see technical annex): from 1 Nov 02 to 31 Oct 03

Date of issue of this report: 31 Oct 2003

Workpackage 5 Disability Research Group

New research collaboration on teaching and learning strategies for
visually impaired students

Brief guide to policy on strategies for supporting print disabled students in HE

Miesenberger K., Petz A., Hengstberger B. and Fuhrmann-Ehn M.

r³s³, University of Linz

1. Analysis and summary of the Research Documents

The first part of this brief guide to policy analyses the Research Documents of all the partner countries involved in Workpackage 4/5, which are Sweden, Poland, Greece, Latvia, United Kingdom and Austria. The aim is to compare the different situations in the partner's countries and to find certain parallels and differences between them.

1.1 Higher Education Systems

The higher education systems of all partner countries are very similar in many respects. Parallels regarding the duration of higher education, the degrees, the age of entering higher education can be found. However, there are some fine differences between the different higher education systems. Let's look at the most important differences:

In **Sweden** exist approximately 50 institutions of higher education, most of the higher education institutions are run by the state, some by local government and a few are privately organised. Restricted admission applies to all higher education institutions (*numerus clausus*) and competition is sometimes very keen. There are specialized tests for students who are dyslexic or visually impaired. They can choose a version with text in Braille, large print or on tape and extended time. The degrees to achieve are the University Diploma, the Bachelor's degree the Master's degree, the academic Master's degree and the professional Master's degree and the PhD. HE is free of charge for all applicants.

In **Poland** there are 85 public and 257 non-public higher education institutions. Degrees are the Magister/master degree (5 years of study), the Licencjat/bachelor for graduates of vocational colleges and the Doktor/PhD. In Poland are 342 higher education institutions and about 1.000.100 students. Eligibility criteria are an entrance exam, a competition of secondary school diplomas or registration only. Higher Education in public schools is free of charge while students have to pay for education in all types of non-public schools.

Higher education in **Greece** is offered by 18 publicly funded universities, the Greek Open University, 13 technical educational institutes (equivalent to universities since May 2001) and the Schools for Higher Education, which constitute the non-university sector.

The Higher Education grade consists of two parallel sectors: The University Sector (including the Universities, the Polytechnics, and the Higher School of Fine Arts), and the Technological Sector, including the Technological Education Institutes. The duration of university studies cannot be less than four academic years, while the polytechnic courses require 5 years and the medical faculties require 6 years. According to article 16 of the Greek Constitution, university education is provided exclusively by institutes, which are fully self-administered legal entities of public law. These institutions are under the supervision of the state and are fully funded. In planning the development of Greek education, some 85,000 places were offered in the year 2000 for studies in higher education.

According to the **Latvian** legislation getting higher education is possible at state and private high schools, colleges, institutes and universities. The professional education is managed at two levels. The first level professional education establishments are Colleges with 2-3 year requiring studies and the second level – higher education – are 4-5 year requiring studies for bachelor's degree. The studies for gaining a scientific degree will be continued: 1-2 years for Masters degree and 3-4 years for Bachelors.

Statistical data of years 2000/2001 (Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Latvia) shows, that there were 34 higher education establishments in Latvia, 20 of them were owned by the state and 14 established by private juridical persons. All together there were 101.270 students, 86671 students at public higher education establishments and 14599 students at private education institutions.

The **UK higher education system** encompasses England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Higher Education is defined as all post-school courses above GCE Advanced level ('A-Level') or Scottish Highers standard. Courses are available at universities, colleges and institutions of higher education. In 1992 the UK moved from a binary system of universities and polytechnics to a unitary system. All polytechnics and a few other higher education institutions became universities. In 1993, Higher Education funding councils were established for England (HEFCE), Scotland (SHEFC), and Wales (WFC). These funding councils are responsible for allocating government funds to the HE institutions using criteria set out by government policy.

Northern Ireland has both a separate legal system and a separate education system from the rest of the United Kingdom. The statutory framework under which higher education operates is also different. Higher Education is provided by two universities and two monotechnic teacher training institutions. In addition, higher education courses are available at most colleges of further education. The universities and colleges of education are funded directly by the Department of Education for Northern Ireland (DENI). Unlike the rest of the United Kingdom, Northern Ireland does not have a higher education funding council.

Number of Higher Education Institutions in the UK (excluding Northern Ireland)

	Universities	Other HEIs
England	87	45
Scotland	13	5
Wales	14	Not available

In **Austria** 90% of the students in the late 90's attended state-funded education establishments. Private institutions accounted for the remaining 10%. The Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture in Vienna is the supreme executive authority in all matters pertaining to education. Under the Austrian constitution, legislation and execution of all matters pertaining to universities is a federal responsibility. Education is funded by federal, provincial, and municipal levels, the largest share comes from the federal budget. In addition to government funding, the universities have access to additional sources of funding.

Higher education in Austria is offered at university and university of art and music; "*Fachhochschule*" (institute of technical/vocational higher education); university centre for continuing education (Danube University Krems); private university (after accreditation); "*(Berufs)Pädagogische Akademie*" (teacher training college); "*Akademie für Sozialarbeit*" (non-university college for social work); "*Akademien für paramedizinische Berufe*" (colleges for paramedical staff).

Concerning the access applicants to university (and to the "*Akademien*") and to the vocational schools must have a general qualification for university entrance (or: school leaving examination - "*Maturazeugnis*"). There are general tuition fees for university and "*Fachhochschule*" programmes (EUR 363 per term for students from Austria and other EU and EEA countries, and to EUR 727 for other foreign students). Degrees which can be achieved in Austria are the Diploma degree, the Bachelor's degree, the PhD, the Master of Advanced Studies (MAS) or the Master of Business Administration (MBA).

Conclusion

In all partner countries except Poland the public/state sector dominates higher education. As a consequence of this, higher education is funded by the state/government to a very high extent. Only in Poland the main focus lies in the private/non-public sector.

The degrees, which can be achieved in higher education in the different countries, are very similar. The range is from Master's degree and Bachelor's degree, to PhD and postgraduate degrees. The duration of study is also similar in the countries. It takes the students 4-6 years to obtain the Magister's degree and 7-9 years for the PhD. Colleges have a duration of 2-3 years and the Bachelor's degree 4-5 years. Tuition fees depend on the country as well as eligibility criteria.

1.2 The target group – students with disabilities

To give a review of the characteristics and the size of the target group, the following tables and descriptions about the number of students with disabilities in the different countries will be presented.

In **Sweden** the number of people with disabilities enrolling in higher education has increased in the past few years. The term disability is used to refer to a permanent physical, mental or intellectual limitation of functional capacity as a consequence of an injury or an illness that existed at birth, has arisen thereafter or which may be expected to arise.

	2001			2002		
	Women	Men	In all	Women	Men	In all
specific learning difficulties, dyslexia	452	289	741	665	411	1076
visual impairment	77	57	134	86	67	153
mobility impairment	132	72	204	201	93	294
deaf students (with interpreter)	84	32	116	79	30	109
deaf students (teacher knows sign language)	7	1	8	12	7	19
neuro psychiatric disabilities	16	26	42	32	43	75
mental illness	24	30	54	34	43	77
hard of hearing students (without interpreter)	64	31	95	83	36	119
others	75	59	134	104	46	150
postgraduate students	7	10	17	8	10	18
In all	938	607	1545	1304	786	2090
Students who have been in contact with the coordinator for planning of the studies, without applying for other forms of support	408	331	734	538	380	918
All in all	1346	938	2279	1842	1166	3008

Today, there are some 3 500 students with disabilities in higher education in Sweden. This number is based on those students who were admitted on the grounds of medical priority and those receiving any form of support.

In **Poland** there are for about 3000 students with disabilities in higher education in Poland. This number is based on those students who receive any form of assistance or who are registered in Disability support services provided by some schools. More detailed numbers of students come from universities which offer wide range of activities towards the group, for example: A number of students at The Warsaw University is 300, at Jagiellonian University is 200 and at Silesia University is also 200.

The general number includes for about 40% of students with various visual impairments, so it will be for about 1200 persons. The general number of all persons with visual impairments in Poland is for about 100 000 persons. This number is based of data submitted annually by Polish Union of The blind which is the biggest organisation providing some statistics

Unfortunately these numbers are not very exact, because membership in Polish Union of The Blind is not mandatory. Also not all students receive some financial support, so they are not officially registered.

The number of people with disabilities participating in higher education has also increased in the past few years.

Greece: Disabled students at the University of Athens (1993)

Disabilities	Males	Females	Total
Thalassaemia	108	181	289
Deafness	20	17	37
Blindness	20	17	37
Motor disabilities	8	2	10
Other cases	13	1	14

All in all in Greece there are 387 students with disabilities.

There is not any current census of the disabled students due to the fact that the university Administrative Service does not report student's personal data.

Latvia:

According to the data from Ministry of Welfare, there are 121 043 or 5% of all population of Latvia people with special needs in Latvia. 25% of them are at the age of 16-39 years, they might be the potential students of the higher education establishments, approx.30000.

There are 28 students with special needs at 9 (25% of all) researched higher education institutions of Latvia, or only 0.8% of all amount of students.

United Kingdom:

These statistics were drawn from enrolments registered with the Higher Education Statistics Agency in 1999. It should be noted that only students who indicate a disability on their enrolment forms are counted.

Known disabled Students by level of study, type of institution and country of institution

	Pre-1992 Universities	Post-1992 Universities	Other HEIs
Undergraduates			
England	19,579 (4.4%)	22,597 (4.4%)	6,768 (6.1%)
Scotland	3,532 (4.2%)	1,580 (3.8%)	464 (5.3%)
Wales	Not available	Not available	Not available

Higher Education Reform Network (HERN)

Contract nr: HPSE-CT-2001-50011

ANNEX B

Project nr: SETN-2000-00001

		England			Scotland		
	Pre 1992 universities (N=19579)	Post 1992 universities (N=22597)	Other HEIs (N=6768)	Pre-1992 universities (N=3532)	Post-1992 universities (N=1580)	Other HEIs (N=464)	
Dyslexia	27.8	33.1	40.1	29	25.7	29.7	
Blind, Partially sighted	3.9	3.2	2.4	2.8	3		
Deaf, hard of hearing	6.3	5.3	3.9	5.3	4.9		
Wheelchair user, mobility difficulties	4.3	4	3.1	3.2	3.2		
Personal Care support	0.2	0.3	-	-	-	-	
Mental Health Difficulties	2.2	1.9	1.6	2.5	-	-	
Unseen eg diabetes, epilepsy, asthma	40.5	36.5	36.2	42.7	50.8	47.6	
Multiple disabilities	3.1	4.4	3.4	2.1	2.7	-	
Other Disability	11.6	11.3	9.3	12.1	8.6	9.3	

The number of students with disabilities in Higher Education in **Austria** is not exactly known because it is not included and registered in the Austrian Higher Education Statistic.

The Austrian "Sozialerhebung 2002" includes an extra part in order to evaluate the extent of students with disabilities in Higher Education. The students have to answer questions in form of self- assessment. They have to self evaluate if they are affected by disability, chronic illness or an impairment of health. The findings are that 11,9% of all students are affected by an impairment of health. 1% of all students in Austria characterise themselves as disabled, 7,6% call themselves chronically ill and 3,3 % say that they have other impairments of health.

	Rate of all students in Austria	Rate of challenged students in Austria
Disability	1,0%	8,3%
Chronic illness	7,6%	63,8%
Other impairments of health	3,3%	27,9%
No impairments of health	88,1%	

Total	100%	100%
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In Austria there are **616 students with disabilities**. The percentage of blind and visually impaired students is 14,4% - that means that in Austria there are about **88 blind and partially sighted students**.

Bruno Sperl from the Karl-Franzens University of Graz estimates the number of the target group of blind and partially sighted students in Austria by actually about **150**.

These estimations show that the number of students with disabilities in Austria is not exactly known.

Conclusion

The number of students with disabilities and the forms of disabilities depend between the countries. The highest amount of students with disabilities can be found in UK. There are 19.579 (4,4%) disabled students in pre – university and 22.597 (4,4%) in post university in 1992. In Scotland there are 3.532 (4,2%) disabled students in pre-university and 1.580 (3,8%) in post university.

The number of students with disabilities in higher education in Poland (3000) and Sweden (3008 in year 2002) is also high in comparison with the other countries. The lowest number of students with disabilities can be recognised in Latvia – 28 students with disabilities, which are only 0,8% of the whole amount of students. In Greece 387 students are disabled. Austria the percentage of students with disability is also high, 11,8%. There are also a lot of blind and partially sighted students in England -764 or 3,9% in pre-universities and 723 or 3,2% in post universities. However, the highest percentage of blind and partially sighted students can be found in Poland with 40% of all disabled students.

All these statistical data are produced against the background of the fact that only registered students or students who receive assistance or students who are in contact with the disability coordinator can be counted.

In most of the partner's countries the number of students with disabilities tends to increase.

1.3 Legal framework concerning students with disabilities in higher education

In all countries equal access and treatment and support services for students/people with disabilities is guaranteed by legislation. As an exception Poland must be mentioned.

In **Sweden** the objective is to give students with disabilities the same opportunities to pursue their studies as all other students have in higher education. This is also the meaning of the new law, The Equal Treatment of Students in Universities Act. Furthermore, the Swedish Assistance Benefit Act, the Act concerning support and service for persons with certain functional impairments states that each municipality must take measures to provide persons with certain functional impairments with the necessary daily services and information.

In **Poland** some universities have disability support teams in order to assist students with disabilities. It is not a result of legal regulations, but just the initiative of university chancellors (rectors) interested in the development in this area and education of persons with all kinds of disabilities at the university level. Last year a group of representatives tried to change the main Polish act concerning persons with disabilities – Rehabilitation and Employment of Persons with Disabilities Act. Unfortunately the act was amended without taking the representatives' suggestions into consideration. The result is that higher education is not mentioned as a right and opportunity for persons with disabilities.

In the **Greek** document the legal framework is not mentioned explicit but there is the assumption that a legal framework for students with disabilities does exist.

At 4 of May 1990, **Latvia** renewed its independence and accepted The Declaration about joining the international legislation on Human rights including "The Declaration of Disabled Rights", which was announced at December 9, 1975 by General Assembly of the United Nations. The Programme of actions of Copenhagen treaty was signed by leaders of 117 countries at March, 12, 1995. To realize effectively the basic rights and freedom of the disadvantaged social groups including people with special needs, the Copenhagen declaration undersigning their problems. According to the people with special needs, the questions are about the getting of the higher education, environmental accessibility and employability.

One of the basic aims of the Copenhagen declaration is "To involve humans from disadvantaged social groups at social development programmes and integrate them in society, to provide the legal rights of individual at suitable physical and social environment.

There are introduced the target group people with special needs at the laws. There are special educational programmes worked out for them.

The "Law on Education of the Republic of Latvia"-1998, determines, that the learners with special needs can get an education at all education establishments – there are not any restrictions. At Latvian higher education institutions can study everyone who has a secondary education and passed the examinations.

In **United Kingdom** a Disability Legislation with respect to Higher Education does exist. In 1995 new legislation was passed with the Disability Discrimination Act which defined who should be regarded as a disabled person and which made it unlawful to discriminate against disabled people in the workplace or in the access to goods and services

This legislation applied to Higher Education institutions as employers and suppliers of goods and services to the public, however, it was not until 2001 that the act was amended to include students in further and higher education. In 2001 the Special Educational Needs Disability Act (SENDA) was amended to the DDA. The act stated that it is unlawful for the body responsible for an educational institute to:

- 1) discriminate against a disabled students in their admission policies;
- 2) discriminate against a disabled student in the student services it provides, or offers to provide;

- 3) discriminate against a disabled student by excluding him from the institution, whether permanently or temporarily.

Austria: In 1997 an attachment to the federal constitution was decided.

"Nobody may be discriminated because of his/her disability. The republic (federation, federal countries, and communities) confesses to ensuring equal treatment of people with disabilities in all areas of daily life."

It ensures equal treatment of disabled persons in all areas of daily life. Although all universities have included statements in favour of the integration of students with disabilities in their declarations of principles, the way they enact these principles, or whether they do so at all, is left to their own judgement.

1.4 The situation of students with disabilities in the countries- Regulations for students with disabilities

The following chapter will describe the typical situation, the support services and the regulations for students with disabilities in the different countries.

Sweden. In Sweden do exist coordinators for students with disabilities. At all universities and institutions of higher education there is a contact person/coordinator, working with issues relating to educational support for students with disabilities. The Swedish students are advised to make contact as soon as possible with the coordinator for students with disabilities at the university they are applying to. Each university and higher education institution offers special support to students with disabilities but each decides what form that support is to take. There are frequently possibilities to receive various individual support measures, although their availability cannot be promised to all students in all study programmes.

Pre-requisites for students with disabilities to accomplish their higher education

Every university must set aside extra resources in order to be able to meet the need of students with disabilities for special support. A coordinator with specific responsibility for disability issues must be available at every university.

Essential factors are:

- the accessibility of the physical surroundings
- the psychological and psychosocial climate
- the possibility to plan the total study environment individually
- the possibility to modify the course of study
- the availability of special information on the conditions of students with disabilities in relation to finance, accommodation, travel, technical and practical support, healthcare, the co operation and information exchange between different providers of education, handicap organisations, and other public authorities.

Poland. Some universities have disability support teams in order to assist students with disabilities. It is not a result of legal regulations, but just the initiative

of university chancellors (rectors) interested in the development in this area and education of persons with all kinds of disabilities at the university level.

In Poland 11 universities, which have disability student support teams or at least a contact person for disability, can be counted currently. The universities created a kind of informal network in order to change reality in higher education sector for people with all kinds of disabilities. Representatives of universities such as disability managers or contact persons for disability, meet a few times a year. They hold discussions, exchange experience and draft projects of legislative solutions during such meetings.

Greece . Greek higher education institutes accept persons with disabilities in a percentage of 3% above and beyond the total number of accepted students every year. This applies to the Greek Open University as well. There are not any designated advisers for disabled students in Greek higher education institutes. Students with disabilities should contact the Secretariats of the university departments and discuss the necessary special arrangements in advance.

Attending the classes is not very easy for the university-disabled students due to the lack of:

Suitable study methods and study aids, interpreters for the deaf students, transcribed books and adapted libraries for the blind students, adequate careers counselling services, study orientation and careers information

As a result *visually impaired students* cannot read the syllabuses and reference books or use the university libraries. They usually ask for help from their fellow students to have the books recorded on to cassettes.

Deaf or hard of hearing students do not attend classes or seminars due to lack of sign language interpreters at the university. So they miss a significant part of the learning process and the related knowledge.

Students with physical disabilities –especially wheelchair users- have serious problems travelling round the campus and getting access to the buildings of which most are not adapted to their needs.

The Counselling Centre for students of the University of Athens was founded in 1990 and is supervised by the Psychology Department. It is the only university agent that provides services for the disabled students. The main objective of the Centre is to help the university students deal more effectively with educational, personal and interpersonal issues. In this context the Centre has completed three projects for the academic integration of the disabled students. The counselling centre also participated in Workable Centre Network, which gave emphasis to the occupational problems of disabled students and graduates.

Latvia. In Latvia it is not expected that special educational programmes for people with special needs at the higher education level will be designed. There are no developed new education materials and books – the need for new books are for blind people. Developed programmes for university studies are not prepared for people with special needs. To study at Latvian higher education institutions for the people with special needs it is necessary:

suitable physical and social environment;

Development of the special educational programmes;

Individual study timetable;

Social worker at the higher education institution;

Solved the transport problem;

Information;

Harmonization of legislation

United Kingdom. In United Kingdom there is a wide range of support of students with disabilities:

Funding for Disabled Students

Students who declare they are disabled are entitled to a Disabled Students Allowance (DSA). This is paid directly to the students and is used towards providing the supplemental facilities and equipment that the students may need to complete their studies. The amount varies from student to student.

Moreover, currently most institutions now have a disability officer who acts as a coordinator for the activities.

Quality Assurance Agency Codes of Practice

The Quality Assurance Agency has issued codes of practice to be observed by institutions in delivering education to students with disabilities. The principles include:

- general principles (policies, procedures, activities, strategic planning, resources to ensure disabled students to participate)
- physical environment
- information for applicants, students and staff
- the selection and admission of students
- Enrolment, registration and induction of students
- Learning and teaching, including provision for research and other postgraduate students
- Examination, assessment and progression
- Staff development
- Access to general facilities and support
- Additional specialist support
- Complaints
- Monitoring and evaluation

Austria. At the universities of Vienna, Graz, Klagenfurt and Innsbruck as well as the *Technische Universität* of Vienna, representatives for disabled and chronically ill students have been appointed, who are themselves disabled and therefore experts in their field. It is their function to act as contacts for students with disabilities and to counsel them in all matters concerning the subject of "studying"

with a disability". They also act as intermediaries between students and teachers. The representatives explain the needs of disabled students regarding equal access to universities to the heads of staff and advise the latter on how they should react to these needs.

Another institution is that of students' assistants, who respond to the students' requirements in their daily university life. They accompany students to lectures, take notes for them or adapt study materials to their special needs. For that purpose, there are special PC-workstations available at most universities, which are mainly used by blind or partially sighted students.

The *Österreichische Hochschülerschaft* (ÖH), the representative body of Austrian students, has also established Social Departments, which counsel students in all matters pertaining to financial aspects and the contents of their particular courses of study.

One of the most important offers of assistance to disabled students is the **support at institute level**. This particular kind of support is offered by the *Interuniversitäres Institut für Informationssysteme - integriert studieren* at University of Linz, together with its partner universities of Vienna, Graz and Innsbruck and the *Technische Universität* Vienna. A similar service is being offered by the **fortec work group at the TU Vienna**, which is mainly a research institute but also offers planning and development of technical assistance for individual students and supports those students in the technical aspects of their everyday university life.

Legal regulations concerning the right to equal access to studies at Austrian higher education only exists in the area of **examinations**. When registering for an examination, students with a health impairment lasting longer than 3 months are entitled to apply for this examination to be performed in a special way. A verbal application is also possible. For example, this could be an application for an extension of the time allotted for the examination.

Conclusion

In **Sweden** do exist coordinators for students with disabilities. The universities have to reserve resources for special support of disabled students and universities must be accessible. There is the possibility of modifying courses and of lending books from the library of talking books and braille.

In **Poland** there are 11 universities, which have disability support teams or a contact person for disability. But this is not a concern of the government/state but an initiative of the universities themselves.

There are not any designated advisers for disabled students in **Greek** higher education institutes. Students with disabilities should contact the Secretariats of the university departments and discuss the necessary special arrangements in advance. Attending classes is very difficult for students with disabilities because of lacks of suitable study methods and adequate counselling services.

Studying in **Latvia** for disabled students is very difficult and problematical, because there are no services or support like preparing materials for people with special needs or counselling.

In **United Kingdom** most higher education institutions have a disability officer or disability coordinator. In addition to that several forms of funding for students with disabilities is arranged. A central feature of UK is the Quality Assurance Agency, which has issued codes of practice to be observed by institutions in delivering education to students with disabilities.

At the most universities in **Austria** there are representatives for disabled and chronically ill students, students' assistants and Social Departments, which face the needs of disabled students. One of the most important institutions in field of support and service of disabled students is the Institute "Integrated studying" at University of Linz, which will be described in detail in chapter 2 of this report.

1.5 Blind and partially sighted persons in Higher Education

Sweden

Service from The Swedish Library of Talking Books and Braille

The *students service* at TPB will lend course literature in alternative media to print handicapped students at university level.

TPB has a special service directed towards print handicapped students at university level, i.e. the visually impaired, physically impaired, and dyslexics. The service allows the students to have access to their course literature as talking books, e-text books, braille books, or enlarged text. The loans are free of charge.

Modification of the curriculum

If a course or part of a course contains elements such that the student with disabilities is judged not to be able to follow or assimilate the course or part of course because of his disability, then this fact should be made clear to the student by the director of studies in a meeting when the student is starting his studies. Based on this meeting, the director of studies, or equivalent, should in consultation with the counsellor and or disability coordinator decide if the curriculum should be modified for the student.

Such modification may mean that a certain course is omitted then it should be stated whether the time allotted for the omitted part is to be used for further studies of one or more other parts or if a new part, not present in the curriculum, should be added.

If the disability prevents the student from being examined in the manner stated in the curriculum, then the student should be given the opportunity to be individually examined in some other form. In some cases the disability requires a slower rate of study than the norm. It is assumed that the director of studies and disability coordinator and the student together create an individually modified course study to enable the student to complete the education. The individual course of study should be monitored on a regular basis.

Poland*Support for individuals*

There are two programmes of National Fund, which are designed for students with visual impairments.

The first programme is "Student" for persons with any disabilities including visual impairments. The aid is given in base of results of studies and personal situation of student's family. It is usually between 200 and 300 Euros for one student in practise. Theoretically they can apply for about value of five the lowest salaries in a country, so it could be for about 1000 Euros annually for now. Financial situation of family is relevant limitation for some students. Results in their studies also should not be taken in to consideration, because there are some students who have not good results, but who should study and develop themselves. They should have equal right to receive the aid.

The second is programme called "Computer for homer" which aimed providing persons with visual impairments with computers, special software and any other technical aid. The programme is not designed just for students, but for all persons with visual impairments. However students receive the aid as the first group.

Students with visual impairments who would like to study can take advantage of "Computer for Homer" programme and after completing one semester they can apply for additional support from "Student" programme.

Good practise. Fortunately some higher education institutions try to realise equal opportunities principle in practise, not waiting for permission from the government. There are exist a few good solutions for students with visual impairments suggested by Warsaw University and implemented in other institutions:

Entrance exam. Students with visual impairments wishing enter the university can take an entrance exam in alternative forms – Braille, large print, additional help of assistant, oral exam. Every alternative form takes long time, so they have right to take it in extended time. It is usually 50% of standard time more. At The Warsaw University exams in Braille are prepare by Computer Centre for students with visual impairments. In other universities because of technical problems and luck of such centres, exams in Braille are not apply, but students have right to change written form to oral or help of assistant.

Orientation training. Some universities offer also orientation training for students with visual impairments. The training is focusing on familiarizing with university buildings and places, which are relevant for students.

Virtual libraries. The centre for Students with Visual Impairments at The Warsaw University offers talking books and digital library for students. Talking books are recording by volunteers who work for Disability Support Service. Digital library consists of books prepared by centre's staff and also by students themselves. They can copy books and put into library books, which they already scanned if they want to share of their books with others.

This is a first idea of such library in Poland created and managing by disability Support Service at The Warsaw University. All books are available in The Internet

for all students with visual impairments from whole Poland. Using the digital library is free of charge for all persons with visual impairments.

Greece

Visually impaired university students are usually registered in Law, Psychology and Education. During their studies they report the following problems that face:

1. Difficulties in the access of faculties, rooms, libraries, general problems of labelling and mobility.
2. Difficulties in the follow-up of courses, when transparencies or written material are used.
3. Lack of material and technical infrastructure that could assist the students to attend the courses.

Institutes, which are in charge for education, social integration, vocational orientation and rehabilitation of blind and partially sighted individuals, are:

1. The Centre of Education and Rehabilitation of Blinds
2. The "Helios" Institute for the Protection of Blind of North Greece
3. The "Communication" Centre
4. The "Lighthouse" of Greek Blinds²
5. The School for Telephone Operators
6. The Pan-Hellenic Union of Blinds
7. The Organization for the Occupation of the Work Force.

Austria

One of the most important offers of assistance to disabled students is the **support at institute level**. This is offered by the "*Interuniversitäres Institut für Informationssysteme - integriert studieren*" at the University of Linz, together with its partner universities of Vienna, Graz and Innsbruck and the *Technische Universität* Vienna. The institute will be described in chapter 2 in detail.

1.6 Labour Market

In the **Swedish** research document voices from former partially sighted students about their experiences on the labour market are pointed out.

2 The "Lighthouse" of Greek Blinds is a non-governmental organization, which offers services to blind people in the following areas:

- Career development, professional rehabilitation and social integration.
- Social adaptation
- Reduction of consequences of blindness.
- Research on blindness
- Sensitisation of the public on the problems that blind people face.

Finally, in the "Lighthouse of Greek Blinds" there is a special printing centre for the transcription of books in Braille, a Recording Studio for Talking Books and a library of Braille and Talking Books.

- Helena Söderberg works as a registered physiotherapist at Farsta nursing home, which is a private home for elderly people, in Stockholm. Helena can just about see well enough to find my way around.

Helena wanted an active job. She says, "in our profession we carry a heavy responsibility. We are registered professionals with medical obligations, including that of keeping case notes." She describes her experiences in the following way: "I notice that they appreciate me. I can feel it in the air when I step into the room."

"Is there any part of your job you can't handle, because of your impaired sight? - No, but it is sometimes hard to establish a patient's patterns of movement. Then I tend to "borrow a pair of eyes", asking a colleague to describe what she sees. In any case, one develops certain flair, an intuitive feel.

-Lottery control routines and routines for calculating the winnings, that is what Henry Malmödin has on his screen at work. Henry works as a system developer at Tumba Bruk Henry got his training as an engineer at Linköping University. "I can now see how useful my training was. Whenever I meet a new challenge, I feel that I'm standing on a broad and solid foundation, a good basis from which to develop specialist expertise. I believe a solid education and training to be of particular importance to visually impaired people. Your employer will know then, that you can cope with the job" And how do you cope with the job? You can't read the top line at the eye specialist's? – "I have a screen reading programme, which enlarges the text on the screen. And I also have special reading glasses for reading printed text. Those tools make me flexible and stop my disability from restricting me.

Polish economy is in a very bad situation right now and it has obviously great impact on young graduates with disabilities who want to enter the labour market. In some regions the unemployment rate reaches 30% of. In such a situation, not infrequent opinions can be heard that persons with disabilities should not work at all, because they have disability pensions, so they have enough money for living.

Besides, the Polish system of employing persons with disabilities focuses on protected sectors and not on supporting persons with disabilities wishing to enter the open market or those who are already on the market. There is only one programme of the National Fund addressed to the individuals who want to run their own business. Other programmes are designed to support only protected sectors.

It is connected with the labour market. There is a lack of encouragement for employers who want to employ persons with disabilities on the open labour market. It takes a lot of time to take advantage of the existing incentives. The National Fund reimburses funds spent by employers on adjusting work places to specific needs of persons with disabilities. Another advantage is reimbursement of money for social insurance of every person with disability being employed.

Employers usually don't want to wait for such advantages and prefer to employ someone else. It is also a question of competition on the market, which is very strong now in Poland. In case of persons with disabilities, competition has to be supported by additional incentives coming from the government. Otherwise employers will not select persons with disabilities at all.

In **Greece** there are several services for the support of disabled graduates into the labour market:

Career Offices: The university career offices provide guidance services to the disabled students in order to help them understand the particular characteristics of various types of business, to acquire entrepreneurial skills and to transit from university into the labour market.

Career Guidance: Guidance during the career decision-making phase. The existing health problems limit the range of the career choices of the disabled.

The key-terms associated with each individual's career guidance is a) **employment**, both as a means of survival and financial independence and also as a factor of the individual's self-fulfilment and development and, b) the **individual** with his/her personality, experiences, principles, opinions and attitude towards life, interests, skills, dispositions, activities and expectations. When planning their academic and career course, the disabled who find themselves in the decision-making phase, have to co-evaluate both parameters in order to make the right decisions. The procedure of gathering and taking advantage of information about themselves, the various careers and the labour market is the main problem that disabled people face with in connection with the issue of career guidance. The employers' prejudice and ignorance on the matter is another important issue. Therefore, any career guidance approach concerning the management of their academic and career development, has to be based on three parameters:

- disabled self-awareness and awareness of their potential
- information on and awareness of the various academic and career opportunities available
- planning and realizing an action-plan for the future, including information-gathering, decision-making and change techniques.

Counselling centre – Workable Centre Network: This project gives emphasis on the occupational problems of disabled graduates. Centres were established in U.K, Austria, Germany, Greece and the Netherlands and acts as services providers for three groups-the disabled students and graduates, the universities and the employers, each group having specific requirements.

Analysing the labour market situation of people with special needs in **Latvia** we can find that only 5% of working people are satisfied with their job. Other 95% or not working or are looking for another job. 70% of all respondents cannot find the job, 15% wanted to work, but they are sick, and 10% working, but not satisfactory with their job.

The main problem for disabled unemployment is that the state and local governments are not supporting them – 26% respondents; the high unemployment level – 26%; job providers negative attitudes – 15%. To solve those problems and for integration to the labour market employed with special needs, they will have to learn.

The Support Structures for the Target Group at the Labour Market

One of the basic structures of the support of the target group at the labour market is the State Employment Agency. With the support of the Agency at year 2001 there were opened 30 job places for unemployed persons with special needs. 22 of them founded the job without the assistance, by they own.

At year 2002 there was survey of 7511 job providers-managers, to find out their interest to employ the handicap people. Only 22 of them were ready to employ totally 38 handicap people at subsidised job places. Managers are not interested to work with persons with special needs. That's because they should manage shorter working day and hours, have to be ready to ask for medical services assistance.

To solve the problems with the person with special needs on the labour market:

We should organize the explanatory company for society to introduce them about the persons with special needs;

We should think about how to motivate the managers to employ the persons with special needs;

It is necessary to work out the programme for solving the problem by the State and local governments;

It is necessary to find possibilities for reduction of the tax payments for organizations, which employ the persons with special needs.

At year 2000 with the financial support of the EU Phare Programme in Latvia was started the project "Mentally Handicapped children and adults support for integration in Latvia". The project's goal is to support the introduction of the supported job system development in Latvia. In one year 24 mentally disabled persons were provided with the job places. At the present there is established the Agency of the Supported job in Riga with the financial support from Riga city.

In **Austria** exist some important models of preparation in higher education and on transition into the labour market:

Arbeitsassistentz:

As a model for the transition from school to the labour market, the institution of **Arbeitsassistentz** has been available in Austria since 1992. People with disabilities often need special support for vocational integration. Arbeitsassistentz stands for a set of measures of counselling as well as promoting or even rendering personal and financial help designed to further the integration of disabled people into work. Arbeitsassistentz is offered to people with disabilities, their relatives, their employers and colleagues. The service is rendered free of charge.

The service is voluntary, anonymous by request and generally accessible.

Arbeitsassistentz aims at

- acquiring jobs in the open labour market for unemployed people with disabilities
- securing jobs at risk by means of mediation between employers, disabled employees and their colleagues.

ABAk job hunting:

Another model for supporting students with disabilities in their transition from their academic studies to the workplace is the job hunting program ABAk, which was established in 1999. ABAk works along the same lines as *Arbeitsassistentz*, but

with one essential difference: it is based on the "peer principle". The staff is themselves disabled and so, in addition to their professional expertise, they use their own experiences as disabled people as part of their counselling activities. Uniability, the umbrella organization of the representatives for disabled and chronically ill students, was founded in 1997. As a first step towards guaranteeing professional counselling even after the end of a disabled person's academic studies, the WORKABLE pilot project was initiated.

The pilot project showed how difficult it was for disabled and/or chronically ill people with university degrees to find a job matching their qualifications, and it demonstrated the need for a permanent and competent advice centre. With financial support from the ESF and the BSB of Vienna, Lower Austria and Burgenland, Uniability went on to initiate the ABAk project, which has been in place and working successfully since 1999.

The project's aim is to help people with disabilities find adequate jobs on the general labour market. At the core of their work is intensive and individual counselling both for employees and employers. The applicant's qualification is to be the decisive criterion for hiring a person, not the employer's degree of social commitment.

Up2business:

is a new intensive-coaching project of the *Jungakademiker-Service* in Graz for highly qualified people with special needs. Its goal is the integration of the project's participants into the labour market. This goal is to be achieved by means of measures designed to raise the employers' awareness of the problems involved as well as by specific measures aimed at providing general support, raising the clients' qualification and establishing a network of contacts. Another aim is to promote the stability and sustainability of employment relationships. In addition, clients can make immediate use of the organization's infrastructure (fax, copier, PC, Internet, video camera, newspapers, journals, job service, company information, library).

Conclusion

In **Sweden** there are examples of best practice cases, which show that it can be made possible to integrate people with disabilities into the labour market.

In **Poland** the situation is quite bad. As a consequence of the restriction to higher education and the focus on separate education only a very small percentage is able to achieve higher education. In addition to this there is a lack of encouragement of employers who are willing to employ a person with disabilities on the open labour market and competition is very keen.

In **Greece** a lot of services for the integrating graduates with disabilities into the labour market are offered – Career offices, career guidance and the Workable Centre Network.

In **Latvia** the basic structures of the support of the target group on the labour market is the State Employment Agency and there also exist job provider managers. In 2000 the financial support of the EU Phare programme, which is promoting the supported job system development in Latvia was started.

In **Austria** models of preparation and models of integration of disabled graduates like Arbeitsassistentz, ABAK and UP2 business has been builded up.

1.7 Special issues or problems regarding disabled students in higher education

The situation of students with disabilities in **Poland** is determined by two fields of problems. The first barrier builds the legislative framework and the second barrier is the financial support from government.

Last year a group of representatives tried to change the main Polish act concerning persons with disabilities – Rehabilitation and Employment of Persons with Disabilities Act. Unfortunately the act was amended without taking the representatives' suggestions into consideration. The suggestions were written in such a way as to:

1. Create the basis for a financing system for universities interested in education of persons with disabilities.
2. To write and emphasise the education as a one of the most important and basic rights of persons with disabilities who have intellectual capacities to study.

Even the second amendment was rejected. The result is that higher education is not mentioned as a right and opportunity for persons with disabilities.

On the other hand, Polish universities need not to ensure any crucial resources for supporting students with disabilities. Some of them do that, but needs are much bigger than their possibilities. In Poland, the government is responsible for the educational sector and for financial support provided to public schools.

In Poland there is also no national or comprehensive support system for students with disabilities. Universities wanting to educate them create their own regulations, which vary and depend on financial conditions and awareness of the problem. Also, the universities don't receive any significant funding from the government or the National Fund for Persons with Disabilities to support students. The National Fund is a governmental fund responsible for all disability issues. The Fund operates based on the Act concerning Rehabilitation and Employment of Persons with Disabilities.

The only Polish university, which received a large grant from the National Fund for activities towards accessibility, was the Warsaw University. The idea was to give resources for achieving full accessibility to students with specific needs. It was a kind of a pilot project and originally other universities could receive similar grants. Jagiellonian University was another one waiting for the grant.

In May 2003 a conference entitled "Employment of Persons with Disabilities on the Open Labour Market" took place in Warsaw organised by Friends of Integration Association. At the conference the Head of the National Fund for Persons with Disabilities stated that there would not be any financial support for universities wishing to educate students with disabilities. Representatives of chancellors present at the conference were surprised by that statement.

It is obvious that education of persons with disabilities is much more expensive than of regular students, but they should not be excluded from full access to the educational process. Policy-makers should take it into consideration.

The National Fund considers the Ministry of Education the source of financing and a body responsible for all students, including students with disabilities. On the other hand, the Ministry of Education does not offer additional funds for education of students with disabilities except for small scholarships for full time students, which are admitted for individuals. The situation is like a vicious circle.

In **Greece** students with disabilities (visually impaired students, deaf or hard of hearing students and students with physical disabilities) also have to face several problems. A lack of suitable study methods and study aids, interpreters for the deaf students, transcribed books and adapted libraries for the blind students, adequate careers counselling services, study orientation and careers information can be found.

In **Latvia** still new education materials and books have not been developed until now programmes for university studies are not prepared for the people with special needs.

In these three countries a lot of measure must be developed and realised in order to make the conditions of study equal for students with disabilities.

1.8 Problems on the Transitions from School to University and from Higher Education to Labour Market

In general, preparation for the transition from high school to university is poor in **Greece**. Of course, the high school students are provided with careers guidance and orientation services (grades 9-11) by their teachers. However the vast majority of teachers are not well trained and skilled in careers guidance practice and techniques. As a result most of the students do not succeed in acquiring self-knowledge and careers information.

Disabled students face additional problems. Firstly, their teachers are unable to adjust the techniques and activities of careers guidance to the special needs of these students. Secondly, there are not enough research findings about the suitable jobs for the disabled in relation to the labour market needs as well as to the specific disability.

As a consequence the disabled students miss the opportunity to discover their intellectual capacities, interests, and motives in order to explore the academic fields and make a wise choice of studies. They usually choose an academic field on the basis of:

- The nature and severity of student's disability,
- Student's gender,
- Their parents attitude about specific academic fields,
- Student's opinions about study conditions, job finding opportunities, and social status of specific fields.

In Greece a lack of adequate careers counselling services, study orientation and careers information can be recognised.

At **Latvian** higher education institutions everyone who has a secondary education and passed the examinations is allowed to study. The possibility for disabled persons to study is influenced by a lack of secondary education. In addition to that

higher education institutions are located in a big cities and often disabled people have no possibilities to travel- it is expensive to have the private car.

To solve the problems concerning person with special needs

We should organize the explanatory company for society to introduce them about the persons with special needs;

We should think about how to motivate the managers to employ the persons with special needs;

It is necessary to work out the programme for solving the problem by the State and local governments;

It is necessary to find possibilities for reduction of the tax payments for organizations, which employ the persons with special needs.

In **Poland** there is a lack of encouragement for employers who want to employ persons with disabilities on the open labour market. It takes a lot of time to take advantage of the existing incentives. The National Fund reimburses funds spent by employers on adjusting work places to specific needs of persons with disabilities. Another advantage is reimbursement of money for social insurance of every person with disability being employed.

The following chapter will describe the Austrian model of supporting students with disabilities by the institute "integrated studying-i3s3".

2 The model of i3s3 – An Austria-wide Institute for Information Systems Supporting Print Disabled Students (integrated study)

2.1 Presentation of the I3S3 Institute

The institute was established in October 1991 as a model project, which tries to support blind and visually handicapped students in their studies. The main part of the support activities is the digital preparation of all studying materials such as books, lecture notes, overhead sheets, exercises, contents of the blackboard and so forth print disabled students all over Austria. Research and teaching is also mainly directed towards this field. In 1995 the model project was established as the Department Computer Science for the Blind. In 2000 an Austrian wide institute was established.

Research and teaching is oriented towards ICT for people with disabilities, Assisitive Technologies and their application and therefore also toward inclusion. More specific aspects are:

- accessible and usable man-machine-interaction
- adaptive interfaces and ambient intelligence
- electronic libraries and electronic publishing for people with disabilities
- research in pedagogical, psychological and social aspects of the use of ICT and assistive technologies
- access to notations of mathematics, chemistry and music for print disabled people
- document, WWW and software accessibility

- inclusive teaching
- speech recognition applications for people with disabilities

Related Research and Project Activities:

Since the beginning the department has been involved in more than 30 national and international projects. The most important ones of them are listed below:

- **ICC** (International Computer Camps): The department initiated and organises annual International Computer Camps for young blind and visually handicapped students to train in handling the PC, to prepare them for university and to empower international and intercultural exchange. More than 1000 blind and visually handicapped students from more than 35 countries were taking part in these events till 1993
- **WORKABLE CENTRE NETWORK - EUROPE** project in the frame of Leonardo Da Vinci Programme of the European Commission; since March 1996 project manager of the project in Austria and representative in the international project management group
- **TESTLAB** (Testing Systems using Telematics for Library Access for the Blind) project in the frame of EU-TELEMATICS-LIBRARIES; initiator and since August 1996 member of the national working group
- **“Mathematics for the Blind”** (supported by Forschungsförderungsfond der wissenschaftlichen Forschung, Austria)
- **VOICE** project in TIDE (Technology Initiative for Disabled and Elderly People) in the frame of the TELEMATICS APPLICATIONS PROGRAMME (1994 - 1998) of the European Commission - DG XIII, Telecommunications, Information Market and Exploitation of Research; Austrian project co-ordinator
- **EVIS** (Informatics Education of Visually Impaired Students) project in the frame of the Leonardo da Vinci of the European Commission; project manager in Austria
- **ABAK** (Arbeitsplätze für behinderte Akademiker – jobs for graduates with disabilities), funded by the Austrian Ministry for Social Affairs and the European Social Fund
- **Blind-Train** (training of blind persons to work in call centres), funded by the Austrian Ministry for Social Affairs and the European Social Fund; technical support and evaluation of the project
- **BIQ** (training of blind people for the integration at the labour market), funded by the Austrian Ministry for Social Affairs and the European Social Fund; technical support and evaluation of the project
- **DIEPER** (Digitised European PERiodicals) project funded by the European Commission, DG XIII, deals with retrospective digitisation of printed periodicals; technical support
- **ALO** (Austrian Literature Online) deals with making old Austrian literature available on the Internet and thereby accessible for print disabled people. In

co-operation with institutes for German literature in Austria an online library should be established

- **ACCELERATE** (ACCEss to the modern Library sERVICES for the blind and pARTially sightED People) is a follow up project of TESTLAB bringing the results to other countries and involving additional partners
- **YourLife** (Your life, your work, your future: Using employee development schemes as innovative work placed social partnerships in learning: development of transnational training materials)
- **META-E - METADATA ENGINE** (Information Society Technology - IST, EU): Digitisation of documents and automatic generation of meta data necessary for usage and administration; OCR for old fonts; fast search engine for SGML/XML documents
- **ASAP** – (Leonardo da Vinci, EU): Training of blind and visually handicapped students from Greece in access to information and communication technology.
- **ECDL-PD** – (Leonardo Da Vinci): European Computer Driving Licence for People with Disabilities; organised in the frame of the Austrian ECDL-Austria Initiative of the Austrian Computer Society, tries to make the ECDL accessible for people with disabilities and to use this internationally promoted certificate to promote the integration of people with disabilities
- **INTEGER** - Master Study Course in Inclusive Education (responsible for IT in inclusive education)
- **ODL** – Open Distance Learning in Teacher Training for Inclusive Education (responsible for IT in inclusive education)
- **books2you** (Information Society Technology – IST, EU); distance loan system for libraries based on digitisation of documents and integration into a electronic library
- The Development of a Tool to Enhance Communication Between Blind and Sighted Mathematicians, Students and Teachers: A Global Translation Appliance (2001 – 2004): **project funded by the US Department for Education together with University of South Florida, Tampa, New Mexico State University, University of Texas at Dallas and State University of New York;**
- **HERN** (2002 – 2005) (Higher Education Research Network), research on the situation of people with disabilities in Higher Education in Europe
- Entwicklungs-Partnerschaft "INTEGRATIONSFIRMEN" (Setup partnership „integrative companies) (2002 – 2004): **EU – EQUAL project to set up integrative companies in the region Upper Austria**
- Entwicklungs-Partnerschaft "Youth Entry" (2002 – 2004): EU – EQUAL project to support the transition of young people with disabilities into the labour market in the region Upper Austria

- Regional Competence Centre IT for People with disabilities (KI-I) (start 2003), initiating and chair of KI-I, an organisation of the Regional Government Upper Austria
- IDCNet
- D4All
- IDOL
- ESF
- Beirat

The institute is involved in the Austrian wide production of teaching and learning materials for blind and visually handicapped students in primary and secondary schools which is organised by the ALS (Arbeitsgemeinschaft zur Lehr- und Lernmittelerstellung für Sehgeschädigte). i3s3 is also involved in teacher's education, especially concerning IT usage in integrated education.

Staff of the institute has been working for several years as evaluator and reviewer for the European Commission.

Since 2002 "integrated study" is the National Contact Point for the EdeAN, the European Design for All and e-Accessibility Network.

In 1996 the department organised the 5th International Conference on Computers Helping People with Special Needs (ICCHP) '96 in co-operation with the Austrian Computer Society (OCG). Since that the department is responsible for the organisation and the scientific programme and chairs the working group responsible for the conference inside the OCG. 2002 the conference was organised once again at the University of Linz. In the future ICCHP will be the conference of i3s3.

Background:

An open and democratic society cannot and must not neglect the challenges of integration of people with disabilities. Consequently, integration has been acknowledged as a social concern.

On July 9th 1997, the Austrian Federal Parliament unanimously passed an addendum to Article 7 (1) of the Federal Constitution. It reads:

"Nobody may be discriminated because of his/her disability. The republic (federation, federal countries, and communities) confesses to ensuring equal treatment of people with disabilities in all areas of daily life."

Access and integration into higher education lead to a better integration into the open labour market. In addition to that higher education is a way of reducing prejudices against persons with disabilities and promoting integration into society.

With the support for students with disabilities at institute level and the inclusion of the issue disability in the areas of teaching and research as well as the appointment of representatives for students with disabilities as university employees, the integration of disabled people at higher educational levels in Austria has taken a remarkable step forward.

It is no longer an individual's personal destiny, depending primarily on his or her will power and stamina, but a social phenomenon that concerns everybody working in university circles, including the heads of staff. Integration is the task of universities themselves - an **intern task**. It is not an extern task of administration and bureaucracy.

Integration should be seen as comprehensive concept of service provision, research, development and teaching. Moreover integration should be constituted in the structure of universities. The realisation of integrative structures at universities becomes more important.

2.2 The Concept/Model of an Austrian wide institute for service provision for print disabled students

2.2.1 The three areas of work.

The i3s3 institute deals with the following areas of work:

(1) Austrian wide **service provision** for print disabled students

- Preparing
- Introductory and accompanying
- Leading over (transitive)

(2) **Research** in applied computer science

- Methodology of disciplines
- Information technology for print disabled
- Design for all
- Information system
- Social-integrative effect of information technology
- Integrative PC-supported teaching

(3) **Teaching** in computer science

- Support of teaching
- Own teaching

The combination of general and specific teaching on the one hand and research and practice (projects) on the other hand is the special feature of the concept of the i3s3 institute

The concept of service provision, research, development and teaching

The main part of the support activities is the digital preparation of all studying materials such as books, lecture notes, overhead sheets, exercises, contents of the blackboard and so forth for blind and partially sighted students. Beside digitisation and meta-data enrichment the co-operation with publishers, authors and lectures is most important to optimise the document delivery process. The preparation of all studying materials is the task of teaching itself and not an added service.

Research and development work is based on practical experiences made in service provision. Research, project and development activities focus on issues related to the service provision system.

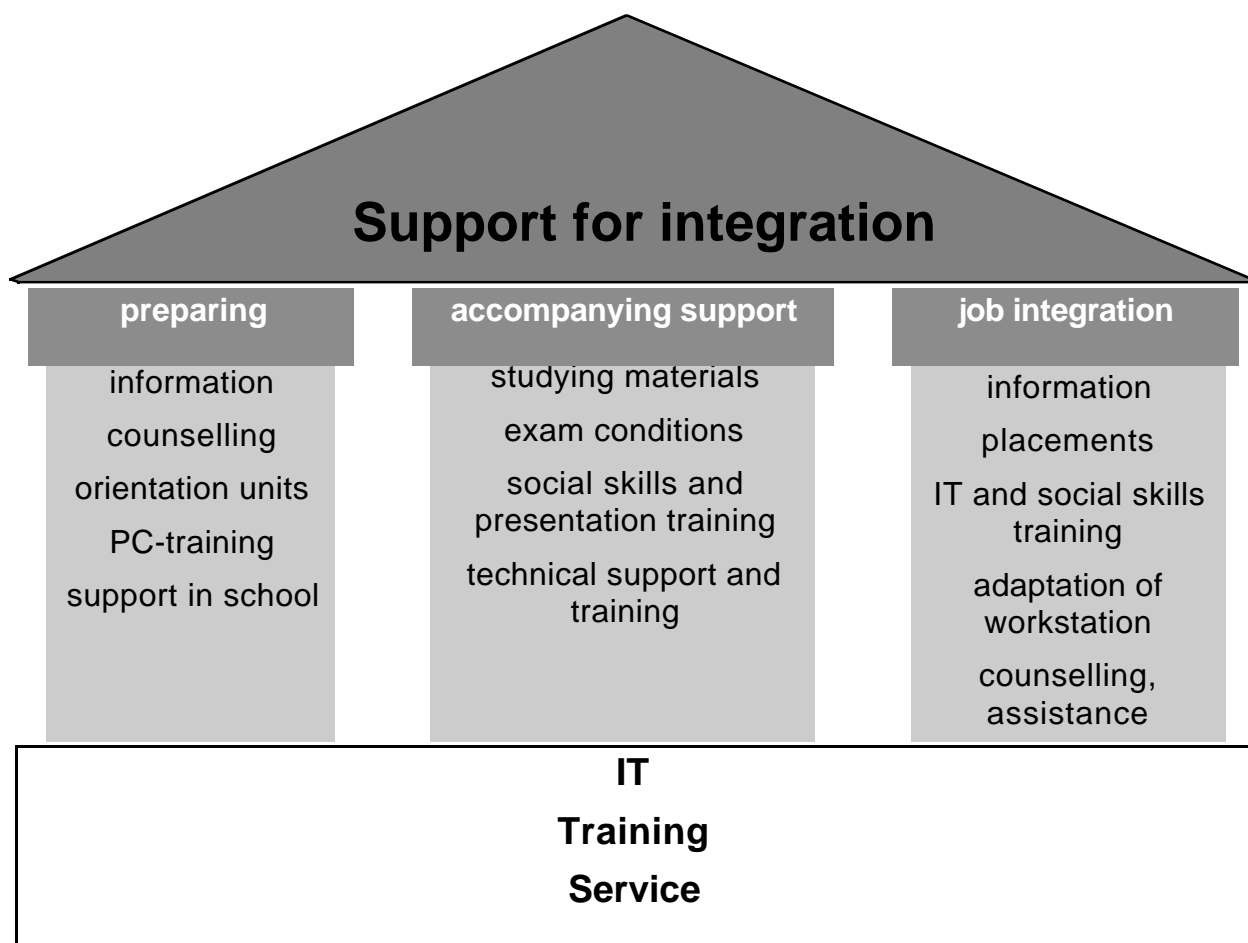
i³s³ also offers teaching and training in IT, social skills, preparing for university, job integration and other fields.

Contact model - support of teaching: Preparation of studying materials

In order to provide full service contacts to different groups of people are central:

- *contact with students* (to clarify the needs/demand)
Organisation and planning of the provision of studying materials forces a high extent of study organisation of print disabled students. The process of organisation and preparation has to begin two until six months before entering university.
- *contact with teaching staff* (discussion about studying and learning materials, form of preparation and alternative methodology, visual methods)
- *analysis of materials* (books, lecture notes, software, media..)
- *cooperation with and integration into the publishing industry, authors and lectures* and thereby the convergence of interests of both publishing industry and service provision organisations
- *preparation of materials*
- *biblio-/mediothek*

2.2.2 The three columns of service provision



1) Preparing service

Study counselling: A counselling, which is independent from the place of study and from the field of study should be established for blind and partially sighted students. The students should be supported during the process of decision-making.

Information: Every year information events for pupils and school classes are arranged.

International Computer Camps (ICC): The department initiated and organises annual International Computer Camps for young blind and visually handicapped students to train in handling the PC, to prepare them for university and to empower international and intercultural exchange.

2) Accompanying support service

Support during the phase of entering university (i.e. support of enrolment): So called "Erstemestrigen Tutorien" (tutors responsible for first-year students) help students with disabilities to cope with the new situation and to get in contact with colleagues.

Private computer equipment: Every print disabled student is provided with a personal computer equipment, which is funded by the public sector.

Counselling and support: If students with disabilities are faced with personal or study related problems they have the possibility to turn to psychological counselling service.

In addition to that students with disabilities are supported concerning social integration
(culture, sport)

3) Transition support service

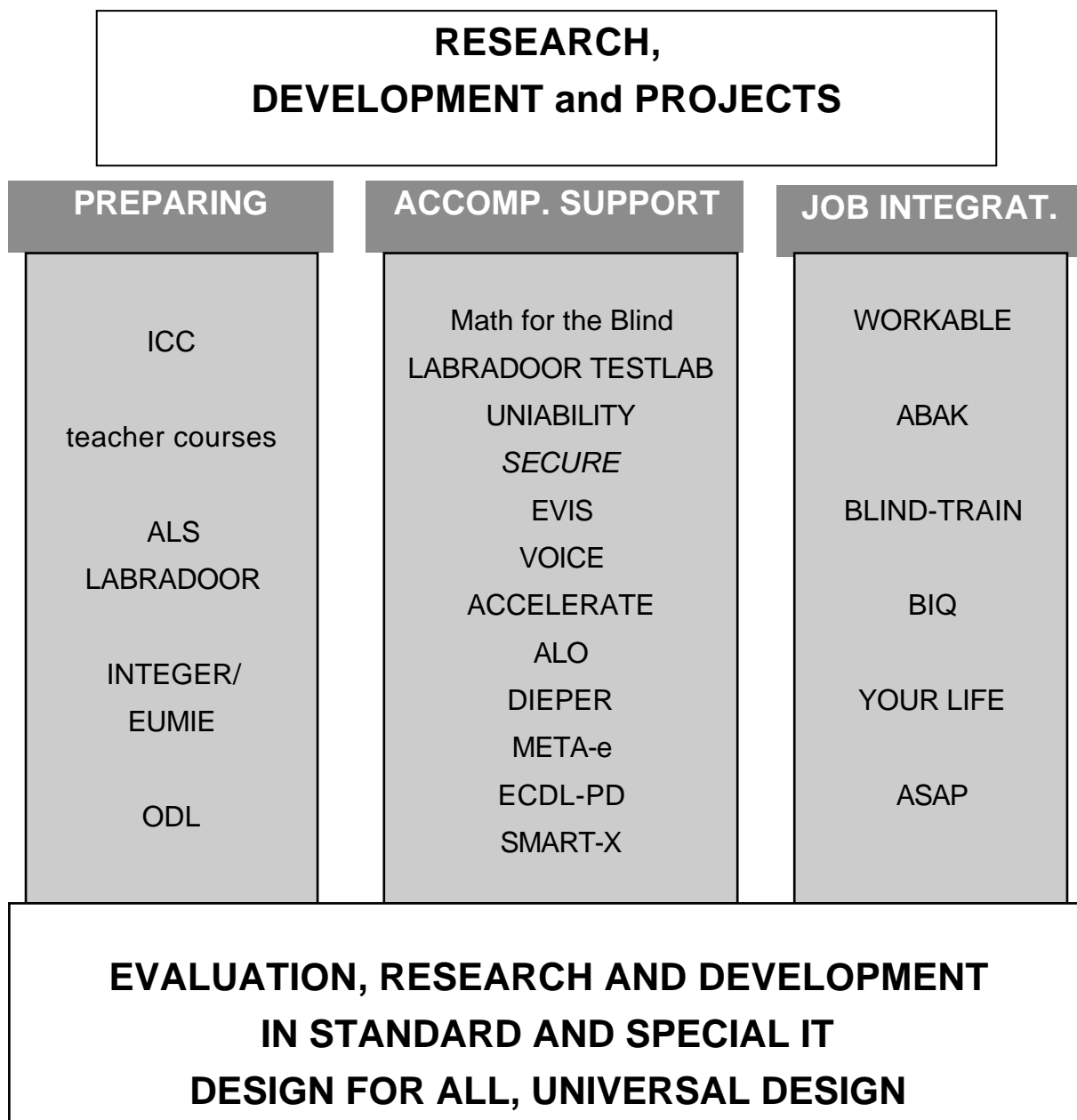
The aim of integration into university is integration into the open labour market – economical integration. The fact is that graduates will be confronted with prejudices.

The barriers should be reduced by:

- Information about the labour market: Information about the qualification and capabilities of graduates and information about funding
- Practice in firms and organisations should on the one hand help to reduce prejudices and on the other hand being employed is a chance to make experiences. The transition into the open labour market should be made possible (project WORKABLE)
- Job placement and job coaching: The project ABAK is searching for jobs for graduates with disabilities

With these three columns of service provision a comprehensive support of print disabled students is ensured. The support process starts before studying (information of school classes, counselling). During their study print disabled persons are accompanied in many ways (preparation of studying materials, social integration, counselling). Before finishing the study support services for transition into the open labour market are offered (Workable).

The following figure shows which projects of i3s3 are engaged in which phases of support provision:



2.3 An IT based Austrian Wide Network for Service Provision – Networking

Services for print disabled people at least should provide access to a comprehensive network of competences, which are necessary to develop the skills for studying and doing research. Networks can provide what is often not affordable at a local level. Local centres can concentrate on their field of competence. Libraries are very well networked, much better than other organisations. The challenge for future library services will be related to more comprehensive service provision in a network of distributed competences.

Because of the coordination and networking resources and structures can be used more efficiently.

Arguments and reasons for centre networking and co-operation for a full-scaled service provision at all universities

Number of students: At the local level the number of blind and partially sighted students is too low in order to install a comprehensive and long-lasting program for support.

Not to force students to decide for certain universities and subjects: Successful local initiatives tend to establish centres of support. An Austrian wide cooperation will prohibit that students will be assigned a place in these centres automatically.

Autonomy of universities and allocation of finances: Autonomy universities are often characterised by conflicts about the allocation of budget. The danger is that integration is only a matter if enough money is available. But if there are problems with finances integration might be seen again as a task of extern departments. The social concern of integration must be fixed on a societal and political level. The Austrian wide cooperation is the only chance to save the structures of integration.

A high extent of expenditure/effort of investment and maintenance: The investment, above all the maintenance of technical installations and the training of personal, forces cooperation in order to ensure the provision of services for blind and partially sighted students.

The need for education in special areas: The fast technical changes intensify the training of special culture techniques of blind and partially sighted persons (arrangement of summer academies, e-learning)

Transitions: universital and economic integration must be prepared in time. That means that an intensive phase of preparation is necessary. For transitions a system of cooperations must be built up (cooperation with schools, labour market, projects for vocational integration)

Changing teaching/learning methods – need for ongoing research: The changing teaching and learning methods force permanent research, which should be characterised by cooperation and coordination between the universities.

Coordination of contacts with the publishing industry: As the access to studying materials is one of the main tasks of i3s3 the preparation of materials forces contact with authors and the publishing industry.

Further education of staff needs an Austrian wide network

-Efficient use of resources: Only a coordination of ressources can guarantee an efficient use of ressources.

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