BUILDING A EUROPEAN DIMENSION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by

MARIA JOSEFA GARCIA MIRAZ

Submitted to the Graduate School of Social Sciences
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Masters in European Studies

Sabancı University
March 2007

BUILDING A EUROPEAN DIMENSION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

APPROVED BY:

Prof. Üstün Ergüder: …………………………..

Assoc. Prof. Cemil Arıkan: …………………………

Assoc. Prof Bahri Yılmaz: …………………………..

DATE OF APPROVAL: …………………………………

ABSTRACT

BUILDING A EUROPEAN DIMENSION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

MARIA JOSEFA GARCIA MIRAZ

European Studies, M.A. Thesis, 2007

Supervisor: Professor Üstün Ergüder

Higher Education in Europe, Quality Assurance, Accreditation, the Bologna Process, University Autonomy.

The ultimate goal of this dissertation is to analyze the state of quality assurance in Europe. A series of factors such as globalization, financial pressures and higher education expansion are forcing the universities to change. University autonomy is required in order to adapt efficiently. The ultimate consequence of all these transformations is a demand for accountability which translates in a need for quality assurance.

Moreover, how the Bologna process and the Lisbon Strategy are shaping the impact of European Higher Education area is analysed in the thesis. These two processes are also defining the European values attached to the concept of quality and the best mechanisms to measure and assess quality. The emerging European quality assurance is taking as a reference the more established U.S model. Based on this promise I compare both systems and identify a world trend towards convergence in quality values and practices. Finally, a series of challenges in the assessment of quality are analysed.

ÖZET

YÜKSEK ÖĞRETİMDE KALİTE GÜVENCENİN

AVRUPA BOYUTU'NUN YARATILMASI

MARIA JOSEFA GARCIA MIRAZ

Avrupa Çalışmaları, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, 2007

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Üstün Ergüder

Avrupa'da Yüksek Öğretim, Kalite Güvence, Akreditasyon, Bolonya Süreci, Üniversitelerde Özerklik.

Bu tezin ana amacı Avrupa'da yüksek öğretimdeki kalite güvence çalışmalarını incelemektir. Küreselleşme, finansal baskılar ve yüksek öğretim alanın gelişmesi, üniversiteleri değişime zorlayan faktörlerdir. Üniversitelerde özerklik, verimli bir şekilde uyum sağlamak açısından gereklidir. Bu değişimlerin nihai sonucu, hesap verilebilirliğe olan talep, yani kalite güvenceye duyulan ihtiyaçtır.

Ayrıca tezde, Bolonya Süreci ve Lizbon Stratejisi'nin Avrupa Yüksek Öğretim alanını ne şekilde biçimlendirdiği analiz edilmektedir. Bu iki süreç aynı zamanda, kalite kavramı ve kalite ölçme ve değerlendirme mekanizmalarıyla ilişkilendirilen değerleri tanımlar. Ortaya çıkan Avrupa kalite güvence kavramı, daha yerleşmiş olan ABD'deki modeli referans almıştır. Buna bağlı olarak, tezimde bu iki sistemi kıyasladım ve kalite değerlerinde ve uygulamalarında birleşmeye giden dünya trendini tanımladım. Son olarak kalite değerlendirme konusunda karşılaşılan bazı sorunları analiz ettim.

A mis padres,

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to thank professor Üstün Ergüder for accepting to take the role as my advisor in spite of his very tight schedule and many responsibilities. His positive suggestions have made the writing process of this thesis enjoyable. Also, I need to thank my fiancé Gökhan Yeler for supporting me unconditionally during my Master's studies and my new life in Turkey.

Quality Assurance is a journey not a destination. (Peter Williams, President of ENQA)

BUILDING A EUROPEAN DIMENSION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CRE	Conference of European Rectors
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ENQA	European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education
EUA	European University Association
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
QA	Quality Assurance
QC	Quality Culture

1. INTRODUCTION

Higher Education (HE) systems across Europe are experiencing important transformations in order to adjust to current trends. The modus operandi of the university transforms according to political, economic changes or the labor market needs. If institutions do not make the effort to adapt the societies that host them suffer. After all, the universities can be nowadays identified as the engines of the economy.

However, HE should be able to address the needs of the society while maintaining academic freedom and institutional autonomy. Moreover, we have entered a new period in which knowledge is essential for the positive development of nations. Within this context it is not surprising that mechanisms which may contribute to the efficiency of the university are created. Quality assurance is one of these mechanisms.

It is necessary to understand the concepts that are going to be repeatedly addressed in this paper. Even though the paper revolves around quality assurance, other related aspects of quality such as its assessment or accreditation will be as well considered. We can define quality assurance as the measures taken by institutions to fulfill a certain criteria. This criterion is flexible because a number of different values can be attached to quality. In order to establish where the institution or program stands in relation to that criterion first an assessment or evaluation should be carried. Finally, accreditation is the label or document that certifies that those standards have been met. Therefore, accreditation becomes the last step of a quality evaluation process.

Moreover, this paper uses the word 'Higher education institution' (HEI) in a broad manner. The word covers all tertiary education institutions: polytechnics, research institutions, vocational colleges and what can be strictly understood as universities. In the analysis, the possible differences among quality measures applied in different types of HEIs are not considered.

QA methods have evolved since they were first put in place in different European countries. Higher Education is a complex world and finding the appropriate measures to enhance quality becomes a difficult task. In fact, economic and political developments force HE to adapt at all different levels. Moreover, the supranational component, namely the search of a European dimension of quality adds another layer of complexity.

As stated above, even though quality is not defined in the same terms across European nations, certain convergence is expected to be reached in the near future. On 24 September 1998, the Council of the European Union adopted a recommendation on achieving quality assurance in higher education. In addition, with the signing of the Bologna Declaration in 1999 a series of reforms were launched in order to promote further integration and cooperation within the higher education framework. Among the Bologna process objectives, developing comparable criteria and methodologies in quality assessment are to be found.

In this line, European Universities are now shaping new approaches to evaluate their institutions and their teaching and research activities. Therefore, a common reference system for indicators and evaluation procedures has been recently designed and as a result, growth in student mobility is expected to be generated. Signing countries committed themselves to establish the European Higher Education area by 2010. The declaration called for a European dimension of quality assessment.

The European Union envisions a university for the future that responds to modern demands and is competitive. Subsequently, universities in Europe are engaged in a number of reforms in order to fit in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by 2010. This project requires a major commitment from all institutions and governments involved. Even though the EHEA was formulated in vague forms in the Bologna Declaration, the key document of the reforms, it has gained clarity in its goals and the methods to achieve them. Quality assurance has gradually become a center element of the university renovation.

While some convergences in quality assessment will ensure uniformity within the European University model, it should at the same time respect autonomy and

diversity among institutions. However, how much this need of convergence will end up in a common set of practices regarding quality assurance is still to be seen. The tension between the need of harmonization and a struggle in safeguarding the European diverse context is a major one.

The U.S QA model has served as a starting point to European universities, which until recently, did not include any type of formal mechanisms. The U.S is a pioneer in this area and the European QA procedures seem to be shaping in the same direction. In fact, if there is no certain global consistency in the values we attach to quality and the best methods to assure it how can universities build trust? In a more global and competitive world, such uniformity in QA seems logical.

Governments are taking into consideration what other countries are doing in order to develop efficient systems of QA. The work of several organizations this matter and their important role in promoting quality are worth mentioning. In one hand, the European University Association's (EUA) research and support is contributing to the building of the EHEA. On the other, the UNESCO and OECD published work is also being influential on QA issues. A consensus on what the best methods to assess quality might be seems possible in a near future. In this paper, the different mechanisms and procedures used to promote quality assurance in Europe will be identified.

2. WHY QUALITY ASSURANCE

Quality is a broad term; moreover, achieving quality in universities is a complex matter. My goal is not to predict how European universities will implement quality in the future since there is not yet an agreement of what are the values that this notion comprises. Contrarily, my aim here is to provide an overall picture and identify any points of convergence that European Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) seem to be creating around quality. In order to achieve that, first I will be addressing a basic question: Why quality assurance is necessary in the first place? And why has it become such a hot topic? From there I will concentrate on the European context: Why has it become such an essential element in the construction of the European Higher Education Area? And more importantly, what does it really mean and how do universities evaluate quality?

In order to have a better understanding of what is really being done across Europe, I participated in the European Forum for Quality Assurance in Munich the past November 2006, co-organized by the European University Association (EUA), the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE), the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) and the National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB). The objectives of the conference were:

> "To develop a shared understanding of ways to develop further a European dimension for quality assurance. Specifically, (1) to promote a sound approach to QA by encouraging internal quality developments in HEIs and an appropriate balance between the implementation of the required tools to assure quality and the need to foster creativity in research and education; and (2) to foster research focused on QA."[1]

The conference was somehow disappointing because I realized that there is no consistent agreement on what quality really means or its best assessment. However, I was pleased to learn that at least there exists a consensus on the need of QA in European institutions. All this means that HEIs all acknowledge the need of QA

---

[1] In EUA' s website: http://www.eua.be/eua/en/qa_forum.jspx

(why), but we are working on finding a common ground on the factors involving quality (what) and which are the best methods to asses it (how).

In fact, the formal assessment of quality in Europe is a recent phenomenon and some countries are still in the early phases of its development. Its emergence can be explained as the result of several socio-economic and political developments that will be impacting HE systems. These changes are explained in detail below.

3. FACTORS FORCING CHANGE

Any analysis surrounding the question of the university can not be done in isolation. Higher education changes according to developments in the environment. Paradoxically, most of the factors that have stimulated the spread of a quality culture in universities do not come from developments within higher education itself but from outside. Even though in Europe university systems are diverse in nature, we must acknowledge a number of broader trends that seem to be creating certain convergence among higher education institutions: Globalization on the one side, and the gradual reduction of public funding on the other have been these major forces. Clearly, these two elements have forced universities to reinvent themselves and to understand their new role in society.

As a result of these two different elements the productive sphere (industry), the knowledge production sphere (universities), and the regulatory sphere (governments) have been obliged to transform the way they interact with each other[2]. To these factors my paper identifies two other processes that similarly will impact HE: a worldwide expansion of HE, and within the European context a desire to enhance the competitiveness of the European Higher Education space in the rise of the US as a major destination for students.

In the next section I will analyze the impact of socio-economic changes on Higher Education and the subsequent increasing role of quality assurance in this new environment. This is also illustrated in the appendix following the paper.

3. A. GLOBALIZATION

The so called 'globalization' process can be used here to explain the dramatic transition the world is experiencing. Even though I will not attempt to define this phenomenon, given the complexity of this matter and the extensive literature already existing, I will use this concept to refer to the emergence of the knowledge-based economy and its impact on cultural transformations in the world. Since globalization

---

[2] H. Etzkowitz, and L.Leydesdorff, <u>Universities and the Global knoledge economy</u>, London: Pinter, 1997, pp. 2

has become the background of today's overall realities, it is not surprising that it has and impact as well on higher education policy-making, management, research methods and structure.

Because the world has 'globalized', the nation-state world system has been altered. Peter Drucker's view of the new world order and the place that knowledge has in this new context serves my purpose here to illustrate these changes. According to him, we have transitioned from an international economy, namely separate national-based economies with national values, to a world economy in the past decades. In the latter, the key commodity is knowledge and demand does not respond to national expectations but world wide needs[3]. In short, unlike in the past when sources of wealth came from land or physical labor, today wealth is created from knowledge. For this reason, with globalization the role of higher education has acquired more relevance.

This link between the economy and knowledge was first raised by Drucker in his book The Age of Discontinuity which was published in 1969. More recently, in 2002, a report was prepared for the Commission and concluded that raising the quality of education is crucial for economic growth. The same study states that increasing the average level of education by one year represents a 5 percent rise in growth in the short term and 2.5% in the long term.[4]

Once education started to be perceived as a tool to optimize the economy, educational reform became a political objective in many parts of the globe. Within the EU, countries are committed to integrate their higher education systems because they see a benefit on the long run. The members work together to create the skilled labor that the Economic Monetary Union requires.[5]

---

[3] In J. Beatty, The world according to Drucker: the Life and Work of the World's Greatest Manager's Thinker, London, Orion Business Books, 1998, pp. 133-156

[4] In A. De la Fuente and A. Ciccone, "Human Capital in a global and knoldge-based economy", Final report for DG Employment and Social Affairs, European Commission, 2002, pp. 33.

[5] K. Barkholt, "The Bologna Process and Integration Theory: Convergence and Autonomy", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 30, No. 1, April 2005, pp. 24

Moreover, during the industrial period, innovation was not necessarily produced by people who were granted advanced degrees. On the contrary, in the postindustrial period technological discoveries are made by people who receive very sophisticated training, which means that today's research and technological development relies on universities.[6] This poses beyond doubt pressures on HEIs since they carry the crucial role of providing the society with the necessary skills that would allow for national economies to adapt to the world's new capitalist trends and develop favorably.[7]

In this new environment applied research becomes essential. Multinationals create partnerships with some HEIs offering research to create goods that can enter the global market[8]. Universities start focusing on research that enhances the economy. Moreover, in this globalized environment, research practices have trespassed institutional and national boundaries in order to maximize the possibilities of a positive outcome. New regional and supranational processes are getting involved as well in the innovation and research process. In addition, the end of the Cold World allowed further cooperation between the East and the West in order to create larger possibilities for innovation. All this attests that a knowledge based economy can not be controlled at a single point.

In fact, HEIs are no longer the only entities offering research. Today, most scientific research takes place in the private sector, which means that universities do not hold the monopoly of knowledge creation. At the same time, we have seen a multiplication of education providers; the university is no longer seen as a public good since many universities are initiated within the private sector. New ways of teaching and learning as an effect of new technologies challenge the traditional

[6] S. Slaughter, L. Leslie, Academic capitalism: Politics, policies and the Entrepreneurial University, Baltimore, The John Hopkins University press, 1999, pp. 27

[7] Talk by L. Colin, "Globalisation and Universities" the 29 of June of 1999

[8] J.C. Smeby, , and J. Trondal,, Globalisation or Europeanisation, International contact among University Staff, Higher Education 49: 449–466, 2005, pp. 452

system and prove that is no longer the only valid knowledge supplier. Some scholars have contemplated the possibility of traditional universities to be displaces by virtual universities.[9]

In short, this new era is characterized by a rising interest in the production of knowledge rather than in the manufacture of material goods. This comes as a result of the need to adapt to the requirements of the new 'information society'[10]. In addition, because the private sector has changed the way they proceed in order to create profit, new sorts of knowledge are required to enter this new way of functioning, which translates in a need from part of the universities to continuously update themselves and create new degrees.

Another important shift within higher education is the way in which the institutions relate to other spheres such as government and the private sector. Previously universities and industry were two unrelated entities. In the new knowledge-based societies, these two worlds have come closer together and their boundaries are somehow blurred because as the economy globalized, the private sector pressured the state to boost innovation. Only by doing this would national companies have a place in the world market.[11] On the other hand, faculties have become more open to the possibility of forming partnerships with companies because of the fact that government spending in higher education is gradually being reduced.

Not only there has been a change in the relationship between the private sector and the universities, but also between the latter and governments. In the past governments intervened directly on designing the university procedures and infrastructures. However, it became clear that in order to cope with changes related to globalization and the information technology revolution it was absolutely necessary that the universities were granted a certain degree of autonomy. If the state

---

[9] M. Tehranian, " The end of University?", in http://www.indiana.edu/~tisj/readers/full-text/12-4%20Tehranian.html

[10] In A. Green, Education, Globalization and the Nation State, New York, St. Martin's Press 1997, pp.10. This concept was first used by Daniel Bell 'The coming Post-Industrial society', Heineman, London, 1974.

[11] L. Slaughter *et al.* , , pp. 6

does not allow for the institutions to make choices, they will not be able to adapt quickly enough and respond efficiently which will in fact have a negative impact on the economy and the society in general.

3. B. INSUFFICIENT STATE FUNDING

Vaira links state welfare retrenchment with globalization. He identifies three structural components of globalization: A minimalist state, entrepreneurialization-managerialization, and a knowledge society. The minimalist state concept responds to a tendency that reduces the regulative role of the state in favor of a mediating one. With globalization, the state role is to facilitate the market while public expenditure is kept to a minimum[12]. In this paper, the financial distress experienced by universities in Europe will be analyzed not only in the light of globalization. Other factors such as HE massification will be as well considered.

We must first understand the new economic and political context surrounding universities and their host societies to be able to comprehend the rapid transformations in the European Higher Education Area. Many authors agree that public funding cuts have placed great pressures on HEIs[13]. New financial pressures are the result of a tax income reduction and a student enrollment increase. The financing of higher education has been at the top of most government agendas from 1990s.

In first place, the gradual reduction of taxes that Western countries are experiencing comes as a result of several factors. First of all, there has been a general spread of the old American value of individual freedom in the Western world. In the US the philosophy of cost-sharing, having tuition fees, was introduced as soon as the market model was put in place as well as a choice made by politicians pressured by electoral competitions.[14] The inability of governments to rely on traditional methods

---

[12] V. Massimiliano, "Globalization and Higher Education Organizational change: A Framework for analysis", <u>Higher Education</u> 48**:** 483–510, 2004, pp. 487-488

[13] Please see, B, Clark, S. Slaugher and L. Colin.

[14] L. Colin, pp. 18

of public revenues, such as taxing or state-owned enterprises has forced changes in HEIs.

During the 1970 to 1994 the ratio of the EU's GDP expenditure going to social protection went from 19 per cent to 28.5. This increase is the result of several factors: population ageing, changes in family structure (more women demanding jobs), high unemployment rates and cost increases[15]. Similarly, the ageing of the population can be explained by the growth of life expectancy and a decrease in birth rates. This inversion of the social pyramid has made it harder for governments to keep funding public services such as education.

This whole picture is aggravated in the education sector because in addition to the scarcity of public revenue another structural change comes into the picture: an expansion of the number of students having access to HE (university massification). Because the university has grown so much so have done the costs. It has been stated that in industrialized countries 1 citizen out of 300 to 400 works for a university[16]. Obviously this added component raises the economic consequences of Higher Education systems in Europe. This trend will be discussed in the next section.

3. C. HIGHER EDUCATION EXPANSION

In the second half of the 20th Century, government started to envision a need to increase the number of people who had access to higher education[17]. The motivation for this political move came from a growing urge to further educate the workforce. This expansion has been somehow problematic because the academic community had to deal with the challenge to adapt the old elitist system to a university for the

---

[15] M. Buti, D. Franco, and L. Pench, , "The Welfare State in Europe", European Commission, 1999, pp. 20

[16] E. Oroval, Economía de la Educación, , Ariel Educación, Barcelona, 1996.

[17] J.F. Perellon, , Nuevas Tendencias Políticas de Garantía de Calidad en la Educación Superior, Revista de Sociologia de la UAB, Papers , No. 76, 2005, pp. 51

masses in a time when public expenditure going to HE was being reduced. Moreover, efforts had to be complemented with a parallel expansion of the secondary systems. In this line the OECD reports show that in 1980 there were 50 million students combining all member countries. 20 years later this number doubled[18]. Furthermore, in England it only took 5 years, between 1988 and 1993, for the numbers of students entering higher education to multiply by two[19].

This labor population had to fit a new environment where knowledge has a direct link to economic development[20]. Unlike in the past, when universities were only serving minorities looking to access cultural elite, now they absorb large numbers of students with varied backgrounds and age, all aspiring to gain useful skills to enter the labor market[21]. Universities are not exclusive institutions any longer where only prominent personalities teach and study. Today, universities are more accessible for women, ethnic minorities and different social classes.

Institutions must acknowledge these changes, the same way companies are supposed to understand who their costumers and their competitors are. Institutions are as well forced to have a clear picture of any variables in order to stay in the 'higher education business'. They must market themselves and count with attractive mission statements. In other words, universities must be ready to serve a large number of students who are becoming gradually more diverse.[22]

---

[18] Ü, Ergüder, M, Şahin, T, Terzioğlu, and Ö, Vardar, <u>A New Vision of Higher Education in Turkey</u>, Draft prepared for the EU Representative Office in Ankara. 2006.

[19] G. Parroy, "Mass Higher Education and the English: Wherein the Colleges?", <u>Higher Education Quarterly</u>, 0951–5224Volume 57, No. 4, October 2003, pp. 310-311

[20] L. Chipman, , "Affording Universal Higher Education", <u>Higher Education Quarterly</u>, 0951–5224, Volume 56, No. 2, April 2002, pp. 127

[21] M. Trow, "From Mass Higher Education to Universal Access, University of California", Paper Series: CSHE.1.00 Berkley, 2000.

[22] I. Bialecki, "Goals and Policies of Higher Education Reform", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVI, No. 3, 2001, pp.352.

3. D. EU HE COMPETITIVENESS

A very important reason behind the reformulation of the European higher education space is improving the image of the European university in the international context. The formation of the EU itself is, in fact, a strategy to maintain a competitive position at a global scale. The creation of the Euro and the construction of a European Higher Education Area, are both tactics to become stronger and more competitive.

Furthermore, globalization and the marketization of HE in general is creating greater competition among institutions not only nationally but also between states. In Europe this is resulting in the penetration of foreign providers and the export of students to other continents. Europe is well aware of the brain-drain phenomenon being experienced. This concept illustrates the outflow of its educated population. This problem is aggravated in Central and Eastern Europe and the Black Sea Region, where many of the countries belonging to this area are EU members or Bologna signatory countries[23]. The EU is accepting this challenge and attempting to find solutions to reposition itself in the global market of HE.

If Europe is experiencing a brain drain, the US benefits from other 'brain loses' around the globe. Currently in this country more than 600.000 foreign university students are enrolled, which makes it the number one academic destination. The make the matter worse, a survey conducted by the European Commission in 2004 concluded that most European professionals working abroad are not planning to return. It is not surprising that scientists would choose a destination that invests almost the double amount of money on research and development per year than the EU[24] .

---

[23] M. Malitza, "Towards the European Higher Education Area: Inclusion of the Borderline Countries of the Black Sea Area", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October 2003, pp. 281

[24] C. Jeff, "How to Plug Europe's Brain Drain", in
http://www.time.com/time/europe/html/040119/brain/story.html

Educating foreigners benefits the host country culturally and economically. In the last 20 years mobility between OECD countries has multiplied, and Europe is developing a clear effort to make the higher education institutions of the member countries more attractive[25]. The Bologna Process and a number of initiatives have been launched to promote the European Higher Education Area. Europe would like these efforts to be translated in an enhanced competitive Union. In other words, the hope is to make the EHEA the number one choice for non-community students. The one time Commission President Romano Prodi, manifested a desire to regain the number one place of Europe as an overseas study destination.[26]

Several countries are creating agencies to recruit foreign students in order to respond to a negative balance of incoming-outgoing students. EduFrance, was created in 1988 to serve this purpose.[27] The provision of visas to foreign students is being eased. Also English programs and courses are increasing. Additionally, to demonstrate publicly the quality of European Institutions, the creation of quality assurance systems and accreditation agencies is necessary.

---

[25] J.F Perellon, pp. 54

[26] M.Van der Wende, "The Bologna Declaration: Enhancing the Transparency and Competitiveness of European Higher Education", Higher Education in Europe, XXV, No 3, 2000, pp. 305

[27] T. Feder, "Europe Moves toward Coherent Higher Education: Concepts for Students", Physics Today, 54 5, 2001. pp. 21

4. UNIVERSITY RESPONSE TO CHANGES

The new environment requires an active response from universities. In spite of each country specific political and cultural realities, they seem to be taking their higher education systems in similar directions. The lack of funding, globalization, restructuring of societies and competition factors are all impacting the way universities operate. In order to cope with these challenges universities must find new ways of funding which means that a proactive management is required. Moreover, globalization and the knowledge base society also demand diversification and integration.

4. A. MANAGERIALISM

As it has been discussed, universities are now obliged to find new ways to finance themselves as public funding has been reduced. They have shifted from general research to more applied science and technology development. They have increased students' tuition fees and started marketing their institutions. On the other hand, because money is restricted, they devote more time and funds on managing the university. Finally, they have started to set up fund raising activities as well as start-up technology transfer, patent and licensing offices. [28] Burton Clark popularized the term 'entrepreneurial universities' to refer to the incorporation of the universities and faculty into the market as a way to compensate for their funds' shortage. This new setting has raised enthusiasm as well as controversy and articles around this topic have proliferated. [29]

Table 3 below illustrate how some countries in Europe have already started to allocate private funds to balance the decrease of public funding going to HE. Nevertheless, not all countries are diversifying resources at the same speed or with the same efficiency. Learning how to generate income is a learning process that all

---

[28] S. Slaughter *et al.* , pp. 65

[29] B. Clark, Creating Entrepeneurial Universities: Organizational Pathways of Transformation, Pergamon, Oxford, 1998.

European HEIs are undergoing at the moment. In this sense, in the U.K a few universities have been noticed to be doing particularly well at this level, namely the University of Warwick and the University of York[30].

Table 1: The change of share of Higher Education expenses in the GNP

| LIST OF COUNTRIES	1995	2001		
		Public	Private	Total
Denmark	1.6	1.8	0.04	1.9
Finland	1.9	1.7	0.04	1.7
Sweden	1.6	1.5	0.2	1.7
Ireland	1.3	1.1	0.2	1.3
Holland	1.4	1.0	0.3	1.4
Norway	1.7	1.3	0.04	1.3
Spain	1.0	1.0	0.3	1.3
Austria	1.2	1.2	0.0008	1.2
Hungary	1.0	0.9	0.3	1.2
Greece	0.8	1.1	0.0005	1.1
Portugal	0.9	1.0	0.1	1.1
France	1.1	1.0	0.1	1.1
United Kingdom	1.2	0.8	0.3	1.1
Turkey	0.7	1.0	0.04	1.1
Germany	1.1	1.0	0.1	1.1
Italy	0.8	0.8	0.2	1.0
Australia	1.7	0.8	0.7	1.4
USA	2.7	0.9	1.8	2.7

---

[30] B. Brock-Utne, "The Global Forces Affecting the Education Sector Today, The Universities in Europe as an example", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, 2002, pp. 288

4. B. DIVERSIFICATION AND INTEGRATION

Since the universities must fill the needs of a much larger and diverse group of students, they must ensure that programs and the teaching provided are in tune with students' expectations. Moreover, as a logical consequence of societal changes and the fast pace of technology innovation the universities are responding and diversifying. A variety of institutions offering education have been created, different programmes as well as courses are being set up. Also, open and long distance learning is now available and more possibilities for student and teacher mobility are being facilitated.

Not only a need for diversification has appeared, but there is also a need to train the older generations in the labor market to keep up with the rapid technological changes. In other words, universities must offer 'lifelong learning programs'.[31] Within this heterogeneous reality, it is not surprising that issues of quality are raised[32]. Since the repertoire is now so wide, some 'consumer rating' comes in handy.

Figure 1: Percent of adults participating in Lifelong Learning Programs[33]

---
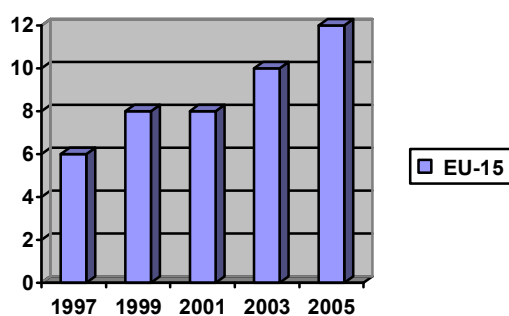
[31] In M. Tehranian, pp.5

[32] J. Brennan and S. Tarla, <u>Managing Quality in Higher Education</u>, Open University Press, 2000, pp. 20-21

[33] Extracted from a Power Presentation made by Andrew Vorkink based on the Turkish Education Sector Study on January 17, 2006.

In short this diversification addresses both an increasing number of aspiring higher education students as well as the demand of a competitive and technologically advanced economy. For all these reasons institutions have started to offer differentiated missions, programs, and modes of delivery. Paradoxically, we can state that even though university policies are reproducing differentiation in order to cope with the complexity of our times policies they are also tending to integrate and collaborate.

In order to be ready for the modern needs of labor market, students should be given the chance to be exposed to different disciplines. Flexibility becomes increasingly relevant in the complexity of our times, because the labor market requires people who are adaptable and even who are willing to change their jobs. For this reason, rigid specialization is inadequate and flexibility becomes necessary. Thus, several study areas must be somehow integrated in order to offer an efficient and adequate education.

These two concepts, integration and differentiation are key elements in transforming the university systems.[34] Differentiation and specialization are required in one hand to respond to the complexity of our time, however integration allows for more flexibility.

4. C. INTERNATIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION

The internationalization of education, understood here as an increase in cooperation between nations, and economic globalization requires the introduction of a foreign language component[35].As a result of this phenomenon academic teaching posts are advertised internationally and student mobility is enhanced[36]. However, mobility is not possible if foreign languages are not efficiently taught within the

---

[34] H. Etzkowitz *et al.* , pp. 3

[35] V. Thomas, "Internationalization, Interculturality, and the Role of Foreign Languages in Higher Education", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVI, No. 3, 2001, pp. 382

[36] B. Brock-Utne. 296

European Higher Education space. Consequently, the teaching of foreign languages in universities is growing. In addition, this is also being used as a marketing strategy that promotes competition.

Moreover, the use of English as a language of instruction is increasing across Europe. This phenomenon can be explained as a change that would allow for mobility, one of the main goals of the Bologna Declaration, and attracts more foreign students. A 1995 OECD publication notices how in Sweden the courses offered in English have increased dramatically[37]. However, no much has been written about how instruction in a foreign language is impacting the learning of HE students, or moreover how the local language is affected by this trend. In short, the internationalization of education is a recent phenomenon and the consequences remain to be seen.

4. D UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY

Several authors agree on a world trend towards greater university autonomy. Higher education has become too complex for states to be holding all responsibilities. The heavy dependence on state control started to prove detrimental for the well functioning of institutions. As a result autonomy and self-regulation started to be on the agenda of higher education systems across Europe. Autonomy is regarded as an essential principle and practice within the Higher Education framework in many places around the globe including Europe. As a matter of fact, in 1988, the Magna Charta universitatum was signed by more than 500 hundred university leaders. The document stressed the need to respect the diversity and autonomy of European HEIs[38]. Later on, the University Act (Council of Europe 1993) granted more financial and subject related autonomy to HEIs[39]. Furthermore, the principle of university autonomy was clearly recognized by the 1998 Unesco

---

[37] In *Ibid* , pp. 292

[38] In the Magna Charta Observatory, http://www.magna-charta.org/magna.html

[39] G. Neave, "The Politics of Quality: Developments in Higher Eduacation in Western Europe 1992-1994", <u>European Journal of Education,</u> Vol. 29, No. 2, 1994, pp. 125

World Conference of Higher Education[40]. However autonomy, although an indispensable principle in any modern university, implies a higher degree of responsibility in the use of resources and in teaching and research programmes. Therefore, autonomy requires some additional mechanisms of academic accountability.

The link between academic autonomy and performance was first envisioned by the founders of the Humboldtian University. Greater autonomy implies that the institution is forced to make choices regarding what kind of education it wants to deliver. In this context the university and the academic staff are responsible for designing the course and making all the decisions surrounding his or her job. In other words, autonomy illustrates the concept of devolution of responsibilities from the state to individual institutions. However, once the state allows institutional self-regulation, it seems coherent that governments would seek to promote systems of accountability. This relationship between autonomy and accountability measures is analyzed in the next section.

4. E. INTRODUCTION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE MECHANISMS

In this new institutional context, in which autonomy is provided, the government does no longer have a monopoly in funding but assures that consumer's choices will meet certain standards. In Colin's words: 'The state is assuming a role of guarantor of outcomes'[41]. The new institutional powers will enable universities to operate more freely to meet the expectations that the government creates. Therefore, previous state control is replaced by an output focus. By adopting QA mechanisms states are able to change this focus from the input to the output.

In addition, universities students are perceived more than ever as 'customers' and HEIs have to be more responsive than ever to their needs. Unlike in the past, when state had the obligation to subsidize the university now they subsidize the

---

[40] T. François for ELU (The Latin European Universities Group) ,"Quality assurance: A reference system for indicators and evaluation procedures", EUA European University, European University Association 2004, pp. 50

[41] L. Colin, pp. 18

consumer, the student. As a result of this ideology of servicing, the need for standardization and control has been created. In this context, a number of procedures are introduced to ensure that minimum quality standards are met, as a result of which stakeholders will be able to trust the institution in question. Therefore, QA can be seen as a system that promotes quality in one hand, and accountability on the other.

Universities should be accountable to students, parents, employers as well as any other stakeholders. The traditional university has not been sufficiently accountable, but because of the new trends within higher education and the society as a whole the time has come when the introduction of accountability mechanisms become imperative. Another incentive for quality issues is the emergence of competition because it motives universities to take notice of students needs more than ever before.

In short, systems of quality assessment are being put in place to counterbalance the past control exercised by the state. QA compels institutions to make careful choices: They can no longer supply what they wish but what is needed to meet certain goals. Additionally, by using indicators of quality, institutions are able to develop a constructive dialogue with government bodies that regulate them or institutions that finance them.

Neave has referred to this change in the relationship between state, society and education as the emergence of the evaluative state. He considers this new relationship a new step towards adjusting Higher Education to an education for the masses. He sees this change in the state control pattern significant since they have remained untouched for a century and even longer in some Western European Countries. [42] The traditional makings of people involved in universities are being altered by new policies related to accountability.

---

[42] G. Neave, "On the Cultivation of Quality, Efficiency and Enterprise: An Overview of Recent Trends in Higher Education in Western Europe, 1986-1988", <u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol. 23, Nos, 1/2; 1988, pp. 20-21

Furthermore, since education has become more international and mobility of students and staff is more common, there is an increasing pressure on institutions to harmonize their curricula as well as to provide for some uniform quality standards. In this regard, a European Higher Education Area in which students and professors move around freely presupposes a basis of knowledge and trust concerning the different environments of learning, teaching or research expected to be created by 2010.[43]

Against this background, the European Council adopted in 2001 a number of goals to make education and training systems in Europe a worldwide quality reference by 2010.[44] Therefore, quality assurance also aims to increase competitiveness of European Universities in a time where globalization is creating new challenges for Higher Education institutions.

QA has come as a result of this new setting of relationships. Since QA is a relatively new phenomenon the number of articles and studies concerning quality in European universities are proliferating. However, there are hardly any studies regarding the real impact that these evaluations are having. We can argue that even though there is a consensus on the need of quality processes on universities, it is not so clear who should have the control and what should be the best methods for its assessment. The debate around quality and Higher Education is likely to continue for some time.

---

[43] S. Reichter, and C. Tauch, <u>Trends IV: European Universities implementing Bologna</u>, EUA Publications, 2005, pp. 28

[44] Communication from the Commission, " Education and Training 2010. The success of the Lisbon Strategy Hinges on Urgent reforms", COM (2003) 685 final of 11 of November, 2003.

5. EU CONTRIBUTION IN QUALITY ASSURANCE DEVELOPMENTS

The EU has not developed an education policy and does not have formal jurisdiction over higher education[45]. Education remains a national prerogative. This means that supranational bodies can launch initiatives, however the Subsidiarity principle, applies[46]. This principle dictates that decisions should be made at the lowest level and by those who are the most affected.

In spite of legal limitations, it would be fair to say that the EU has played an important role in the proliferation of quality processes in European universities. A great effort is being made towards the construction of the European Higher Education Area and two processes are involved in this project: The Lisbon Strategy and the Bologna Declaration. Moreover, the Union has always encouraged co-operation between member states and over the last few years we have seen an increasing number of recommendations targeting Higher Education. The EU is transforming quickly, and the political and economic reforms coming from this supranational entity are altering European higher institutions in a number of ways.

The launching by the Commission of the Erasmus Programme in 1987 was an important step in the development of the European Higher Education Area[47]. This first project served as a starting point and as a first hand experience of mobility within the European space. With the program many institutions started establishing networks and the positive outcomes motivated a desire to expand European cooperation in issues related to higher education.

The Bologna Process on one side and the Lisbon Strategy on the other are the two driving forces of the reforms that HEIs are undertaking. Even though these two

---

[45] K. Barkholt, "The Bologna Process and Integration Theory: Convergence and Autonomy", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 30, No. 1, April 2005, pp. 26

[46] M. Van der Wende, pp. 306

[47] E. Froment, "The European Higher Education Area: A New Framework for the Development of Higher Education", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVIII, No. 1, April 2003, pp. 28

processes share some goals, they are distinct in nature and we should keep them separate. In any case, education is developing within an intergovernmental context because governments have always been reluctant to give up their sovereignty on such a crucial issue as education. The Bologna declaration clearly states that the higher education integration should be carried in an intergovernmental manner.[48] Similarly, since European higher education structures are very diverse and unique in some cases, an imposition on harmonization is difficult to accept. Nevertheless, an increasing interest on mutual recognition of degrees has aroused as a logical consequence of the freedom of mobility given to EU citizens. The documents of the Bologna process do not explicitly ask for harmonization, instead the terminology used to refer to this overall alignment of Higher Education structures in Europe is convergence, a term that allows for more flexibility.

The first time that representatives of European institutions met was in 1955. In that year the rectors and presidents of several institutions met in Cambridge to cooperate in several fields.[49] During the 1950s, Europe was embedded in a debate concerning the type of relationship they should be carrying. The disagreement between the Unionists and the Federalists has continued for long, and similarly, the way universities should cooperate in Europe is still controversial.

Today, the Bologna process and the Lisbon Strategy pose new challenges to institutions. These two processes represent a political commitment and give universities a responsibility to change in order to create the European Higher Education Area by 2010. Only after accepting the responsibility and acquiring an assertive spirit of reform the goals of these strategies will be implemented.

---

[48] Bologna Declaration, in http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/990719BOLOGNA_DECLARATION.PDF

[49] A. Barblan, "Academic Co-operation and Mobility in Europe: How it Was and How it Will Be", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVII, Nos. 1–2, 2002, pp. 31

5. A THE LISBON STRATEGY

The Lisbon strategy came as a possible answer to high rates of unemployment and the stagnation of the European economy in general. It was during the European Council in Lisbon 2000 when the basic goal of the strategy was laid out. In the concluding report it was stated: '**The Union has set today a new strategic goal for the next decade: to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and greater cohesion**.' It continues detailing the aims of the strategy, the first one 'preparing the transition to a knowledge-based economy and society by better policies for the information society and research and development, as well as by stepping up the process of structural reform for competitiveness and innovation and by completing the internal market'. Similarly, the strategy set as part of the political orientation 'new priorities defined for national educational policies'[50]. The same draft acknowledges the need to update educational structures to be able to adjust to the needs of the information technology society from an employability perspective.

Such an ambitious project requires an action plan. A year later the Council adopted in Stockholm a document that detailed the steps to be taken to reach the goals of the Strategy. These are:

- Improving the quality of education and training systems. This would be done by improving the access of technology and increasing human resources' capital.
- Facilitating access to learning in general
- Opening education and training to the world [51]

The internationalization of education brings an important financial gain to countries and the strategy aims at achieving this while attracting foreign students. In

---

[50] Presidency conclusions, Lisbon European Council, 23 and 24 March. In http://ue.eu.int/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/00100-r1.en0.htm

[51] Report from the Commission of 31 January 2001: The Concrete future objective of Education systems. In   http://europa.eu/scadplus/leg/en/cha/c11049.htm

the European Council in Barcelona 2002, the need for reform was again recognized and called for European institutions to become a 'World reference by 2010'[52].

Therefore, the Lisbon Strategy is a long term plan to modernized Europe's social model and its economy. It is important to understand the relationship between its objectives and the tools identified to achieve them. The educational reform fits the within the ultimate goal of improving the Union's economy and particularly strengthening employment.

5. B THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

The Bologna Process on the other hand, was initiated in 1999 with the signing of the Bologna Declaration by the Education Ministers of 29 European counties. It's goal: '**to create a European space for higher education in order to enhance the employability and mobility of citizens and to increase the international competitiveness of European higher education'**; Improving competion and employment are shared goals of both the Lisbon Strategy and the Bologna process. At the same time both actions give quality a paramount role in the achievement of their ultimate goals.

5. B.1 THE BOLOGNA DECLARATION

The Bologna process developed as a result of another document, the Sorbonne Declaration of 1998 which called for the harmonization of the European Higher Education Area. The latter Declaration was signed by the Ministers of Germany, Italy, United Kingdom and France. These countries invited others to join and with the signing of the Bologna Declaration, this time by 29 ministers, already some concrete goals were laid out:

- Adoption of a system of degrees that are easily readable and comparable in order to promote the employability of European citizens and the international competitiveness of the European system of higher education;

---

[52] The Barcelona European Council, Presidency conclusions. In http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/71025.pdf

The comparability of degrees has been a goal from the beginning because it allows for mobility. In this line, the European Commission funded in 2001 the 'Tuning Project', aiming at identifying convergence points across HEIs. The goal is to understand what common reference points are in Europe to enhance transparency and facilitate qualifications recognition. It addresses the relationship between learning outcomes, what the students are able to perform after receiving a degree, and employability[53].

- ▪ Adoption of a system based on two cycles: An undergraduate first study cycle of minimum three years of duration, recognized in the European labor market and in the higher education system as an adequate level of qualification. In order to access the graduate cycle one must have completed the first cycle. Similarly, the second cycle would lead to doctorate studies.

The implementation of a two-cycle structure is a key element in the Bologna process. The model is based on the Anglo-Saxon model, namely the US and UK's university structures which is structured around three differentiated study stages: Bachelor's, Master's and Doctorate cycles. Some countries in Europe such as Germany or Spain had a one introductory cycle structure and internationally the diploma awarded was viewed as something in between of a Master's and a Bachelor's degree. The introduction of this 3 + 2 system is necessary for readability of degrees from one European country to another. In addition it contributes to the internationalization of European education since national systems that used to be opaque become more comparable.

On the other side, the new 3<5<8 system is supposed to ease the financial burden on governments that still offer free higher education: Since the first degree is granted after only three years in this new structure, the state subsidizes students for a shorter period of time. Moreover, the two-cycle structure might help improve the

---

[53] J. González, and R. Wagenaar, <u>Tuning Educational Structures in Europe Final Report</u>, University of Deusto 2003.

dropout rate because students are able to obtain a diploma earlier[54]. However, this change also implies a large commitment coming from universities since their curriculums must be modified to fit this system. It is also challenging to 'sell' the bachelor degree as a diploma that is market relevant in countries where they are being introduced. They must ensure that appropriate instruction is offered during those three years duration to guarantee a relevant formation that fits the labor market demands.

- Establishment of a system of credits, *i.e.*, development of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) as well as credit for experimental learning and learning in non-higher education contexts, provided that such credit is recognized by the university system as a way to favor the most extensive student mobility;

Creating a universal system of credit responds to the need of internationalization of education. Universities can not recruit students coming from other institutions if they can not recognize the credits. Therefore ECTS allows for mobility. They were designed by the European Commission as an answer to the recognition of studies of students participating in programs such as Erasmus.[55] Universities assign points (credits) to the courses in their curricula, for which courses become quantifiable and therefore become more easily transferable[56]. An information document clarifying the curricula and the study-points is attached. The use of norm-referencing for calculation of the grade is the base of ECTS. This means that the student performance will not be the only factor shaping the final grade, but also the achievement of the other students will be taken into account.

Furthermore the following were adopted to facilitate academic mobility:

---

[54] T. Feder, "Europe Moves toward Coherent Higher Education: Concepts for Students", Physics Today 54 5 , 2001, pp. 22

[55] T. Karran, "Achieving Bologa Convergence: Is ECTS Failing to Make the Grade?" Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, October 2004, pp. 413

[56] D. Van Damme, "Quality Issues in the Internationalization of Higher Education", Higher Education 41: 415-441, 2001. pp. 428

- Elimination of the remaining obstacles to the effective exercise of the right to free mobility and equal treatment with particular regard:

- to students, access to all aspects of education;

-to teachers, researchers and administrative staff, the recognition and valorization of periods spent in a European country doing academic work, without prejudice to their social security rights.

- Promotion of criteria and methodologies for quality assessment;

- Implementation of the necessary European dimensions of the higher education space, particularly with regard to curricular contents, inter-institutional co-operation, mobility schemes, and integrated programmes of study, training, and research[57].

Therefore, the Declaration meant the first step towards European cooperation in quality assessment. A European Dimension was expected in many internal university aspects. However, the same document remains rather vague in how to achieve quality or how to asses it.

The Bologna process did not originate from within the EU. However, the Commission soon gave support to its implementation because without any doubt improving transparency and increasing quality would in the long run have an impact on key EU issues i.e. mobility and ultimately employability. In fact, programmes such as Erasmus, designed by the Commission's Directorate-General of Education and Culture, promote the same objectives (transparency, mobility) as the ones embedded in the Bologna process.

The Bologna Declaration is the key document in the reforms of the European higher education space among all the ones produced after the signing of the Sorbonne Declaration. Since its signing a number of structural reforms have been put in place. The impact of the Bologna Declaration is still being felt and will continue to drive changes for some time.

---

[57] Bologna Declaration, in http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/990719BOLOGNA_DECLARATION.PDF

5. B. 2. THE PRAGUE COMMUNIQUÉ

In 2001, the Ministers of the signatory countries met again in Prague to review the process. In this meeting not only the Ministers were present but also several representatives of the academic scene, namely members of the European University Association (EUA) and the National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB)[58] . The former organization was born in 2001 after a merger between the Association of European Universities (CRE) and the Confederation of the European Union Rector's Conferences took place. In Prague three new goals were set for the construction of the European Higher Education Area:

- ▪ Promotion of lifelong learning in order to adapt to the needs of the knowledge-society.
- ▪ Involvement of universities and students in the construction of the European Higher Education Area. Students are valued as valuable and constructive partners.
- ▪ Improvement of the competitiveness of European universities. This should be done by encouraging a common framework of qualifications, increasing information and introducing quality processes[59].

During this meeting the importance of the cooperation between different actors committed to improving quality was recognized. Similarly, EUA and ESIB are accepted as key institutions in the development of Quality processes in the European Higher Education area. This new setting at the Prague meeting translates into a new effort to provide for a more participatory, accountable, open and effective system, which is also referred to as good governance. The Communiqué becomes more specific in issues related to quality.

In the same meeting Ministers decided upon the need of follow-up work and established two groups, a follow-up group composed by representatives of signatory

---

[58] H. Sebkova, "Accreditation and Quality Assurance in Europe", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVII, No. 3, 2002, pp. 240

[59] Prague Communiqué, in http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/010519PRAGUE_COMMUNIQUE.PDF

countries and a preparatory group, which would include representatives of the countries hosting the previous ministerial meetings and the next one, two EU member states and two non members. In both groups the Commission and the EU Presidency would be taking a part. In addition, the EUA, the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE), ESIB and the Council of Europe should be as well consulted in the follow-up work. The groups were encouraged to meet and explore ways to meet the objectives as laid in the Bologna Declaration and the Prague Communiqué including the assessment of quality in Higher Education.

The meeting in Prague created a new debate: Is higher education a public good? The concept of the social dimension of education first appeared in the Prague Communiqué. In a follow up seminar that took place in Athens, it was stated that the European Higher Education Area should aim at reducing social differences. Higher Education must be accessible to all and be able to meet the need of all students without discriminating. Similarly it must provide not only economic services but also cultural and social services to the society. The social dimension of Education should counterbalance the need for competitiveness.[60] This perspective opposes to that who view higher education as a market. The debate around higher education as a market or as a public good continues.

5. B. 3 THE BERLIN COMMUNIQUÉ

Again in 2003, and enlarged group of 33 Ministers met in Berlin to review the progress achieved in the past two years and to set new priorities. Among all the objectives envisioned, they decided that efforts should focus on the improvement of the two-cycle degree system and the recognition of degrees, and to promote effective quality assurance systems. Therefore, quality was made a priority during this period because it is perceived as the key measure to achieve the goals for the EHEA. From this point the debates and discussions around quality have escalated.

---

[60] D. Kladis, "The Social Dimension of the Bologna Process", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October 2003, pp. 354

The report produced at this meeting, considers quality 'to be at the heart of the setting up of the European Higher Education Area'[61]. And, even though quality assurance lies with each university as part of the principle of university autonomy, cooperation between signatory countries is encouraged in order to develop common standards and methodologies. Furthermore, it stated that in the next two years national quality assurance systems should include the following:

1. A definition of the responsibilities of the bodies and institutions involved.
2. Evaluation of programmes or institutions, including internal assessment, external review, participation of students and the publication of results.
3. A system of accreditation, certification or comparable procedures.
4. International participation, co-operation and networking.

A commitment to developing national and European accreditation systems appeared for the first time in Berlin. European Accreditation becomes a possible alternative to the diversity of national quality assurance systems. It is also worth noticing, that during the meeting in Berlin an emphasis was given to the role of the university as the ultimate responsible in the improvement of quality. The Ministers of the signatory countries invited the European Network for Quality Assurance (ENQA) to create a set of standards, procedures and guidelines on quality assurance to be later reviewed later. Follow-up groups are again defined to prepare the ground for the next meeting.

5. B. 4. THE BERGEN COMMUNIQUÉ

In Bergen 2005, quality was again an important item of the agenda. It was decided that student involvement and international cooperation in issues relating quality have not yet been introduced effectively. Internal quality processes are encouraged with direct correlation to external quality methods. In addition the possibility of a European register of quality assurance agencies based on national

---

[61] Berlin Communiqué, in http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/030919Berlin_Communique.PDF

review which would certify accrediting bodies is introduced[62]. A European Register has not yet been created. The next Ministerial meeting to review the state of the process will take place in London in 2007.

The process has prompted the reorganization of national higher education systems and it would be fair to state that this restructure would be organized around three key elements: the establishment of a bachelor/master structure, the adoption of transferable credits (ECTS), and the introduction of quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms. In this line, most European countries have already adopted the two cycle structures as envisioned in the declaration as well as ECTS. The adoption of similar quality standards will come subsequently. There seems to be a long road ahead.

5. C. THE EFFECTS OF LISBON AND BOLOGNA

It is fair to say that the Bologna serves and fits the purposes of the more ambitious Lisbon's goals[63] . In the Berlin Communiqué the goals of the Lisbon Strategy are acknowledged by the Ministers. Moreover, the deadline for the accomplishment of the Lisbon Strategy objectives coincides with the date laid out to establish the European Higher Education Area (2010) and both call for compatibility and transparency. This allows for mobility and as a consequence unemployment can be targeted.

On the other hand, we must understand that the two processes are driven by different demands. Bologna is a more flexible project involving 45 countries and not only EU members like in the case of the Lisbon strategy. The latter pushes for reform on higher education in order to improve economic indexes and it looks at it from a narrower perspective, mostly regarding research and innovation and overlooking other aspects.

---

[62] Bergen Communiqué, in http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/050520_Bergen_Communique.pdf

[63] European Commission, Directorate-General for Education and Culture, 'From Berlin to Bergen, the EU contribution', in http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/02-EU/040217Berlin-bergen.pdf

Similarly, these two processes have two different approaches regarding quality assurance. The Bologna process has moved from support of external evaluations towards enhancing the development of quality culture at the institutional level. On the contrary, the Documents that review the progress of the Lisbon Strategy still insist upon the need of detailed quality assurance procedures as a way to provide tools to stakeholders and reinforce European competitiveness. Therefore, Bologna places more emphasis on culture while Lisbon first priority is identifying formal procedures.

As a result, governments and institutions are shaping their quality assurance mechanisms around these two action plans. It is reasonable to say that while quality is already a controversial topic because of its unclear definition and the many values attached to it, the reforms coming from the Bologna process and the Lisbon strategy add some confusion in the making of some common European quality assessment methods.

In short, even though these two plans have at the core the development of quality mechanisms, yet the design of a coherent quality system that will be embraced by all states remains surrounded with questions. The European Higher Education Area and its players will have to work on this respect if they want to see their quality goals accomplished by 2010.

6. DEVELOPING QUALITY MECHANISMS IN EUROPE

When greater autonomy started to be demanded and state control was reduced, quality assurance became a recurrent topic. Accountability had to be enhanced if more university self-regulation was to be allowed. During the 1980´s some efforts were finally placed in creating conditions in which institutions would voluntarily engage in quality processes. The role of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals in this matter is worth mentioning[64]. In this decade, United Kingdom and the Netherlands became the first European countries to introduce formal quality mechanisms in their HE structures. The latter developed tools to asses the quality of teaching. Belgium, Finland, Denmark and Norway followed[65]. Because the forces driving change in HE are complex, the evaluation systems of each individual country have also evolved in order to deal with socio-economic, technological or any other relevant changes.

The management culture developed in business and the manufacturing industry also influence HE in Europe. Clark describes how European Universities take advantage of experiences in the private sector to become more efficient and competitive[66]. As a matter of fact, articles and work devoted to quality in the 1980s reveal an interest on the 'Quality Management' model developed in business as a possible approach that would allow the European university governance to face modern challenges[67].

Moreover, until quite recently in Europe quality assurance processes and accreditation were controlled by national governments because education is a national prerogative. However, the policies of the European Union and the freedom

---

[64] N. Jackson, and H. Lund, Benchmarking for Higher Education, The Society for Research into Higher Education, Open University Press, 2000.

[65] G. Rhoades, B. Sporn, "Quality Assurance in Europe and the U.S.: Professional and Political Economic Framing of Higher Education Policy", Higher Education 43, 2002, pp. 363

[66] B. Clark, 1998.

[67] S. Canyamele, Implementing Quality Management in the University. Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 30, Nos. 3–4, October-December 2005. pp. 359-363

of mobility within the union created a new set of needs that forced those working in European HEIs to adapt. Since transferability and comparability of degrees was made a goal by the Commission, a coherent system of quality came as a logical consequence.

In some cases, financial support started to be offered in relation to institutional performance. From this point on discussions around how to measure performance and finding the best methods to evaluate it proliferated.[68] At the end of the 1980s the European Association for Institutional Research (EAIR) and the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER) started to include quality as a topic in their annual meetings. From the discussions the actual development of policies came to existence[69]. European countries began to introduce their own systems of quality assessment. Some countries developed external evaluation bodies and in others the institutions initiated the evaluations themselves for which the methodology and quality processes across Europe became diversified.

Moreover, institutions across Europe did not attach the same values to the concept of quality assessment. Quality has meant different things to different states or specific institutions for that matter. In the construction of a European Higher education Area which is highly competitive and with high quality standards as envisioned in the Bologna Declaration, defining quality is the first challenge.

Brennan and Shah identify four types of quality approaches based on the same number of quality values. The first one is the academic approach in which the curricula and the subject become the focus of the assessment. The managerial approach would be marked by an institutional and policy focus, which would place great interest in procedures and structures. Next approach is the pedagogic, more centered on the skills and competencies acquired by students. Finally, the employment approach would focus on the outcomes, the competences that students

---

[68] H. Sebkova, pp. 242

[69] G. Rhoades *et al.* pp. 364

acquire[70]. Kells points out that a meta evaluation which aims to asses the evaluation system also exists.[71]

On the other hand, Neave makes a distinction between evaluation for maintenance and evaluation for strategic change. In addition, the author states that evaluations can be made a priori or a posteriori. With a priori evaluations a plan is set and it is expected that it will be achieved because resources and objectives are linked together. In a posteriori evaluations, the product is assessed, not the process. Institutions obtain the resources only when the institution has reached the objectives.[72] Also, there has been a distinction made from formative evaluations, which aims to improve the item that is evaluated, to informative evaluation, which penalizes and sets up rankings[73]. Obviously, the latter presupposes an environment more resistant to changes.

Van Damme compares different definitions of the concept of quality. He arrives at the conclusion that even though there is no agreement on the term, most definitions involve a search for excellence, the achievement of minimal standards, the ability to meet the expectations of stakeholders, and finally a capacity to operate and apply quality mechanisms in a diverse context[74]. The most common way to define quality, for the purpose of both program evaluation and program accreditation is by designing a common set of minimum standards. In Europe, in the different HEIs a wide set of standards and indicators were established. Quality and

---

[70] J. Brennan *et al.* pp.14.

[71] H. R. Kells, "National Higher Education Evaluation Systems: Methods for Analysis and Some Propositions for the Research and Policy Void", <u>Higher Education</u> , No 38, 1999, pp.214

[72] G. Neave, 1988, pp. 8-9

[73] M. Miclea, "Institutional Level Reform and the Bologna Process, the Experience of Nine Universities in South East Europe", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October 2003, pp. 267.

[74] K. Van Damme, " Standards and Indicators in Institutional and Programme Accreditation in Higher Education. A Conceptual Framework and a Proposal". Paper for the UNESCO-CEPES project, 2003.

accreditation standards have evolved from being input to output oriented, which have been called 'competence-based descriptors' in the Netherlands, and 'programme specifications' in the United Kingdom[75]. As a matter of fact, the concept of learning outcome has become very relevant in the measurement of quality[76].

Defining quality and finding mechanisms to asses it has been made a priority in the last two decades. Nevertheless, the individuals involved in this process have been until very recently only representatives from the academic world, mainly professors. Gradually external actors coming from the labor market, or students, are gradually becoming involved in the assessment of quality. Furthermore, efforts to develop quality have been focused not only on internal quality processes and procedures, but they have also concerned with staff and student recruitment, staff development, resource allocation and infrastructure management.

From 1994-1995 what has been called the European Pilot Projects were introduced in Europe. It became a very relevant experience in QA since external evaluation procedures were introduced in several EU member countries. As a result of this experiment the European Network of Quality Agencies (ENQA) was funded[77]. This new Network is very meaningful in the sense that it became a meeting point for the different external evaluation bodies in Europe and has a supranational dimension.

Even though discussions on quality have been around in Europe for more than two decades, with the signing of the Bologna Declaration of 1999 cooperation towards developing quality in Europe began. The Bologna Declaration became the document that prompted most reforms. However, to this framework a series of regulations shaped the legal background that would contribute to a commitment to

---

[75] K. Hämäläinen, K. Mustonen and K. Holm, "Standards, Criteria, and Indicators in Programme Accreditation and Evaluation in Western Europe", in L. Vlasceanu and L. Conley Barrows, "Indicator for Institutional and Programme Accreditation in Higher/Tertiary Education", UNESCO CEPES, Bucharest, 2004, pp. 21

[76] L. Vlasceanu *et al.* pp.15

[77] A. Sursock, "Accreditation in the Context of the Bologna Process: Needs, Trends and Development", in L. Vlasceanu *et al.* pp. 67.

quality coming from EU states and other Bologna signatory countries. For example, on 24 September 1998, the Council of the European Union adopted a recommendation on achieving quality assurance in higher education.

Furthermore, countries have developed QA policies in tune with local need and their political and economic context. However, the European Higher Education Area is developing a system in which prevailing practices and norms are being chosen as the best practice. National quality agencies are collaborating and finding a common ground where mechanisms become legitimate. In this particular issue the work of ENQA is worth mentioning. From September 2003 and October 2004 ENQA carried out a research aiming at finding possible areas of convergence in QA. The study was motivated by a need to establish reference points between the several national agencies in order to achieve the goals established in the Bologna Declaration. The research concluded in the need to strengthen the confidence between several systems. This can be done by enhancing transparency[78]. In short, Europe is experiencing a homogenization of its different quality assurance systems.

Even so, the methodology used to assess quality is diverse. First, it is important to distinguish between self-assessment and peer review or external assessment. Therefore QA can start from within or on the contrary can be carried by an external body. In addition, among the most common procedures statistical information or performance indicators are found. Similarly, surveys by students of staff might become the regular mechanism of QA. Last but not least, the assessment could take into consideration the learning outcomes of students[79].

While most institutions have some kind of quality assessment with respect to teaching and learning, assessment of research and administration are not so common. Lately, benchmarking has been seen as a positive measure to increase quality as well

---

[78] F. Crozier, B. Curvale, F. Hénard, "Quality Convergence Study", ENQA occasional papers 7, Helsinki, 2005. pp. 5-9

[79] G. Harman, "Quality Assurance Mechanisms and Their Use as Policy Instruments: Major International Approaches and the Australian Experience since 1993", European Journal of Education, Vol.33, No. 3, 1998, pp.331

as convergence[80]. Some of the evaluations culminate in accreditation but not necessarily. In other cases a ranking based on specific criteria is established. Finally, weather a supranational tool for quality should be elaborated or if it should be left to states remains a sensitive issue.

6. A. ACCREDITATION

What accreditation means and implies has not always been clear. In the report prepared by CRE in 2001, <u>Towards</u> <u>Accreditation</u> <u>Schemes</u> <u>for</u> <u>Higher</u> <u>Education</u> <u>in</u> <u>Europe</u>, the authors felt that there was a need to properly define it: 'Accreditation is a formal, published statement regarding the quality of an institution or a programme, following a cyclical evaluation based on agreed standards'[81]. Therefore, the ability to perform of an institution can be measured only if a set of standards exist. There must be a clearly defined set of expectations in order to meet the ultimate goal which is accreditation. The same report distinguishes two distinct functions of accreditation, the first one being minimal quality control and the second the promotion of quality assurance.

In short, accreditation is another kind of quality assurance measure. Quality evaluations and accreditation might create parallel processes which could overlap. They are both mechanisms to improve education systems and accountability. However, unlike quality evaluations, accreditation is a one way process in the sense that it is searching for a yes or no result. A positive outcome would imply that the study program assessed meets the required standards and it is eligible for a certification.

Accreditation procedures spread in the US but arrived relatively late to Europe, especially to the Western part. Even when European institutions started developing some quality control or quality assurance procedures, these were not in the form of

---

[80] A. Sursock, pp. 72

[81] "Towards Accreditation Schemes for Higher Education in Europe" The CRE project, Run in the Framework of the SOCRATES/Complementary Measures for Higher Education July 2000 to May 2001; EUA, 2001

accreditation. In the U.S, the first accreditation organizations emerge at the end of 1800s. These associations were non-governmental bodies and their decisions regarding accreditation would affect eligibility for federal funding. They would work not only with HEIs but also with elementary and secondary schools in the different parts of the U.S. New England Association of Schools and Colleges, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools and the North Central Associations of Colleges and Schools were some of the earlier accrediting bodies in the U.S[82].

In Europe, the first forms of accreditation appeared in East and Central Europe at the end of the 1980s. They arose as a counterbalance to the loss of state control when university autonomy started to be granted and as well as a result of the emergence of private institutions. Later on, at the end of the 1990s, another round of accreditation systems was created, this time in Western Europe. Mobility once again and the internationalization of higher education put some pressures on institutions to prove that certain standards were reached. In Germany accreditation came first in 1998, Austria in 2002 followed. Later on, systems were established in The Netherlands, Norway and Finland [83]. Some of these systems were operated by the state, in other countries universities themselves run the accreditation bodies.

Accreditation can be linked to competitiveness. European universities, especially those who are not well-known internationally, can use 'accreditation' as a card to compete with other institutions. In this case, internal evaluation that aims to aspects improve certain do not have the same effect. A label of competency is needed as an evidence to the outside world. In this context, because a European accreditation organization does not exist, and not all countries have a form of accreditation organization, institutions started to rely in US accreditation agencies to obtain this added recognition[84]. Among the most popular of these agencies are the Accreditation

---

[82] G. Rhoades *et al.* pp. 359

[83] L.Vlasceanu *et al.* pp. 18.

[84] G. Haug, "Quality Assurance/Accreditation in the Emerging Higher Education Area: A possible scenario for the future", <u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol. 38, No. 3, 2003, pp. 232

Board for engineering and Technology (ABET) for engineering degrees and The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) for management.

There have been some European forms of accreditation as the European Foundation for Management Development/European Quality Improvement System (EFMD/EQUIS), and the European Association for Public Administration Accreditation (EAPAA). Accreditation might be the answer to the growing diversity in higher education and the different quality policies that exist across Europe. In addition, it reinforces trust towards all the diplomas that eventually will be offered in the European Higher Education space.

Within the Bologna process framework, the concept of accreditation was brought up during the Salamanca Convention of 2001. After this, it became part of the Prague Communiqué as one of the possible mechanisms involving quality assurance[85]. From that point, the process has given quality/accreditation an enormous role within the construction of the European Higher Education Area. However, the existing accreditation criteria was organized according to national standards. Now, because of the existence of freedom of mobility within the Union, a need of creating minimal quality control according to supranational standards rather than national criteria was created. In this line, the EUA has stated a need to make the accreditation systems of the different European countries compatible with one another[86]. Such element would allow for accreditation agencies in Europe which lack professionalism and legitimacy to continue to exist.

In conclusion, accreditation is increasingly perceived as the best alternative for the diversity of the European higher education space. Some authors predict it might become the only quality policy among all the quality measures[87].

---

[85] H.Haug, pp. 230

[86] European University Association, "Quality Assurance in Higher Education: A Policy of the European University Association", Dubrovnik, 2000, in http://www.unige.ch/eua/

[87] In J.F. Perellon, pp.61

6. B. THE USE OF STANDARDS AND INDICATORS

Using standards to asses quality has become a common practice among world's HE systems. They are designed to provide a tangible criterion as a way to stimulate organizations to improve at different levels. Even when specific standards exist, the decision regarding if the programme meets the standards depends on the group carrying the assessment, which might lead to some subjectivity.

Standards are sometimes divided into indicators. The latter describe the state of the object or the change occurring in it, which would make them an operational tool. Often indicators are based on statistics[88]. In the UK, the use of indicators became a widely debated topic when the Society for Research into Higher Education made it a topic of their 15th annual conference[89].OECD has been publishing for many years annual indicators relating to education systems of the countries concerned. They are very important in the sense that they allow for inter-state HE comparison. Similarly, the UNESCO produced a study on HE performance indicators in 2001[90]. In addition, most individual countries have designed a set of standards which reflect their own education history, culture and tradition. In fact, there is no scientific process to create a set of standards. In other words, a formula or theoretical framework does not exist for this end. It depends on the values that the group designing the standards attaches to quality.

Therefore, evaluation standards created in the different European countries are very diverse. Some are more concrete and others rather vague. In most cases they were designed to carry subject evaluations. The use of standards for accreditation purposes or programme evaluation is not so common. However, in spite of the differences, within the different frameworks a number of similar targets have been

---

[88] K. Hämäläinen *et al.* pp. 18-31

[89] N. Jackson, and H.Lund, <u>Benchmarking for Higher Education</u>, The Society for Research into Higher Education, Open University Press, 2000, pp. 15

[90] F. Tavenas, pp. 3

identified: Standards usually address objectives, resources, programme, results and internal quality assurance[91].

During the Berlin meeting, in the follow-up to the Bologna process, ENQA was invited to establish a set of standards and guidelines for quality assurance. The goal is to achieve some coherence across the EHEA by applying to the common quality standards. The final report was the result of partnership between ENQA, ESIB, EURISHE and EUA and included standards for the internal QA, external QA as well as external QA agencies. In order to ensure that the diversity of the EHEA would be respected, the standards are generic rather than specific. The report does not include indicators either. The idea is to outline some general codes of good practice without addressing specific procedures of how to achieve them. General standards also allow for creativity and different solutions. Also, it becomes easier for the different stakeholders involved to accept them.

In contrast, The Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area includes some interesting recommendations: The establishment of a European Register for QA agencies and a European Consultative Forum for QA in HE are among them[92].

---

[91] K. Hämäläinen, 2003, pp. 294

[92] European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, "Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area", Helsinki, 2005.

7. GENERAL METHODS FOR QUALITY ASSESMENT

European Pilot Projects carried in the mid 1990s sponsored by the EU served as a valuable experience in quality assessment. In addition, the US accreditation system has without any doubt helped to shape the European QA system. A 'general model' of quality assurance was created after the Commission undertook a research on the methods of quality assessment existing in the member states. CRE was also involved in this process[93]. Gradually, this system is being implemented across Europe. QA will depend on each institutional context in great measure.

In short, this general model is based on four elements. The first element is the creation of a national body which is independent from the state and coordinates the evaluation procedures. This task is generally carried by national agencies. Second, an internal evaluation or self-assessment is necessary which would result in a report that identifies weaknesses and strengths. Third, peer reviewers would conduct the assessment based on the product of self-assessments. The final step would be the introduction of measures based on recommendations from the evaluations.

This 'general model' is spreading across Europe and still is carried this way by most EU and Bologna Declaration partner countries. Of course there methods used when applying to this method vary from country to country. In some places for example, the result of the external is linked to funding. Even though its application is carried with a number of variations, certain uniformity in QA ant its methods in Europe has already emerged.

7. A. PEER REVIEW

The function of peer reviewers is to visit sites undertaking the evaluation. They basically take the self-evaluation as a starting point and the assessment must be linked to the self-assessment goals. A critical analysis of the internal assessment work is most of the times done by reviewers. Later on, a report is written which includes changes for quality assurance.

---

[93] J. Brennan *et al.* pp. 51-55

The recommendation can be very general: 'optimize the course of teaching and learning'; or more specific: 'make international exchange students more available to students'[94]. In other cases the recommendations are too vague to understand which changes should follow. Most of these reports are made public even though in some cases a private report is designed to be sent to the particular institution. Usually the latter report is much more detailed and might include sensitive issues[95].

In two studies conducted in Germany and the UK peer review reports were analyzed. The results show that in Germany peer review recommendations are more often related to planning and organization of teaching and learning as well as resources. On the other hand in England, recommendations focused on curricular design, teaching and learning, student achievement and guidance, learning resources and QA enhancement[96].

7. B. EVALUATION OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

It is expected that the obtainment of a degree within the Higher Education Area leads individuals to be ready to incorporate in the EU labor market. The Lisbon Strategy focuses on updating educational structures for this purpose. The knowledge based society requires a work force that thinks independently and critically. Therefore, universities must provide an education that promotes these qualities.

The quality of teaching and learning can be assessed by the ability of meeting certain goals. In other words, student competences after a course is taken are compared with a set of requirement that have been set a priori[97]. They can focus

---

[94] L. Bornmann, S. Mitagg, and H.D Daniel, "Quality Assurance in Higher Education, meta-evaluation of multi-stage evaluation procedures in Germany", Higher Education, 52: 687–709, 2006. pp. 693

[95] J. Brennan *et al.* pp 60

[96] L. Bornmann *et al.* 701

[97] K. Hämäläinen , "Common Standards for Programmes evaluations and Accreditation?", European Journal of Education, Vol. 38, No. 3, 2003, pp. 291

either on academic or on academic competencies[98]. Nevertheless, evaluating learning results is not well developed because measuring competences is a hard task. Many objections have been raised about the burden of these types of evaluation and their inefficient results. The criticism revolves around the imbalance between the high-cost of the process and the lack of consequences coming from it. In contrast, a study conducted in Germany concluded that evaluations of teaching and learning are useful and effective[99].

In another study carried by Micea, it is noticed that in many South East Universities the teaching and evaluation methods are outdated and do not enhance constructive learning. An active citizen can only be developed by the use of interactive instruction and problem-focused methods of teaching[100]. These become especially relevant with the implementation of two-tier system, namely bachelor and masters cycles, a Bologna process' goal.

This new restructuring of higher education cycles have brought doubts about the employability of students who have completed only the first cycle. These new context requires a change and the avoidance of traditional methods of teaching because they are not compatible with the demands of the information technology society.

If institutions are trying to develop quality, student-success rates should be measured. For these reason, more and more students are used as a first hand source of information to measure the efficiency of the teaching methods in line with the skills they have developed. In addition, student evaluation questionnaires are used in many institutions; however, how the information received is used afterwards will determine quality enhancement and this is done differently in different institutions.

---

[98] K. Hämäläinen *et al.* 2004, pp. 26

[99] L. Bornmann *et al.* pp. 688

[100] M. Miclea, pp. 265

7. C. EVALUATING RESEARCH

Traditionally, a relationship between teaching and research has been asserted. However, usually these two are assessed separately by a different group of experts. Moreover, a new emphasis on innovation as a result of the contemporary needs of our knowledge based society has resulted in an increasing separation of teaching and research[101].

In any case, most research assessment is carried by external bodies. Mostly funding and grant awarding organizations undertake this job. Self-assessment of research is not common[102]. Therefore, it is fair to say that introducing internal mechanisms for the improvement of research projects remains an open question.

---

[101] K. Hämäläinen, 2003, pp. 294

[102] S. Reichert, pp. 29

8. NATIONAL EVALUATION AGENCIES

Evaluation agencies have for long existed in the US. However in Europe they have emerged recently. They first appeared in the 1980s in France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom[103]. The European commission welcomed this introduction. In fact, national agencies have a main role in the 'general model of QA' being developed in Europe. Currently, most European countries have already set up a national evaluation system or agency that acts autonomously.

National evaluation agencies can be set up by government, as is the case for the Danish Centre for Evaluation and Quality Assessment. The can be as well semi-independent or even private. They might evaluate programs, or the institution as a whole. Finally the methodology used can be very different. The last two decades have witnessed an emergence of Quality Agencies that are born outside the control of national Ministries of Education. The first one of this kind in Europe was the French Comité National d´Évaluation in 1986. This organization differs from other external evaluators in the fact that rather than strengthening accountability to the center it aims at strengthening institutional self-evaluation[104].

Changes come as a result of decision making coming from four different levels: the state, the university, the department and the individual staff[105]. As I have already discussed, in times of changes, state-control can be detrimental to the needs of the society especially when universities are becoming more diversified. The introduction of QA processes in HEIs alters the distribution of authority among all levels[106]. Managerialism is enhanced in this process because assessment requires strong leadership, adaptability and response rapidness. State control is usually relaxed and autonomy is granted However, autonomy and decision-making power

---

[103] J. Brenan *et al.*pp. 26

[104] G. Neave, 1994, pp. 122

[105]J. Brennan *et al.* pp. 25

[106] *Ibid.* pp. 38

could well end up in a series of negligent changes that respond to personal interests. In order to ensure some accountability national state agencies are put into place.

This new bodies force all decision levels to work collectively. The idea is that the stronger the relationship between all levels, the greater the chances to produce a productive response to the requirement of the assessment. Now, with the creation of national state agencies another level is added; they also become drivers of change. Even though they are fairly new, they will be without any doubt playing a relevant role in the overall construction of the European Higher Education Area.

The most common role of these agencies is to perform QA. But with time their role in the overall national quality assurance plans has expanded. Some of these agencies have been given the role of evaluating institutions themselves. External evaluations are varied in purposes. They go from assisting HEIs to make general improvements to create some accountability to stakeholders, or from responding to new laws to offer some students and employers some standards. They can also aim to help governments with potential funding decisions[107] or offer accreditation. They can as well be voluntary or compulsory. In contrast, some argue that by having an external body interfering in the internal QA practices is in conflict with the principle of autonomy. Instead, the agencies should limit themselves to formulating principles for evaluating quality and at the same time they should promote the transparency of the institutions findings and observations.[108]

Another role attached to national agencies is that of informing students, offering them a clear picture of what is available. This goes hand in hand with the proliferation of university rankings popularized in the US. With the choice of mobility in Europe this type of information becomes very useful. At the same time this can be linked with the notion of commercialization of education. In this context 'customers' benefit from any information available that might help them find the best

---

[107] D.Billing, "International comparisons and trends in external quality assurance of higher education: commonality or diversity?" <u>Higher Education</u> 47: 113-137, 2004. 2004 Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 115

[108] F. Tavenas, pp. 50

'product'. In the United Kingdom, the Quality Assurance for Higher Education (QAA) fulfills this informative role[109].

Usually the inspectors working for the agencies report to the minister after the evaluation. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom if a negative report is given the minister can close up the institution in question[110]. This assures that accountability exists. More common are the decisions regarding funding after assessments carried by the agencies.

It is important to notice that agencies have to struggle to gain credibility[111]. They all have to learn the appropriate methodology to assess a diverse group of institutions. In addition, they must work with different institutional traditions and cultures and have a deep understanding of the legal framework in which HEIs operate.

Guy Haug considers national agencies an insufficient quality assurance tool in the overall architecture of the EHEA. In his perspective trustworthiness can not be built around national agencies because quality can not be self-decreed; all European stakeholders must recognize it as such. Moreover, there are quality issues in Europe that can not be taken care of nationally by their nature, namely, transnational education. The lack of a European supranational quality mechanism may derive in the accreditation of a transnational program by some countries and not recognized by other, which would end up in chaos. To solve this problematic he suggests an organization that offers accreditation to accreditation agencies[112].

It is important to understand that ENQA, established in 2000, does not fulfill the role mentioned above. ENQA is a body that promotes cooperation. On the contrary, membership does not involve an assessment on the quality of the potential

---

[109] J.F. Perellon, pp.60

[110] J. Brennan *et al.* pp.28

[111] Ibid, pp. 51

[112] H. Haug, pp. 231

agency's work. The ENQA membership criteria only demands autonomy from the government, a self-evaluation phase, a visit by an external panel and a public report[113].

The idea of establishing a meta-accreditation body has been for long debated. The possibility of creating a European Register for QA is being explored at the moment. A report will be produced regarding this issue and will be sent to the next Ministerial meeting in London. A European Register can be compared with the Council of Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) in the US[114]. This body establishes basic principles and recognizes accrediting body. Therefore, a Register would become an accreditation body that accredits accreditation organizations. Moreover, the European Parliament and Council adopted a recommendation on February 2006 that allows for member states HEIs to turn to any agency listed in the European Register for accreditation[115].

In contrast, there are voices opposing such a supranational body since it would challenge the subsidiarity principle[116]. From this perspective trust is the answer for the code of practice between quality agencies. Only by doing this diversity in the European space can be maintained.

---

[113] Regulations of the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, in http://www.enqa.eu/files/ENQA%20Regulations%20version%2020081006.doc

[114] Council of Higher Education Accreditation, in http://www.chea.org/

[115] In http://www.eua.be/index.php?id=34

[116] For this opposing view refer to A. Sursock, pp. 77

9. INTERNAL VERSUS EXTERNAL EVALUATION

As we have already discussed, most European nations have accepted a multi-stage evaluation process as their quality assurance method. This translates into carrying an internal evaluation first, an institutional self-assessment and a final report that points out strength as well as weaknesses. Therefore, 'self-assessment' is devised as an integral part of the overall QA mechanisms in the agreed 'general model'. Self-evaluation enables the institutions to take control of their own destiny. In a way, it empowers academics and staff by giving them a role in the overall improvement of the institution.

There are some discrepancies over the kind of relationship that institutions and external evaluations should establish.[117] Some agencies demand a certain distance between themselves and the universities, while others develop a more cooperative relationship. In some cases the self-assessment's content is established by the university, while in others the agency will be carrying this task. Similarly, a disagreement between universities and students exist. This conflict connects directly with the principle of institutional autonomy as laid out in the Bologna Declaration. According to this idea, the primary responsibility should stay within institutions themselves. However, students' organizations are not keen to see universities free of outside inspections.

In fact, there is a growing tendency that favors internal assessments. In Kells words: "Organized national evaluation systems, in their most progressive examples, are not by far, the most important aspect in a well developed culture of university self-regulation. They are, too often, examples of somewhat patronizing, expensive, and often quite political, activity in the name of accountability"[118]. He also criticizes the transfer of documents and methods from one country to another without any regard of cultural or environmental differences, for which the evaluation becomes

---

[117] European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. "Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area", 2005, Helsinki, pp.11

[118] H.R. Kells, pp.209

unproductive. Contrarily, the same author regards as very positive the expansion of internal evaluations and views this phenomenon as a natural consequence of external reviews.

A quality culture is acquired when a constant reminder of quality assurance is introduced. Without a clear commitment coming from the institution staff to evaluate and promote quality, no external mechanisms would produce the desired effects. In this line Kells notes that HEIs would act more responsibly when they are treated as 'adults' than if they are treated as 'children'. In other words, when institutions are given the chance to take care of their own destinies they will become more effective[119].

The introduction of benchmarks and quality indicators in any institution will not automatically solve any deficiencies in the system. Scholars seem to be reaching an agreement on the need to build a quality culture. In this line, many authors agree on a tendency towards a focus on self-evaluation. This is later supported by standard qualitative date which at the same time will be reinforced by peer review visits[120].

However, it can be argued that in many cases efficient evaluations would not be carried without an external pressure. After all, self-review implies an acceptance that some aspects can be improved. This requires a humble attitude which is not always found in all institutions, especially in those where their prestige and excellence has been for long publicly recognized.

---

[119] *Ibid*. pp. 230

[120] P. Hodson and H. Thomas, "Quality Assurance in Higher Education, Fit for the New Millennium or simply year 2000 compliant?", Higher Education 45, 2003. pp. 377

10. TOWARDS DEVELOPING A US MODEL OF QUALITY

Is the EHEA developing in the image of the American system? There seems to be enough signs that would lead us to answer affirmatively to this question[121]. In spite of clear signs of the undergoing construction of a European university models along the Anglo-Saxon lines, this is not always openly discussed. In fact several countries have witnessed protests by professors and students who intended to show rejection of the new trends pointing to the American model[122].

First of all, the troubling of the welfare system in Europe has forced it to adapt and evolve until resembling that of the American. Europeans would like to keep their traditional social protection policies because they support features such as right to education and health. However, continuing to cover such expenditures would require raising taxes which would at the same time have a negative impact on the labor market. In addition, the European large social transfers have been identified in several studies as the reason for high rates of unemployment[123].

In order to overcome these challenges, Europe has resorted to the Anglo-Saxon model: liberalizing markets in order to increase the demand for labor. The neo-liberal ideology is imposing. Accordingly, universities have become in quasi-markets and receive less money from governments. Student's fees are being raised and therefore as costumers, they should be making informed choices.

In economy theory a lot has been written about the impact of quality information on consumer's choices. In this new economic environment, quality assurance issues are raised because they enhance the efficiency of the market[124]. Thus, the European system of Higher Education has gradually evolved to embrace a

---

[121] For an analysis of a relationship between the American HE model and its European developing counterpart please refer to B. Brock-Utne, and G. Rhoades *et al.*

[122] B. Brock-Utne, pp. 292

[123] M. Buti *et al.* pp. 20

[124] N. Barr, The Economics of the Welfare State, Oxford University Press, 1998 pp. 320-361

strategic management approach that American universities have been developing for years. In the U.S university presidents are administrators that carry a task similar to that of a CEO. Even though European Rectors are appointed professors in most cases, their powers have been strengthened in order to allow for effective management[125].

In fact, some argue the firsts QA models in Europe show a great influence of "Total Quality Management" mechanisms commonly used in U.S companies[126]. Therefore, some institutions started to implement methodologies that were first utilized to promote quality in the industrial or private sector.

In short, it is the social-economic changes that caused QA mechanisms in the U.S to emerge. Similarly, economic and other pressures have forced the European University model to adapt and a European dimension in quality assurance is being developed. However the U.S, unlike Europe, has a long experience in quality methods.

European universities have resorted to American accreditation companies in many cases which in one hand prove the lack of appropriate mechanisms to ensure quality and on the other, the prestige that the American evaluation model possesses in the European eyes. These independent organizations count with valuable experience while in Europe until very recently most assessment were carried by the government. In this line, some of the European future projects around quality such as the creation of a European register that would accredit accreditation agencies have for long existed in the U.S. The Council for Higher Education Accreditation has been carrying this role for a decade.

In fact, if there is an issue that historically distinguishes the American and the European model is the question of independence and autonomy from government. The American QA model has for long established itself as an independent and non-

---

[125] G. Neave, 1994, pp.125

[126] G. Rhoades *et al.* pp. 357

governmental system[127]. This voluntarist uniqueness differs from the European government-reliant set of structures. However, there seems to be a trend that favors a system which is autonomous from the government: In a Survey carried by ENQA in 2003 it was concluded that most quality agencies in Europe were by nature independent organizations[128]. Moreover, examples exist of non-governmental organizations recently created to enhance the quality of education in Europe. The Engineering Evaluation Board (MÜDEK) was born in 2002 in Turkey to promote the quality of engineering programs across the country[129].

All these examples prove that the European dimension of quality is being shaped to resemble that of the US system. In spite of some of the opposition found against this trend it seems logical that the European QA system builds taking as a starting point an experienced model.

---

[127] J. Eaton, The Council for Higher Education Accreditation, US Accreditation and Recognition. In Global University Network for Innovation, Higher Education in the World 2007, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at stake? Palgrave Macmillan, New York 2007.

[128] Survey carried out by ENQA. Quality Procedures in European Higher Education. An ENQA survey. ENQA occasional Papers 5. European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. Helsinki, Finland, 2003.

[129] Power Point presented in SEFI Annual Conference, September 2005, METU, Ankara.

11. CHALLENGES

Quality assessment in Europe is still a very new phenomenon in most countries. A certain consensus among all countries regarding the best methodology to achieve QA is on the way. The Bologna process is helping to achieve this objective. However, building a quality attitude, or a quality culture (QC), as it is commonly called, is a process and as such time and effort must be invested. Moreover, even though universities are not longer the exclusive institutions they used to be in the past, many of the staff working there were educated in the old elitist systems. Some of these individuals may be able to understand that currently HE must respond to masses and some transformations are required. However, some might still resist these changes.

Some authors regard harmonization and specifically the spread of common quality standards as a threat to the diversity of the higher education systems across Europe[130]. They also threaten academic autonomy in research and teaching. In this sense, Reichter and Tauch consider that limited available resources and again limited autonomy are the two most restrictive factors when it comes to quality enhancement[131]. From this perspective, the introduction of quality standards paradoxically would impede the promotion of quality.

Internationalization of higher education also poses a threat to quality. According to Van Damme, many internationalization policies are being developed without any regard for quality. Specifically he refers to the recognition of credits, degrees and diplomas. A system has been developed quickly to allow for mobility. However, the ECTS system does not respond to issues of quality[132].

---

[130] K. Barkholt, "The Bologna Process and Integration Theory: Convergence and Autonomy", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 30, No. 1, April 2005, pp. 27

[131] S. Reichter, and C. Tauch,, "Trends IV: European Universities implementing Bologna", EUA Publications

[132] D. Van Damme pp. 437

Similarly, Haugh identifies quality assurance as the weakest point in the Bologna Process. He considers that readability and comparability of degrees has been made without any consideration for quality[133]. Perhaps the urge to harmonize the EHEA was so large that they were willing to ignore the fact that each country was applying quality in different ways.

Furthermore, a heavy focus on quality assurance has been seen as a crisis for universities, a threat to academic freedom, because quality assurance is driven by the economic needs of the knowledge based society rather than for a motivation to search for the truth[134]. A balance must exist between the need for national or supranational accountability and institutional autonomy as well as academic freedom.

Hartley, also considers that higher education's production is not a process that can be "broken down into some fixed, measurable and assessable procedures which admit the title 'good (or even best) practice', or as if its output should be predictable, standardisable or quantifiable"[135]. Standards might not allow for the creation of new programmes or the introduction of different teaching methods that do not fit those standards or criteria.

In contrast, Hämäläinen, Mustonen and Holm believe there is a need for an evaluation theoretical framework. This way it would be easier to determine good practices for teaching, or curriculum designs that promote learning[136]. Until that point quality evaluations would be remain somehow subjective because they will depend on the definitions of quality that the evaluating group is using, rather than in a general accepted framework.

---

[133] G. Haug, pp. 229

[134] R. Cowen, "Performativity, Post-Modernity and University", <u>Comparative Education</u> 32 2 18 (1996): 245–257.

[135] D. Hartley, "The McDonaldization of Higher Education: Food for Thought?", <u>Oxford Review of Education</u> 21 4, 1996.

[136] K. Hämäläinen *et al*. 2004, pp. 28

The biggest challenge is possibly to reach a solution for the tension between the need for convergence in quality issues and the maintenance of diversity. It is generally accepted that quality and especially accreditation pushes for standarization, which enhances uniformity. In the same line, today, is quality really looking for the improvement of educational institutions or establishing some forms of control? Hämäläinen, Mustonen and Holm consider that European countries are undergoing a shift from quality enhancement to quality control because of pressures to harmonize systems and increase mobility[137]. Moreover, if evaluation aspires to enhance the learning results of students, shouldn't these competences acquired be in tune with regional or local needs? Harmonization on this respect could be detrimental for local development.

But probably the largest challenge is to ensure that all efforts being invested in QA assurance end up with an improvement on the quality of the institution. In fact there are no many documents that prove that QA eventually result in a betterment of their teaching and learning quality. And in spite of all efforts, students and employers might still prefer to recruit people from prestigious institutions instead of relying on quality indicators.[138]

---

[137] *Ibid*, pp. 19

[138] J. Brennan *et al.* pp. 21

12. CONCLUSION

The definition of quality is being debated. In addition, much is being said about what should be the best mechanisms to asses it. Even though much is being written about quality assurance, complete studies about its real impacts do not exist. The word conveys positive connotations, but because its real values are not clear, it has become very challenging to include it in the practical day to day mechanisms of what should become in 2010 the European Higher Education Area. In addition, it has become very hard to understand which role the regional, the national and the supranational level should be playing in the future European quality assurance framework.

In any case, the EU and what have been named 'partner countries' are experiencing a convergence in many levels. This is not a desirable phenomenon for many, who resist having familiar environments changed. However, harmonization not only at European level but also at world level might be an unavoidable phenomenon. The concepts of 'competition', 'standarization', 'internationalization' of HE seems to lead to a new setting where educational practices, programmes, and quality assurance mechanisms would look more alike. How otherwise countries would perceive as legitimate all the different quality methods used across Europe?
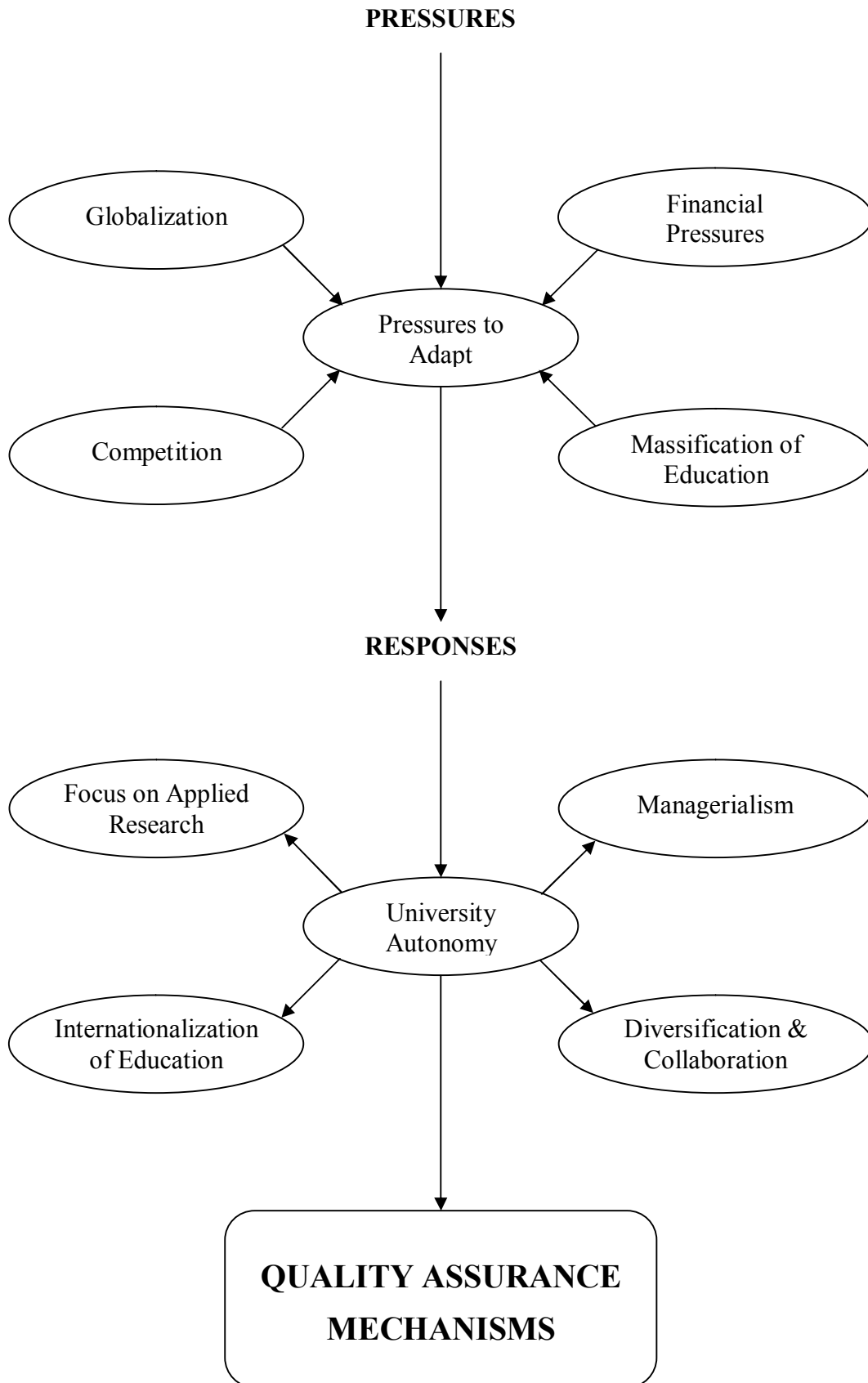
As a matter of fact, during the UNESCO World Conference of Higher Education in 1988, the establishment of international quality standards was recommended[139]. This might be the only practical solution for the development of mutual trust. In addition, a growing number of global student changes demands a more coherent quality international framework. A common framework does not mean a set of fixed standards. Moreover, each country should add specific needs or even local consideration.

As a result, developing a European quality framework that tries to preserve diversity while promoting compatibility might not be feasible. A similar definition of quality if we want to create a European Higher Education Space in which quality

---

[139] K. Hämäläinen *et al.* 2004, pp. 30

is the center must be worked out. Otherwise the political agenda envision in the Bologna process might not be put into practice. In this context, the American assessment and accrediting model is serving as a reference and all points out that the European QA methodology will be mirroring that system.

Appendix: External pressures and the emergence of QA

PRESSURES

Globalization

Financial
Pressures

Pressures to
Adapt

Competition

Massification of
Education

RESPONSES

Focus on Applied
Research

Managerialism

University
Autonomy

Internationalization
of Education

Diversification &
Collaboration

QUALITY ASSURANCE

MECHANISMS

REFERENCES

Barblan, A. (2002) "Academic Co-operation and Mobility in Europe: How it Was and How it Will Be", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVII, Nos.1-2

Barkholt, K. (2005)"The Bologna Process and Integration Theory: Convergence and Autonomy", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 30, No. 1, April

Barr, N. (1998) The Economics of the Welfare State, Oxford University Press

Barr, N. (2002) "Funding Higher Education: Policies for Access and Quality", House of Commons, Education and Skills Committee, *Post-16 Student Support*, Sixth Report of Session 2001-2002, HC445,(TSO)

Beatty, J. (1998) The world according to Drucker: the life and work of the world's greatest management thinker, London, Orion Business Books.

Bialecki, I. (2001) "Goals and Policies of Higher Education Reform", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVI, No. 3

Billing, D. (2004) "International comparisons and trends in external quality assurance of higher education: commonality or diversity? Higher Education 47: 113-137, Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Bornmann, L. Mitagg, S. and Daniel, H.D. (2006) "Quality Assurance in Higher Education, meta-evaluation of multi-stage evaluation procedures in Germany", Higher Education, 52: 687–709,

Brennan, J. Tarla, S. (2000). Managing Quality in Higher Education, Open University Press

Brock-Utne, B. (2002)"The Global Forces Affecting the Education Sector Today, The Universities in Europe as an example", Higher Education in Europe, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3,

Buti, M. Franco, D. and Pench, L. (1999) The Welfare State in Europe, European Commission

Canyamele, S. C (2005) Implementing Quality Management in the University, Higher Education in Europe, Vol. 30, Nos. 3–4, October-December.

Chipman, L. (2002) "Affording Universal Higher Education", Higher Education Quarterly, 0951–5224, Volume 56, No. 2, April.

Clark, B. (1998) Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organizational Pathways of Transformation, Oxford, Pergamon

Clark, Burton, (2004) <u>Sustaining change in universities</u>, New York, Open University Press.

Colin, L. (1999)"Globalisation and universities" a talk delivered the 29 of June of 1999.

Communication from the Commission, (2003) "Education and Training 2010. The success of the Lisbon Strategy Hinges on Urgent reforms", COM 685 final of 11 of November, 2003

Crozier, F. Curvale, B. Hénard, F. (2005) "Quality Convergence Study", <u>ENQA occasional papers 7</u>, Helsinki.

De la Fuente, A. and Ciccone, A. (2002) "Human Capital in a global and knowledge-based economy", final report for DG Employment and Social Affairs, European Commission.

Kladis, D. (2003) "The Social Dimension of the Bologna Process", <u>Higher Education in Europe,</u> Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October.

Ergüder, Ü. Şahin, M. Terzioğlu, T. and Vardar, Ö. (2006) "A New Vision of Higher Education in Turkey" Draft prepared for the EU Representative Office in Ankara.

Etzkowitz, H. and Leydesdorff, L. (1997) <u>Universities and the Global knoledge economy</u>, Pinter.

Feder, Toni, (2001) "Europe Moves toward Coherent Higher Education: Concepts for Students", <u>Physics Today</u> 54 5

Froment, Eric, (2003) "The European Higher Education Area: A New Framework for the Development of Higher Education", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVIII, No. 1, April

Global University Network for Innovation, (2007) Higher Education in the World 2007, Accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at stake?, Palgrave Macmillan, New York

González, J. and Wagenaar, R. (2003) <u>Tuning Educational Structures in Europe Final Report</u>, University of Deusto

Green, A. (1997), <u>Education, Globalization and the Nation State</u>, New York, St. Martin's Press.

Hamalainen, K. (2003) "Common Standards for Programmes evaluations and Accreditation? "<u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol. 38, No. 3

Harman, G. (1998) "Quality Assurance Mechanisms and Their Use as Policy Instruments: Major International Approaches and the Australian Experience since 1993", <u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol.33, No. 3.

Hartley, D. (1996)"The McDonaldization of Higher Education: Food for Thought?", <u>Oxford Review of Education</u> 21 4, 1996.

Haug, G. (2003) "Quality Assurance/Accreditation in the Emerging Higher Education Area: A possible scenario for the future", <u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol. 38, No. 3

Hodson, P. and Thomas, H. (2003) "Quality Assurance in Higher Education, Fit for the New Millennium or simply year 2000 compliant?", <u>Higher Education</u> 45

Jackson, N. and Lund, H. (2000) <u>Benchmarking for Higher Education</u>, The Society for Research into Higher Education, Open University Press

Karran, T. (2004) "Achieving Bologna Convergence: Is ECTS Failing to Make the Grade?", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, October.

Kells, H.R.(1999) "National higher education evaluation systems: Methods for Analysis and some propositions for the research and policy void". <u>Higher Education</u>, 38: 209-232, Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Malitza, M. (2003) "Towards the European Higher Education Area: Inclusion of the Borderline Countries of the Black Sea Area", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October.

Miclea, M. (2003) "Institutional Level Reform and the Bologna Process, the Experience of Nine Universities in South East Europe", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October.

Neave, Guy, (1988) On the Cultivation of Quality, Efficiency and Enterprise: An Overview of Recent Trends in Higher Education in Western Europe, 1986-1988, <u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol. 23, Nos, 1/2;

Neave, G. (1994)"The Politics of Quality: Developments in Higher Eduacation in Western Europe 1992-1994", <u>European Journal of Education</u>, Vol. 29, No. 2.

Oroval, E. (1996) <u>Economía de la Educación</u>, Barcelona, Ariel Educación.

Parry, G. (2003) "Mass Higher Education and the English: Wherein the Colleges?" <u>Higher Education Quarterly</u>, 0951–5224Volume 57, No. 4, October.

Perellon, J. F. (2005) "Nuevas Tendencias Políticas de Garantía de Calidad en la Educación Superior", <u>Revista de Sociologia de la UAB</u>, Papers, No.76

Popkewitz, T. (2000) <u>Educational Knowledge, Changing Relationship between the State, Civil Society, and the Educational Community</u>, State University of New York Press, Albany.

Reichter, S. and Tauch, C. (2004) "<u>Trends IV: European Universities implementing Bologna</u>", EUA Publications.

Rodrigues, M. J, (2002) <u>The New Knowledge Economy in Europe</u>, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Rhoades, Gary and Sporn, Barbara, (2002) "Quality Assurance in Europe and the U.S.: professional and political Economic Framing of Higher Education Policy", <u>Higher Education</u> 43.

Sebkova, H, (2002) "Accreditation and Quality Assurance in Europe", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVII, No. 3

Slaughter, S. Leslie, L. (1999) <u>Academic capitalism: Politics, policies and the Entrepreneurial University</u>, Baltimore, The John Hopkins University press.

Smeby, J-C, and Trondal, J, (2005) "Globalisation or Europeanisation, International contact among University Staff", Higher \Education 49: 449–466

Tavenas, François, for ELU (The Latin European Universities Group), (2005) "Quality assurance: A reference system for indicators and evaluation procedures", EUA European University, European University Association.

Trow, Martin, (2000) "From Mass Higher Education to Universal Access", University of California, Berkley, Paper Series: CSHE.1.00.

European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, (2005) "Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area", Helsinki.

Van Damme, D. (2001) "Quality Issues in the Internationalization of Higher Education", <u>Higher Education</u> 41: 415-441

Van Damme, K. (2003) "Standards and Indicators in Institutional and Programme Accreditation in Higher Education. A Conceptual Framework and a Proposal". Paper for the UNESCO-CEPES project.

Vaira, M. (2004) "Globalization and Higher Education Organizational change: A Framework for analysis", <u>Higher Education</u> 48**:** 483–510

Van der Wende, M. (2000) "The Bologna Declaration: Enhancing the Transparency and Competitiveness of European Higher Education", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, XXV, No 3.

Vlasceanu, L. Conley Barrows, L. (2004) <u>Indicator for Institutional and Programme Accreditation in Higher/Tertiary Education</u>, UNESCO CEPES, Bucharest.

Vogel, T. (2001) "Internationalization, Interculturality, and the Role of Foreign Languages in Higher Education", <u>Higher Education in Europe</u>, Vol. XXVI, No. 3.

Williams, G. (2003) <u>The Enterprising University, Reform, Excellence and Equity,</u> The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

WEBSITES

Chu, Jeff, "How to Plug Europe's Brain Drain",
http://www.time.com/time/europe/html/040119/brain/story.htm

Council of Europe, Higher Education and research
http://dc.ecml.at/

Council of Higher Education Accreditation,
http://www.chea.org/

Magna Charta Observatory
http://www.magna-charta.org/magna.html

European University Association
http://www.eua.be/eua/index.jsp

European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education.
http://www.enqa.eu/agencies.lasso

Report from the Commission of 31 January 2001: The Concrete future objective of Education systems.
http://europa.eu/scadplus/leg/en/cha/c11049.htm

Central and Eastern European Network of Quality Assurance Network in Higher Education.
http://www.ceenetwork.hu/a_about.html

International Network of for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education.
http://www.inqaahe.org/index.cfm