

Thematic Review of Tempus Structural Measures:

A Survey Report

**Final report to the Directorate-General for Education and Culture of the
European Commission**

Service Contract: 2007/EAC/38/7 – SMR Tempus



European Commission
TEMPUS



UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
Faculty of Education



CENTRE FOR
EDUCATIONAL POLICY STUDIES

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Survey Team

Prof. Dr. Pavel Zgaga (Project Leader)
Janja Komljenovič
Klemen Miklavič

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Centre for Education Policy Studies (CEPS)
University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education
SI-1000 Ljubljana
Slovenia
T +386 1 589 23 44
F +386 1 589 23 45
Ceps.Ljubljana@Uni-Lj.si

The views expressed herein are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official views of the European Commission.

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1. Introduction

This report is a result of a *review of Structural Measures (SM) within Tempus III* (the 2003-2006 period). The main objective has been to review all Tempus SM projects financed under Tempus III, to analyse them by leading policy themes as well as by their contents and to draw conclusions on their particular impacts. The report relates them to the current higher education policy goals, reforms and developments in the partner countries and seeks to assess their contribution to the implementation of these goals in respective institutional, national as well as regional environments.

Structural Measures have been defined as

‘short-term policy advice interventions, aimed at supporting reform processes in higher education, and developing higher education strategic frameworks. Such projects typically address issues linked to the Bologna Process such as quality assurance, and related accreditation systems, credit systems, and restructuring of the qualification frameworks to create a converging and transparent European system, whereby different national education systems would use a common framework.’¹

Therefore, the review focused primarily on those elements in the final reports of the SM projects and other documentation which can be placed in a more or less direct relationship with the national higher education policy agendas. The starting position was that each SM project is based on these agendas and relates to the reform and development needs identified in a particular country. From this position, the most interesting questions were: *how much, in which areas and related to which issues did the structural measures contribute to the national higher education reform goals, to implementation processes, to enhanced international co-operation in higher education* as well as – insofar as this is a point from a particular country perspective – *to the implementation of the Bologna principles in given national contexts.*

The review findings are organised over three different levels. First, backgrounds and general trends in higher education policy agendas across Tempus countries were analysed. Second, a statistical overview was prepared to sketch out the extent of SM projects’ co-operation as well as the main areas and issues elaborated in them. Third, some key content topics were analysed and the most interesting single projects – cases of good practice – were identified. In the last chapter, annexes are attached, mainly presenting detailed statistical tables which served as backgrounds for Chapter 3. A list of abbreviations and a bibliography are also added.

Altogether, *251 SM projects* from *28 eligible partner countries* were analysed in the survey. The official (formal) categorisation of SM projects was taken into account; however, the survey team noted that a number of them are much closer to curriculum development projects or complementary measures projects than to genuine SM projects. Regardless of this observation, Chapter 3 – dealing with statistics and general trends – considers all the listed projects as SM projects. Projects are treated more selectively in the more ‘narrative’ Chapter 4; here, the main focus was given to projects with clear structural and/or policy contents.

¹ See http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/projects_en.html#2

The key sources in this survey were application forms and final reports of the 251 SM projects available from a restricted ETF web page. A number of previous Tempus reports and other documents were also considered (see the Bibliography). In cases of the Bologna member countries, the so-called Bologna national reports and other related documents (e.g. both *stocktaking reports* from 2005 and 2007) were also used. Key data on higher education systems and higher education developments in partner Tempus countries were mainly drawn from Eurydice and ETF, but also partly from OECD and UNESCO studies. Other studies, information and data were also used, in particular to provide the context and background.

The main part of the survey was performed between January and early May 2007; the report was concluded in early June 2008.

2. Higher education in Tempus Partner countries

2.1 Backgrounds and the context

The concept of *Structural Measures* in developing higher education systems and institutions should be considered in context. At the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st century, this context has been marked by ever increasing co-operation and interdependence on both the European and global scale. Co-operation between EU member states and so-called third countries has held double if not triple importance: from the ‘internal’ European point of view, it is an issue of ‘the international recognition and attractive potential of our systems’ (the Sorbonne Declaration, 1998) yet it is also a way to boost quality in higher education within Europe itself. On the other side, it provides assistance to higher education systems in transition, while also importantly contributing to better mutual understanding of diverse national higher education systems and their contextual backgrounds.

Internationalisation in higher education has a long history. The history of the university in Europe provides ample evidence that prior to the 19th century and the rise of the nation states, higher education was truly ‘universal’ (‘international’ as we understand it today); there were no problems – at least no problems as we know today – with mobility, the tuning of diverse curricula, recognition of study periods and/or qualifications etc. The 19th and 20th century changed this landscape substantially. After World War II, in particular, Europe found itself divided and crumbled; this also had a strong impact on higher education systems as well as international academic co-operation. This co-operation was mainly based on the personal commitment of individual academics.

On the other hand, two aspects which are clearly distinctive today were amalgamated in the understanding of international co-operation: prior to 1990, internationalisation in higher education in Europe could refer both to ‘Europeanisation’ (i.e., ‘internal’ European co-operation) as well as ‘true internationalisation’ (i.e. global co-operation). However, in the mid-1980s the Europeanisation of higher education received a strong push along with a more precise meaning. The establishment of the European Commission’s action programmes for research and student mobility (*Erasmus* in particular) addressed this issue for the first time in a systemic way: direct, multilateral co-operation among higher education systems of the EU member countries started to be encouraged. And it started to grow fast.

Indirectly, these processes were also very important for ‘broad’ Europe and for other world regions. Co-operation in higher education started to be perceived as part of the process leading towards an enlarged EU as well as part of a strategy for improved mutual co-operation and understanding in Europe at large. The *Tempus programme* (the ‘Trans-European mobility scheme for university studies’)² was launched in 1990 within an enthusiastic spirit of political change in Central and Eastern Europe as well as within a readiness to share – at least indirectly – the Erasmus ‘philosophy’ with other parts of the ‘wakening’ and ‘opening’ Europe. Since then, Tempus has undergone steep development and today it is the well-known EU flagship programme for higher education co-operation between member states and partner countries which in one or another respect are its neighbours.

² See <http://www.ec.europa.eu/tempus>.

Over time, the programme's geographical scope has evolved. It was initially established as a programme for co-operation with Central and Eastern European countries which have subsequently joined the EU. It has been renewed three times. The scope of eligible countries expanded and from the beginning of this decade (i.e., Tempus III for the period 2000 to 2006) it has enabled universities and other higher education institutions as well as organisations and agencies from EU member states to co-operate with those in the Western Balkans, Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and the Mediterranean partner countries. In addition to reforming higher education systems in the partner countries surrounding the EU, Tempus contributes – notably through its mobility activities for teachers, students and faculty – to enhancing understanding between cultures.

Its projects fall into three categories: the main type, *Joint European Projects* (JEPs), aims to increase co-operation and network-building between actors in higher education in EU member states and partner countries. *Structural and Complementary Measures* (SCMs) are short-term interventions designed to support national higher education reforms and strategic policy frameworks. *Individual Mobility Grants* help staff in participating partner countries take part in training and conferences abroad, and to assist European teachers deliver training courses in partner countries.

Over time, Tempus has also become one of the main sources of information on Bologna developments in the Bologna signatory countries that are outside the EU, but also in other partner countries that are not (yet) formally involved in the Bologna Process. Tempus provides a platform for exchanges and transfer of experiences on a variety of key issues such as curriculum development, quality enhancement, modernisation of teaching, use of ICT in higher education, credit system, or mobility issues. In addition to introducing innovative practices at university, faculty or college level, most Tempus partner countries are incorporating the Bologna principles as part of their overall efforts to modernise their higher education systems, and aligning them with current international developments, in order to become part of a larger higher education community.

As already stated, this review focuses only on *Tempus structural measures*. These measures have been established within the Tempus programme to provide a framework for targeted action with a view to increasing the programme's impact on higher education reform in partner countries. Therefore, they are closely linked to concrete – and therefore diverse – national priorities. Each country has its own needs and priorities; nevertheless, it is not difficult to identify some common features and characteristics within certain groups of countries, but also in general. It cannot be a surprise that today national higher education systems are ever more interlinked and their internal development is influenced by an atmosphere of increasing international co-operation. These characteristics will be briefly presented later. Before that, it is necessary to examine more deeply the '*Tempus geography*' as designed and used in our survey.

2.2 The Tempus 'geography'

The expression '*Tempus partner countries*' is a generic term which encompasses a number of geographically, culturally and historically diverse regions and countries on three continents. More specifically, the Tempus programme focuses on the *higher education* sector in partner countries, that is on modernisation and reform processes in higher education. Therefore, the metaphor '*Tempus geography*' is not connected to 'geography as such' but to a specific 'higher education geography'.

This review discusses SM projects in 28 Tempus partner countries (for a complete list of these countries, see Annex 8.2). It is difficult to make any meaningful comparison among particular projects from certain countries if regional- and country-specific characteristics are not taken into account. However, only focusing on *general* cultural, historical etc. diversities would not help much to satisfy the concrete tasks of our survey. In this regard, a truly talkative context can only be *reform processes and modernisation in higher education*. Today, this is a common background to higher education on the global scale. All systems face common challenges; on the other hand, all of them are based on a specific heritage and all respond to challenges in specific ways. This makes the exchange of good practice and mutual learning very attractive.

Higher education modernisation and reform agendas can differ from country to country as well as from region to region. Nevertheless, behind the specific agendas of countries and/or regions a common agenda is also more and more visible today. On the global level, this agenda includes issues such as e.g. access to higher education, quality enhancement, qualification frameworks, comparability and compatibility of systems, degrees and their mutual recognition, needs in economies, cultures and societies etc. Since the turn of the millennium, these issues have been addressed in Europe within the Bologna Process. In its broadest meaning, it can also be taken as a common background for the various co-operation agendas of today, including within the Tempus co-operation.

The Bologna Process is, first of all, of greatest interest to those countries which joined it; as there are EU ('EU-27') as well as non-EU member countries in the Process it is normal that the wider 'Bologna club' ('EU-46') is an area of intensive Tempus co-operation. On the other hand, a lot of interest has also been expressed by other countries which are not formal members of the Process or of the emerging European Higher Education Area ('EHEA'). Such interest has literally been expressed worldwide.³

Therefore, it can be meaningful and productive to observe – and to compare, also with regard to EU member countries – the higher education modernisation and reform processes in the Tempus partner countries against the background of the Bologna Process. As formal positions in the Bologna Process⁴ and specific countries' higher education agendas can differ importantly, it is necessary to recognise regional particularities and organise them in groups with common characteristics.

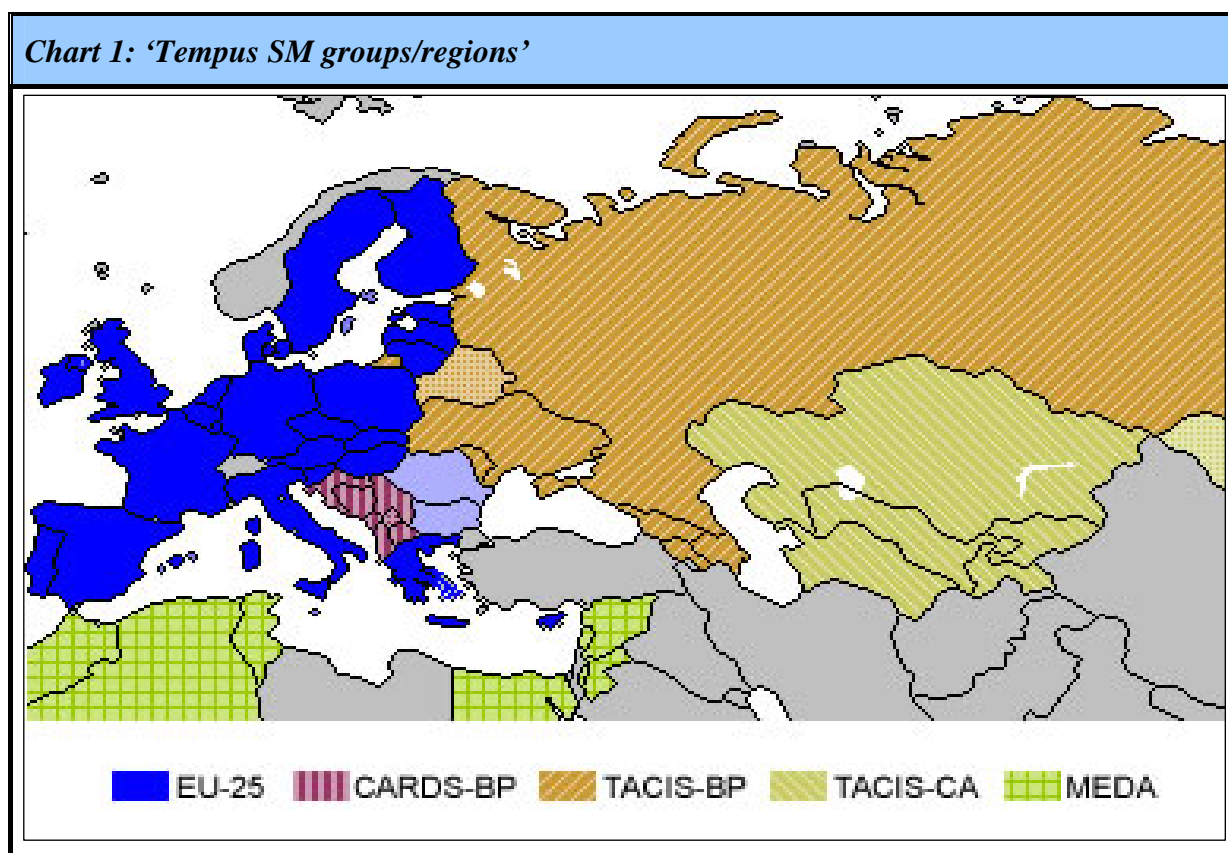
Tempus III activities were supported through three programmes – CARDS, TACIS and MEDA.⁵ These programmes have a distinctive geopolitical background which, as already mentioned, cannot be really helpful in analysing and explaining a particular dimension in higher education. On the other hand, partner countries can be divided into the 'Bologna' and 'non-Bologna' ones; as was also mentioned, this differentiation has an important effect on national higher education agendas. However, the demarcation between one group and another is not identical to the organisation of individual countries into one of the three programmes. For these reasons – and for the purposes of progressing in this survey – the following four '*Tempus SM Groups/Regions*' have been designed (see *Chart 1*):

3 For more on these issues, see P. Zgaga, Looking out: the Bologna process in a global setting. On the "External dimension" of the Bologna process. Oslo: Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2006, pp. 34-96 (see <http://www.bolognaoslo.com/expose/global/download.asp?id=518&fk=29&thumb=>).

4 At the Berlin Conference of the Bologna Process (2003), the following eligibility criteria were agreed: 'Countries party to the European Cultural Convention shall be eligible for membership of the European Higher Education Area provided that they at the same time declare their willingness to pursue and implement the objectives of the Bologna Process in their own systems of higher education. Their applications should contain information on how they will implement the principles and objectives of the declaration.' (Berlin Communiqué, 2003).

5 See http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/how-does-it-work/financial-assistance/cards/index_en.htm;
http://ec.europa.eu/external_relations/ceeca/tacis/index.htm; http://ec.europa.eu/external_relations/euomed/meda.htm.

1. 'CARDS-BP' (countries of the Western Balkans, *members* of the Bologna Process);
2. 'TACIS-BP' (countries of Eastern Europe, *members* of the Bologna Process);
3. 'TACIS-CA' (countries of Central Asia, *non-members* of the Bologna Process); and
4. 'MEDA' (Maghreb and Mashrek countries, *non-members* of the Bologna Process).⁶



Some *exceptions* had to be made, however. Two of them refer to the 'Bologna' vs. 'non-Bologna' delineation within the first two groups:

(1) *Kosovo*, which applied for membership but could not join the Bologna Process at the London conference (2007) due to the open issues related to its political status (the next opportunity seems to be at the Leuven/Louvain conference in 2009), is included in Group 1 (CARDS – BP);

(2) *Belarus*, which has remained outside the Process and has so far not applied, is included in Group 2 (TACIS–BP).

If these two countries were exempted it would only complicate the presentation of findings in this report; further, the total number of projects with these two countries is quite small and, in the case of Belarus, only symbolic. The third exception is

(3) *Mongolia*, symbolically represented in Tempus III Structural Measures with one project; it is associated with Group 3 (TACIS-CA). Mongolia was also covered by the TACIS programme from 1991 to 2003 but is now covered by the ALA programme.⁷

⁶ More precisely, it is possible to differentiate among 'MEDA-MAG' (Maghreb countries) and 'MEDA-MAS' (Mashrek countries). In the Annexes (see Tables 2-7) this differentiation is always presented; however, as there are almost no substantial differences between both 'sub-groups' or 'sub-regions' interpretative parts of the report refer most often to 'MEDA' as a total (unless specifically mentioned). Also see below, 2.3.5.

⁷ See http://www.delmg.ec.europa.eu/en/Cooperation/ALA_Programme.asp.

This organisation of countries is applied in the continuation of our report as well as in the Annexes.

2.3 Higher education in ‘Tempus groups/regions’

Since the beginning of the 1990s, the term ‘countries in transition’ has started to be used as a common name for the former socialist countries in Eastern Europe. This term has its historical grounds but can also be misleading for several reasons; when used in this text, it will be put in inverted commas. One of the common prejudices has been that these countries represented ‘a monolithic bloc’ before 1990. This is not true in the political sense⁸ and it is even less true when the development of higher education systems in these countries is observed. Regardless of the previous differences, these countries have taken various and sometimes even opposite ways since 1990. They could not be subsumed under one category before 1990 and also cannot be after that year.

After 1990, some Central, Eastern or South-east European countries joined the European Union (with 10 of them after taking part in the Tempus programme very successfully), some of them are still working on this agenda and some of them are searching for other paths towards the future. There are also varying ways when higher education is observed: here, the main difference appears today along the already mentioned ‘Bologna’ vs. ‘non-Bologna’ delineation. This dichotomy is mainly a formal one – based on the decision from the Berlin ministerial conference of Bologna countries (2003) – yet it influences concrete national policy agendas as well as higher education reform implementation processes.

During the first half of this decade, a number of these countries joined the Process: Croatia already in 2001; Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Russia, Serbia and Montenegro⁹ as well as the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia in 2003; and finally Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine in 2005. According to the rule established at the Berlin Conference in 2003, Belarus is eligible for membership but it has not (yet) applied. The problems with Kosovo were mentioned above.

Thus, the ‘potential’ on a geographic map was consumed and a relative split has emerged between Bologna (Eastern Europe) and non-Bologna (Central Asia) partner countries. Now, the Bologna agenda has a different meaning e.g. for the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Moldova or Caucasus republics than for the countries of Central Asia. Nevertheless, these countries share a certain common heritage and traditions in higher education co-operation as well as a similar motivation to co-operate with the ‘Bologna Club’. It is a fact that Central Asia is the closest neighbour to the emerging ‘European Higher Education Area’.

In any case, it is today clear that the principles and objectives of the Bologna Process may be used for reforms in any country of the world and may also form a productive basis for international co-operation in higher educations outside the ‘narrow’ European region. It is also clear that any reform process in the higher education field is today not considered as an imposition but as two-way co-operation.

⁸ E.g., the ‘Soviet bloc’ and the Socialist Federative Yugoslavia had a long history of a ‘cold relationship’ and differed in many aspects; on the other hand, Albania was an autarchic political entity as isolated from the West as from the East etc.

⁹ Serbia and Montenegro was a confederation from 2003 (when the period under this survey started) to 2006. Since June 2006 they have been two independent states and are treated as such in this report.

Another specific region with traditional international academic ties is the Mediterranean; yet, it is so different from the regions we have discussed so far. On one hand, the Mediterranean as such is a meeting point of several world regions, economies and cultural influences; on the other, in today's political circumstances its northern shore (i.e., the 'European part') also provides ever more opportunities to non-Mediterranean European countries to take part in the co-operation and in concrete projects with 'non-European' Mediterranean countries. Today, this is particularly true in the field of higher education and research.

Most countries of the northern shore are EU member states today and it is no surprise that the EU strongly supports regional co-operation. The Euro-Mediterranean Partnership (the *Barcelona Process: Partnership and Co-operation or Association Agreements*; 1995) and the decisions taken by the *EuroMed* Committee and the Conference of Ministers, along with the Neighbourhood Policy,¹⁰ led to a complex programme of Euro-Mediterranean 'co-development' in the economic, political, cultural, environmental and security fields. Two transversal issues are fundamentally important here: to encourage interaction and co-operation between the social agents from the North and the South, and to generate an image of Europe in the Mediterranean that makes it possible to construct, as expressed by Romano Prodi, 'a friendly neighbourhood with a human dimension' (EuroMed Report, 2003, p. 6).

There have been many intergovernmental higher education activities in the region. Already in the Barcelona Declaration of 1995 the proposal to create a 'Euro-Mediterranean Higher Education Area' was set out. In early 2006, ministers of education from 12 Mediterranean countries (Algeria, Egypt, France, Greece, Italy, Jordan, Malta, Morocco, Slovenia, Spain, Tunisia and Turkey) signed the *Catania Declaration*, further proof of the dissemination of the Bologna spirit in the region. Among others, it was stated to activate structured co-operation in order to promote the comparability and readability of higher education systems in the Euro-Mediterranean Area, while also preserving each country's individuality. Similarly as in the Bologna Process, these countries agreed 'to meet regularly to assess progress and to promote further collaboration through the establishment of a Follow-up Group, in which each participant Country will be represented, and who will report to the next ministerial meeting to be held in 2008' (Catania Declaration, 2006). The so-called MEDA countries are formally outside the Bologna Process, similarly to the Central Asia countries, but they are also connected to developments which are best described by the 'brand' name of the Bologna Process.

Activities have not remained solely on the political level. An influential higher education action has been launched within this agenda – the *Mediterranean University Forum*,¹¹ part of the European Commission's Jean Monnet Project. Its main aims are to promote academic thinking about the key elements required to create an open Mediterranean area, to define the role of the university in the social, cultural, economic and scientific aspects of the Mediterranean area and to gradually build a Mediterranean area of higher education and research.

We will now focus on the main characteristics of the four 'Tempus groups/regions'.

10 'The European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) was developed in the context of the EU's 2004 enlargement, with the objective of avoiding the emergence of new dividing lines between the enlarged EU and our neighbours and instead strengthening stability, security and well-being for all concerned. [...] Originally, the ENP was intended to apply to our immediate neighbours – Algeria, Belarus, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Moldova, Morocco, the Palestinian Authority, Syria, Tunisia and Ukraine. In 2004, it was extended to also include the countries of the Southern Caucasus with whom the present candidate countries Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey share either a maritime or land border (Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia). Although Russia is also a neighbour of the EU, the mutual relations are instead developed through a Strategic Partnership covering four 'common spaces'.' – See http://ec.europa.eu/world/enp/index_en.htm.

11 See <http://www.unimedforum.net/angles/definicio.htm>.

2.3.2 CARDS–BP countries

The Western Balkans region is the closest periphery to the heart of the European integration. Due to the numerous wars of the 1990s and other turmoil of the 1990s, catching up with the economically developed West has been much slower than in the other European ‘countries in transition’. Together with slower economic restructuring the democratisation agenda has also been delayed. In this region education plays a crucial role in the development of civil society, the revival of social, cultural and political life and the promotion of equal opportunities.

With Albania as an exception, the remaining CARDS-BP countries shared a considerable part of 20th century political history and heritage of a common state, Yugoslavia. Its roots grew already after World War I. Until the 20th century, the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires had affected most parts of the region with divisions, (re-) unifications, shifting allegiances and diversity. After World War II, the Federal Socialist Yugoslavia, as ‘neither an Eastern – nor a Western’ country, was decentralised and diverse in itself. Since the mid-1960s it was more connected with the West (with one million workers abroad) than the East. Albania to the south-west side of the peninsula was isolated up until the late 1980s. Looking at the Balkans in a broader framework, Bulgaria and Romania belonged to the ‘Eastern bloc’ while Moldova was an integral part of the Soviet Union. To the south of the Balkans, Greece was the next frontier to the West, politically speaking.¹²

From the end of the 1980s to date higher education reforms have started to appear, but not evenly. The gap between the countries was especially growing in the 1990s. However, in comparison to the Soviet system it should be noted that the Yugoslav public administration was relatively decentralised and that there were certain differences among the federal republics, including in higher education governance. One of the most outstanding common features of the previous higher education system in the Federal Socialist Yugoslavia was a *disintegrated university* with the faculties being the main actor and a separate legal entity. Throughout the reform processes of the last 10 or 15 years, lots of effort has been put into achieving greater co-operation between faculties of the same institution. The direction of the changes also pointed to the increased autonomy of the institutions, which often meant greater independence from the state administration yet also decreasing public funding.

In the last decade the main reform strategies have been guided by the Bologna Process.¹³ It has represented a sort of guiding force for a coherent national reform strategy. Countries joined the Bologna Process and all of them have undergone major changes in their legislation which has in turn provided a framework for the introduction of Bologna-inspired reforms. The legislative changes have also opened up the debate and provided an opportunity to introduce legislation in other spheres of higher education policy not necessarily directly linked to the Bologna Process.

However, achievements in terms of implementing the Bologna reforms differ across the region, in some cases due to the hampering climate of the political situation. Outstanding results can be observed in Croatia: harmonising the Croatian higher education system with other European systems seems to be the core strategic orientation of the development plan of the Ministry of Education and Sports. The Bologna reforms are also unfolding on the institutional level. Developing lifelong learning according to market needs and enhancing the importance of local

12 Recapped from P. Zgaga, *The Importance of Education in Social Reconstruction. Six Years of the Enhanced Graz Process*. Ljubljana & Vienna, 2005, pp. 25-26. See <http://www.see-educoop.net>.

13 The main sources for the country reforms strategy and main policy issues were the following web sites:
<http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/links>;
<http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/countries>.

communities also appears to be an important element. In FYR Macedonia, on the other hand, the reform has also reached the micro level. Institutions are striving towards modernising teaching methods, offering more flexible learning opportunities, introducing quality assurance systems, improving governance and safeguarding academic and research standards. In Serbia the responsible ministry claims good progress in the national report for the Bologna Process; however, European associations of students and universities (EUA and ESU) report some challenges needing to be urgently addressed. In Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as in Montenegro, the smallest higher education system of the CARDS-BP region, important steps towards paving the ground for a large higher education reform at the universities have been taken, although it is a long road ahead in terms of implementing the Bologna reform.

The Tempus programme has been present in the CARDS region for a considerable time. It has been effective in developing human resources and led to capacity-building in the public administration, civil society and NGOs. In almost all national reports for the Bologna Process (2007),¹⁴ Tempus projects are mentioned as a valuable input supporting various aspects of higher education reform. In Croatia, for instance, Tempus projects appear well integrated with the national higher education policy. They are referred to as an *'excellent instrument for the support of the higher education sector reform'*. In particular, the SM project *'Furtherance of the Bologna Process in Croatia'* (C032A06) is mentioned several times in the respective national Bologna report. It is noted there that the project also involved stakeholders: the Croatian Chamber of Commerce and the Croatian Employers' Association. The support of Tempus projects for the Croatian higher education institutions approaching the EHEA is highly appreciated.

In the Serbian Bologna report Tempus projects are also explicitly mentioned in the section on mobility as support for study visits and establishing international networks. They have provided an optimal framework for the re-establishing of co-operation with EU universities, exchanges of academics and students and lining up with the current trends in European HE. The Montenegrin ministry responsible for higher education lists the development of a national qualification framework as a high priority and refers to the Tempus SM project as a helpful instrument in this respect. Tempus projects are also mentioned in the section on mobility.

The formal statements from all countries of the CARDS-BP group on their priorities in Structural and Complementary Measures projects will be examined below.¹⁵ Formal approaches in defining SM priorities have obviously been quite diverse. While on one hand e.g. FYR Macedonia has prepared a comprehensive set of priorities, Bosnia and Herzegovina on the other hand have not made any indication of concrete SM priorities. Nevertheless, as will be demonstrated later, higher education institutions and their partners from all countries in the region have strongly engaged in SM projects.

Main topics in the area of SM were formulated in the CARDS-BP region as follows (see note 15):

- *quality assurance in higher education and/or accreditation* (Albania; Croatia, FYRoM, Montenegro, Kosovo); co-operation with ENQA (FYRoM);
- *introduction of the ECTS system* (Croatia, FYRoM, Montenegro); *accumulation of credits gained through formal, non-formal and informal learning* (FYRoM); *study structures in higher education* (Albania); *restructuring and introduction of new curricula* (Montenegro);

14 The countries' national reports have been practiced since the Berlin Conference in 2003 and contain a lot of important data. See <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/londonbologna/index.cfm?fuseaction=docs.list&DocCategoryID=17> for the National Reports 2007 (London Conference).

15 These documents can be found (and will be quoted or used in the continuation) at the following site: http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/doc/guide3cards_en.pdf.

- introduction of joint degrees (FYRoM); third cycle (doctoral) studies (FYRoM); implementation of lifelong learning courses (Kosovo);*
- *recognition of degrees and periods of study (Albania, FYRoM, Montenegro), Diploma Supplement (FYRoM); harmonisation of the curricula to comply with the EU directives for regulated professions (FYRoM);*
- *contribution to higher education reform processes and further implementation of the Bologna principles (Croatia, Montenegro);*
- *support of the university management reform (Montenegro); introducing centres of excellence (Kosovo);*
- *promotion of close links with the local and regional economy through technology and knowledge transfer (Serbia); and*
- *equal opportunities for access to higher education (FYRoM); care for disadvantaged groups and gender policies (Kosovo); multi-lingualism in higher education as a tool for mutual understanding and regional integration (FYRoM).*

2.3.3 TACIS–BP countries

As former parts of the Soviet Union, all countries of the TACIS-BP group share the same historical institutional setting. The heavily centralised and state-controlled higher education system only commenced breathing in the 1990s. Universities slowly gained more autonomy from the governments as the political reform and institutional modernisation proceeded. However, to restructure a system with such a heavy centrally planned tradition represents a considerable challenge. The governments face the need for a thorough modernisation of higher education systems, especially in terms of responding to the expectations and needs of society.

The Soviet legacy and the current situation policy-makers have to deal with a considerable challenge. Universities are often overstaffed and under-funded, the salaries of teachers are low, the equipment is poor and maintenance of buildings is often problematic. In many cases state institutions of higher education try to compensate for these shortcomings by charging fees, accepting ‘fee-paying’ students alongside ‘state-ordered’ students. In Armenia, for instance, out of 61,000 students in public institutions 60 – 70% pay fees, while all of the 15,000 students enrolled in accredited private institutions are subject to tuition fees¹⁶. With a weak social policy these figures might represent an alarming indicator for society.

There is an obvious need for democratising and reforming the university management with the inclusion of students and local authorities in the decision-making process. Accreditation and licensing are on the way to gaining pace along with the development of a proper quality assurance system in compliance with the Bologna Process standards and guidelines. Often, corruption is a serious obstacle on the way to a sound reform process.

Russia was the first TACIS country to join the Bologna Process in Berlin in 2003. The Education Modernisation Concept until 2010 urges the Russian government to introduce long-term education reforms covering primary, secondary and tertiary education. The main concerns of this policy include increasing access to the system, raising the quality of education and improving its overall efficiency and effectiveness. The ‘Priorities of development of the education system’ approved in 2005 focus on the development of an up-to-date system of continuing vocational and professional education, enhancement of quality, access, investment attractiveness, and certification and accreditation of curricula.¹⁷ As the reader will notice further in the report,

¹⁶ See <http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/countries/higher/armenia.pdf>

¹⁷ See http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Eastern_Europe_and_Central_Asia_Russian_Federation_EN?Opendocument&c=RUS

Russia has managed to adjust the Tempus projects perfectly with its policy goals. The chief focus of SM projects implemented in Russia was quality assurance, lifelong learning and recognition.

Ukraine followed Russia in joining the Bologna Process two years later (2005) in Bergen. Vocational education and training in Ukraine continues to struggle to come to grips with the realities and needs of the new labour market. With the disappearance of the old system of allocating students to education and employment, the VET system has not been in a position to retain high enrolment rates. The 'National Doctrine for Development of Education in Ukraine' is guiding the new phase of education reforms, which has its key elements in relevance and improved service delivery from pre-school through to tertiary education. The priority issues for the sector are the introduction of an approach centred on the individual, lifelong learning, equal access to quality education, and integration into the European education area.¹⁸ Also here the Tempus SM projects helped substantially in achieving the national goals.

Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Moldova joined the 'all European reform' in the same year as Ukraine (2005). Since then, reform efforts in the region have substantially been based on the Bologna action lines. Virtually all major strategic goals are inspired by the Bologna Process.¹⁹ Thus, the Armenian National Report for the Bologna Process of 2007 lists the need to properly implement the Bologna degree structure along with the development of the national qualification framework as one of the biggest policy priorities. Similarly the other governments are prioritising the quality assurance, degree structure reform and a new recognition system.

Higher education systems in the TACIS-BP region have also been rapidly changing due to the ever increasing number of higher education institutions, especially private ones. For example, Armenia faces a maze of 53 accredited higher education institutions, 33 of which are private. The sound and functioning external monitoring is a logical policy response to such a busy higher education area²⁰.

Although the Bologna Process appears to be the top strategy for developing higher education in the region, not all countries have adopted the 'Bologna' based higher education legislation yet, or are at least some delays are noted. For instance, one of the big challenges for Georgia at present is to implement the Bologna reforms in a very short period of time. Obvious progress has recently been noticed on the national level. International assistance and support can play a crucial role in adjusting the system to the Bologna requirements by 2010. However, in the last couple of years the Tempus III SM support in terms of implementing the Bologna reforms was less visible in the three Caucasus countries.

Problems also appear where implementation of the Bologna reforms is more advanced. In general, there is a need for more decisive progress in the areas of quality assurance, lifelong learning and national qualification frameworks, while the ECTS and Diploma Supplement are still in an early stage of implementation. The Bologna Stocktaking Report (2007) points out the poor performance in the quality assurance segment in Azerbaijan, as well as the need to start the process of building the national qualification framework. ECTS implementation is also a weak point of the Bologna reforms in Azerbaijan. There are problems with access to the second cycle. Among the main challenges faced by the Russian Federation during the period of forming the

18 See http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Eastern_Europe_and_Central_Asia_Ukraine_EN?Opendocument&c=UKR

19 The main sources for the country reforms strategy and main policy issues were the following web sites:
<http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/links>;
<http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/countries>.

20 See <http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/countries/higher/armenia.pdf>

EHEA is the lack of readiness of some Russian higher education institutions to become equal partners in mobility programmes (inadequate funding, weak knowledge of foreign languages).

Similarly as in CARDS-BP countries, some TACIS-BP countries explicitly report the added value of Tempus projects for implementing the Bologna reforms. For example, in the Azerbaijan Bologna Process Report of 2007 the Tempus projects were clearly mentioned in the context of developing the quality assurance system²¹. Both Tempus SM projects in Azerbaijan tackled this issue (even though it was not central to the project) which indicates a match between the priorities and challenges listed by the government and the weaknesses of the Bologna reforms traced by the Stocktaking Report. However, the Tempus-supported policy activity is far too weak to satisfy the scale of the reform necessities. In this respect, the Armenian Tempus web page reports:

'The whole list of initiatives is in line with common Tempus Program priorities but once per two-year Tempus investment in Armenia is not enough to receive a great feedback in the sector. No doubt, the initiatives need to be ensured by necessary funds. The obstacle for implementation of new initiatives is lack of funds, which might keep changes declarative'.²²

The formal statements for the Tempus priorities have also been advanced in the TACIS-BP region.²³ The main topics in the area of SM were formulated as follows:

- *implementation of the Bologna Process and integration into the EHEA* (Russia; Moldova, Ukraine, Armenia, Belarus); *creation of National Teams of Bologna Promoters* (Georgia);
- *adaptation of HE institutions to the lifelong learning concept* (Russia);
- *development of the postgraduate level through best practice* (Russia);
- *introduction and/or improvement of quality assurance, evaluation and/or accreditation systems* (Ukraine, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia);
- *introduction of the two-level system on the national level* (Ukraine);
- *development of the ECTS or similar transfer systems* (Ukraine, Armenia);
- *staff training* (ministry officials, academics, university administrators); and
- *project consortia to include regional universities* (Moldova).

2.3.4 TACIS-CA countries

There are various – broader and narrower – definitions of Central Asia as a world region; by this name we refer here to five countries: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan, all of them being former Soviet republics. Within the 'TEMPUS-CA group' of countries in our survey, we also include Mongolia but as an exception as explained earlier.

Historically, Central Asia has been a crossroads for the movement of people, goods and ideas between Europe and different parts of Asia. Someone could find it interesting to be noted in this report that the idea of Central Asia as a distinct region of the world was introduced in 1843 by the geographer Alexander von Humboldt, the brother of Wilhelm von Humboldt who was the founder of Berlin University (1810), the so-called "mother of all modern universities". After

21 See http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/links/National-reports-2007/National_Report_Azerbaijan2007.pdf

22 See http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/links/National-reports-2007/National_Report_Armenia2007.pdf

23 See http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/doc/guide3tacis_en.pdf.

dissolution of the former Soviet Union, all five countries obtained their independence. The total population of the region is about 60 million, living in an area of about 3.5 million km².

Although countries in the region have a long tradition of public education and training, the system has since become obsolete and infrastructures and facilities have deteriorated during the transition period. The result is an unbalanced structure of qualifications with little relevance to economic and social development. Since their independence in the early 1990s, these countries have undergone a period of educational reforms and modernisation attempts – similarly as countries in the previous two groups. Their main task has been to align their systems with the deep political and economic changes characterised by the transition of social and economic institutions from centrally planned to market ones.

As in other ‘countries in transition’, there has been a huge increase in enrolment in higher education. Institutions have obtained more autonomy but also experienced drastic funding cuts. Private institutions have been established alongside public (state) ones. This period has also been marked by the emigration of local professors, scholars and students and the rejection of outdated Soviet curricula.

This has obviously been a challenging situation. Most of these countries have adopted new legislation; often with assistance from international organisations, e.g. the UNESCO, WB, USAID, OSI as well as from the EU. Pivotal goals of reforms have been decentralisation and privatisation. In admissions, a standardised nationwide test has been introduced in most of the countries and quality standards have become a top issue in education. Degree structures have been changed towards a two-cycle system. However, it can also be heard that there are problems in implementation and that not enough attention has been paid to the improvement of policy debate. Further international support and co-operation could importantly help in overcoming these problems.

An illustrative example of a transition period of the countries in the region is Kazakhstan. With the many challenges described above, the national focus turned to higher education. Also the extension and strengthening of the market environment has had a serious impact on the role and importance of higher education in the structure of public life. Education reforms of the last ten years were implemented in the context of overall reforms aimed at building a democratic, economically-developed state. Therefore, the reforms were directly or implicitly aimed at adjusting the education system to the needs of the economy.

Tajikistan has gone through a turbulent transition period marked by civil war, a breakdown of the economy, the emergence of widespread poverty followed by large-scale seasonal migration. Consequently, improving qualifications and competencies are the challenges faced by higher education institutions and national authorities. Strategic reforms currently concentrate on ensuring equal access, quality knowledge and relevance to the needs of a modern society. This is to be ensured by improving the efficiency of the education system, including financing, management, planning mechanisms, spending, rationalisation and modernisation of curricula and approaches. Higher education reform includes rationalisation of the university network, modernisation of curricula and strengthening the autonomy of institutions. Adjustment to the needs of the economy with an aim of developing the country’s standard is, similarly, a priority in Tajikistan as well as in other countries of the region.

Similarities in problems, contexts and higher education priorities can be found amongst countries in the region and we thus limit the description only to a few typical cases. Tempus via project opportunities has a great possibility of supporting national and regional changes in the field of

higher education and the countries recognise the importance of such help. As the reader will notice later in the report, Tempus SM projects fit national needs and priorities well.

Here – as well as in the next case of the MEDA group of countries – we do not have an opportunity to rely on the Bologna National Reports. In these cases, other materials were used, e.g. from the European Training Foundation website.²⁴ However, the Tempus priorities in the TACIS-CA region are attainable and presented in the same document as mentioned in the previous chapter;²⁵ the main SM topics in this group can be described as follows:

- *introduction of quality management and assessment systems in higher education* (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan);
- *aligning the higher education system with the Bologna Process* (Uzbekistan); *introducing elements of the 'Bologna Process'* (Kyrgyzstan);
- *introduction of the three-level education system based on credit accumulation* (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan);
- *international recognition of higher education institutions and/or recognition of qualifications* (Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan);
- *development of systems to involve employers with a view to increasing the quality and relevance of education* (Kazakhstan); and
- *development of PhD programmes* (Kazakhstan).

2.3.5 MEDA countries

The MEDA region is home to the oldest traditions in higher education: it is often stressed that the first university was established in Fes three centuries before (859) those in Bologna and Paris. In the region, a rich history of education can be recognised with a lot of multicultural influences. Traditions have remained important yet in modern times various systems, mostly influenced from Europe, have prevailed. Higher education systems grew in importance with national independence after World War 2. An important issue raised in this period and which has remained at the forefront of higher education policies is the international recognition of degrees and qualifications as well as the modernisation of higher education contents and management. As already mentioned (see the introductory part to this sub-chapter), developments in the last two decades have put cross-Mediterranean co-operation in higher education high on the internationalisation agenda. In this context, fruitful co-operation in higher education between EU member states and partner countries is based on the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership (1995). Its agenda also refers to the development of human resources, the promotion of understanding between cultures and civil societies. These are issues which can be strongly supported through higher education.

The MEDA countries are 'junior' Tempus partner countries. In 2002, the EU Council of Ministers adopted a decision to extend the Tempus Programme to the Mediterranean partners: Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, the Palestinian Authority, Syria and Lebanon (Maghreb and Mashrek countries)²⁶ as well as Israel (on a self-financing basis, as it does not benefit from the MEDA fund). The extension to the Mediterranean area is part of the Valencia Action Plan, the Action Programme for Dialogue between Cultures and Civilisations and of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership. Therefore, the context of MEDA involvement in Tempus is quite different in some aspects from CARDS and TACIS.

24 See <http://www.etf.europa.eu/>.

25 See http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/doc/guide3taxis_en.pdf.

26 The Mashrek (Mashriq or Mashreq; "east", "place of sunrise") is, generally speaking, the region of Arabic-speaking countries to the east of Egypt and north of the Arabian Peninsula. It is the corresponding term of Magreb ('west'), i.e. the Arabic-speaking countries in North Africa.

The region lies outside the emerging EHEA but interest in as well as the introduction of different concepts of the Bologna Process are visible as part of the enhancement and modernisation processes in national higher education systems. Several cases can be mentioned. For instance, a Bologna-inspired degree reform (*'le système LMD'*) was launched in Algeria in the 2004-2005 academic year and the majority of institutions have already modernised their courses. Also in Lebanon, some universities recently started to switch to the 3-cycle 'LMD' system. On the other hand, in 2005 the National Quality Assurance and Accreditation Agency was created in Egypt. In Jordan, the Accreditation Authority was established in 2007 as an independent entity, along with a Higher Education Development Forum.

The MEDA region consists of relatively large national systems of higher education (20 to 30 universities in countries such as Algeria, Egypt or Jordan). In general, universities and non-university higher education institutions – public and private – co-exist in all countries. It is particularly important that there are strong cohorts of young people in all countries of the MEDA region; for demographic and modernisation reasons an increase in students can therefore be expected in the near future. Many countries in the region invest a lot into the strategic planning and development of their higher education systems. During the present decade, there have been several systemic legislative changes in several countries of the region.

For example, in Egypt a National Conference was already held in 2000 recommending: (1) a unified framework for higher education (including new legislation) and establishment of a NQF; (2) improving educational inputs (investments etc); and (3) development of Technical Institutes into regional Polytechnics associated with universities and industry. There are ongoing changes and developments in the national higher education system and basic Bologna elements can be found within its 'master plan'. Strategic goals for Jordan mainly consist of improving the management of the higher education sector, improving quality in higher education as well as enhancing scientific research quality and international best practices. The general framework for higher education in Jordan already consists of three cycles that lead to three degrees. The country is intensifying its national reforms and the positioning of its higher education in the context of internationalisation.

Lebanon is a particular case in the MEDA region due to its tradition of having a variety of public and (mostly) private – both secular and religious – higher education institutions. Yet, one-half of the students study at the only public university. The system is not homogeneous and this is probably one reason why the Bologna experience in convergence issues as well as in 'tuning' higher education structures and systems is important for the country. Cultural dimensions are also significant: the main teaching languages are French and English; Arabic to a smaller extent. A lack of a unified graduation system (the types of degrees and diplomas mainly depend on French and Anglo-American educational backgrounds but there are also Canadian, German and other influences) has been identified as well as of an accreditation system and independent evaluation procedures for diplomas. The Lebanese higher education system is also engaged in systemic reform processes. Their major components are as follows: development of a new strategy in which accessibility, diversification of curricula, quality assurance, accreditation, and the research component of higher education are the key issues.

The list of higher education developments could easily be expanded to all other countries; yet, here we limit ourselves again to some typical cases only. Despite specific features which characterise individual national higher education systems in the MEDA region, a broader development agenda can be synthesised which is more or less common to all countries and, last but not least, is not so different to what we can see in the CARDS and TACIS regions. Nevertheless, there are some specific accents. It was also interesting to notice that Egypt has

stressed that the Tempus projects should be in line with the objectives of the Egyptian Higher Education Development Strategy. This direction obviously strengthens sustainability. On the list of national priorities identified for the Tempus programme²⁷ across the countries of the MEDAS group the following key issues have been stressed:

- *modernisation and reforms at institutions*: improvement of contents and management of the higher education sector (Algeria, Jordan, Morocco, Tunisia); establishing a National Centre of Excellence for Higher Education (Syria);
- *quality issues*: development of quality assurance, evaluation and/or accreditation systems and procedures (Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia);
- *national reforms*: development of a national higher education strategy and alignment of institutional policies (Lebanon; Syria); training staff on higher education reforming processes (Morocco); establishment of a National Qualifications Framework (Egypt) and certified training centres for technical and vocational training (Egypt);
- *universities and economy/society*: university-labour market relationship and/or university-industry-society partnerships (Algeria, Egypt, the Palestinian Authority, Tunisia);
- *internationalisation*: the international comparability of the higher education system and dissemination of information on higher education systems (Lebanon); co-diploma exercises and recognition issues (Algeria, Tunisia); developments in the Bologna Process (Egypt, Syria).

2.3.6 Some conclusions

Today, the Bologna Process dominates discussions and developments in European higher education. It also influences other world regions. At this point, the dichotomy between the 'Bologna' and 'non-Bologna' countries has been established. This distinction is also a fact with the Tempus programme. However, the fact that 'Bologna' and 'non-Bologna' countries can work together in a common framework should be seen as an advantage for all. In the last few years, it has been stressed several times that 'Bologna' should not symbolise a new fortress but an open philosophy of co-operation for mutual benefits. After the London conference (2007), Europe and the emerging EHEA are consciously 'looking out': the so-called 'external dimension strategy'²⁸ should open up new ways to upgrade and strengthen these types of co-operation in the future.

As already mentioned, the TACIS-CA and MEDA countries are not Bologna countries. Nevertheless, they are interested in European developments and searching for good practices which could support and enhance the modernisation processes of their respective national higher education systems and/or institutions. Geographic closeness as well as a tradition in cultural, educational and scientific co-operation between many EU member countries and MEDA partner countries provides an excellent basis for further co-operation. Yet, international co-operation is always two-way. It should also be understood as two-way communication. Therefore, it is not only important to send messages to other regions but also to listen to messages from other world regions. Recently, we read an interesting message from the MEDA region which does not need much comment – just a quotation:

27 See http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/tempus/doc/guide3meda_en.pdf.

28 See European Higher Education in a Global Setting. A Strategy (2007). In an annex 'Elements for possible future actions' it is possible to find concrete proposals for action as e.g.: Bologna Information points, Network of Bologna promoters, Higher Education consortia, Measures aimed at institutional development and capacity building, Foreign language learning, Bologna consultation and advice etc. As will be shown later, these have already been – directly or indirectly – topics of Tempus SM projects. – The document can be found at <http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/>

*'Arab involvement in the Bologna process is important for many reasons. One is that many specific benefits emanate from specific bilateral and multilateral cooperation projects. Another, more important, is that as Arabs are thinking of developing and modernising their higher education systems, they can learn lessons from the Bologna process. Furthermore, as cooperation within the process allows several partners to meet, Arabs meet other Arabs within the context of European programmes. Engagement with the Bologna process, for Arabs and for Europeans, is beneficial. But should not Arabs develop their own Bologna process?'*²⁹

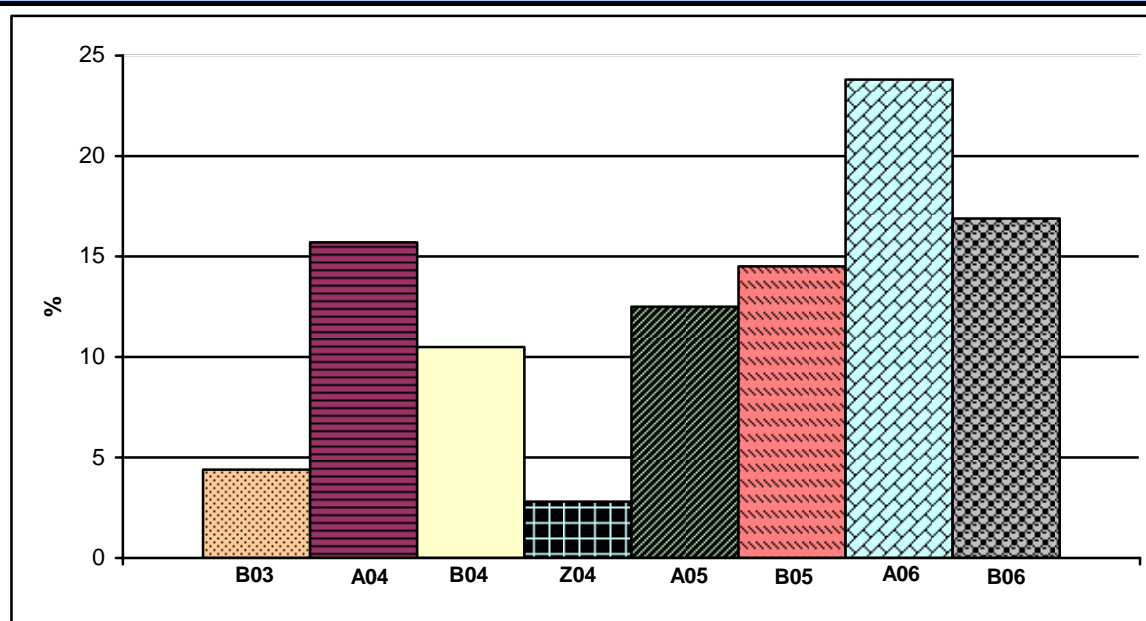
29 Ahmad Y. Majdoubeh, Arabs' Own Bologna process. Jordan Times, April 25, 2008; also see <http://www.deanstalk.net/deanstalk/2008/05/arabs-own-bolog.html>

3. Tempus III SM projects at a glance

3.1 Scope of the survey

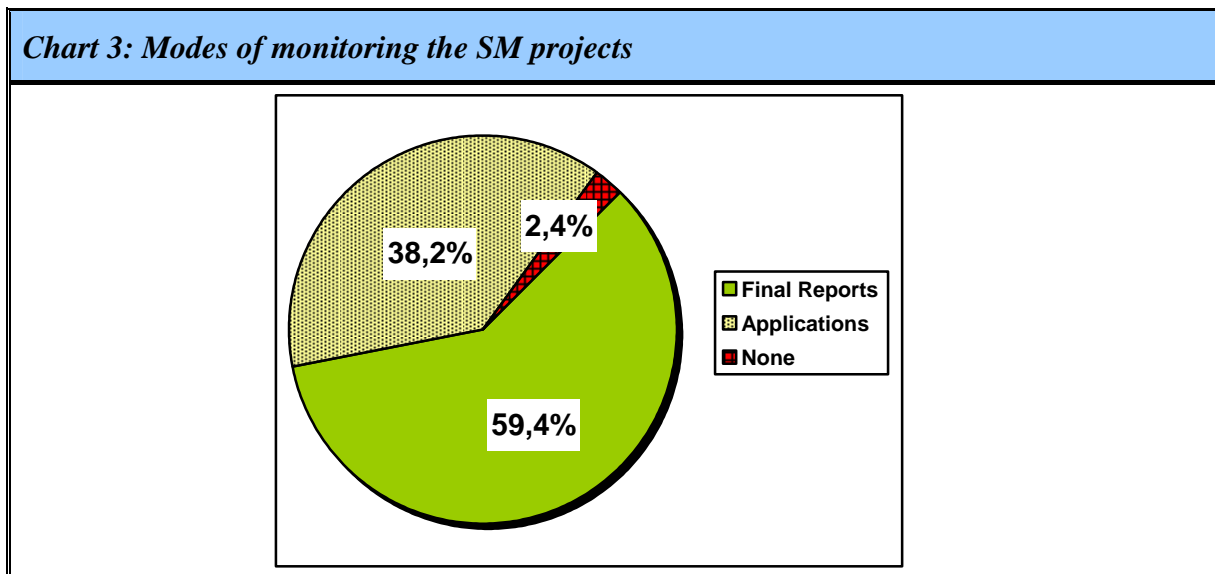
Out of 251 SM projects accepted and performed within Tempus III (2003-2006 calls B03, A04, B04, Z04, A05, B05, A06; for details of their distribution see Chart 2) 149 final reports were available for analysis (59.4 %). In cases where final reports were not available (for various reasons; e.g. some projects are still running), data from applications were also used (B 06 in total, partly A05, B05 and A06). Altogether, 96 project applications were checked (38.2%). This method did not allow going deeper into some content issues; nevertheless, it did allow the drawing of some key features for almost the whole pool of projects. For calls B03, A04 and B04 even applications were unavailable but there were only 6 such projects (2.4%) where no data (neither final reports nor applications) were available and which are not covered in this survey. This deficiency is, therefore, irrelevant. For more details of projects checked within this survey, see Annexes, 6.3, Table 1.

Chart 2: Distribution of SM projects per calls (2003-2006)



To analyse the scope and the impact of the SM projects, *final reports* were the main source in this survey. Within the review process, their content and achievements were monitored in both quantitative and qualitative ways. Findings were analysed in the light of modernisation and reform processes in individual countries and regions (this was one of intentions of Chapter 2) and in relation to the Bologna agenda. It should be stressed that the findings are predominantly based on data available from *project final reports*. *Project applications* were only used where final reports were unavailable or only to a limited extend. This combined way enabled a relatively made clear insight into a spread of SM projects across countries as well as the frequency of co-operation between EU member countries and Tempus partner countries (see below, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.6; also see Annexes, 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6, Tables 2, 3, 4A and 4B). With

somewhat less exactness and certainty (since final reports were sometimes missing, there were no measurable outcomes in some cases but it was possible to make approximations on the basis of working plans reported in application forms) a picture of the main areas and levels of SM projects (see *Annexes*, 6.8, *Table 6*) was also created. Of course, in these cases a combination of ‘hard’ data from the final reports and ‘soft’ assessments made by a review team, using common criteria and methodological tools, was used.



The review team encountered another difficulty which seems to be ‘normal’ in this kind of work: the final reports (as well as the applications) were *not written in the same style*. In some cases, the reports are quite short and formal while at other times they provide more detailed contents and allow clearer insights into the process. Sometimes, several statements from the second section of a SCM report (*Last report on the action’s implementation*) are simply copy-pasted into the last section (*Summary Report for Publication*); other times, these sections provide more colourful pictures and allow an observation from two angles. This ‘subjective’ feature should also be taken into account with this report: within the pool of altogether 251 SM projects there could be some more interesting examples which are not addressed here as they were not transparent (enough) from the documentation which the survey team succeeded to access. In order to overcome these difficulties and limitations, another – broader and based on an extended methodology – research project would be needed, also supported by field work and interviews (this was impossible within the framework of the present review).

The review of Tempus SM projects confirmed that the Tempus programme has been experiencing huge development during this period: often, important and positive changes between earlier and later projects can be found. The Tempus community has been ‘growing up’: in not so rare cases, consortia groups reapplied and ran a new SM project after a previous one had been successfully accomplished. In some cases, strong links have been built between two or more projects and their sustainability has been enhanced. Reporting templates have also been ‘growing up’; in some cases this can also be a reason that certain comparative aspects are hindered. For example, in earlier phases (SM ‘generations’ B03, A04 and Z04) a special section with *statistics and indicators* was not yet an integral part of the final report template (see *Annexes*, 6.7, *Table 5A* and *5B*), whereas in later stages this section offers a rich (but not always transparent/trustful; more on this issue later) source of data.

In the rest of this chapter, the key findings will be presented, partly interpreted and illustrated.

3.2 SM projects across partner countries

It has already been mentioned that the survey focused on 251 SM Tempus III (2003-2006) projects. How are they distributed across the partner countries and regions? What is their distribution by years? These questions and some others will be answered before going into further details about project co-operation as well as their contents and outcomes.

In general, the number of SM projects was rising from one year to another; however it did not reach the same dimensions within each call. A number of various, mainly technical reasons influenced it but these reasons are beyond our scope here and are not addressed. The biggest share of SM projects monitored in this survey belongs to TACIS (50.2%), while the share of MEDA remains the smallest (18.3%). The absolute number of Tempus SM projects (251) and the distribution among CARDS, TACIS and MEDA programmes is presented in *Chart 4 A*. Yet, this ‘macro distribution’ is not in the centre of our interest; here, it is more interesting and more important to present the impact of the Tempus SM projects at the level of individual countries and regions. In this chapter, we will try to paint a quantitative picture of this.

In most cases only *one partner country* – or put better : one ‘national team’³⁰ – was involved in *one SM project*, yet there are also some examples where two or even more partner countries – i.e., their respective ‘national teams’ – were co-operating within the same SM project (more about this kind of co-operation is found in subchapter 4.14). For this reason, there are more ‘national teams’ (290) than the total number of SM projects (251). Their spread across the four ‘Tempus SM survey regions’ defined earlier for the purposes of this survey is presented in *Chart 4 B*. In the continuation we will analyse in more detail how frequently the ‘national teams’ from individual partner countries were involved in the SM projects and how many ‘international contacts’³¹ were established between both – ‘national teams’ from partner countries and from EU member states.

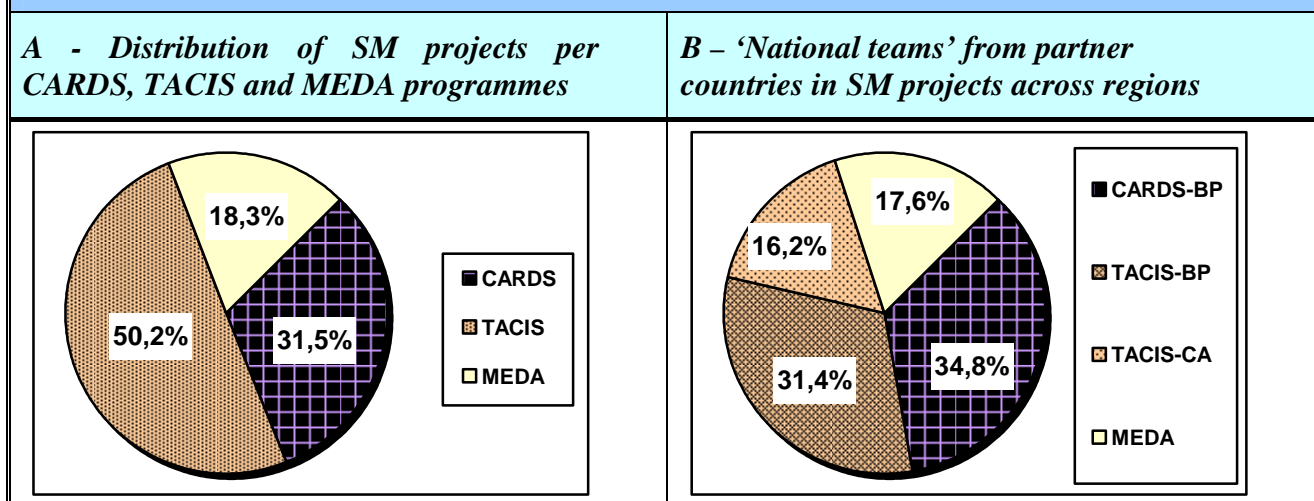
For these purposes, data from the final reports were used as were data from the applications³² where final reports were unavailable. In *Table 2* (see *Annexes, 6.4*) a detailed presentation of individual countries’ and regions’ involvement in the SM projects for the 2003-2006 period is given. As already mentioned, *251 SM projects* were realised through *290 ‘national teams’ from partner countries*. This is not a much higher number (+ 15%) than the total number of SM projects. It means that this way of co-operation was not very frequent. If we take into account the fact that in a few projects more than two partner countries were involved, the real share of such co-operation is relatively marginal. Again, the most common pattern of SM projects is that a ‘national team’ from *one* partner country starts co-operation with ‘teams’ from three EU member states. This is, most probably, an appropriate and simple solution if we observe the issue from the project management point of view. Using this formula, however, an opportunity for closer co-operation *between partner countries* – and not only between a partner country and EU member states – was only partly used. SM projects are very appropriate for multi-country co-operation (e.g. sharing best practices on institutional and/or national reforms, developing mobility etc.).

³⁰ Usually, not only one or more universities or other higher education institutions (e.g. polytechnics, colleges etc.) but also other institutions (ministries, agencies, higher education support centres etc.) from an individual country took part in the same SM project. In short, we refer to all of them as a ‘national team’.

³¹ With ‘international contacts’ we understand here co-operation between ‘national teams’ within an individual SM project (a consortium). Within one SM project, the ‘national team’ from one partner country usually established at least two or three ‘international contacts’ with ‘national teams’ from EU member states.

³² Theoretically, this method is imperfect; namely, plans given in applications could differ from the realisation reported in final reports. Yet, it seems that such cases have been relatively rare and that this method nevertheless helps to construct a broad and relatively detailed diagram of co-operation intensity.

Chart 4: Distribution of SM projects across partner countries



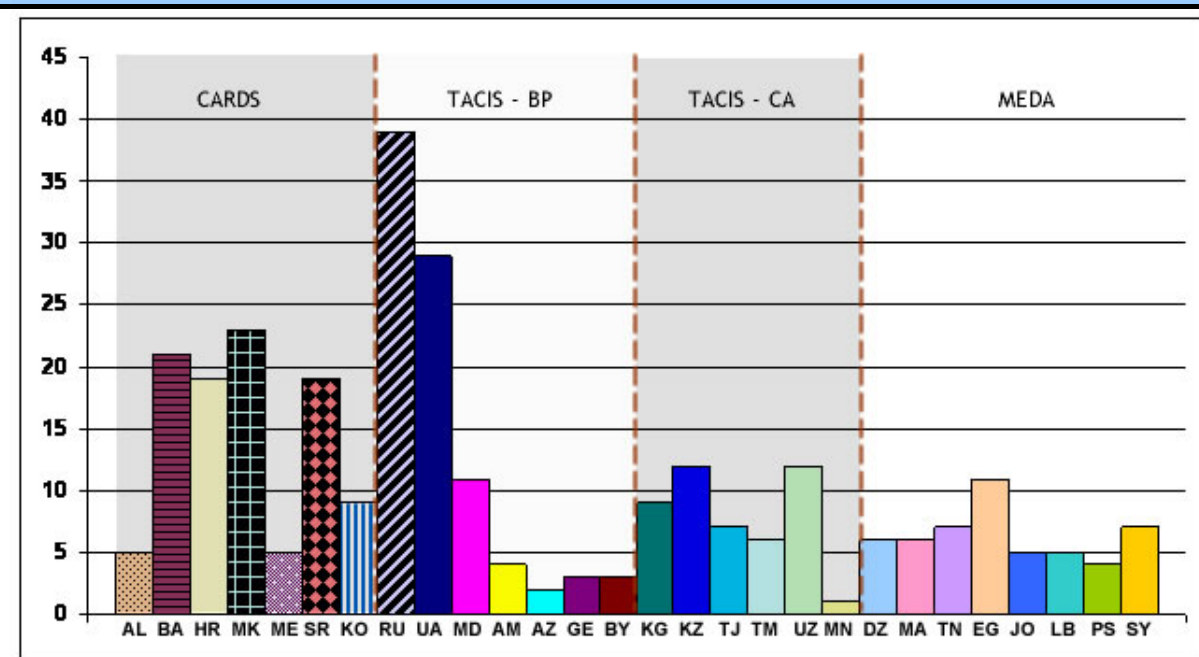
A two-thirds majority of SM projects (66.2%, 192 in absolute figures) have been performed within two Bologna-associated 'Tempus SM survey regions': CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP. The emerging *European Higher Education Area* obviously highly motivates and stimulates institutions from both partner as well as EU member countries to engage in projects which address common strategic and policy advice interventions like quality enhancement in higher education, system convergence etc. Within these two groups, SM projects are more or less proportionately distributed (around one-third each) in the continuum from 2003 to 2006.

The biggest share is noted within the CARDS-BP group: 34.8% of the total co-operation (101 'national teams') was realised in Western Balkans countries which, in most cases, have relatively small higher education systems. If relative differences in the size of their systems (e.g. Croatia and Serbia as the largest, Montenegro as the smallest one) are taken into account, co-operation is spread across all countries in a relatively uniform way. In this regard, only Albania – involved in 5 projects (2.2% of the total and 5.0% of the CARDS-BP group) – is represented somewhat weakly. To make a comparison: Montenegro with a much smaller higher education system was also involved in 5 projects. On the other hand, as a particularly active country in this group the FYR of Macedonia should be mentioned with a share of almost one-quarter (22.8%) of total co-operation in the CARDS-BP group while the size of its system places it only in the middle of this group. The FYR of Macedonia also achieved the most constant spread of projects throughout the Tempus III period; it is the only country which was active within all 8 calls in the 2003-2006 period.

A very similar share (31.4%; 91 'national teams') is also characteristic for the TACIS-BP group. However, involvement in projects is not distributed in such an even way as in the previous group. Two countries, Russia and Ukraine – both having very large higher education systems: the largest among all partner countries in this survey – are represented with three-quarters (74.7%) of the SM projects performed in this group. Their shares are relatively similar and proportional to the size of the respective systems (Russia 42.9% and Ukraine 31.9%) and also relatively evenly distributed between 2003 and 2006. Moldova has been involved in one-tenth of the projects (12.1%) but its higher education system is comparatively much smaller and, therefore, its involvement should be seen as quite intensive. On the other side, three Caucasus countries (all together 9 projects; 9.9%) and in particular Belarus (3 projects; 3.3%) are represented in this context almost symbolically.

Finally, the total share of co-operation for countries which are not members of the Bologna Process is again approximately one-third (33.8%; 98 ‘national teams’); this means that each of these two groups was engaged in approximately one-half of activities of either one or another ‘Bologna-associated’ group. This share is relatively equally distributed among both groups: 16.2% (47 ‘national teams’) in the TACIS-CA group and 17.6% (51 ‘national teams’) in both MEDA groups taken together. Cumulative figures for individual countries are not as high as in the case of Russia and Ukraine as well as in the case of many countries of the CARDS-BP group, but they are higher than in the Caucasus countries and Belarus. In the TACIS-CA group, 12 ‘national teams’ were composed in Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan and 9 in Kyrgyzstan while, on the other hand, Mongolia (an exception added to this group) is symbolically represented with 1 team. In two MEDA groups, countries are mostly represented in a balanced way (between 5 and 7 teams) while the share of Egypt – the largest system in this group – is higher (11 teams; similar to Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan in TACIS-CA or Moldova in TACIS-BP).

Chart 5: ‘National teams’ from partner countries involved in the SM projects



In general, these figures are lower with the earlier calls and higher with the latter calls (in particular A06 and B06). In total, the 2003-2004 period represents one-third of co-operation (37.6%; 109 teams) while two-thirds of co-operation belongs to the 2005-2006 period (62.4%; 181 teams). The CARDS-BP group is very close to this pattern (39.6% vs. 60.4%). It is, however, opposite in the case of the MEDA group: a share of 62.7% for the 2003-2004 period and 37.3% for the 2005-2006 period. A one-quarter vs. three-quarters relationship is characteristic of the TACIS-BP (27.5% vs. 72.5%) as well as the TACIS-CA (25.5% vs. 74.5%) groups.

3.3 Involvement of EU member states in the SM projects

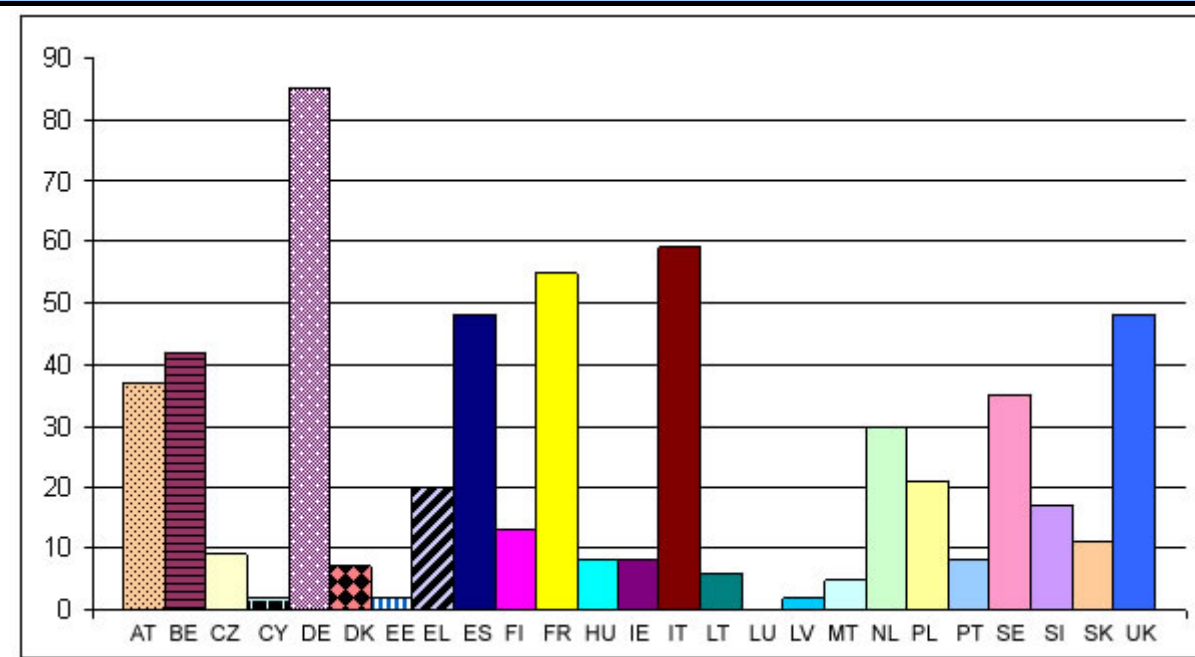
The same questions will be now considered with regard to the participation of ‘national teams’ from the EU member countries; the methodology will also remain the same. As is known, the Tempus rules request the co-operation of partners from at least one partner country and two EU member countries. In the monitored 2003-2006 period, there were many cases when three or even more partners (‘national teams’) from EU member countries were involved in one SM

project. Therefore, the overall figure of the teams involved in the SM projects is much higher than in the case of partner countries where, most often, only a single team from one country is involved. As can be seen from *Chart 6* (and more detailed from *Table 3*, see *Annexes*, 6.5), 578 'national teams' from EU member countries were registered (on average, 2.3 per project).

With the first call (B03), only 6 countries were involved in the SM projects but it should also be also that this was the last year of the EU with 15 member states. In general, call B03 was just the start of the period monitored in this review and its size cannot be directly compared with further calls. With the 2004 calls (A04, B04 and Z04), 22 countries were already involved, eight of them from the group of ten new member countries which joined the EU at the beginning of 2004. The participation of partners from the EU member countries remained strong and relatively proportionately distributed – if the size of their higher education systems is taken into account – in the next two years as well. Within the focus of this survey, only Luxemburg has not been involved in the Tempus SM projects. It should also be noted that Bulgaria and Romania are not included in the survey as they were not EU member states during the period observed here (2003-2006).

Here again the figures are lower with the earlier calls and higher with the latter calls. In total, the 2003-2004 period represents around one-third of co-operation (31.7%; 183 teams), only a little less than in the case of the partner countries, while a little more than two-thirds of co-operation belongs to the 2005-2006 period (68.3%; 395 teams).

Chart 6: Involvement of EU member states in the SM projects



As the size of the national higher education systems in EU member countries differs extremely (e.g. Germany, France, Italy, Spain and UK on one hand versus e.g. Cyprus, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Malta and Slovenia on the other), comparisons in absolute figures as well as in relative shares are not very revealing. Nevertheless, some observations can be relatively clear, in particular if these diversities are taken into account.

The *largest national systems* have, of course, the biggest shares in the total co-operation: Germany (14.7%, in an absolute figure: 85), Italy (10.2%; 59), France (9.5%; 55), the UK and Spain (8.3; 48). Some of the *medium-sized national systems* have been very engaged despite the

fact that their respective absolute figures are lower as well as their relative shares, e.g.: Belgium (7.3%; 42), Austria (6.4%; 37), Sweden (6.1%; 35), the Netherlands (5.2%; 30), Poland (3.6%; 21) and Greece (3.5%; 20). Lastly, some of the *small size systems* also took part in SM projects very intensively, e.g. Slovenia (2.9%; 17), Slovak Republic (1.9%; 11), Ireland (1.4%; 8), Lithuania (1.0%; 6), Malta (0.9%; 5) etc. While observing figures and shares from this angle, Finland (2.2%; 13), Czech Republic (1.6%; 9), Hungary and Portugal (1.4%; 8) as well as Denmark (1.2%; 7) should belong to this latter group; however, according to their size and/or other characteristics of their higher education systems at least some of them would be expected more in the previous (medium-sized) one. Cyprus, Estonia and Latvia are represented in two projects each (0.3%); as already mentioned, Luxemburg did not participate.

3.4 Intensity of co-operation between partner countries and EU member countries

A further and more complex question is to what extent and intensity the partners' co-operation took place at the crossing points of a huge network composed of 28 partners by 25 EU member countries. To answer this question, a slightly different approach was needed. In this subchapter, we focus on 'international contacts' as defined above (note 11), namely on co-operation between 'national teams' from partner countries on one side and from EU member states on the other. As can be seen from *Tables 4 A* and *B* (for details see *Annexes*, 6.5) in total 870 'international contacts' were established in the framework of Tempus III SM projects (on average, almost 3.5 per project). *Table 4 A* presents the contacts established within the CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP groups; *Table 4 B* presents the contacts established within the TACIS-CA and MEDA groups. Proof of the widespread co-operation is given: there are only a few 'squares' in this 'crossword puzzle' which are blank.

The survey findings prove that relatively close *neighbourhood* and relatively *traditional co-operation* between individual EU member countries on one hand and partner countries on the other³³ are *the main factors in building TEMPUS SM projects consortia*. There are also cases of consortia built with more 'coincidental' partners – and good co-operation was also achieved – but they are less frequent. In the continuation, we will observe these contacts from the EU member countries' point of view.

A clear sense that neighbourhood and traditional ties between countries also help a lot in establishing Tempus partnerships is given already in the CARDS-BP group (see *Chart 7 A*). Here, Slovenia has commenced co-operation with neighbouring partner countries most frequently (80.0% of all its involvement in the Tempus SM projects; this is the highest score with regard to all four groups), followed by Greece (71.4%), Hungary (64.7%), Czech Republic (61.5%), Austria (58.9%), Slovak Republic (57.7%), Ireland (57.1%), Finland (55.6%), Cyprus (54.5%), Denmark and Poland (50.0%).

The first six countries on this list (but also the two at the bottom) are more or less close neighbours to the region; they are followed by 'remote' Ireland, Finland and Denmark which look like an exemption – yet, a positive one. In this region, other EU member countries registered shares of less than 50%. It should also be noted that all EU member countries except Estonia and Luxemburg were involved in at least one project. On the other hand, it is impossible to say that the higher a country's share of co-operation focussing on one region only, the more symbolic is its engagement in the other three regions.

³³ Here, co-operation is not understood as limited only to higher education but also in relation to economies and societies at large, to similarities in languages, cultural and historical ties etc.

Chart 7: Frequency of co-operation: EU member countries vs. CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP

A – ‘Top ten’ contacts for CARDS-BP

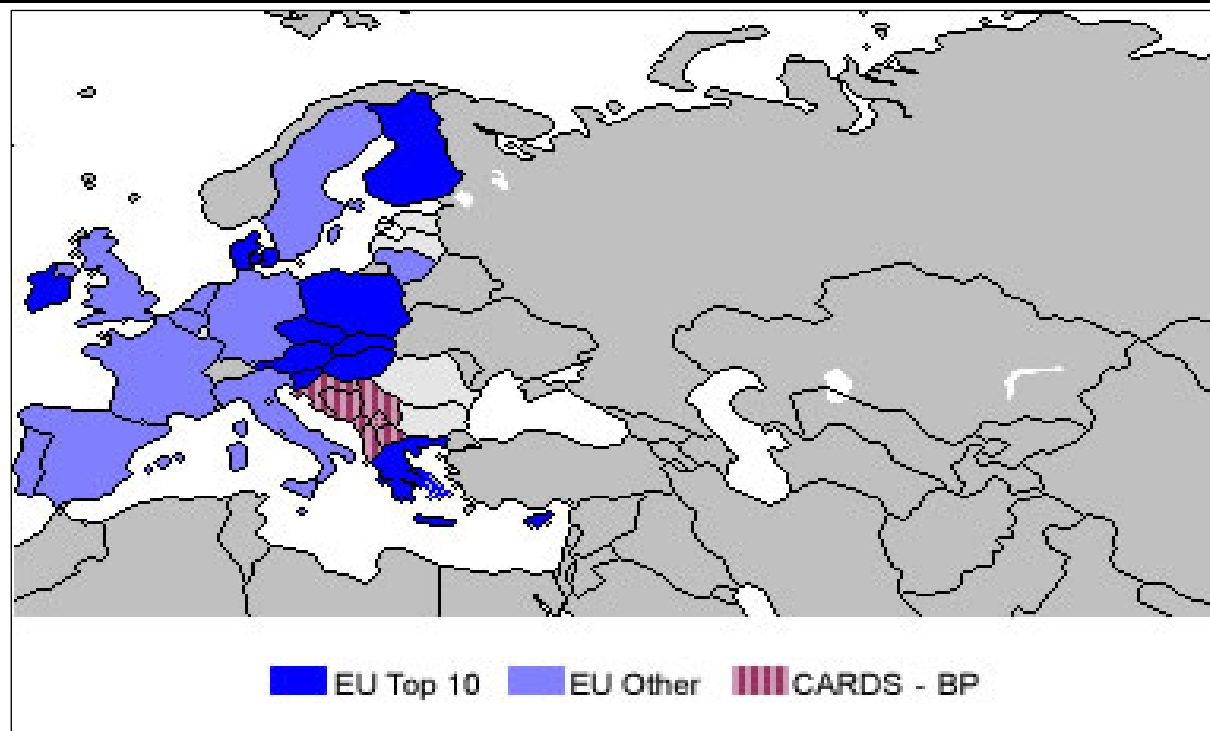


Chart 7: Frequency of co-operation: EU member countries vs. CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP

B – ‘Top ten’ contacts for TACIS-BP

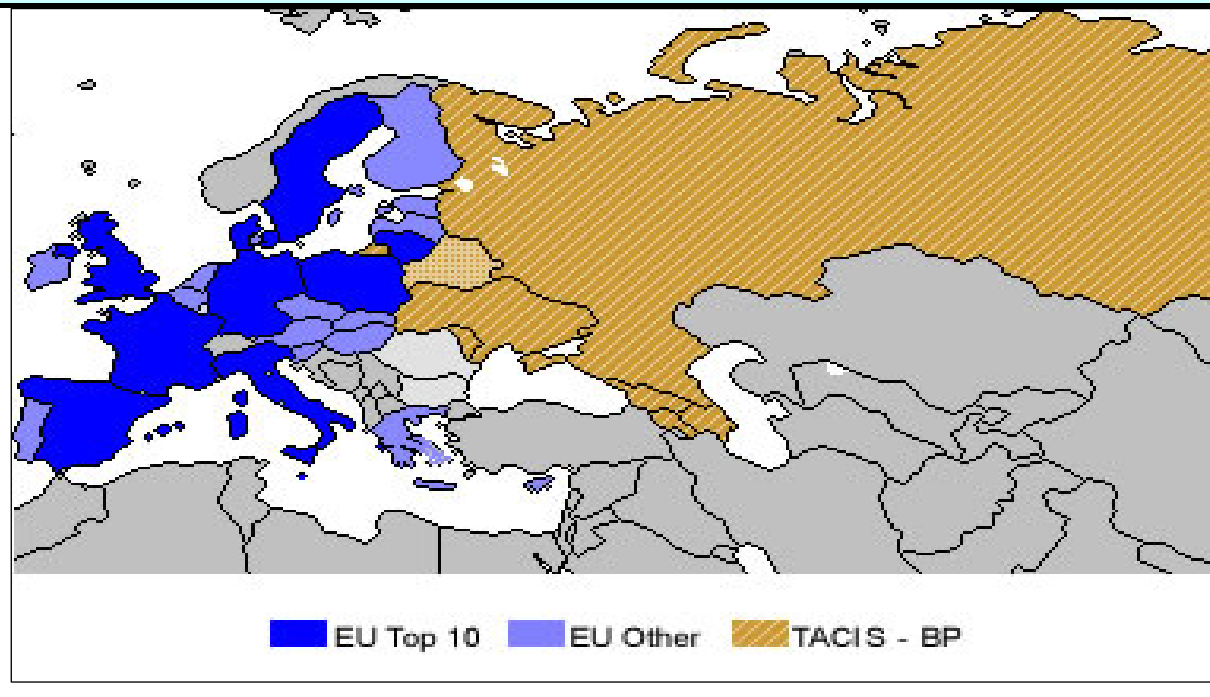
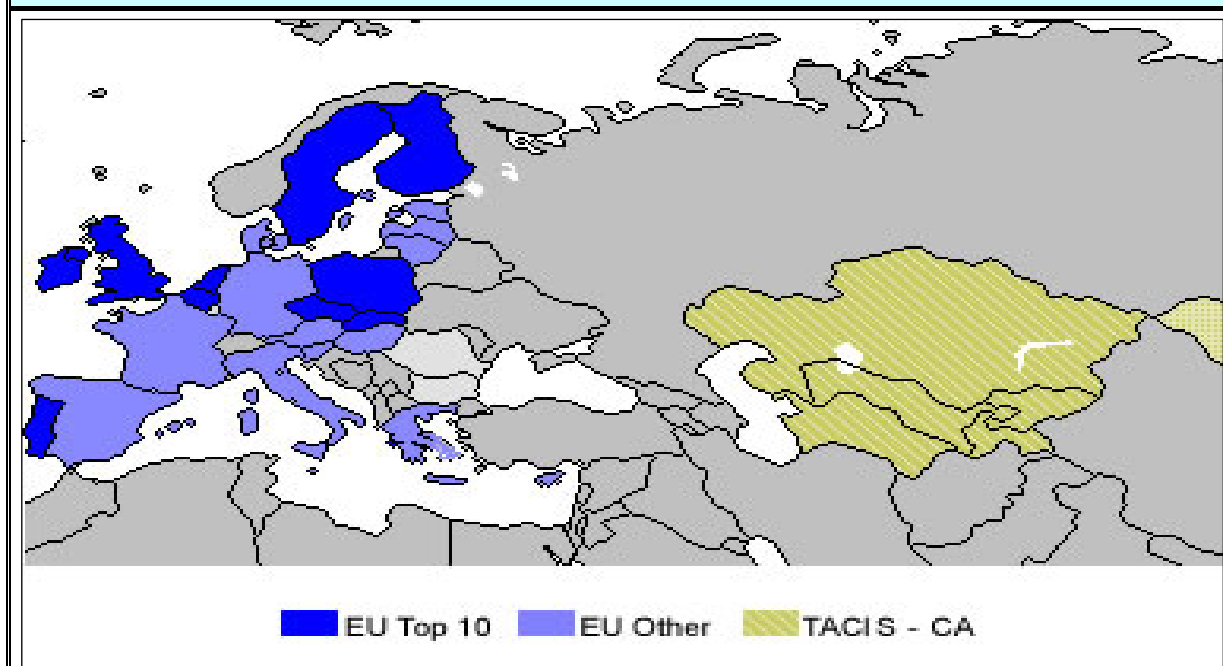


Chart 7: Frequency of co-operation: EU member countries vs. TACIS-CA and MEDA

C – ‘Top ten’ contacts for TACIS-CA



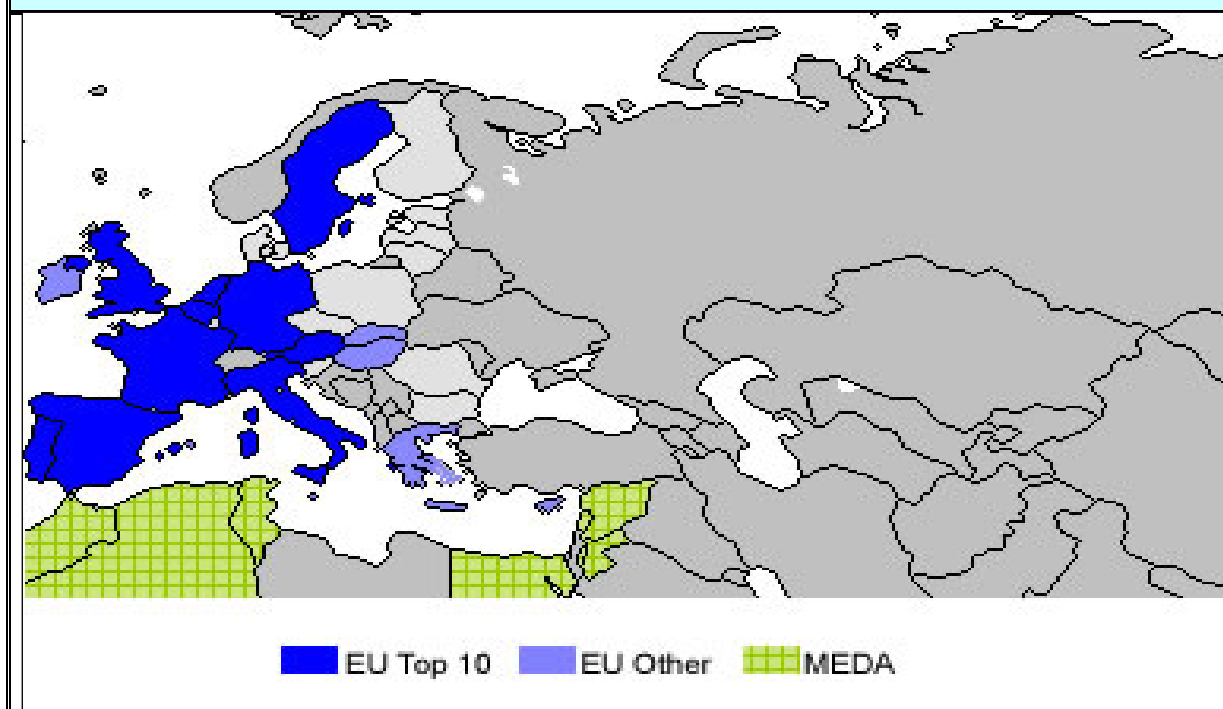
In the TACIS-BP group (see *Chart 7 B*) the most frequently represented EU member countries mainly vary between 40% and 30%, namely not as high as in the previous group. The lead here goes – surprisingly – but with a total in all four regions of only 15 and 14 contacts – to Lithuania (53.3%) and Malta (42.9%), followed by Sweden (41.3%), Denmark (38.9%), Germany (36.5%), France (33.8%), Poland (32.4%), Italy (31.2%), Spain (30.9%) and UK (29.9%) etc.

It has already been mentioned that the majority of this co-operation involves Russia and Ukraine. As a rule, we can see here that having large-sized higher education systems and a neighbourhood play an important role in establishing Tempus consortia with the TACIS-BP group of countries. Lithuania and Malta are mentioned as a surprise; in fact, the former as a neighbour should not be such a surprise but the latter – at least from the perspective of geography and traditions – certainly is. It can also be concluded that countries from the North seem to be more inclined to work together, but Finland (its share is 25.9%) is missing from this list and, on the other side, the involvement of large higher education systems from Southern Europe is also obvious. Finally, it should be mentioned that all EU member countries except Luxemburg established at least one contact in this region.

About one-fifth of all contacts appertain to the TACIS-CA group (see *Chart 7 C*); in the context of findings which were presented previously this is a relatively good score. A typical EU member country in this group is a medium-sized higher education national system from quite different parts of the EU: Ireland (21.4%), the Netherlands (21.2%), Belgium (20.6%), the UK (20.9%), Portugal (20.0%), Slovak Republic (19.2%), Finland (18.5%), Poland (17.6%), Sweden (17.4%) and Czech Republic (15.4%); other countries are below 15% (with the exception of Estonia with only two contacts in total). Here, the exception is the UK as the only large system among the ‘top ten’. Also in this region, all EU member countries except Luxemburg were involved in at least one project.

Chart 7: Frequency of co-operation: EU member countries vs. TACIS-CA and MEDA

D – ‘Top ten’ contacts for MEDA



Finally, in the MEDA group (both MAS and MAG together; there are no important differences between the Maghreb and Mashrek countries) the situation is quite different from the previous three regions: the most engaged EU member countries have achieved about one-quarter of national SM activities in this region but they are relatively rare (see *Chart 7 D*). Practically, most work has been done with three large countries from Southern Europe: Spain (25.0%), Italy (24.7%) and France (24.3%). They are followed by Portugal (20.0%) but its absolute score (two contacts in this region) is low. We can find the next three countries trailing by only about 10% after the leading Spain: the Netherlands (15.4%), Sweden (15.2%) and Belgium (14.3%). The ‘top ten’ is closed off by the UK (11.9%), Germany (9.6%) and Austria (7.1%). It should be added that in this region ten EU member countries were not involved in any project: Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

As we can see, many countries predominantly engaged in one or two regions. However, there are some examples where countries are in a quite an even way – taking into account the relative frameworks described above: almost-two thirds of Tempus III SM projects in CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP – engaged in *all four regions*. These cases are presented in *Chart 8*: only countries which engaged in more than 40 projects, which achieved at least 10% in at least three regions and at least 9% in the fourth region, are considered.

The ‘crossword puzzle’ can, of course, also be observed from the partner countries point of view. Some countries established a really strong set of international contacts. If a ‘top ten’ list is also drawn up here, then Russia registered most contacts per individual country (91 or 10.5% of the total) followed by Ukraine and, surprisingly, the FYR Macedonia (both 79; 9.1%), Serbia (74; 8.5%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (74; 8.2%), Croatia (66; 7.6%), Kazakhstan (47; 5.4%) etc. As one can see, large higher education systems in the East of Europe and the smaller systems of the Western Balkans prevail on top of this list. The whole ‘rainbow’ is presented in *Chart 9*.

Chart 8: EU member countries with the most balanced co-operation with all TEMPUS regions

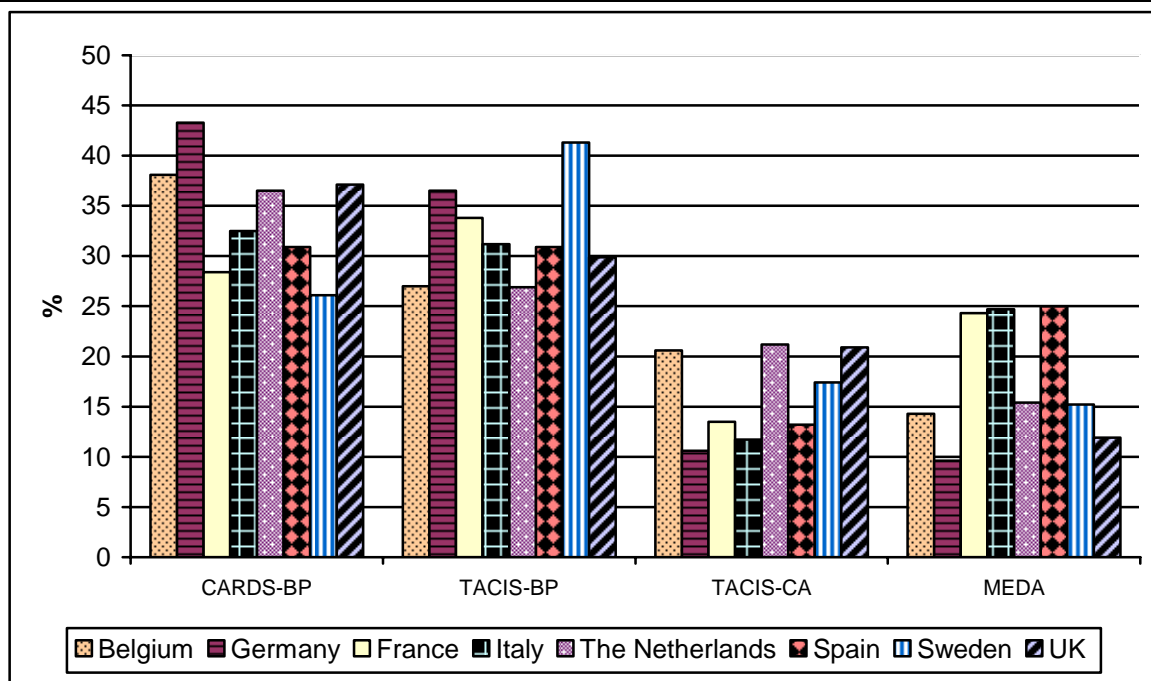
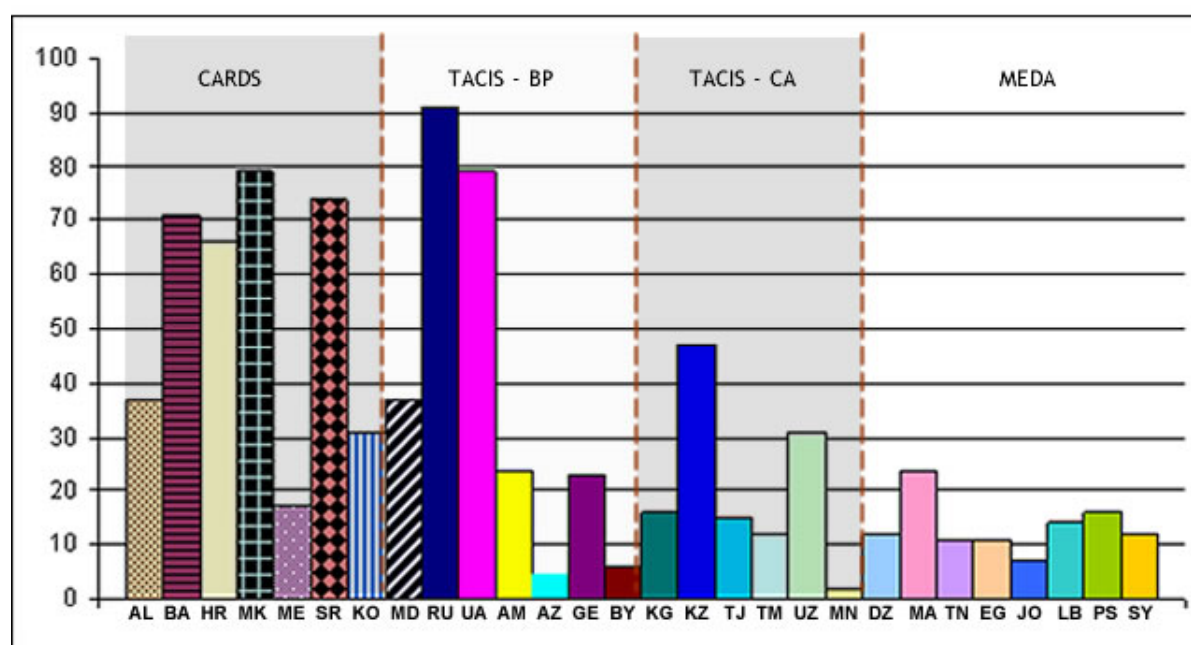


Chart 9: 'International contacts' by partner countries



3.5 SM projects: some measurable outcomes

There are some measurable indicators in the projects' final reports which may illustrate well which outcomes individual projects achieved. The Tempus template final report contains a special section (*II Statistic and indicators*) and these sections were taken as a source of data for

this subchapter. However, the survey encountered certain difficulties in this area. First of all, a special section on statistics and indicators was used as part of the final reporting template starting only with the B04 call; this means that earlier calls (B03, A04 and Z04) were not monitored in this way. For this reason, the picture given in the survey findings cannot be considered as complete but only refers to the later calls (B04, A04, B05, A06 and B06). However, with these later calls several final reports are missing (at the time of synthesising the review findings they were unavailable) and this makes the pool of available data even more limited. Altogether, documentation for 97 *Tempus III SM projects* (38.8% of the total pool) allowed for the checking of appropriate data.³⁴ Lastly, individual final reports were not filled in on the same rigorous level and in some cases the review team either missed appropriate data or had some doubts about their adequacy.

To provide an insight into measurable outcomes it was decided to focus on a selected range of indicators which was assessed as being the most appropriate and most revealing. A special instrument was designed to gather this data (for details see Annexes, 6.7, *Table 5 A and B*). The survey focused on the following typical indicators: conferences, seminars, training courses, visits and publications (see *Chart 10*). These indicators were supported from data presented in final reports. On one hand, their frequency was monitored (in this case one point in the table was noted with each SM project where a typical indicator was identified); on the other hand, their absolute number was also established. In the latter case, visits were omitted from the survey as it was found out that in some final reports ‘visits’ were not reported as ‘group visits’ but, most probably, as visits of individuals – and this would make the accumulated data incomparable.

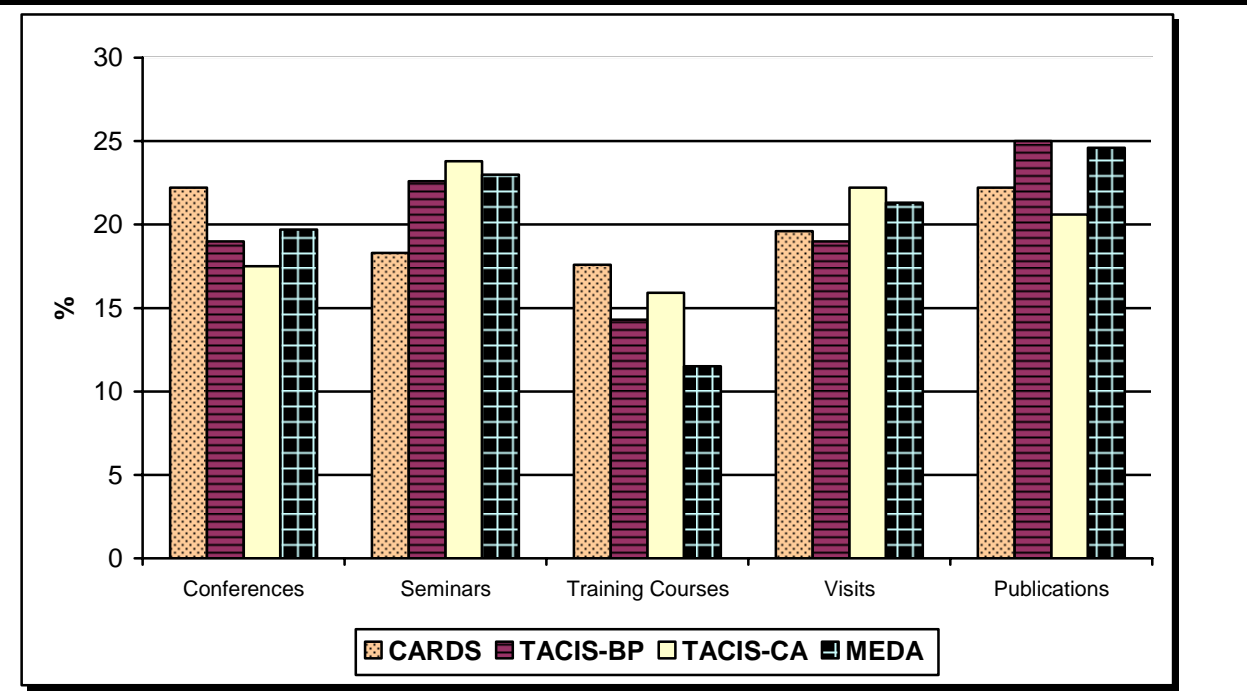
What are the findings? As one could expect with regard to the predominantly academic environment, the highest *frequency* goes to *publications* (23.0% of the total); however, the frequency with the other four indicators is not significantly lower. *Conferences, seminars* and *visits* have almost the same share (from 20.2% to 21.1%) while *training courses* are positioned a little lower (15.5%). No major differences can be identified when different regions are compared. In CARDS-BP, the frequency of publications and conferences is equal (shares of 22.2%); in TACIS-BP, the highest frequency is noted with seminars (23.8%) and visits (22.2%); publications come only third (20.6%). No other significant differences are observed at the level of regions.

In absolute figures publications are in the front again (338), followed by seminars (297), training courses (261) and conferences (134). For the abovementioned reasons, visits were not monitored here; therefore, shares of the total are incomparable (but they also refer to diverse qualities). Nevertheless, if absolute figures are calculated as shares then publications receive almost one-third of the total (32.8%), seminars and training courses both having over one-quarter (28.8% and 25.3%, respectively) and conferences – usually one or two conferences were organised per project – only a little over one-tenth (13.0%).

The measured outcomes (or better: their frequency) are spread across the four regions in an extraordinarily proportionate way. In an extreme case (training courses) regions differ by only 6%; in other cases the differences are even smaller. However, it should be noted again that this chart was made on the basis of only 97 SM *Tempus III* projects. The results are presented in *Chart 8*; the frequency of each indicator is demonstrated as a proportion relative to the total within each group ($A + B + C + D + E = 100\%$).

³⁴ This was the most limited insight in this survey; in all other cases the data availability was better. Among these 92 SM projects, 37 (38.1%) belong to CARDS, 43 (44.3%) to TACIS and 17 (17.5%) to MEDA programme.

Chart 10: Frequency of selected indicators



In all monitored cases, the project results (information, materials etc.) were available in one way or another on the Internet. Very often, project websites were established; sometimes, special pages are available at institutions' websites. It should be stressed again that, in absolute figures, 154 publications were published (with only 97 SM projects; theoretically, that would make some 400 publications for all 251 SM projects) and that these publications importantly contribute to the wide dissemination of the projects' outcomes. Some more content parameters will be presented in the next two subchapters.

3.6 Main SM project areas

Structural Measures aim at supporting reform processes in higher education and at developing higher education strategic frameworks. Therefore, it is important to identify which main thematic areas they addressed and at which level (e.g. institutional, national) as well as which structural issues were at the forefront of the project work. As the final reports' sections on statistics and indicators lack certain data and could not provide a quality insight into the diverse targets of the different SM projects, our survey checked the available documentation in order to identify the main project areas (for details see Annex 6.8, *Table 6*) as well as the main thematic issues elaborated in individual SM projects (for details see Annex 6.9, *Table 7*). The former is a matter of this subchapter while the latter will be addressed in the next one.

The survey focused on the following five main areas: (1) *modernisation of teaching, learning and assessment (TLA)*; (2) *modernisation of higher education governance*; (3) *reforms at universities and/or other higher education institutions*; (4) *national reforms* (reforms of the national systems of higher education); and (5) *promotion of the Bologna Process* (see *Chart 11*).

All available *final reports* were checked against these five areas; where they were unavailable *application forms* were also checked in the same way. Pilot checking proved that areas can be identified relatively reliably also through application documentation; if final reports are missing

then only the details remain inaccessible but not the general direction of an individual project. In this way, *almost all Tempus III SM projects* were taken into account (altogether 245 projects). Differently as in the previous chapter, where statistical data reported by individual SM projects teams and filled in final reports were used, here it was the survey team which assessed the SM projects and decided on which of the five areas are most characteristic in particular cases.³⁵ In a few – and usually relatively comprehensive – cases, more than one area was identified with one SM project while in other cases there was only one. As the survey team was limited to the available project documentation, certain subjective views are possible but at least on the general level the main trends were established with a relatively high level of reliability.

The most frequent area which SM projects focused on is *modernisation of teaching, learning and assessment* (TLA): almost one-third of the total (30.2%). However, it should be noted that it is not so uncommon for certain Tempus III ‘SM’ projects to look much more like typical Curriculum Development projects than real Structural Measures projects. If this note is taken into account the relatively high share can be at least partly relativised. *Reforms* – both of *universities* as well as of *national systems* – are also targets of SM projects very often, both with similar but comparatively lower shares than TLA (the former 21.7%, the latter 21.2%). *Bologna promotion* proves to be similarly popular area (17.1%), yet *governance modernisation* (9.7%) seems to be relatively marginal but still considered in a not such a small number of projects.

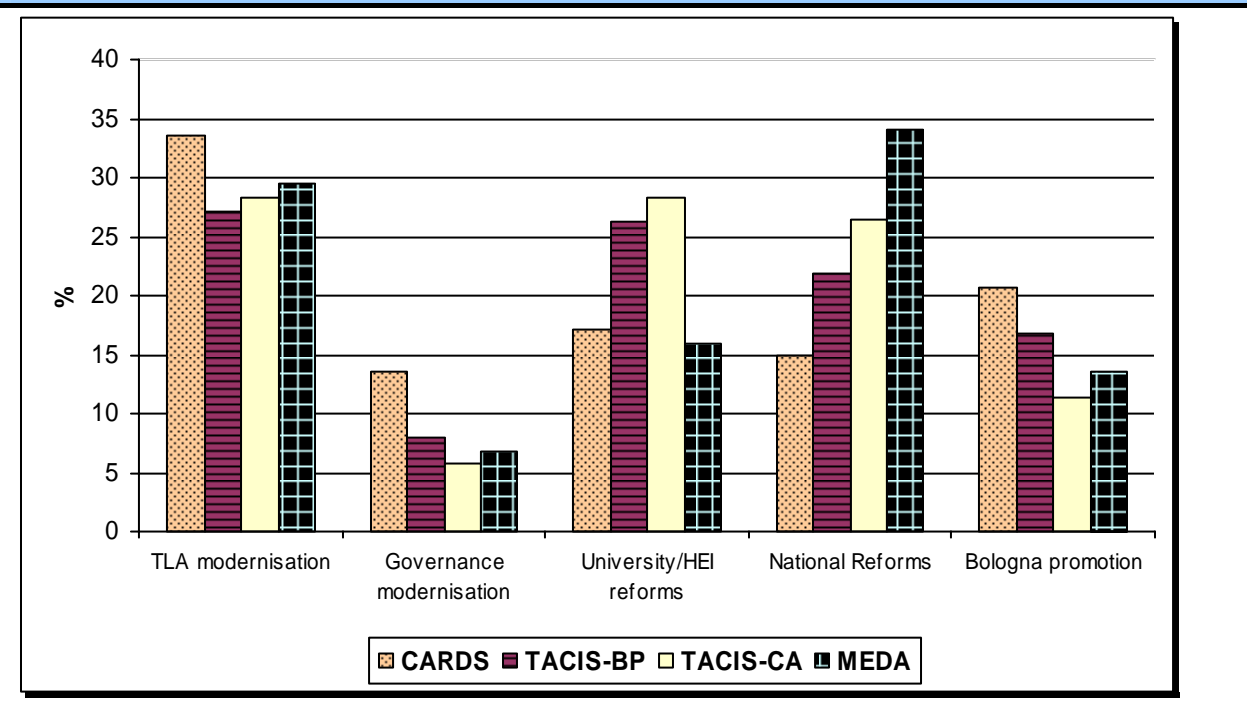
The picture becomes somewhat different when different regions are considered.³⁶ In CARDS-BP, TLA modernisation is by far the most popular area (33.6%) while governance modernisation is the least (13.6%). Institutional and national reforms are at a similar level (17.1% and 15.0%) but Bologna promotion (which, in fact, is often associated with reforms on both levels) is represented a little more (20.7%). In TACIS-BP, the span of the areas is narrower; the maximum is again with TLA (27.2%) but very close to institutional (26.3%) and national reforms (21.9%). Bologna promotion is less popular than in CARDS-BP (16.7%). The minimum is again with governance modernisation (7.9%). In TACIS-CA, the picture is very similar to TACIS-BP: TLA and institutional reforms (28.3%) are on the top but closely followed by national reforms (26.4%). Bologna promotion is even lower than in the previous group (11.3%) and governance modernisation (5.7%) at the bottom. Finally, in MEDA national reforms are of the highest interest (34.1%) followed very closely by TLA modernisation (29.5%). Institutional reforms (15.9%) and Bologna promotion (13.6%) receive only one-half of this interest. Governance modernisation is again at the bottom (6.8%).

If we compare all four groups then differences in regional interest in *TLA modernisation* almost does not exist (max. 33.6% vs. min. 27.2%). *Bologna promotion* is a very interesting topic in the CARDS-BP group (obviously the most interesting one for adapting to the emerging common European framework) and the lowest in TACIS-CA. However, *institutional reforms* are the most attractive area (and, at least indirectly, connected to the Bologna agenda) in the TACIS-CA group, while there is the least interest in them in MEDA. On the contrary, in the MEDA countries *national reforms* are absolutely on the top of interest; surprisingly, they are at the bottom in the CARDS-BP countries. Actually, it is sometimes not easy to differentiate between the Bologna agenda and the national as well as institutional reforms. It seems that the ‘Bologna brand’ receives higher value with regard to the relative position of individual regions in (or towards) the emerging European Higher Education Area. Finally, interest in governance modernisation is relatively weak across all four regions; it is the highest in the CARDS region but only one half of this interest is noticed in MEDA and even less in TACIS-CA.

³⁵ In a number of cases, a double reading of individual SM projects was made by the survey team.

³⁶ Also here the percentages refer to the total (100%) given *within* each individual region and, therefore, regions should not be compared or ranked amongst regions on an absolute scale.

Chart 11: SM projects – main areas



3.7 Main SM project issues

Besides the main project areas it is also important to identify the key structural measures and/or issues addressed by the SM projects like, e.g., quality assurance in higher education, accreditation systems, credit systems, restructuring of the qualification frameworks, issues in the convergence and transparency of national higher education systems, mobility etc. After pilot testing, similarly as in the previous subchapter, it was decided to focus on the following seven issues: (1) *degree structures*; (2) *ECTS – DS*; (3) *quality assurance*; (4) *qualification frameworks and employability issues*; (5) *lifelong learning*; (6) *recognition issues in higher education*; and (7) *mobility in higher education* (see Chart 12). In this case, the SM application forms were not seen as being appropriate and meaningful (i.e., assessment of the real ‘weight’ of selected issues in a project depends very much on *realisation* of plans referred to in the applications); Therefore, *final reports* (146 of them) were only taken into account here (for details see Annex 6.8, Table 7).

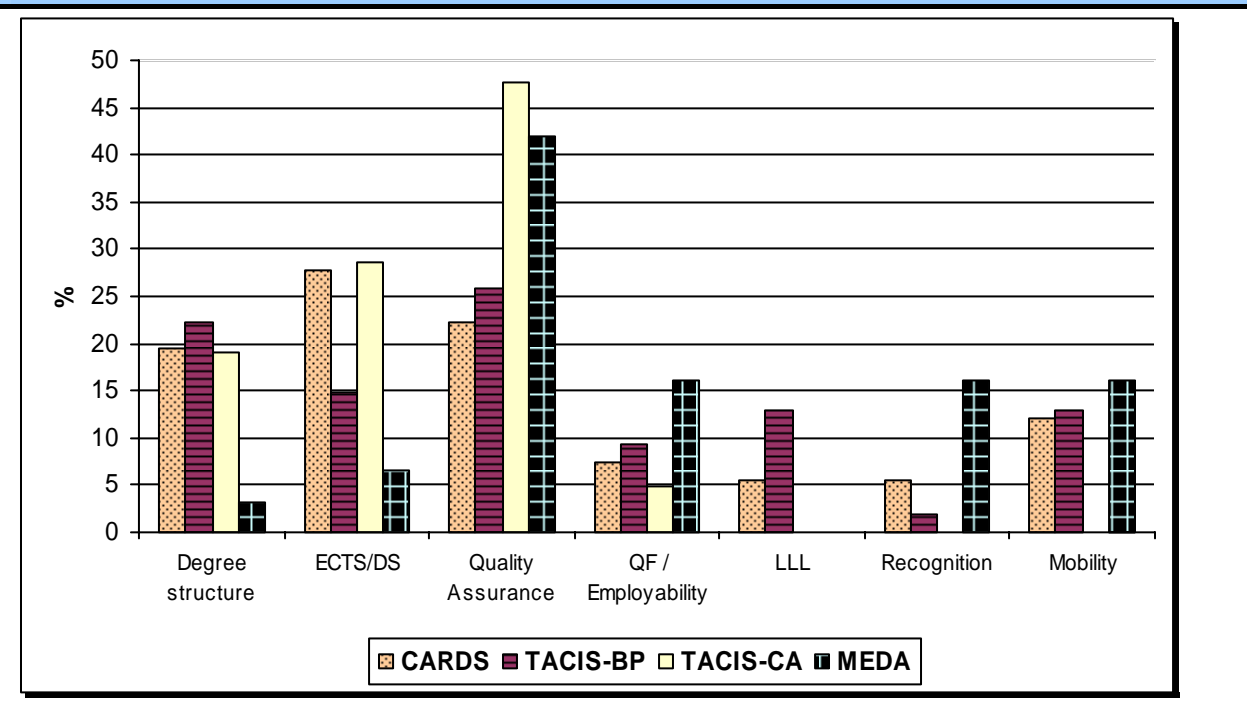
The findings show that the SM projects chose *quality assurance* as the far most frequent theme (28.5% of the total), followed by *credit system* and similar issues (21.5%) and *degree structures* (17.7%). These three issues represent more than two-thirds of the total. It is obvious that they are very important from the point of view of national Bologna or (in those countries which are formally outside the Process) Bologna-like implementation processes as well as from the point of view of strengthening international co-operation in higher education as such. Results of the survey show that the SM projects’ consortia attributed less importance to the other four thematic clusters (altogether less than one-third of the total): *mobility* (11.7%), *qualification frameworks and employability* (8.8%), *lifelong learning* (6.1%) and *recognition* (5.6%).

A number of differences can be observed when looking at individual Tempus regions. *Quality assurance* is at the top in all regions but a more detailed look can show two distinctive groups. In countries which are not formal members of the Bologna Process, quality issues attracted almost

one-half of all projects (47.6% in TACIS-CA; 41.9% MEDA as a total, or 47.1% MEDA-MAS and 35.7 MEDA-MAG).³⁷ However, this is not the case in the Bologna countries; here, only around one-quarter of projects focused on quality assurance and similar issues (25.9% in TACIS-BP and only 22.0% in CARDS-BP). It should also be noted that in CARDS-BP the QA theme comes only second, after *credit system* which is most attractive issue in this region (27.8%); yet, not substantially more attractive than QA issues. The credit system is also high on the agenda of TACIS-CA (28.6%) while in TACIS-BP the second most attractive theme is the *degree structure* (22.2%); the credit system position is much lower (14.8%). Degree structure is also similarly attractive in CARDS-BP (19.4%) and in TACIS-CA (19.0%) but is almost neglected in MEDA (3.2%), similarly as the credit system (6.5%).

The more countries are involved in the Bologna Process, the more they distribute their interest among diverse structural issues. Looking from outside of the Bologna Process, it seems quite normal that QA issues attract such high interest and that more ‘detailed’ and/or ‘technical’ questions like degree and credit systems, qualification frameworks, lifelong learning etc. have mainly been left aside at this stage. Nevertheless, in the next developmental phase these issues should also be addressed.

Chart 12: SM projects – main issues



Interestingly, in those countries which are not formal members of the Bologna Process some themes attracted almost no interest. First of all, this is – surprisingly – the case with *lifelong learning*: in TACIS-CA as well as in MEDA *no SM project at all* was identified concerning this issue. It is similar with *recognition* and *mobility* issues in TACIS-CA countries (*no project*) while in MEDA there is noticeable but not very high interest in these themes (16.1% of the total in both cases but limited to MEDA-MAG and only Jordan from MEDA-MAS). The picture is very similar with qualification frameworks and employability: 16.1% in MEDA (now equally in both sub-regions) while only a symbolic share of 4.8% in TACIS-CA. However, it should be

³⁷ Here again percentages refer to the total given *within* each individual region and therefore they should not be compared or ranked among regions on an absolute scale.

repeated here that these findings were made on a sample of 149 projects out of a total of 251 projects.

Contrary to these groups of countries, in the *Bologna countries* no theme was totally neglected. Mobility is relatively attractive everywhere (13.0% of the total in TACIS-BP and 12.0% in CARDS-BP) as well as lifelong learning (again 13.0% in TACIS-BP but only 5.6% in CARDS-BP) along with qualification frameworks and employability (9.3% in TACIS-BP and 7.4% in CARDS-BP). Recognition issues are those at the bottom (5.6% in CARDS-BP and only 1.9% in TACIS-BP). Does this mean that these issues are not important in the Bologna countries any more? It could be very difficult to confirm this rhetorical question but it is also difficult to speculate about the reasons for this particular finding on the basis of the available data.

Once again, it should be stressed that this analysis was only done on a sample of about 60% of all SM projects (only those where final reports are available) and that, had all of the final reports been available, the results would probably have differed somewhat.

In a more content-based way, we will analyse the projects' areas and themes in the next chapter.

4. Tempus III SM projects in some detail

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter aimed to generally overview the Tempus III SCM projects: their spread across countries and regions, frequency and patterns of co-operation as well as some indicators about the content and outcomes. It was based mainly on a statistical approach. This one will focus more on individual projects organised along a set of issues; it will instead use a narrative approach. At the front of the presentation there are the main areas and themes from *Tables 6 and 7*; at some points with more detailed insights. It should be noted, however, that individual areas and themes cannot be regarded as isolated items; on the contrary, they come in contact with one another, they are interlinked, sometimes even overlap partly. In most of the projects monitored, at least two or three areas and themes were addressed and often even more. Here, each subchapter focuses on one of them; the most interesting cases, best practices and some other indicative cases are demonstrated in the boxes. The chief aim is to present a rich content diversity of individual projects, the main trends and tendencies and the most outstanding achievements. Eventually the shortcomings and challenges for the future shall also emerge from the presentations below. Together with a general overview of the previous chapter such a presentation can offer a colourful illustration of the work accomplished within Tempus III SCM.

4.2 Modernisation of teaching, learning and assessment (TLA)

At first glance, ‘modernisation of teaching, learning and assessment’ does not appear to be a typical structural or complementary measure. Its main focus seems to be more on ‘pedagogy’ rather than on ‘structures’. However, we should not forget that the key purpose of structures in higher education is quality teaching and learning (based on quality research) as well as sound learning outcomes. Structures are tools or means of higher education modernisation but teaching and learning processes are the ends. If the essence of structural measures are ‘policy advice interventions, aimed at supporting reform processes in higher education, and developing higher education strategic frameworks’ then the area of TLA modernisation can contribute a lot in this regard. It is ‘down to earth’: here, new structures can be tested and/or applied in concrete study fields; here, alarm bells can warn on time that corrections should be made. Last but not least, the most powerful networks can be built at this level: the most efficient educational reforms have been always those which were broadly shared by practitioners in the field. And building international networks gives them even more strength.

Although indeed this type of Tempus projects *cannot be considered as a structural measure*, the survey team decided to check this cluster separately. Last but not least, it is very large. As already demonstrated, TLA modernisation proved to be the most ‘popular’ single area observed in *subchapter 3.6*. On average, about 30% of projects focused only on this issue and are relatively evenly distributed across all four regions. The rest (70%) was distributed among the other four areas in a much less even way. On the other hand, it should be noted that individual projects within this cluster have also addressed some other – relatively strictly ‘structural’ – issues.

Projects classified in this review as ‘TLA modernisation’ focused on several typical dimensions, a number of them on the *development of ICT in education and WEB-based teaching and learning* (e.g. C032A04, C021A06 in MK, T081A04 in RU, T027A04 in TM, M009B04 in EG).³⁸ Very often, they aimed at the improvement of *modern teaching methods and approaches* (e.g. C021A06 in MK, C003B06 in KO, T023B05 in RU, T027A05 in UZ) or, in a more specialised way, at the improvement of *teaching and language skills* (e.g. C006A04 in HR; T073A06 in TM). There were also some projects in the CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP regions which connected with the rich experience of universities from EU countries involved in the Erasmus project *Tuning Educational Structures in Europe* (third and fourth phases of *Tuning*: C003B04 in MK, HR, SR, ME, UA; C028B06 in HR MK, RS UA; T027B05 in RU).

Case 1: The project **C033A04** (*Multilingual Internet Step-by-step Maths for All*) was designed to foster multilingual co-operation among teachers and students in the smaller universities of South-east Europe for developing and using modern-technology-based learning and to improve basic practical maths skills for students in various study fields. In co-operation with colleagues from Greece and the UK it was carried out at two universities in FYR Macedonia in Bitola and Tetovo. The first one is mainly ethnic Macedonian and the second mainly ethnic Albanian. The specific value of this project is that it exceeded its direct subject-area horizon (i.e., maths learning) and importantly contributed to mutual understanding among staff and students from both ethnic groups. The project resulted in valuable outcomes: reviews of standards for K-12 mathematics were made and documents to support the reform of maths education were translated or written; three small laboratories were established and various materials for students developed; teachers’ workshops were organised and modern methods – with and without ICT support – were discussed. Structural elements were addressed in the project: the need for educational reform towards a step-by-step practical approach to maths teaching and learning as well as the importance of students taking responsibility for their learning were specifically emphasised. A project web site (www.emathforall.com) was set up and statistics show that its use is still expanding. Country contacts were established and EU-MK co-operation was strengthened. As an interesting detail it should be noted that the Student Organisation of the University of Bitola was one of the full project partners. Future co-operation among the partners is already being planned. Thus, a joint MK-UK research project on maths education in grades 1 – 12 has already been accomplished.

Very often projects also aimed at *TLA modernisation in a particular field of studies* (e.g. medicine: C003A06 in HR; manufacturing engineering: C003A05 in BA; engineering economy teaching: M003A04 in EG). Finally, there were also some ‘atypical’ cases – mainly examples of ‘mini JEPs’ for curriculum development (e.g. C026A06 in BA; the project aimed at refocusing teaching perspectives in the field of the sciences). It would be relatively difficult to draw a rigorous distinction between the last two clusters of projects.

Case 2: The project **M003A04** (*New vision of Engineering Economy Teaching*) was conducted in co-operation with Cairo University (EG) and partners from Italy, Greece and the UK and achieved excellent results. The main aim was to develop a Masters in Engineering based on modern teaching methods and equipment. For the modules with eight lectures each were developed and a computer lab and engineering economics library were established. Problem banks with over 1,100 questions, problems and exercises were set up; six case studies on real projects in Egypt were prepared as well as glossaries and dictionaries of related terminology, extracts from the literature etc. Staff were trained to deliver the new course to a pilot cohort. The partners did not forget, on one hand, to design and implement a training evaluation system and,

³⁸ Country abbreviations will be used in this chapter to provide additional information on the geographical dimension of project co-operation.

on the other, to add a set of accounting and finance jokes on the website (<http://www.sdl.cu.edu.eg/>). The course was broadly advertised and, as a result, 400 potential trainees applied: more than five times the target. Partners in the project succeeded in maximising the number of trainees to 150% of the envisaged quota. A student initiative called ‘Steps towards Engineering Progress’ was also developed within the project which was organised and managed by the students themselves. It aimed at improving the necessary basic skills of unprivileged students. The project results were broadly disseminated: students and staff of faculties of engineering in all Egyptian universities and other HEIs are benefiting from the resources available from the website and their hardcopy versions.

Projects which addressed and/or included a component of TLA modernisation support and contribute importantly to elaborations in other areas which, at a first glance, seem to address structural measures in a more direct way: reforms on institutional and national level, promotion of the Bologna Process, degree structure and ECTS-related projects etc. In fact, a large number of projects which addressed TLA modernisation bring higher education practitioners closer to the interface between ‘theory’ and ‘practice’, thus raising awareness of ongoing reforms and structural changes in the context of international co-operation, particularly in exchanging cases of good practice. Most probably, many initiatives which were developed and fulfilled as short-term SM projects would not be possible – for one reason or another – as two- or three-year curriculum development JEPs. In some cases, they were a kind of follow-up and extension of previous JEPs. Both prove the added value of the projects discussed in this subchapter.

4.3 Governance modernisation

Observed from the institutional point of view, governance modernisation is the other side of the coin described in the previous subchapter. Yet, there are ample signs that at the grass-roots level governance issues in many partner countries are not as attractive as TLA issues. It seems that institutional and/or higher education governance issues are still predominantly governmental concerns or at least a concern in discussions between governments and university leaders. They rarely come ‘down to the earth’. This may be one of the reasons our survey found that the governance modernisation area was so rarely addressed within the Tempus III SM projects.

In total, the survey team identified 33 SM projects which – directly or indirectly – addressed elements of governance modernisation. Almost as a rule, they were either linked and subordinated to other dominant issues of individual projects or focused on exploratory issues and preparatory activities only. The latter type of SM projects can be found in all Tempus regions and can be illustrated with the following few cases: C030B06 which aimed at training for EU-liaison university officers to support further progress in national Bologna reforms as well as in the integration of Croatia into ERA and EHEA; T034B04 which supported the Association of University Managers and Administrators pursuing Bologna objectives in relation to higher education governance in Russia; and M011A04 which aimed at supporting a conference discussion on various themes of university governance in the MEDA region (unfortunately, the final report is still not available). Another interesting case of a multilateral project is M014A04, entitled ‘*Higher Education for Good Governance: Inventory of Academic Resources*’; it contributed to improving knowledge of governance in the MEDA region (DZ, JO, LB, MA, PS and TN).

Excellent proof that higher education governance issues cannot be limited to universities leadership only can be given by the project C020A06, entitled ‘*Implementation of Students’ Parliament in Serbia*’. Two special cases which can serve as cases of good practice are presented in the boxes appearing below in this subchapter.

Case 3: The title of the project **C015A06** – *Establishing Central University Services* – hides an important dimension: addressing the issue of the disintegrated university as well as ‘independent faculties’ in many countries of South-east Europe. It was located at the University of Arts in Belgrade (SR) and was partly initiated by a previous JEP (18077) in support of an integrated university which was executed at the University of Novi Sad (SR). EU partners came from Porto (PT) and Middlesex (UK) universities. The University of Tuzla (BA), which has been known for its progress in institutional reintegration, also took part as a partner. The direct aim of the project was to establish Central University Services (CUS) through upgrading the strategic and reform capacities of administrative staff working at the university central administration and at the constituent faculties in order to prepare the staff for the functional integration of administration and services. Disintegrated universities of the region encounter a number of problems and barriers to their development; one of them is expensive and dysfunctional organisation. A ‘culture of academic disintegration’ still prevails and, in addition, the existing national legislation leaves a high level of autonomy to the faculties. The project demanded a lot of internal lobbying; it addressed the problem successfully and introduced CUS in the University of Arts. The University of Arts is a relatively small institution and is therefore more appropriate for such endeavours. Its CUS can be now taken as a model for other institutions in the region.

Governance issues were also partly elaborated within other areas analysed within this chapter, e.g. in relation to institutional and national higher education reforms, quality assurance, lifelong learning etc. These areas and themes will be addressed below.

Case 4: The project **T044B05** (*University Fundraising in Ukraine*) differs from all other projects in its particular aim to contribute to the sharpened financial situation of almost all HEIs in the country. Project partners were eight institutions (not all of them being HEIs) from Ukraine and two from Germany and Spain. The main outcomes were investigations of the experience from the EU, the elaboration of General Recommendations and creation of Fund Raising Units at Ukrainian universities. Within the project, a Database of Fundraising Opportunities was also created. The results were broadly disseminated and can be seen as an important contribution to strengthening Ukrainian universities’ sustainability.

4.4 University / Institutional reforms

It is not always easy to delimit institutional, national, European and/or international aspects of higher education reforms; in the world of today they are very interlinked. This is also true with the Tempus SM projects; these dimensions always touch on one another but individual projects almost always put only one of them in the centre. When reforms of universities and other higher education institutions are in the centre we mainly refer to the projects which in a direct way contribute to structural changes and the modernisation of their vital systems.

With the projects monitored by this survey, such examples can be seen in human resource development: e.g. staff development at universities (C015A04 in HR) or university reform process seminars for senior academic staff in relation to curriculum development, learning-outcome-based study programmes, employability-gearred curricula etc. can be found (e.g. M012B06 in MA). Another cluster of projects is related to the reform of curricula in a particular field or at a particular unit/faculty with an impact on institutional organisation (e.g., C025A05 in law, HR; C004B05 in sport, BA; T009A06 in biology and chemistry, RU; M025A04 in economics, SY) as well as on university education in a broader sense (e.g., T047B05 in MD; M009B03 in DZ). Another interesting case is the creating of a platform for Career Advice Centres at Croatian universities (C007A05).

More 'strict' examples can be found with projects aiming at developing internal constituents, e.g. new units or faculties (C018A04: establishment of two new faculties – in biology and languages – at two universities in the city of Mostar, BA; M022A04: Paediatric Bronchoscope Training Unit in the Ain Shams University in EG) or in developing a particular policy with a larger institutional impact (T013A04 in QA policy, UA; T024A04 in ECTS, UA; T007B06 in access for visually impaired people; MD).

Case 5: The institutional reforms will be described here with a perhaps somewhat untypical but very interesting case connected to Case 3 and very important for overall university functioning. The project **C015B04** (*A model of the University of Zagreb Library System*), in which German, Danish and Finnish university librarians were working together with Croatian colleagues, established a functional model of a library network including the National and University Library as well as numerous faculty libraries at the relatively fragmented University of Zagreb. The project aimed at structural changes by upgrading the functionality of the acquisition of resources, co-operative cataloguing, access and other services. Work on the new model was based on analyses/questionnaires and several workshops were organised to exchange views and contribute to the harmonisation of the diverse teams. The project also aimed at the nationwide library functions and has shared its outcomes with other university libraries in the country. A project website (<http://www.nsk.hr/Library.aspx?id=428>) was set up and a publication with guidelines and recommendations was published for wide dissemination and implementation purposes. The General Code for Libraries at the University was also drafted and the Library Board was appointed. As a main outcome, a new integrated system was established at the university in a way that it supports better teaching, learning and research functions, both traditional and virtual. It cannot be disregarded that an important contribution to building up the support structures of the information society in Croatia was also made.³⁹

Implications of the Bologna Process quite often also involve issues of SM projects which put university and HEIs reforms at the front. This is mainly the case of the Bologna countries (CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP). Often, several national universities – in particular in smaller countries – collaborated in one project thus providing some kind of a 'national' project (e.g. C032A06 in HR, C029A05 in SR, C038A06 in BA, T047A04 in RU).

Some of these cases will also be touched on in the next two subchapters.

4.5 National higher education reforms

When analysing the relationship between the Tempus SM projects and the impact on national reforms, the reader can easily notice that various projects have different approaches as in many other cases. In some SM projects, the aim connected to national reforms was simply to promote the Bologna Process or some of its elements on the national level via events, study visits and similar opportunities (C005Z04 in HR, C016Z04 in SR, T065A06 in MD). The other dimension was to develop national guidelines or recommendations connected to a specific issue such as ECTS (M001A04 in SY, T001A04 in MD, T041A04 in KG, M014B04 in TN). And some of the projects aimed at developing as well as implementing national reforms in a way that they developed some policies or drafts that were then adopted either by national authorities or higher education institutions (T016B03 in RU, T024A04 in UA, T065A04 in UZ, T014A05 in KG).

³⁹ A similar project was also performed in Egypt (M007A05 - *Reforming Scientific Publishing by Egyptian HE Institutions*) but the final report is not yet available to the survey team. Application documents suggest a project which could be a case of good practice.

Chart 11 and the *Table 6* in the annexes show that a lot of the projects were aiming at national reforms in one way or another as 49 such projects were performed. A particularly interesting finding is that projects aiming at national reform are significantly more frequent in Bologna non-signatory countries, particularly in the MEDA, followed by the TACIS-CA region. In the MEDA countries *national reforms* are absolutely of greatest interest; surprisingly, they are at the bottom in CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP countries just after the issue of governance modernisation. We will return to this issue when employability and university – enterprise co-operation are discussed.

The other possible way of differentiating between the various approaches to national reforms is to divide the projects into those that focus on a specific element and try to develop some national context for it. The other possibility was to focus on a wide scale reform covering the higher education system as such.

Case 6: A good example of the wide scope approach is the project **C007A06** (*Promoting the Bologna Process in Kosovo*). The aim of the project was not only Bologna promotion in a narrow sense (e.g., a dissemination of information) but to develop policies for the integration of Kosovo higher education into EHEA. The project actively included all higher education stakeholders and the intense involvement of key people from Kosovo, especially the Ministry, played a crucial role in the project's success. The project was well established for the small community of Kosovo and adjusted well to its social, political and historical specifics. The SM project team planned the project to work on higher education broadly and thus developed recommendations as well as specific tools for its development. Consequently, national stakeholders were developing guidelines for all of the Bologna Process elements that were needed in the national context: quality assurance, degree structure, ECTS, recognition, mobility, university autonomy, co-operation. The project outcomes became the national policy for higher education development that is predicted to be implemented in national legislation as well as in higher education institutions' regulations. Four draft policies developed within the project (HE curricula development, implementation of ECTS, evaluation of HEIs, recognition and comparability of pre-Bologna and Bologna degrees) were already approved by the Ministry and today represent an important national policy tool.

Some of the projects developed specific elements nationwide, most commonly QA, as well as reform in a specific study field. This idea does not automatically demand a national reform; however, such an approach brings integrated and easily comparable study programmes into a specific country. An illustrative example of such a project is M025A04 performed in Syria, which aimed at study programme reforms and developed recommendations for an economic study reform at Syrian universities. Even though the project had concrete outcomes, a flaw of the project is that it did not include all of the stakeholders. It would make much more sense to include the employer sector and students next to higher education institutions and specific national authorities.

Case 7: In Moldova in general many recommendations for specific Bologna elements were developed and implemented with the help of Tempus projects. Such an example is the project **T012B03** that developed *national standards for lifelong learning* with co-operation of various stakeholders. Regulations stipulating the activity of the National Council for Professional Continuing Education that were approved by Act no. 1224 of 09/11/2004 of the Government of the Republic of Moldova. The following standard acts have also been developed and presented for approval by the Ministry of Education: (1) Methodological standards for elaboration and application of standard academic programmes for Professional Continuing Education; (2) Models of academic acts for Professional Continuing Education; (3) Regulation stipulating the

procedure of completing the academic acts for Professional Continuing Education; and (4) Draft of the standards of the programmes of Professional Continuing Education for 23 specialties demanded by the labour market.

4.6 Promotion of the Bologna Process

The Bologna promotion aspects in the SM projects were identified more frequently in CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP; yet, this does not mean that these aspects were neglected in the other two groups of non-Bologna countries. Simply, the position of the partner countries – signatories to the Bologna Declaration differs in this regard to the position of the other partner countries: they are implementing the Bologna agreements and have to report on progression at the biannual ministerial meetings.

On the other hand, in an indirect way the Bologna promotion aspects are probably the most frequent ones in the Tempus SM projects. In one way or another, the Bologna Process is a visible reference when institutional or national reforms and other areas and themes are discussed among project partners. Similarly as before, here we will focus on some projects which put the Bologna promotion aspect at the very forefront of their activities.

The largest cluster of projects within this category are those which aimed at Bologna promotion on the national level, e.g. in Croatia (C032A06), Bosnia-Herzegovina (C007Z04), Kosovo (C007A06; already mentioned above), Moldova (T001A04), Ukraine (T053B06), T016B06 (Russia) etc. Often, these projects also aim at supporting national teams of Bologna promoters in TACIS-BP countries, e.g. Moldova (T065A06) and Russia (T059B06), and in TACIS-CA countries, e.g. Kyrgyzstan (T057A06; also see the box).

In the CARDS region, we find an interesting example (C032B06; the final report is not available yet) where almost all countries (AL, BA, ME, MK and RS) were working together in the West Balkan Bologna Promoters Network to contribute to establishing co-operation links with national teams from the region and to assist ongoing higher education reforms. As a single-country project, we can also mention a similar example from Serbia (C016Z04) which joined four major universities and the national ministry in co-operation with universities, ministries and other agencies from seven EU countries (AT, CZ, DE, FR, IT, SK and UK).

Another round-up cluster is represented by projects which focused on special disciplines, addressing them from the Bologna promotion point of view, e.g.: reform of architectural education in the CARDS countries (C019A04; MK BA AL SR ME); applied technologies (T001A04; MD), economics (T033B04; RU), social pedagogy (T070B06; RU) translation studies (T049A06; UZ), agriculture (M001A04; SY) etc. In a broader sense we may add another interesting example – the project *Academia and Business in the Bologna Process* (T053A04; RU) – which aimed at establishing university structures for carrying out academia-industry co-operation supporting the implementation of the Bologna objectives in Russia.

In the MEDA group, Bologna promotion is clearly more visible on the university level than on the national level; there were two projects – *Exchange of Experience Focusing on the Bologna Process at Alexandria University in Egypt* (M011B05) and *Exchanging the Bologna Process Experience with selected Egyptian Universities* (M016B05) which chiefly contributed to awareness raising, understanding the importance of quality culture and promotion of self-assessment within the Bologna context. We will briefly return to these two projects at the end of this chapter.

In this area, more often than in others, universities and other HEIs co-operate with ministries and/or governmental agencies but also with other higher education stakeholders. It should be noted, however, that the stronger presence of students would be very appreciated with such projects.

Case 8: A very good example of interest in and the impact of the Bologna Process in Central Asia is the project **T012B04** on *Creating National Information Centres about the Bologna Process in the Kyrgyz Republic*. This was a joint project of the Ministry of Education, Science and Youth of the Kyrgyz Republic, 11 Kyrgyz universities and other higher education institutions and two universities from the EU (Pisa, Italy; Ghent, Belgium). The project's main aim was to assist Kyrgyz higher education in obtaining detailed information on the Bologna Process in general, but it was also closely connected to the Tuning project 'EU universities' contribution to the Bologna Process'. A number of seminars, visits and other events was organised to provide and disseminate information on Bologna developments as broadly as possible. Among the main achievements of the project, six newly established centres should be mentioned: the national one in Bishkek, its branch in Osh and four Bologna Centres in regional capitals. On the other hand, five national Tuning groups were formed within the project (Business Management, Economics, Ecology, Mathematics and Tourism) to exercise and implement the Tuning methodology at Kyrgyz higher education institutions. The project website (<http://www.bolognakg.net/>) contains a wide range of further information. This project was followed up by a new one: *Extending Centres on the Bologna Process and supporting Tuning Teams in the Kyrgyz Republic (T057A06)*. Both projects in combination represent some kind of a 'flagship project' with regard to promotion of the Bologna Process in Central Asia but they also contributed importantly to reforms of higher education in Kyrgyzstan and to its modernisation.

As mentioned, most projects in this area were performed in the CARDS-BP and TACIS-BP groups, but it might be much more interesting if we deliberately put an example from a non-Bologna country in a box.

4.7 Implementing a new degree structure

The degree structure is the pivotal element of modern European higher education reforms and is also the crown of many other reform elements included in the reform idea based on the Bologna Process. Flexibility, comparability, compatibility, employability, learning outcomes and student workload are only a few of the concepts that can be found in the discourses related to the Bologna-degree structure.

Indeed the issue is broad and comprehensive and cannot be easily dealt with in just a year of project life. Therefore, projects tackling the degree structure tended to be more successful when addressing parts of the reform or when supporting just one phase of the reform cycle (e.g. T029B04 in TJ; T001A04 and T065A06 in MD; T065A04 in UZ) rather than aiming at developing programmes in the new structural framework of the Bologna degrees. Perhaps a bit too ambitious were those projects with the main focus on one curricular element (e.g. ECTS) but which also included structural reform in both cycles (see *Case 9*). A broader discussion of the concepts related to the new degree structure and a thorough analysis of the state of higher education in the local environment proved to be beneficial in countries where the reform is at an early stage.

A statistical data analysis suggested that those projects dealing with the degree structure were more or less concentrated in countries that had joined the Bologna Process: CARDS-BP: 21,

Bologna TACIS-BP: 12. In the rest of the Tempus partner countries, the sum is just five, out of which there was only Jordan that hosted a degree-structure-related project in the whole MEDA region. This is a clear indicator that the degree structure is an advanced and structured issue that appears relatively distant and represents a challenge to higher education communities in non-Bologna countries. Just slightly more interest can be observed in the area of Central Asia, perhaps due to the bonds with the former Soviet Union countries that are intensively implementing the Bologna reform. Sometimes the projects addressing the degree structures target several Tempus countries (e.g. C001Z04 in BA, HR, SR, MK, AL) or supported large conferences on reforms (e.g. C003Z04 in BA, KO, AM, HR, AL, MK, SR, GE, KZ, RO, UA).

Case 9: Originally, the project **C015A05** (*Pilot Implementation of the European Credit Transfer System in Niš*) was conceived as having the ECTS as the principal focus. But the most significant outcome was the reformed programmes in two cycles. The project was limited to one faculty. The programme with the most enrolled students was reformed at the bachelor and master's level and equipped with ECTS. The amount of elective courses increased. Six more programmes were equipped with the ECTS system at the Faculty of Electronic Engineering and, as the report underlines, other faculties took advantage of the experience at the targeted faculty. At the same time, this project witnessed the abovementioned frequent weaknesses of similar projects. There is relatively blurred evidence of functioning mechanisms and developed methods of the ECTS attribution, which is clear from the absence of students in the project phase where the ECTS was attributed. There is also scarce inclusion of the concept of learning outcomes as a concept closely related to the credit transfer and accumulation system. However, the final summary report suggests that with the end of the first generation students the workload will be tested and compared to the ECTS distribution. This is an important component of a meaningful and comprehensive implementation of the ECTS system. On the other hand, the flaws can be explained by the lack of availability of experts in the field of implementation of the Bologna tools, or a Tuning expert. It could be suggested that at least a final review is to be performed by an expert provided by a project partner or suggested by the Tempus office. The second downside is that there is no evidence that, besides the ECTS, other key curricular elements were discussed when developing the bachelor and master's programme. It seems that the two programmes developed within the projects grew around the ECTS concept as the main framework.

The discussion on the structure of study is often limited to single-subject areas. Similarly to the thematic networks or the Tuning project, it is possible to trace the tendency to organise separate projects by professional field (e.g. C003A05 in BA, T011B04 in UA). In some cases the issue of degree structure was of core importance in lifelong learning projects (e.g. T005A05 in RU), which confirms the complex nature and broad range of the reform elements.

Case 10: The project **C003A06** – *Standardisation of teaching in Medicine in Croatia* – addressed a specific professional field. Medicine as a study field is in most European countries exempted from the degree structure reform. Only a few cases of two-tier degree structure in medicine can be found across the Continent⁴⁰. Opening up a discussion in areas where it is most difficult to make the old concepts and paradigms change might result in a positive outcome in terms of rebutting the frequent argument 'our field is an exception'. Considering that the study of medicine is one of the narrowest profession-oriented studies, it is certainly a big challenge to bring the academic community and other stakeholders together to discuss the innovative curricular elements and the response to the needs of modern society. The senior and junior teaching staff involved developed new teaching and learning methods and included advanced technology in the teaching process. The curriculum was opened to elective

⁴⁰ See Reichert, S. & Tauch, C. (2005): European Universities Implementing Bologna. *EUA Trends IV Report* (Brussels, European University Association).

courses and courses that would bring interdisciplinary competencies to the graduates, for instance *economics and management in health care systems*. The project provided training for more than 200 teachers, ensuring the use of new methodology and increase effectiveness of ICT use in medical education. The network of co-operation among Croatian medical schools was also strengthened through the three common elective online courses. Even though there was a lot of discussion of elective courses, interdisciplinary and non-medicine related competencies, only a little was said about the possible transformation of the degree structure in medicine into a classic Bologna two-cycle study.

4.8 Implementing the ECTS and Diploma Supplement

Implementation of the European Credit Transfer System has been one of the popular themes of the Tempus projects. With 46 projects dealing with the ECTS, it belongs to the group of frequently addressed issues. It seems that the relatively clear and tangible problems and reforms to be undertaken in relation to implementation of the ECTS make it a handy issue to bring up in the Tempus project setting. In fact, the ECTS implementation appears to be by far the most popular (30) in the CARDS-BP region – countries that joined the Bologna Process at an early stage. In the MEDA region the Bologna Process tool as a separate implementation issue does not appear more than twice.

Besides the direct addressing of the ECTS reform (e.g. C009B04 and C015A05 in SR; C028A05 in BA; C006B03 in MK; C002A04 in HR; M001A04 in SY; M014B04 in TN; T010A05 in TJ; T016A05 in UZ; T051A05 in KG and TJ), the credit system is also dealt with in projects devoted to the promotion and implementation of the Bologna Process. For example, in project C007A06 in Kosovo (see *case 6*) the ECTS part of it has been an outstanding achievement, combined with project C013B04 in Kosovo and Macedonia which was exclusively devoted to the implementation of the ECTS. In projects dealing with curricular reform, the ECTS element is sometimes emphasised like in the cases of the Bologna reform of manufacturing engineering programmes in Bosnia and Herzegovina (C003A05) or of a law programme in Croatia (C025A05). The ECTS system is often a good reason to renovate the ICT equipment of higher education institutions. In some cases, the ICT part of the project even overwhelms the other aspects of the implementation process (e.g. C009B05 and C013B05 in MK).

Case 11: The project **T024A04** (*ECTS implementation at Ukrainian universities*) is an inclusive project with 21 higher education institutions from Ukraine participating. It unfolded through conferences and training visits at the EU partner institutions. The useful and comprehensive *Guidelines for ECTS implementation at Ukrainian universities* were developed. They contain detailed information on the ECTS including the forms, glossary of terms, practical examples of the use of the ECTS, and recommendations of concrete steps for implementing the ECTS in Ukraine. This project may be an illustrative case of informing/training projects. The main achievement is the trained staff members and the guidebook in the local language. Support and tools for further action were developed. However, only little has been done in practice since no concrete procedure of implementing the ECTS was in place. Perhaps it would be beneficial if the learning-by-doing approach was also applied.

The target groups were often the teaching and administrative staff. Unfortunately there is scarce record of student activists participating and a relatively poor focus on raising awareness among the larger student body. It seems there is a little consideration of the fact that the student-workload-centred approach is a relatively revolutionary concept and that it therefore requires considerable effort to bring it closer to the university stakeholders, especially the students (see case 12).

A second big aspect that might have been neglected is the phase after first implementation of the ECTS system. There is only a small amount of attention paid to the concept of the student workload itself and the process of measuring workloads. Even less weight is put on the subsequent monitoring of the adequacy of the attributed ECTS points. This could be interpreted as an unfinished implementation since there is no guarantee that a programme is equipped with the ECTS system until this system also includes the continuous monitoring and adjusting mechanisms. A large gap between the introduction and the actual functioning and sustainability has therefore opened in the majority of cases.

A positive contribution to the sustainability of ECTS-related projects is trained administrative or teaching staff appointed by institutions to assist in implementation of the credit system (e.g. T015B05 in UA). Often a web page is devised to be a permanent reference, publications are printed to serve as a guidebook for the reforms and even consultancy points have been set up (e.g. T043B05 in UA). Although the TUNING project already developed such materials before, it appears beneficial to have them in the local language and adjusted to various specifics. It is vital that the EU universities, consortium members are able to show some functioning of the ECTS system, which is not always the case.

Case 12: The project **T051A05** (*Recognition of qualifications through introduction of the European Credit Transfer System*) is one of the few ECTS-focused projects in the non-Bologna Process Tempus partner countries. It targets public universities in Tajikistan and Kirgizstan and represents a relatively well-developed and structured project on a topic that is relatively new to the local university community. Considering the stage of the higher education reforms in the two partner countries, it is perhaps more important to trigger a proper debate on modern society and higher education and discuss the directions of the development of programmes and curricula development. Properly established seminars and trainings on the ECTS can bring about a fruitful reflection on the future of teaching and learning at the university. The achievements of the project will be useful for the participating institutions which have already tested the developed mechanisms. Unfortunately, no evidence of such mechanisms is visible from the report. The absence of students in the project suggests the low level of comprehensiveness and inclusiveness of the project. There is a lack of a focus on follow-up mechanisms to support the process of adjusting the attributed credit points.

4.9 Concerns about quality

Quality assurance (QA) is another popular area of concern in SM projects during the whole time period examined. One can assume that the participating countries and institutions understand the importance and impact of well-established QA systems in their countries. QA was the most desired topic in the regions TACIS-CA, TACIS-BP and MEDA and the second favourite in CARDS-BP, right after the ECTS issue. Since QA is a very broad and complex issue, it is only logical that SM projects correspond accordingly. Participating institutions tackled the issue in different aspects and complexity as well as in a variety of methods. There are projects that take relatively narrow aspects of QA into account such as updating questionnaires for internal QA or implementing software for management of the external QA. On the other hand, there are also projects that aim at a broad area, e.g. how to set up a national external QA system. These different approaches are logical and understandable since the countries and their national contexts are so different from each other and the topic is so broad that one can choose whichever element to work on.

As mentioned, SM projects that deal with QA work on a variety of issues: we can find projects that are more informative in nature (such as informing the stakeholders of *European Standards and Guidelines for QA*), projects that set up concrete national QA systems or projects that deal with QA standards for the teaching and learning environment in one field of study. We can also find projects that are closely connected to the other elements of EHEA, such as issues of recognition that are based on well-established QA systems.

Case 13: The projects **C011B05** and **C021A06** performed in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia are illustrative examples of a broad and a narrow approach in a national system both resulting in well-measurable and important outcomes. The project **C011B05** – *Quality Assurance and Accreditation System Network* – deals with the national external QA system. Both HEIs and national authorities participated as partners in the project. The project resulted in: (a) newly developed methodology for external QA that is compliant with European Standards and Guidelines for QA; (b) renewed structures, standards and work of the national QA agency compliant with the European Standards and Guidelines for QA as well as an application for ENQA membership; and (c) ICT support established with publicly available information and decisions. It is also important to keep in mind that the SM projects can have good results by themselves and some of them even interweave and thus upgrade the outcomes of each other. In this project we can notice the correlation with the project C009B05 (*Sustainable Multicultural Interoperable Environment*) and the result was a national registry for HEIs where all accredited HEIs as well as those which are in the process of accreditation were to be registered with complete details. The project co-ordinators report that the idea will go forward with follow-up activities creating the eAccreditation system. On the other hand, the project **C021A06** was dealing with upgrading the QA system in one institution: the University of Bitola, and thus more narrow in scope. A centre for teaching and learning was established as a result of the project and contributed to the introduction of a new learning environment and methods at the university (see www.uklo.edu.mk/quality).

In Moldova, participating HEIs and national authorities tackled the topic similarly in the project T005B05. The stakeholders were introduced with the *European Standards and Guidelines for QA* and other issues connected to QA, the national criteria and methodology for QA was renewed and ‘QA Centres’ were established at participating HEIs. An evaluation of the HEIs’ QA system was performed and a strategy on adjustments was developed. The participants developed guidelines on QA and distributed them accordingly.

Case 14: In Ukraine they dealt with both external and internal QA. In the project **T013A04** (*Development of University Policy in QA*) the self-evaluation of the management study field was performed according to the criteria defined with the help of the project activities. The project team made a sound base before starting the evaluation by analysing European Standards and Guidelines for QA, training staff and preparing standards, criteria and methodology for evaluation. After the evaluation was performed the team prepared the plan and recommendations for future improvements. Within the project a new structure – ‘quality council’ was set up as well which is great proof of the sustainability of project outcomes. Similarly in Uzbekistan in the project **T038A05** (*Design of a QA System in UZ*) a ‘QA centre’ was set up at a participating HEI and the QA system at the institution was developed that was offered to other HEIs in the country.

An interesting case of capacity-building can also be found in the project T008B03 in Ukraine in which a training centre was set up at the Donetsk National University to assist the HEIs in the region and the country with quality issues. The staff were trained and the material developed in order to allow the centre to perform training in the future. Training on *European Standards and Guidelines for QA* and other QA issues and models seems to be widely used methodology in general. In the project T019A06 the staff of major Russian QA and accreditation bodies were

offered intensive training in *European Standards and Guidelines for QA* as well as the present European best practices in accreditation and licensing systems. Similarly in Palestine, in the project M011B04 the staff of QA bodies were trained in QA issues. Following the training an academic international network between the trainers, staff members and the trainees was set up as well as a local network that will allow future developments and modifications of the system. In Uzbekistan, in the project T063A04 IT developments were made available to participating HEIs and the staff were trained to manage the e-support. The flaw of this particular project is, as can be assessed on the basis of the final report, the somewhat excessive focus on IT support and development of e-material. It seems as if there not much importance was attributed to the content.

4.10 Qualification frameworks and the issue of employability

The issue of employability was tackled in many projects as a side issue. As mentioned in the chapter on university-enterprise relationships (see *Chapter 4.14* below), this topic is favoured by countries with a relatively short experience in the Bologna Process or not involved at all in the process. Relevance of the university and professional education to the labour market appears to be a common concern for the Tempus partner countries. The projects aiming at promotion of the Bologna Process usually tackled the issue of employability of graduates, and sometimes even emphasised it (e.g. C032A06 in HR). Often, the projects that included employability were devoted to one professional field (see *case 15*).

Case 15: The project **M010B05** (*Employability of agricultural studies graduates in Tunisia*) is a good practice example of a project that aimed to improve the labour market relevance of the study of agriculture. The consortium members from Tunisia were three institutions that offer programmes in the field of agriculture. This made the project relevant for the whole national area and not just for one institution. The participation of other stakeholders from the professional field proved to be of a great added value: the National Institute of Continuing Education in Agriculture, the Agency for the Promotion of Industry, the Agency for the Promotion of Investments in Agriculture and the Institute for Agricultural Research and Higher Education took part in the project and made it a comprehensive nationwide activity. With joint efforts and a thorough debate at the national level the problems of graduates joining the labour market were identified. On that basis, concrete improvement proposals were implemented in the curricula and some modules were developed. The consortium members developed permanent co-operation links and intend to follow up on the project by applying for the 2008 Tempus grant.

The qualification framework is an advanced instrument also proposed by the Bologna Process. In the reports on progress of Bologna-related higher education reforms it is often mentioned as the missing element (see *Chapter 2*). At the national levels the process of developing the qualification framework is often at its dawn, and there is still some confusion about the properties, function and use of the framework. Only a few higher education systems in Europe contain a developed and functioning qualification framework. It is therefore understandable that this issue was not a popular one in the examined Tempus projects. On one hand, it seems that the qualification framework is considered an advanced and complex instrument which needs a thorough discussion and implementation of other reforms implemented first, on the other hand there is scarce experience with this element in the EU countries and therefore no proper capacity to contribute with the experience and good practice examples.

In the projects devoted to the issue of qualifications, the development of the national qualification framework was carried out by taking into account the European qualification

framework and the qualification framework of the European higher education area. The qualification framework is a typical element of the Bologna Process that had been developed at the European level as an overarching instrument and later implemented as an entirely new concept at the national levels. A lot of discussion and inclusion of external stakeholders proved vital for the success of the project (see *case 16*).

Case 16: The project **C041A06** (*Creation of a National Qualification Framework in Higher Education in Montenegro*) which supported the development of the qualification framework in Montenegro is a good example of benefits that various actors can bring to the process if included. For instance, one of the consortium members was the German rectors' conference which brought to the project a broad set of experience from the diverse German higher education landscape. Due to the size and specifics of Montenegrin higher education it was relatively easy to make an inclusive process, as it is expected to be, for a proper development of the national qualification framework. Both the ministry responsible for higher education and the Montenegrin public university took part in the consortium. The project included various national stakeholders which contributed to fruitful discussions on the national level. On top of the consortium members the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Care, Employment Bureau, Chamber of Commerce were also included. Each of the partners involved in the working group participated in project activities like the kick-off meeting, roundtable meeting and final conference, as well as in non-formal meetings, where qualification framework issues for higher education were analytically discussed and draft version of related documents prepared.

Out of 19 projects tackling the qualification framework and/or employability, 13 were carried out with the participation of the Tempus partner countries that are at the same time Bologna Process signatory countries. Five of the projects classified as 'qualification framework and employability' projects were carried out with the partner institutions from the MEDA region. There was only one project involving non-Bologna signatory countries in the TACIS region dealing with the qualification framework (see *case 17*).

Case 17: In Uzbekistan the issue of qualifications was approached in a creative way. In the project **T065A04** (*Qualification requirements for Uzbek universities*) two study fields in two different cycles were focused on in order to discuss the qualifications, outcomes and related issues inherent to the Bologna Process. The project team worked closely on the development of common approaches to qualification requirements in engineering education and jointly produced the requirements for two specialisations: Bachelor Degree *Informatics and Information technologies* and the Master's Degree *Physical Ecology*. The developed requirements were accepted by the Ministry of Education of Uzbekistan and will further be used while developing the national framework for qualifications in engineering. The project also contributed to increasing the awareness of Uzbek partners about the Bologna Process in Europe, including recent developments with the *National Qualification Frameworks* and the overarching *European Qualification Framework*. It is unusual though that none of the project-related documents used the recognisable Bologna Process language, like for example learning outcomes and competencies. There was a valuable input of the partners to the project. The Swedish National Agency for Higher Education shared its experience in implementing the framework for qualifications and also provided the Uzbek colleagues with printed materials, reports and studies prepared by its staff. During the visit to Sweden links between the Uzbek Ministry and the Agency were established and joint activities are continuing after the project ended. Co-operation in the sphere of QA in engineering education and support for introduction of the credit system is currently in the focus of the institutions.

4.11 Lifelong Learning

Even though the issue of lifelong learning (LLL) is dominating the policy agenda of many countries, there have been relatively few cases of projects focused fully on this area. The survey found in total 13 such projects (see the Annexes, *Table 7*); none of them in the TACIS-CA and MEDA regions.

Therefore, an interesting fact is that LLL is the only area which was dealt with exclusively in the Bologna signatory countries. If we look more closely, in the CARDS-BP region, 3 out of 7 target countries and in the TACIS-BP region, 2 out of 7 such countries were working on this theme. To sum up, LLL was dealt with in the following countries: Russia, Moldova, Serbia, Montenegro and Croatia. As a single country Russia held the highest number of LLL projects, namely 6 projects.

When analysing these projects the survey team noticed that most of them brought concrete changes and results such as adopted legislative changes or study cycles implementation and not solely soft skills such as training or capacity-building. Some projects were dealing with LLL in a way that was establishing links and co-operation with the industry sector (C006B04, C007B05, both in SR and ME) or connected to the qualification framework (C041A06 in ME).

Case 18: The project **T016B03** (*LLL – Lifelong learning: Siberian structure development*) was held in Russia and approached LLL in a very broad but also well-structured and organised manner with many concrete outcomes. The project seems to challenge the LLL concept in the region. With activities of conducting a study on demand and supply of LLL in the region, staff training, and other support the outcomes varied: information material on LLL and manuals on both LLL and teaching methods were published, new teaching technology set up, new short-cycle courses developed and implemented, a network of LLL structures in the region was established, a long-term LLL development plan in the region was drafted, co-ordinated with the regional HEIs and passed on to the authorities and, last but not least, even a call centre on the LLL service was set up. Again, the benefits of the multiple stakeholders' co-operation are excelling in the project.

In other Russian projects such as T005A05 (*Education tout au long de la vie - Métiers du tourisme, de l'hôtellerie et de la restauration*) and T001 B04 (*Education tout au long de la vie – mettiers du social*) regional LLL schemes were also developed; however, both projects tackled specific professional fields. Besides regional schemes, study programmes were reformed, modules for LLL created and competencies defined. Both of those projects are an interesting example of good co-operation between various stakeholders as well. Only with such co-operation are changes and outcomes like these possible.

4.12 Recognition issues

Recognition was one of the earliest policy issues to be addressed in the last decade's internationalisation processes in higher education. It is the basis for mobility and international co-operation in higher education. A legally binding international document was signed under the patronage of the Council of Europe and UNESCO in 1997 to ease the procedures and bring common grounds to the recognition of qualifications in the European region. Therefore it has been an advantage of the countries involved in the process of implementing the content of the so-called Lisbon Recognition Convention to modernise the recognition practice in their system. The Bologna Process took over the principles agreed upon in the Lisbon Convention. But not all of

the Tempus partner countries have been involved in either the Lisbon Convention or Bologna Process.

Case 19: The project **M002B03** (*Network for the recognition of qualifications*) is an illustrative example of a recognition-focused project based on the principles of the UNESCO and Council of Europe Lisbon Recognition Convention of 1997. The two international organisations were present with their inputs at the project events. The activities brought about a thorough reflection on the recognition procedures in the national settings in Egypt, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco. The old recognition mechanisms of a detailed comparison of the curricular components were analysed and a shift towards recognition based on competencies and acquired knowledge was encouraged. International recognition in the Mediterranean area is shifting towards the recognition of diplomas ‘unless a substantial difference in qualifications is proved’. The project took inspiration from the European experience of organising the information offices and the recognition network (ENIC/NARIC network). An action plan for a similar solution was developed in Morocco, Algeria and Egypt. It has also been promoted through the UNESCO (MERIC network).⁴¹

Seemingly the recognition of qualifications has not been a popular issue for the reviewed generation of Tempus projects. In total only 12 projects included recognition among their main objectives. The frequency of its appearance has been highest in the CARDS-BP region (6) and in the MEDA region (5). With the exception of Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina, every CARDS-BP country tackled the issue at least once, meanwhile in the MEDA region Northern African partners have been more interested in recognition than the Middle East.

Recognition has been dealt with within the majority of projects that addressed the promotion and implementation of the Bologna Process in the partner countries (e.g. C032A06 in HR; C007A06 in KS; for more see *Chapter 4.6*). Recognition issues were also included in the projects on lifelong learning (see *Chapter 4.11*) and projects that aimed at the modernisation of curricula and procedures related to the study and qualifications (e.g. C017A04 in SR). In both cases, recognition appears to be an instrument to ease important strategic goals for the development of higher education. Mobility, parts of the study conducted abroad and labour market issues bring recognition on to the agenda in the context of the internationalisation of higher education, meanwhile continuous learning and the return to formal education from the labour market characterise the role of recognition in the lifelong learning policy and practice.

Case 20: The project **T004Z04** (*Accreditation of European Engineering Programmes and Graduates*) aimed at proposing a framework for setting up a European system for the accreditation of Engineering programmes at the first cycle and second cycle level (as defined within the Bologna Process). The project took into account both the European and national levels and devised its activities towards well defined and forward looking goals. The two recognition-related goals were: a) facilitate recognition by the competent authorities in accordance with the EU Directives; and b) facilitate mutual recognition agreements between higher education institutions. The project was also interesting due to the participation of an international and a national profession-related organisation: FEANI (Fédération Européenne d'Associations Nationales d'Ingénieurs) and RAEE (Russian Association for Engineering Education). In the field of engineering, professional organisations appear to be relevant actors and therefore important stakeholders in higher education. This makes the project relatively unique and progressive in terms of solving the recognition problems in both the labour market and for academic purposes. In addition, the presence of professional organisations is an exemplar case in general for paving the way to the professional field in the modernisation process. Framework

⁴¹ See http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-RL_ID=41223&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

Standards for the Accreditation of Engineering Programmes (including the Template for the Publication of Results) were developed in order to facilitate the comparability and compatibility of engineering studies. Even though developed with a Russian partner, the project was of a pan-European nature throughout its duration. The outcomes will impact on the engineering field of higher education across Europe and beyond.

4.13 Mobility

At a first glance of the data one can assume that mobility enjoyed quite some attention in the Tempus SM projects; however, mobility was surprisingly not an interesting issue to deal with (see *Chart 12*). This fact is particularly interesting since mobility is almost the highest priority of most of the countries and, as laics would say, ‘a goal of the Bologna Process’. Obviously this issue becomes more complex when trying to deal with it in practice.

Again an interesting fact is that a big majority of projects dealing with mobility as (one of) the main theme(s) was held in the Bologna signatory countries and the MEDA region. If one examines this more closely it is noticeable that in the CARDS-BP region the topic was more evenly distributed as 6 out of 7 countries were tackling the issue in one way or another. In the TACIS-BP region, 3 out of 7 countries were dealing with mobility. The other region that seemingly took this as a priority is the MEDA – Maghreb region, while in the TACIS-CA region and the MEDA – Mashrek region this issue was not tackled at all, except in Jordan.

Mobility is largely dealt with in connection with the other topics and thus it is rarely solely tackled. Most commonly it is connected to overall promotion of the Bologna Process (e.g. C005Z04 in HR, C007B04 in BA, T001A04 in MD). In some cases, it is connected to the issue of QA which is logical since such systems are a prerequisite for mobility and sometimes one element can hardly exist without another (e.g. C011B05 in MK, C014A05 in HR and BA). There was a small number of projects that dealt with recognition issues and the qualification framework as a ground for mobility, which is surprising. One would expect a bigger amount of projects like these.

Case 21: The project C009A04 (*Virtual Academic Information Service: Scholarships.info*) in Croatia is not a typical SM project by definition since it is not a ‘policy intervention’; however, the outcome was the development of a concrete and presumably effective tool. It is an interesting example of how an SM project can contribute to the development of a practical tool used by students and other stakeholders on a day-to-day basis. The participating institutions developed a web portal (www.stipendije.info) with information on scholarship opportunities and other mobility issues. Since in Croatia funding is one of the biggest obstacles to mobility, the project in the national context gives grounds for mobility as such.

The projects T076A04 in Ukraine and T036A06 in Russia also tackled mobility per se and, similarly, the outcomes were recommendations for mobility. In the first project participating institutions prepared a report on best practices of mobility between Ukraine and EU countries, set up a web page and prepared methodological recommendations. In the second project, a manual and reference book were developed.

As mentioned earlier, Jordan is the only country from the region that dealt with the issue of mobility. In the project M001B05, the participating institutions developed a training course for international officers at the university. At first glance this might seem like a project without much promise; however, if we keep the regional context in mind the project was appropriate.

4.14 University-Enterprise co-operation

Even though the issue of the relationship between industry and higher education is dominating the policy agenda of many countries, there have been relatively few cases of projects focused exclusively on this area (see *case 22*). Considerable attention to the labour market and university-enterprise co-operation was the case in those projects where the primary issue was lifelong learning (e.g. T001B04, T005A05, and T016B03 in RUS; C007B05 in SR and MT; and T012B03 in MD) or the employability of graduates (see *Chapter 4.10* above).

Another pattern that can be sensed is that the relations between the needs of enterprises and universities is more emphasised in those countries that are less integrated into the higher education reform processes in Europe, e.g. the MEDA and TACIS-CA countries. The employability of graduates is again the most outstanding segment of the links between the two spheres. Inventions and knowledge transfer in terms of innovations is less present as an issue in the examined Tempus projects. However, the relevance of higher education for the world of business and employment appears to be a major concern of the public authorities of countries in the European neighbourhood. This trend indicates a tension arising from the dissonance between the contemporary developing economy necessitating ever more educated labour on one hand and the less responsive higher education institutions on the other.

Case 22: One of the more outstanding projects in the field of university enterprise co-operation was carried out in Palestine: **M015B04** – *Boosting University-Industry Links for Development in Palestine*. As pointed out above, the project took place in a developing country and aimed at building functional co-operation between the two spheres. It supports the finding that in developing countries basic and functional policy issues and discourses about the role of higher education prevail. Unlike the majority of projects that focused on the links between industry and higher education, this one had the links and co-operation as its main target. It developed through a good practice analysis and produced a handbook on university-industry co-operation. Further, during the project life the An-Najah University in co-operation with the local SME and the Chamber of Commerce established a Research Centre. It is supposed to institutionalise the co-operation between the university and the co-establishing enterprises. The weaknesses of the project were the relatively broad and vague objectives (e.g. to inform, to understand the importance...) and it is therefore difficult to assess the overall success. In general, the partners were acquainted with the forms and practices of co-operation between higher education and industry. The two concrete outcomes, if functioning, show that the project left some grounds for sustainability.

Sometimes the projects focused on a single professional field and related mainly to curricular reform (see *case 23*). Such projects usually arose from a specific need of the local labour market and industry. As illustrated below, there is interest from the public sector to co-operate with higher education. The active encouragement of the government to segments of public enterprise/employers to co-operate more closely with universities might be a good icebreaker for the private sector to engage in similar projects. A similar project was conducted in Serbia and Montenegro, aiming at fostering linkages between medical studies and the health care sector (C007B05).

As mentioned in Chapter 4.6, there is a curious example addressing the relationship between the two spheres in the context of the Bologna Process: the project *Academia and Business in the Bologna Process* (T053A04; RU) aimed at establishing university structures for carrying out academia-industry co-operation supporting implementation of the Bologna objectives in Russia.

Case 23: The projects **C006A05**, **M013B04** and **T037A05** are *single profession oriented projects endorsing University-Enterprise co-operation*. The project **C006A05** aimed at forging a functional linkage between university and an infrastructural project in Serbia. It fit into a broader strategy to improve water quality management in the partner country. The objective was to strengthen the co-operation between the concerned university faculties and the water management industry. The use of new technology lay at the centre of the project activities. Similarly, project **T037A05** focused on developing the course/syllabus and teaching methods in e-government in Russia. In this case, there have been some activities in establishing permanent co-operation between municipalities and higher education institutions. In both cases, the outcome was a newly developed course which made the project very narrowly focused and specialised. Unfortunately, there was no considerable spillover to the other fields indicated. Both cases relate to the public sector, which might be the right direction to follow in order to set examples for the private sector. The latter often proves to be less articulated and less eager to become directly involved with higher education. In **M013B04** instead the objective was to establish a maritime training centre in Egypt. Port companies, local authorities and maritime associations were involved in the project as external stakeholders. Even though the project was also limited to one specific course, there was a good achievement level. Promising sustainability elements were also established.

4.15 Partner countries' vs. EU member countries' co-operation

At the conclusion of this chapter we will analyse an additional aspect. In Chapter 3.4, Tempus SM projects were already analysed with regard to their potential to build international contacts. In addition to the statistical findings of that chapter, here is the right place to make some illustrations and to present SM projects as real support to international co-operation – not only between institutions in EU member states and partner countries but also between partner countries themselves.

Tempus projects are, by definition, international co-operative projects. As we have already seen, a typical pattern of SM projects is represented by the co-operation of teams from one partner country and two to three EU countries. Yet, the whole *potential of SM projects* – in particular mutual learning and the exchange of good practices – cannot be activated only (or always) in the framework of three to four countries. And there are indeed interesting cases where a larger group of both EU and partner countries worked together. Below, we will briefly focus on a few of them.

There are some projects whose main aim was to enhance international co-operation but they were performed in 'majority way' – in smaller consortia consisting of teams from four or five countries only. They can often be found in the MEDA region, mainly as training for Tempus and other programmes for international co-operation in education (M006B03 in EG, M007A04 in JO, M021A04 in TN). In TACIS-BP group, one project focused on modernisation of international relations offices (T060A05 in UA). International relations policy for regional integration promotion was a content of a project in CARDS-BP (C037A06; ME, RS and MK).

What are typical cases where several countries decide to work together in a single SM project? It seems that sometimes there are simply 'technical' reasons: an SM project is taken as a framework or means of organising and supporting international conferences. This was the case, for example, with the SM project *Conference on EU-Russian Mobility in Higher Education* (T028B05). Its main outcome was a conference held in Helsinki in September 2006 with participants from Russia and 11 EU countries (BE, CZ, DE, FI, FR, HU, NL, SE, SK and UK).

‘Multi-partner’ SM projects are, in fact, of a dual nature. On one hand, there are cases when a team from one partner country co-operates with teams from several EU countries; this relates to the example in the previous paragraph. On the other hand, there are also cases when several teams from partners as well as EU countries work together. These cases are even more interesting and important since they activate the potential of international co-operation at a higher level.

When several countries of a region join in a common project work with EU countries, key questions can be addressed at a much higher ‘critical mass’ and outcomes may be richer in their contents and dimensions. There is also additional value added with these cases: it is the advantage of cross-border regional co-operation to hold potential for better mutual understanding, experiencing common cultural values etc. It seems that some of the Tempus III SM projects really have built broad arenas where this value added has been produced.

This is even more important when issues related to young people are discussed. The project *Student Mobility in the European Higher Education Area 2010* (C003Z04) joined participants from the largest possible circle of European countries, 33 of them. All EU member states were represented, except Czech Republic, Ireland, Latvia, Luxemburg and Estonia, all CARDS-BP countries as well as Armenia, Georgia, Russia and Ukraine from the TACIS-BP group. In addition, Romania and Norway were also represented.

As an interesting case in the CARDS-BP region, the project on *Formation d’équipes nationales promotrices de Bologne en pays CARDS*, should be noted with five countries twice (AL, BA, HR, MK and SR plus AT, BE, FR, IT and SE). The project *Universities in Transition and the Bologna Challenge* (T047A04) was performed by consortia consisting of teams from the two biggest countries of TACIS-BP and TACIS-CA (RU and KZ) and from five EU countries (DE, UK, B, IT, ES). In the MEDA region, the project *Higher Education for Good Governance: Inventory of Academic Resources* (M014A04) brought together five countries of the region (DZ, JO, LB, MA and TN) and two EU countries (ES and NL). Large international consortia were also a characteristic of those projects which aim at promoting the Erasmus-based project *Tuning* in partner countries (e.g. SM project C003B04 joined teams from HR, KO, MK, SR and UA as well as from NL and ES).

Case 24: The project **T005B05** (*The Development of a Quality Assurance System within selected Universities in Moldova*) could, at first glance, be better presented above when the QA issues were being discussed. However, this is a project where a particularly interesting case of international co-operation is visible. The project consortia consisted of teams from Moldova, France, Germany, Lithuania and Sweden. It happens that the Swedish partner, Växjö University, was also a partner in another SM project: *Exchange of Experience Focusing on the Bologna Process at Alexandria University in Egypt* (M011B05; final report not yet available). In October 2006, Växjö University organised an international workshop (see <http://Tempus.ulim.md/conferences.php>) which enabled teams from both SM projects – one from TACIS-BP and another from the MED region – met in the same arena. Views and experiences from Moldova, Egypt, Ukraine, Sweden, France, Germany and Lithuania were discussed at the conference.

The case described in the above box is an example of real cross-regional co-operation initiated by Tempus III SM and, at the same time, proof of the potential of the programme. This potential has not yet been exhausted; there are further possibilities of international co-operation based on programmes like Tempus and there will hopefully be more opportunities for partners from various countries.

5. Annexes

5.1 Abbreviations

5.2 Countries' abbreviations

5.3 Table 1: Tempus SM Projects covered in the survey

5.4 Table 2: Teams from partner countries in Tempus SM projects

5.5 Table 3: Teams from EU member countries in Tempus SM projects

5.6 Table 4 A: Intensity of co-operation: EU member countries vs. partner countries within the Bologna Process (CARDS - BP and TACIS - BP), including Belarus and Kosovo

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Table 4 C: Most balanced co-operation with all TEMPUS regions

5.7 Table 5 A: Indicators and outcomes – frequency

Table 5 B: Indicators and outcomes – in absolute figures

5.8 Table 6: Structural measures – main areas

5.9 Table 7: Structural measures – main themes

5.1 Abbreviations

CARDS	European Community Programme for Assistance, Reconstruction, Development and Stabilisation; it provides EU assistance to the countries of South-east Europe with a view to their participation in the stabilisation and association process with the European Union.
DG EAC	The European Commission's Directorate General for Education and Culture
DS	Diploma Supplement, a document attached to a higher education diploma aimed at enhancing international transparency.
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EHEA	European Higher Education Area (a goal of the Bologna Process)
ERA	European Research Area
HE(I)	Higher Education (Institution)
I(C)T	Information (and Communication) Technology
JEP	Joint European Project(s) whose aim to increase co-operation and network-building between actors in EU member states and partner countries
LLL	Lifelong learning
LMD	<i>Licence, Master, Doctorat</i> (fr.)
MEDA	the principal financial instrument of the EU for implementing the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership.
OSI	Open Society Institute (Soros Foundation)
QA	Quality Assurance
QF	Qualifications Framework
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
SCM	Structural and Complementary Measures; SM are short-term policy advice interventions aimed at supporting reform processes while CM are designed to disseminate and transfer good practice
TLA	teaching, learning and assessment
TACIS	provides EU grant-financed technical assistance to 12 countries of Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia

Tuning

Tuning Educational Structures in Europe; a Socrates-Erasmus supported project; ‘Universities’ contribution to the Bologna Process’

USAID

United States Agency for International Development

5.2 Countries’ abbreviations

Partner Countries	Abbreviations	EU Member Countries (25)	Abbreviations
1. CARDS		Austria	- AT
Albania	- AL	Belgium	- BE
Bosnia and Herzegovina	- BA	Czech Republic	- CZ
Croatia	- HR	Cyprus	- CY
FYR of Macedonia	- MK	Germany	- DE
Montenegro	- ME	Denmark	- DK
Serbia	- SR	Estonia	- EE
Kosovo	- KO	Greece	- EL
2. TACIS		Spain	- ES
Russia	- RU	Finland	- FI
Ukraine	- UA	France	- FR
Moldova	- MD	Hungary	- HU
Armenia	- AM	Ireland	- IE
Azerbaijan	- AZ	Italy	- IT
Georgia	- GE	Lithuania	- LT
Belarus	- BY	Luxemburg	- LU
Kyrgyzstan	- KG	Latvia	- LV
Kazakhstan	- KZ	Malta	- MT
Tajikistan	- TJ	The Netherlands	- NL
Turkmenistan	- TM	Poland	- PL
Uzbekistan	- UZ	Portugal	- PT
Mongolia	- MN	Sweden	- SE
3. MEDA		Slovenia	- SI
Algeria	- DZ	Slovak Republic	- SK
Morocco	- MA	United Kingdom	- UK
Tunisia	- TN	Note: <i>Bulgaria and Romania are not included on this list as they were not EU member states during the 2003-2006 period.</i>	
Egypt	- EG		
Jordan	- JO		
Lebanon	- LB		
the Palestinian Authority	- PS		
Syria	- SY		

5.3 Table 1: SM Projects covered in the survey (Tempus III, 2003-2006)

	CARDS	TACIS	MEDA
B03 11-1= 10	C006, C009 (2)	T001, T005, T008, T012, T013, T016 (6)	M002, M006, M009 (3)
A04 39-4= 35	C002, C006, C009, C015, C016, C017, C018, C019, C023, C032, C033 (11)	T001, T012, T013, T024, T027, T041, T044, T047, T053, T063, T065, T074, T076, T081 (14)	M001, M002, M003, M004, M007, M011, M014, M016, M021, M022, M024, M025, M027, M028 (14)
B04 26-1= 25	C003, C005, C006, C009, C010, C013, C015 (7)	T001, T009, T011, T012, T028, T029, T032, T033, T034, T036 (10)	M002, M004, M007, M008, M009, M011, M013, M014, M015 (9)
Z04 7-0 = 7	C001, C003, C005, C007, C016, C006 (6)	T004 (1)	% (0)
A05 31-3= 28	C003, C005, C006, C007, C010, C013, C014, C015, C016, C021, C025, C028, C029 (13)	T005, T010, T014, T016, T027, T031, T033, T034, T037, T038, T051, T058, T060 (13)	M004, M007, M014, M017, M020 (5)
B05 36-16= 20	C004, C007, C009, C011, C013 (5)	T002, T004, T005, T010, T015, T017, T019, T020, T023, T026, T027, T028, T030, T031, T034, T038, T040, T043, T044, T045, T047, T049, T051, T052 (24)	M001, M002, M007, M010, M011, M014, M016 (7)
A06 59-35= 24	C003, C004, C007, C009, C010, C015, C016, C017, C020, C021, C022, C024, C026, C028, C032, C037, C038, C041 (18)	T002, T004, T007, T009, T015, T016, T019, T020, T021, T022, T024, T026, T029, T032, T033, T036, T037, T041, T045, T049, T050, T057, T063, T065, T069, T070, T073, T074, T076, T077, T078, T081, T084, T093, T094 (35)	M003, M009, M023, M030, M035, M040 (6)
B06 42-42= 0	C03, C04, C08, C10, C14, C18, C19, C23, C24, C26, C28, C30, C31, C32, C35, C37, C39 (17)	T07, T12, T15, T16, T17, T20, T29, T35, T38, T39, T47, T49, T52, T53, T59, T60, T61, T62, T70, T73, T76, T79, T83 (23)	M002, M012 (2)
<p>blue SM project final reports green SM project applications red no data</p> <p>Total: 251 projects; 6 (no data); 96 (SM applications only); 149 (SM final reports)</p>			

5.4 Table 2: Teams from partner countries in Tempus SM Projects

Partner Countries	B03	A04	B04	Z04	A05	B05	A06	B06	Total
1. CARDS – BP	2	13	11	14	15	6	20	20	(101)
- AL		1	1	2				1	5
- BA		3		3	4	1	7	3	21
- HR		4	2	3	3		4	3	19
- MK	2	3	2	2	2	3	4	5	23
- ME		1	1			1	1	1	5
- SR		1	2	3	5	1	3	4	19
- KO (ex.)			3	1	1		1	3	9
2. TACIS – BP	5	8	7	5	7	16	23	20	(91)
- RU	2	3	4	2	4	7	9	8	39
- UA	2	3	2	1	3	4	6	8	29
- MD	1	1	1			2	4	2	11
- AM				1		1	1	1	4
- AZ							2		2
- GE				1		1	1		3
- BY (ex.)		1				1		1	3
3. TACIS – CA	0	7	4	1	7	8	16	4	(47)
- KG		1	1		2	1	4		9
- KZ		2	1	1		2	4	2	12
- TJ			1		2	1	3		7
- TM		1				3	2		6
- UZ		3			3	1	3	2	12
- MN (ex.)			1						1
4. MEDA	6	16	10	0	4	7	6	2	(51)
A. MEDA-MAG	4	6	2	0	2	1	3	1	(19)
- DZ	2	3			1				6
- MA	1	1	1		1		1	1	6
- TN	1	2	1			1	2		7
B. MEDA-MAS	2	10	8	0	2	6	3	1	(32)
- EG	2	2	3		1	2	1		11
- JO		2	1			2			5
- LB		1			1	1	1	1	5
- PS		2	2						4
- SY		3	2			1	1		7
TOTAL (1-4)	13	44	32	20	33	37	65	46	290

5.5 Table 3: Teams from EU member countries in Tempus SM projects

EU Member Countries (25)	B03	A04	B04	Z04	A05	B05	A06	B06	Total
- AT		6	2	5	5	2	7	10	37
- BE		8	3	2	2	4	17	6	42
- CZ			1	2		1	2	3	9
- CY				1		1			2
- DE	3	8	9	3	17	11	14	20	85
- DK			1	1		2	2	1	7
- EE						2			2
- EL	2	5	2		3	4	2	2	20
- ES	3	9	3	1	4	9	8	11	48
- FI		1	1	1		2	3	5	13
- FR	1	10	8	4	7	9	13	3	55
- HU			1	1		1	3	2	8
- IE		2			1	1	3	1	8
- IT	3	13	7	4	4	6	11	11	59
- LT				1	1	2	1	1	6
- LU									0
- LV							2		2
- MT			1	1			1	2	5
- NL		5	2	1	4	5	5	8	30
- PL		1		1	6	4	4	5	21
- PT			3		2		1	2	8
- SE		5	1	1	5	9	7	7	35
- SI				2	4	1	7	3	17
- SK				2	2	1	2	4	11
- UK	2	10	6	1	2	8	16	3	48
TOTAL	14	83	51	35	69	85	131	110	578

5.6 Table 4 A: Intensity of co-operation: EU member countries vs. partner countries within the Bologna Process (CARDS - BP and TACIS - BP), including Belarus and Kosovo

	AL	BA	HR	MK	ME	SR	KO	MD	RU	UA	AM	AZ	GE	BY	Total
AT	3	6	8	4	1	7	4	1	4	6	1		2		47
BE	4	7	4	4		4	1	3	6	4	2	1	1		41
CZ	1	1	2	1	1	2			2	1					11
CY	1	1	1	1		1	1			1	1		1		9
DE	4	13	6	7	2	9	4	4	20	12	1		1		83
DK	1	1	2	1	1	2	1		1	3	1		2		16
EE								1							1
EL	3	4	1	10	1	4	2		3	3	1		1		33
ES	1	4	5	4		5	2	3	4	11	1	1	1		42
FI	2	2	3	2	2	3	1		3	2	1		1		22
FR	2	3	3	4	1	6	2	4	13	4	2		1	1	46
HU	1	2	3	1		3	1		1	1	1		1		15
IE	1	3	1	1	1	1			1				1		10
IT	2	4	4	9	1	3	2	6	11	4	2		1		49
LT	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	2	2	1		2		14
LU															0
LV										1					1
MT	1	1	1	1		1	1	2	1	1	1		1		12
NL	1	1	4	6		4	3		3	6	2	1	1	1	33
PL	2	4	2	5	1	2	1	1	2	5	1	1	1		28
PT		1			1	2		2							6
SE	1	3	3	2	1	2		5	5	3	2		1	3	31
SI	1	3	5	6		3	2			2	1		1		24
SK	2	2	1	2	1	6	1	1	2	1	1		1		21
UK	2	4	6	7	2	3	1	3	7	6	1	1	1	1	45
Total	37	71	66	79	17	74	31	37	91	79	24	5	23	6	640

5.6 Table 4 B: Intensity of co-operation: EU member countries vs. partner countries outside the Bologna Process (TACIS-CA, MEDA), including Mongolia

	KG	KZ	TJ	TM	UZ	MN	DZ	EG	JO	LB	PS	MA	SY	TN	Total
AT		3			2			1			1		2		9
BE	4	5	1	1	2			3	1			1	3	1	22
CZ		1			1										2
CY		1							1						2
DE	1	5	3		1	1		3		2	2		1	2	21
DK		1			1										2
EE				1											1
EL		1							1						2
ES	1	2		3	3		2	2	3	3	2	3		2	26
FI	2	2				1									5
FR	2	3	1	2	2		4	2		1	1	2	4	4	28
HU		1										1			2
IE	1	1	1					1							4
IT	1	4	2		2		4	4	2	2		3	4		28
LT		1													1
LU															0
LV					1										1
MT		1						1							2
NL		5		1	5		1	1	1	1	1	1		2	19
PL		3			3										6
PT	1		1									1		1	4
SE			4	2	2			3	1			2	1		15
SI		1													1
SK	1	2	1		1										5
UK	2	4	1	2	5		1	3	1	2			1		22
Total	16	47	15	12	31	2	12	24	11	11	7	14	16	12	230

5.6 Table 4 C: Most balanced co-operation with all TEMPUS regions

EU Member	CARDS – BP	TACIS – BP	TACIS – CA	MEDA
Belgium	38.1%	27.0%	20.6%	14.3%
Germany	43.3%	36.5%	10.6%	9.6%
France	28.4%	33.8%	13.5%	24.3%
Italy	32.5%	31.2%	11.7%	24.7%
The Netherlands	36.5%	26.9%	21.2%	15.4%
Spain	30.9%	30.9%	13.2%	25.0%
Sweden	26.1%	41.3%	17.4%	15.2%
UK	37.3%	29.9%	20.9%	11.9%

5.7 Table 5 A: Indicators and outcomes – frequency

Partner Countries	Conferences	Seminars	Training c.	Visits	Publications
1. CARDS - BP	34	28	27	30	34
- AL	1	1			
- BA	3	6	5	3	6
- HR	6	6	3	4	7
- MK	10	6	8	10	9
- ME	3	1	1	2	3
- SR	7	5	6	6	6
- KO (ex.)	4	3	4	5	3
2. TACIS - BP	16	19	12	16	21
- RU	8	9	7	7	11
- UA	7	8	3	7	8
- MD	1	2	2	2	2
- AM					
- AZ					
- GE					
- BY (ex.)					
3. TACIS - CA	11	15	10	14	13
- KG	3	4	4	3	4
- KZ	1	1	1	1	1
- TJ	3	4	3	5	3
- TM					
- UZ	3	5	2	4	4
- MN	1	1		1	1
4. MEDA total	12	14	7	13	15
A. MEDA - MAG	2	5	2	4	6
- DZ	1	1	1	1	1
- MA		2		1	3
- TN	1	2	1	2	2
B. MEDA - MAS	10	9	5	9	9
- EG	3	3		2	3
- JO	2	1	1	2	1
- LB	1	1	1	1	1
- PS	1	1		1	2
- SY	3	3	3	3	2
TOTAL (1-4)	73	76	56	73	83

5.7 Table 5 B: Indicators and outcomes – in absolute figures

Partner Countries	Conferences	Seminars	Training c.	Publications
1. CARDS - BP	63	110	137	154
- AL	2	2		
- BA	3	16	27	29
- HR	9	8	9	15
- MK	17	58	35	38
- ME	9	2	3	18
- SR	16	18	48	43
- KO (ex.)	7	6	15	11
2. TACIS – BP	28	77	60	83
- RU	17	52	45	39
- UA	10	20	5	28
- MD	1	5	10	16
- AM				
- AZ				
- GE				
- BY (ex.)				
3. TACIS - CA	16	66	36	54
- KG	5	23	17	18
- KZ	1	16	7	4
- TJ	3	13	9	5
- TM				
- UZ	3	10	3	26
- MN	4	4		1
4. MEDA total	27	44	28	47
A. MEDA - MAG	6	18	12	11
- DZ	5	5	10	2
- MA		3		4
- TN	1	10	2	5
B. MEDA - MAS	21	26	16	36
- EG	9	10		21
- JO	2		2	
- LB	1	1	1	1
- PS	1	2		3
- SY	8	13	13	11
TOTAL (1-4)	134	297	261	338

5.8 Table 6: Structural measures – main areas

Partner countries	TLA modern.	Governance modern.	University / HEI reform	National reforms	Promoting Bologna P.
1. CARDS – BP	47	19	24	21	29
- AL	2	1	2		2
- BA	7	1	3	8	6
- HR	8	4	2	4	8
- MK	16	7	8	2	5
- ME	2		1	3	2
- SR	7	4	6	3	4
- KO (ex.)	5	2	2	1	2
2. TACIS – BP	31	9	30	25	19
- RU	17	5	7	9	12
- UA	10	3	12	7	3
- MD	3	1	6	6	4
- AM			1	1	
- AZ			1	1	
- GE			2	1	
- BY (ex.)			1		
3. TACIS – CA	15	3	15	14	6
- KG	1	2	5	6	4
- KZ	4		5	2	1
- TJ	1		1		1
- TM	3		2	3	
- ZU	6	1	2	2	
- MN (ex.)				1	
4. MEDA - total	13	3	7	15	6
A. MEDA - MAG	6	0	1	6	2
- DZ	2			1	1
- MA	1		1	2	1
- TN	3			3	
B. MEDA - MAS	7	3	6	9	4
- EG	2	1	2	4	2
- JO	1	1			1
- LB	2		1	1	
- PS	1		1	1	
- SY	1	1	2	3	1
TOTAL (1-4)	68	33	42	49	40

5.9 Table 7: Structural measures – main themes

Partner countries	Degree struct.	ECTS DS	QA	QF - empl.	LLL	Recognition	Mobility
1. CARDS - BP	21	30	24	8	6	6	13
- AL	1	1	2				1
- BA	5	7	5				3
- HR	5	6	7	1	1	2	6
- MK	5	9	6			1	1
- ME				3	3	1	
- SR	3	4	1	2	2	1	1
- KO (ex.)	2	3	3	2		1	1
2. TACIS - BP	12	8	14	5	7	1	7
- RU	7	2	5	4	6	1	3
- UA	3	4	5				2
- MD	2	2	4	1	1		2
- AM							
- AZ							
- GE							
- BY (ex.)							
3. TACIS - CA	4	6	10	1	0	0	0
- KG	2	3	3				
- KZ			1				
- TJ	1	2	2				
- TM							
- UZ	1	1	3	1			
- MN (ex.)			1				
4. MEDA total	1	2	13	5	0	5	5
A. MEDA - MAG	0	1	5	2	0	3	3
- DZ			1			1	1
- MA			3	1		1	1
- TN		1	1	1		1	1
B. MEDA - MAS	1	1	8	3	0	2	2
- EG			3	1			
- JO	1	1	3			2	2
- LB			1				
- PS			1	1			
- SY				1			
TOTAL (1-4)	38	46	61	19	13	12	25

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TEMPUS

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ETF – European Training Foundation

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