

*New Papers*

*on Higher Education*

**9**

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*Meeting Documents*

**RECOGNITION OF STUDIES  
AND ACADEMIC MOBILITY**

International Congress Proceedings

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The Division of Higher Education of the UNESCO Secretariat produced, during 1983-1989, thirty-six titles in the series *Papers on Higher Education* (a complete list of titles appears on the last page). From 1990, this series continues in a new form *New Papers on Higher Education* with two sub-titles: one, *Studies and Research* and the other, *Meeting Documents*.

Other studies in the series *New Papers on Higher Education, Meeting Documents*:

1. *The Role of Higher Education in Society: Quality and Pertinence*. UNESCO-Non-Governmental Organizations 2nd Collective Consultation on Higher Education, Paris, 8-11 April 1991. ED-91/WS-23 (English/French).
2. *Research on Higher Education in Developing Countries: Suggested Agendas and Research Strategies*. Final Report. UNESCO-University of Pittsburgh. Forum of Experts on Research on Higher Education, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA, 17-19 March 1991. (English only) ED-91/WS-29.
3. *Experts' Meeting on the Integration of International Education into Higher Education*. Tunis, 21-25 September 1991. Final Report. (English only) ED-92/WS-3.
4. *La gestion universitaire dans des contextes socioculturels différents*. Rapport de la Table Ronde, Conférence internationale sur l'éducation, Genève 1992. (French only) ED-92/WS-16.
5. *The Management of International Co-operation in Higher Education*. Proceedings of the 3rd UNESCO-NGO Collective Consultation on Higher Education, Paris, 9-11 December 1992. (English/French) ED-93/WS-14.
6. *Higher Education: Capacity-building for the 21st Century*. Proceedings of the 4th UNESCO-NGO Collective Consultation on Higher Education, Paris, 26-28 September 1994. (English/French). ED-95/WS-9
7. *Training Handbook and Reference Guide for Evaluators of Educational Qualifications, Credentials and Academic Documents*. Prepared by Arunas J. Alisauskas. UNESCO, 1995. (English only) ED-95/WS-12
8. *Séminaire sur l'évaluation d'études étrangères pour fonctionnaires dans le domaine des équivalences et de la reconnaissance académique professionnelle*. Préparé par M.W. Cox, Nuffic, La Haye. Pays-Bas. UNESCO, 1995 (French only) ED-95/WS-17

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## NOTE BY THE SECRETARIAT

Since 1947 UNESCO has collected information and carried out studies aimed to promote academic mobility and to facilitate the international comparison of studies and qualifications obtained at the level of Higher Education. Between 1969 and 1981 nine titles were published in the series 'Studies on the Evaluation of Qualifications at the Higher Education Level'. The first two editions of the *World Guide to Higher Education* were part to this series. In parallel, UNESCO has developed a normative action which resulted in the adoption, in the 70's and early 80's, of five regional and one international Conventions in this field. All together they were ratified by some 110 Member-States of the Organization. Moreover, the 27th session of the General Conference of UNESCO has adopted the international Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education (16 November 1993).

This normative action of UNESCO is supplemented by multifaceted activities implemented at several distinct levels international, regional and national and through a variety of means and mechanisms established for this purpose. Its operational 'modus vivendi' is assured through the regular sessions of the Regional Committees in charge of application of the above conventions and of their subsidiary working groups. Co-ordination of work at the international level is assured through the Joint Plan of Action adopted by the **International Congress on Academic Mobility and Recognition of Studies (UNESCO, Paris, 2-5 November 1992)**.

Amongst the priorities identified during the said international congress, special emphasis was placed on the importance of further efficient and effective collection and dissemination of data and information on academic mobility and the recognition of higher education studies and qualifications. To this end UNESCO has undertaken several important activities:

- it has produced '*Study Abroad* (28th edition) - a major international publication which provides information on scholarships and financial assistance, university-level courses, entry-level upgrading and short-term courses, training programmed extra-mural and other continuing education programmes, etc. in all academic and professional fields in 128 countries, valid for the years 1994 and 1995.

- in collaboration with the International Association of Universities, a comparative survey of systems, degrees and qualifications in 160 countries was carried out and the *World Guide to Higher Education* (3rd edition) was produced.

- it has produced *World Directory of National Information Centres for Academic Recognition and Mobility*. The *Directory* supplements the third edition of the *World Guide to Higher Education* in so far as it provides useful names and addresses of persons and institutions in charge of academic recognition matters.

- it has produced two training guides (*by Dr. Arunas Alisauskas and by Drs. Marianne Cox*) for evaluators of educational credentials with a view to enhance their professional capacity. These guides were elaborated as a follow-up to the training workshops conducted by the above experts during the international congress on academic mobility and recognition of studies (Paris, 2-5 November 1992).

The present publication of the *Proceedings of the International Congress on Academic Mobility and Recognition of Studies (UNESCO, Paris, 2-5 November 1992)* contributes to the accomplishment of the objectives fixed by the congress. Materials selected for this volume are presented in the language of their origin. It is expected that this publication will meet the interest of various experts in the field of academic mobility and recognition and will promote the visibility of UNESCO's current and future action in this important area. Finally, I would like to thank all those individuals and authorities in Member States who made possible the success of the congress for their valuable contribution to on-going international discussion on this important issue in the field of higher education.

Dimitri Beridze  
Editor  
Division of Higher Education

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*The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this Handbook do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.*

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# PROGRAMME OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON RECOGNITION OF STUDIES AND ACADEMIC MOBILITY

Paris, 2 - 5 November 1992

## I. Objectives and Agenda of the Congress

According to UNESCO statistics, the number of students at the tertiary level grew from 28.2 million in 1970 to 47.5 million in 1980, and stands at over 65 million at present. For the world of education, the second half of the 20th century will remain in history as the period of the highest and most rapid expansion of higher education.

Parallel to this spectacular growth, we have also been witnessing also an increasing trend towards the internationalization of higher education: the number of students pursuing higher education abroad, according to the same UNESCO statistics was, in 1990, around 1.2 million, representing a 27% increase over 1980 and approximately 2% of the total number of students. There is a close interdependence between international mobility in higher education and the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in the sense that the latter is both required by and facilitates mobility.

In keeping with the provisions of its Constitution which emphasize as one of the main functions of the Organization "to maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge... by encouraging education, science and culture", UNESCO initiated, soon after its foundation in 1946, a number of activities meant to promote international co-operation in higher education and to foster academic mobility. Action in this field has constantly ranked high in the UNESCO Programmes throughout the almost 50 years of its existence.

As a means to promote the international mobility of students, UNESCO has included in its earliest programmes, measures aimed at facilitating the comparison and mutual recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education. Six regional conventions have been signed under the auspices of UNESCO. They have been ratified by over 90 Member States.

In keeping with the Programme of the Organization, adopted by the General Conference at its 26th session in 1991, UNESCO has convened an international congress devoted to the interrelated issues of international mobility and the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education.

The aim of the International Congress on Recognition of Studies and Academic Mobility is threefold (a) to take stock of UNESCO's past work in this field; (b) to launch an international dialogue on the issues involved and (c) to initiate new activities meant to promote international mobility and to facilitate the recognition of higher education studies and qualifications at the international level.

Several major activities will take place during the Congress:

1. Forum for discussions on three major topics of utmost interest to policy makers, academics and various international organisations - both governmental and non-governmental - which are active in the field of higher education.
  - (a) International Mobility in Higher Education and the Brain Drain
  - (b) Quality Assurance in Higher Education and the Recognition of Studies
  - (c) The Recognition of Skills and of Acquired Experience and Qualifications.
2. Training Workshops for people responsible for evaluating higher education credentials.
3. Meetings of the Regional Committees responsible for the application of the six conventions on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education adopted under the aegis of UNESCO. The six Regional Committees will also hold a joint meeting in order to adopt a common Work Plan for future action.
4. Progress report on UNESCO's work for the elaboration of a universal instrument for the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education.

The scheduling of these activities is indicated in the Time-Table below.

## **II - Time-Table**

### **November 2**

- 10.30            Opening Plenary Session (Room II)
- Opening of the Congress by Mr Colin N. Power, Assistant Director-General for Education.
- Presentation by the UNESCO Secretariat of the organization of the work during the Congress and of the various other events which will be held on the same occasion.
- Election of the Bureau of the Congress (Chairperson, three vice chairpersons, rapporteur).
- 11.00-11.30        Coffee break
- 11.30-12.30        Key-note address by the Director-General of UNESCO: Higher Education at the Cross-roads: New challenges and new hopes for international co-operation.
- November 2 a.m.** Plenary session (Room II)
- 15.00-17.30        International Mobility in Higher Education and the Brain Drain  
Debates will take the form of a panel discussion, with the participation of:
1. Prof. Thomas Odhiambo, President African Academy of Science
  2. Peter Williams, Director, Education Programme, Commonwealth Secretariat
  3. Prof. Horacio Menano, Director, Gulbenkian Institute of Science, Portugal
  4. Representative of the World University Service (to be confirmed)
- 17.00-17.30        Coffee Break
- 17.30-19.00        Continuation of discussions



**November 3 a.m.** Plenary Session (Room II)

9.00-11.00: Quality Assurance in Higher Education and the Recognition of Studies (Accreditation, evaluation practices, establishment of internationally recognized standards for teaching and training programmes in higher education leading to the practice of professions). Panel discussion, with contributions by:

1. Dr André Staropoli, Secrétaire général, Centre national d'évaluation des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel, France

2. Dr Marjorie Peace Lenn, Executive Director, Council on Quality Assurance in International Education, Washington, USA

3. Dr Iulian Beju, Director, Ministry of Education and Science, Romania

4. Dr Milton Granados, Secretary, Universidad Nacional Abierta, Caracas, Venezuela

11.00-11.30: Coffee break

11.15-13.00 Recognition of Skills and of Acquired Experience and Qualifications.

Discussants:

1. Dr. J. Winternitz, Director, Policy and Review, National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition, Dept. of Employment, Education and Training, (NOOSR), Australia

2. Mr Jacques Lopatka, Chief of the Geneva Office for Latin America, International Organization for Migration, Switzerland

**November 3 p.m.**

15.00-16.30: Parallel Training Workshops (in English and French) for evaluators of higher education credentials

English workshop conducted by Mr Arunas Alisauskas,  
Registrar, Mount Royal College, Calgary, Canada (Room IX)

French workshop conducted by Ms M.W. Cox, Expert on  
Educational Qualifications from French-speaking countries,  
Netherlands organisation for international co-operation in higher  
education (NUFFIC), Netherlands. (Room VI)

16.30-17.00: Coffee break

17.00-18.00: Workshops continued

18.00-19.00: Plenary session (Room II)

Inter-regional Co-operation in the field of recognition of  
higher education credentials

Presentation by the UNESCO Secretariat of proposals for the  
Joint Work Plan of the Regional Committees

World list of national information bodies responsible for  
international mobility and recognition matters.

Proposals for the adoption of a Diploma Supplement to facilitate  
the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education

IAU/UNESCO Information Centre on Higher Education  
Presentation by Ms Claudine Langlois, Director of the Centre, of  
the activities and resources of the Centre in support of the  
exchange of information and facilitation of recognition of studies  
and qualifications.

**November 4 a.m. and p.m.**

Meetings of the Regional Committees for the application of the  
six conventions on the recognition of studies, diplomas and  
degrees in higher education adopted under the auspices of  
UNESCO (Each Regional Committee will meet according to its

own agenda and time-table. (Congress participants which are not members of these committees, may attend, as observers.)

(Room V - Asia Committee

Room VI - Mediterranean Committee and Arab Committees

Room VII - Latin America and Caribbean Committees

Room IX - Europe Committee

Room VIII - Africa Committee)

**November 5 a.m.** Plenary Session (Room II)

9.00-10.30: Co-operation among the Regional Committees

Joint meeting of Regional Committees and of their Secretariats to discuss the Joint Work Plan.

Information by other intergovernmental organizations on instruments developed for the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education: Council of Europe, Commission of the European Communities, etc.

10.30-12.30: Coffee break

11.00-12.30: Progress Report on UNESCO's work for the elaboration of a universal instrument for the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education. (Report to be presented by the Rapporteur of the International Meeting of Experts convened by UNESCO to examine the text of a draft Universal Convention and a draft Recommendation. Paris, 29-30 October 1992)

**November 5 p.m.** Plenary Session

15.00-17.00 Closing address by Professor Pierre Cornillot, President, Université Paris Nord: Internationalization of Higher Education: why, how, with what means and for what purposes?

Synthesis of the debates of the Congress, presented by the rapporteur.

Closing of the Congress

### III - Congress Documents

A number of working, information and reference documents will be distributed to the participants upon arrival, namely

(a) Working Documents

- Contributions of the participants in the panel discussions on the three topics of the Congress (Available in the language in which they have been elaborated by authors, English or French)
- Training materials for the Workshops for higher education credentials evaluators;
- World Directory of National Information Bodies responsible for mobility and recognition matters.
- Proposal for a Diploma supplement, aimed at facilitating the mutual recognition of studies and qualifications of higher education;
- Proposal for up-dating the new (Third) edition of UNESCO's publication: World Guide to Higher Education;
- Presentation of the IAU/UNESCO Information centre on Higher Education and its activities aimed at facilitating the exchange of information and the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education.

(b) Information and Reference Documents

- Bibliography on international mobility and the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education, prepared by CEPES
- Statistical data on foreign students, prepared by the statistical office of UNESCO
- Accreditation and Quality Assurance in Higher Education institutions, prepared by CEPES

Other UNESCO publications and documents relevant to the topics of the Congress will be on display and will be available for the participants upon request.

**PROPOSALS FOR THE JOINT WORK PLAN  
OF THE SIX REGIONAL COMMITTEES  
FOR THE APPLICATION OF THE CONVENTIONS  
ON THE RECOGNITION OF STUDIES, DIPLOMAS  
AND DEGREES OF HIGHER EDUCATION**

I. CONSIDERATIONS

1. One of the aims pursued by UNESCO in organizing the International Congress on Recognition of Studies and Academic Mobility, is to give a fresh stimulus and a truly international dimension to activities in this field. Until now, and more particularly so after Committees for the application of the Regional Conventions have been set up in all regions, this activity, in the form of meetings, studies, recommendations, and information exchange has addressed problems mainly at the regional level.

2. However, it is common knowledge, corroborated by statistical data, that international mobility in higher education takes place predominantly at the inter-regional level. Work started by UNESCO, following the decision of the General Conference to examine the feasibility and desirability of an international instrument on recognition matters, has indicated that there is considerable interest of Member States in broader-based international co-operation in this field.

3. One of the ways for UNESCO to approach the issue of recognition matters at the international level is to develop co-operation among the Regional Committees in charge of the application of the six Conventions on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education adopted under its aegis. Such co-operation is specifically mentioned in the texts of the Conventions and has been discussed at all sessions of the Committees. Furthermore, the General Conference at its 26th session in 1991, invited the Director-General to "support the development of closer co-operation between the Regional Committees of the existing conventions through exchanges of information, the undertaking of joint activities, the organization of joint meetings, etc." Requests were made to UNESCO - which assures the Secretariat of the Committees - to examine the possible ways and means for translating this decision into reality.

4. It is with these purposes in mind that UNESCO has supported the decision of the Regional Committees to meet together at UNESCO Headquarters in what, it is hoped, is the first of a series of joint meetings and the beginning of a common

action programme. This first joint meeting of all six Regional Committees, to be held on November 5, 1992 (morning session, Room II ), is therefore called upon, on the one hand, to take stock of progress made thus far in inter-Committees co-operation but more particularly so, to discuss the needs, the ways and the means by which this co-operation could be further strengthened and could be rendered more practically oriented and more efficient.

5. In order to provide an input to the discussion on these issues, the Secretariat has reviewed the proceedings of the previous meetings of all six Committees and has analyzed the decisions taken in regard to the issue of co-operation among them. On the basis of the common core of problems, on which the Committees have expressed their desire to work together, the Secretariat has identified a number of areas and modes of action in which and through which the Committees might wish to adopt a Joint Work Plan.

## II. DRAFT JOINT WORK PLAN OF THE REGIONAL COMMITTEES

6. The proposals below indicate first the areas concerning the recognition of studies and qualifications in connection to which joint action is considered both necessary and possible, and, secondly, a number of concrete activities to reach the desired objectives are listed, with explanation as to how they could be implemented. Needless to say that the proposals concerning the areas of joint action and the concrete activities are tentative. It is for the Regional Committees, to decide which of them to retain what others could be added, and how they could best be implemented.

### **Joint Action One: Exchange of Information and Documentation among the Regional Committees and Mutual Participation in their Meetings**

7. All Regional Committees have indicated at their past meetings that better mutual information on their activities is particularly important and should be pursued systematically. Until now, information exchange has been limited mainly to the final reports of the Regional Committee meetings. Mutual attendance of each others' meetings has not been possible, mainly because of the financial implications.

8. The Regional Committees might wish to consider the following lines of action in this field:

(a) to strengthen and improve information exchange among themselves, by sending not only final reports of their meetings but also various other documents and materials which they might develop, and to urge the UNESCO Secretariat to play an active role in facilitating this exchange;

(b) to assure mutual representation at the meetings of the Regional Committees in the most economical way, namely through those Member States which have adhered to other Regional Conventions than the one concerning the region to which they belong. For this purpose, it is important to increase the efforts of the Regional Committees in order to encourage Member States to make use of the provision existing in all Regional Conventions which allows them to adhere to more than one Convention;

(c) to organize, periodically, joint meetings of the Regional Committees in order to examine the experience gained in the implementation of the Joint Work Plan and to decide on future activities.

**Joint Action Two: Inter-regional Co-operation among the National Information Centres for the Recognition of Studies and for Academic Mobility**

9. All Regional Conventions stipulate the setting up of national information bodies (or the use of already existing ones) as the basic mechanisms for the application of their provisions. The Regional Committees have systematically pursued this objective and, as a result, such bodies exist already in a fairly large number of states. However, progress in this field differs from one region to another, as indicated by the World List of National Information Centres for Academic Recognition and Mobility prepared by UNESCO for this Congress (Doc. ED-92/CONF.208/3).

10. The activities to be pursued jointly by the Regional Committees and by their Secretariats in relation to the national information Centres might be directed towards:

(a) encouraging those Member States which have not yet set up national information bodies to do so, and to support them in this undertaking;

(b) promoting co-operation among these bodies not only at the regional and subregional levels, but also at the interregional one;



(c) establishing links with other international governmental and non-governmental organizations which are active in the field of academic recognition and mobility so as to make joint use of such bodies and centres, thus avoiding duplication.

The UNESCO Secretariat will keep the World List of National Information Centres constantly up-dated and will assure its wide dissemination.

**Joint Action Three: Inter-regional Training Activities for Personnel in charge of the Application of the Regional Conventions**

11. The training of national officers in charge of the application of the Regional Conventions has been another major concern of the Regional Committees. Some of them have organized training workshops and have elaborated training materials. In order to complement and reinforce these actions, UNESCO is organizing during the Congress two training workshops on the evaluation of credentials in higher education.

12. In keeping with the decision of the General Conference of UNESCO, adopted at its 26th Session, future activities may include the further development of training packages and modules and the production of guides for the training of those in charge of the application of the Regional Conventions.

**Joint Action Four: Development of Capacities for Information Gathering, Processing and Dissemination to Facilitate the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education**

13. All Regional Committees have pointed out that the major obstacle to the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education at the regional level - let alone the international one - is lack of information on the national systems of higher education and on individual institutions (duration and content of studies, quality of programmes, fuller details on the nature and level of diplomas, degrees and other certificates, etc.). The Regional Conventions stipulate that the recognition of foreign studies and qualifications should, to a large extent, be based on mutual confidence in the quality of higher education in the countries concerned. Confidence, however, necessarily implies affirmative action by the national authorities in charge of higher education and by the higher establishments themselves to assure quality through evaluation and accreditation mechanisms. It is therefore particularly important to develop facilities for the collection, assessment

and dissemination of information on the quality of higher education studies and qualifications, in order to facilitate their international recognition.

14. The Regional Committees might wish to consider the usefulness of the following concrete activities, to be developed for the purposes mentioned above and to adopt measures for their implementation:

(a) Diploma Supplement. The Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees of Higher Education in the countries belonging to the Europe Region, has examined the need for providing additional information to the diplomas, degrees and the certificates issued by various institutions of higher education and has developed for that purpose, a Diploma Supplement. The nature of the information to be provided in this supplement and the views expressed by various Member States and institutions where it has been experimented on a pilot basis are presented in a separate document which is distributed to the Congress participants (Doc. ED-92/CONF.208/4).

Other Regional Committees have expressed interest in the Diploma Supplement. It proposed that the Regional Committees should recommend to the National Information Centres and to the institutions of higher education, to use the Diploma Supplement in order to obtain additional information for the evaluation of foreign credentials. After a period of experimentation in as many institutions and in as many regions as possible, the Diploma Supplement might become a useful instrument for recognition purposes, if it acquires general recognition;

(b) Preparation and Dissemination of Lists of Approved Higher Education Establishments. The continuous diversification of higher education - whether institutional (i.e. university vs. non-university, or "public" vs. "private") or in terms of programmes and courses of studies or of diplomas, degrees and other certificates which testify the completion of full or partial studies has led to the need of valid attestation in order to gain international recognition. In practically all countries of the world, there are mechanisms, structures and bodies responsible for the evaluation and accreditation of institutions and programmes. The Regional Committees might wish to recommend to Member States, as a step towards building up the confidence in the quality of higher education institutions everywhere, to prepare and to make known the list of approved institutions of higher education, which are recognized by the competent authorities in the respective country as bona-fide institutions at the tertiary level of education.

(c) The World Guide to Higher Education This UNESCO publication produced in co-operation with the International Association of Universities (IAU), has won international recognition as a useful source of information for recognition purposes. UNESCO is preparing now the 3rd edition of the publication. It is proposed to the Regional Committees to assist jointly in up-dating and improving the contents of this publication. The relevant document (Doc. ED-92/CONF.208/5) which is at the disposal of the participants, indicates the manner in which such assistance could be provided.

The Regional Committees may also wish to recommend to the Secretariat to examine, together with the International Association of Universities, ways to assure the optimum complementarity between the World Guide to Higher Education and the World List of Universities, produced by IAU.

(d) National Monographs on Higher Education Systems. Several Regional Committees have underlined the usefulness of monographs on national systems of higher education for recognition matters. In order to assure the comparability of the information they contain, a standard format has been elaborated for the monographs produced thus far in the Europe Region and in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean. The Regional Committees might wish to recommend that concerted efforts are made by them, in co-operation with the Regional Centres, Offices and Bureaux of UNESCO, with the national authorities in charge of higher education, with the NGO's and with various Centres of Research on Higher Education, in order to produce monographs on as many national systems as possible, and to assure their distribution interregionally.

(e) Bibliography on the Recognition of Studies and on International Mobility. Literature devoted to recognition of studies and to academic mobility is growing at an exponential rate. It is of utmost importance for those involved in these matters - decision makers and practitioners, as well as researchers - to be informed about and to have access to results of research in this field. Copies of an international bibliography produced by the UNESCO European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES) are distributed to the participants in the International Congress and in the Regional Committees meetings (Doc. ED-92/CONF.208/Ref.1). The Regional Committees might wish to recommend to the Secretariat to pursue its efforts in keeping the bibliography constantly up-to-date and to disseminate it to those interested.

(f) List of Bilateral and Multilateral Agreements on Inter-university Co-operation. The Regional Committees might wish to undertake with the support of

their Secretariats and in close co-operation with the higher education NGO's, the national rector's conferences and other appropriate bodies, a systematic cataloguing of bilateral and multilateral agreements established among universities in various parts of the world. Programme UNITWIN launched by UNESCO, provides a good framework for implementing this task, particularly in view of the fact that it is aimed at reinforcing both inter-regional (North-South, East-West) and regional South-South co-operation in higher education. Moreover, provisions are made in the UNITWIN programme for monitoring and evaluation, thus allowing the Regional Committees to have information on the efficiency of various agreements.

(g) Use of the Resources of the IAU-UNESCO Information Centre for Higher Education for the Purposes of the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications; Development of Capacities for Information Gathering, Processing and Dissemination at the Regional Level.

The implementation of activities such as those mentioned under (a)-(f) above presuppose the existence of well established information centres which are equipped to handle the tasks at hand. At the international level, UNESCO has established, in co-operation with the International Association of Universities (IAU), a Joint IAU-Information Centre on Higher Education. The Director of that Centre will present to the Regional Committees and to the Congress participants the major activities in progress and the ones intended for the future. The Regional Committees might wish to request the Secretariat to make fuller use of the resources of the Centre for facilitating the recognition of studies and qualifications.

At the regional level, the UNESCO Bureaux, Offices and Centres of Education, of which two are specifically dealing with higher education (CEPES for the Europe Region and CRESALC for Latin America and the Caribbean) are also engaged in activities in this field, in their capacities as Secretariats of the Regional Committees for the six Conventions. The Regional Committees might wish to recommend to the UNESCO Secretariat, to pursue, in close co-operation with other intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, the development of capacities for the collection, processing and dissemination of information at the regional and subregional levels, themselves based on the existence of such capacities at the national level.

**Joint Action Five:** Undertaking of Research Aimed at Facilitating the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications of Higher Education

15. In addition to the exchange of comprehensive and valid information, the complexity of the issues involved in the international recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education call for in-depth research on certain issues about which not enough is known at present. The three topics proposed for discussion at this Congress, namely:

- International Mobility in Higher Education and the Brain Drain;
- Quality Assurance in Higher Education and the Recognition of Studies;
- The Recognition of Skills and of Acquired Experience and Competencies;

are examples of areas which require a more careful examination on a comparative basis. Other areas might concern particular certificates, diplomas and degrees (such as the secondary-school leaving certificates, the higher education diplomas and degrees, including the doctorate).

The Regional Committees might wish to recommend the undertaking of research on these and other issues, for the purposes of facilitating the recognition of studies and qualifications.

### III. FINANCIAL RESOURCES

16. The members of the Regional Committees are certainly aware of the fact that the implementation of the activities to be included into a Joint Work Plan require proper funding in order to be effective, efficient and, therefore credible and useful. The problem of funding should therefore be addressed by the Regional Committees, as intergovernmental bodies, simultaneously with the possible adoption of a Joint Work Plan. The tendency in the past has been to rely mainly on the financial resources of UNESCO which provides the Secretariat of the Regional Committees. UNESCO support will certainly be continued, but it is far from sufficient.

17. The following lines of action are put forward as possible ways to assure the financial means for the implementation of the Joint Work Plan:

- (a) UNESCO should continue to make budgetary provisions in its Regular Programme and Budget for activities related to the application of the Conventions;

(b) Given the financial constraints of the Organization, further efforts will be made to build in complementarity between the overall programme of the UNESCO in the field of higher education and those activities related to mobility and the recognition of studies and qualifications;

(c) Member States and NGO's of higher education may have recourse to funds foreseen under the Participation Programme of UNESCO, for activities related to recognition matters, by submitting requests for that purpose and by giving them high priority so that they stand a good chance of being approved;

(d) The closest possible co-operation and co-ordination of activities related to recognition matters should be sought with the various IGO's and NGO's which are active in the field, so as to share resources and to avoid duplication of work whenever consensus is reached that such activities are of common interest and could better be implemented jointly;

(e) The Regional Committees may appeal to the States which have ratified and/or signed the Convention to provide intellectual and material support to international co-operation in this field;

(f) A similar appeal might be made to various intergovernmental organizations, agencies and foundations, to which concrete proposals of activities needing their support could be submitted.

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The Secretariat wishes once again to underline as a conclusion, the tentative nature of the proposals made in this document. The experience gained by the Regional Committees is particularly rich and diverse; it will certainly lead to the improvement of the above proposals. Also, the other participants in the Congress are invited to express their views on the document, to make proposals of their own, and more importantly, to cooperate in the implementation of foreseen activities.

## "DIPLOMA SUPPLEMENT"

The evaluation of a university degree or diploma for purposes of international academic recognition requires, as a rule, additional information about the duration, content and assessment of the studies leading to it. Several factors have combined to increase the importance of such additional information: the expansion of numbers, the multiplication of institutions, the diversification of course programmes, the decentralization of responsibility for recognition, and the great mobility within the higher education community world wide.

A proposal for a Diploma supplement (the word "diploma" is used in a wide sense, covering any type of "academic credential") which should contain the information needed to facilitate recognition has been elaborated in 1986-1988 through the joint efforts of CEPES, the Council of Europe and the Dutch National Academic Recognition Information Centre. After various consultations with higher education institutions and recognition experts, a draft was drawn up and tested at institutions of higher education in several European countries.

In September 1988, at its 4th session, the Regional Committee for the application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region adopted the proposal.

The Diploma Supplement (attached) comprises:

- data relating to the student's educational record,
- complementary general information relating to the awarding institution and the course programme followed,
- notes meant to guide the awarding institution in the preparation of the data above.

As the procedures of implementing the Diploma Supplement and the attitude towards it vary greatly from one country to another, an overview of the state of the implementation was carried out by CEPES in June 1992, in collaboration with the National Information Centres and the National Rectors' Conference in Europe.

Fourteen countries had reported to this inquiry before 5 September 1992. The inquiry indicates that there are divergent opinions as to the usefulness of the "Diploma Supplement". While a majority of countries, after pilot experimentation, have found such a document useful and have recommended its adoption by all higher education institutions, others (France, Belgium, Poland, Norway) have formulated reservations of substance and have put forward useful suggestions for its improvement. Yet others (Finland, Denmark, UK), have not taken any decision until now.

The idea of developing a "Diploma Supplement" has been discussed by the other Regional Committees as well. It is accordingly proposed to include it in the Joint Work Plan of the Committees. Regional Committees should recommend to the National Information Centres and to the institutions of higher education, to use the Diploma Supplement on an experimental basis, to assess whether it could be developed into a useful instrument for recognition purposes at the international level.



**PROPOSAL  
FOR UPDATING  
THE WORLD GUIDE TO HIGHER EDUCATION  
(Draft 3rd Edition)**

The World Guide to Higher Education is one of UNESCO's major publications in the field of Higher Education. The first two editions were produced in 1976 and 1982, respectively. The publication is intended to provide professionals whose job is to evaluate higher education qualifications with an overview of systems all over the world, presented in a comparable manner for each country and in each case with indications as to how to obtain more details on an individual system. It is also intended for policy-makers, researchers, comparative-education specialists, students and teachers.

The 3rd edition of the World Guide, as the previous ones, has been prepared for UNESCO by the International Association of Universities (IAU).

In most cases, the individual country chapters are based on material received from the national government and academic authorities. In some cases, chapters have, of necessity, been compiled from documentation existing in the IAU/UNESCO Information Centre of Higher Education.

The draft 3rd edition of the World Guide to Higher Education was compiled during 1989-1990, which was one of the periods of greatest political change in the world, and more particularly so in Europe over the last 50 years. This explains why, in the draft text, there are no entries for the newly-emerging states and in the case of many other states the information is out of date. UNESCO wishes to finalize the publication as quickly as possible. For that purpose, it requests the participants in the present Congress to assist it, as follows:

- 5 copies of the draft text will be available for consultation at the Congress; one for each of the five regions covered by the Regional Conventions;
- a copy of the entry related to each participant's country will be distributed to each delegation;
- each participant is asked to kindly examine the entry and, in consultation with the appropriate authorities in the respective country, provide an updated text by 21 December 1992 at the latest. This should be sent to the Director, Division for

Higher Education, UNESCO, 7 place de Fontenoy, 75007 Paris, France, fax no. + (33-1) 44 49 99 18. Your co-operation is greatly appreciated.

The World Guide to Higher Education, which contains data on higher education systems, is complemented by the World List of Universities, giving information on individual institutions. The future development of these companion volumes will be a major task of the IAU/UNESCO Information Centre on Higher Education.

## **WORLD LIST OF NATIONAL INFORMATION CENTRES ON ACADEMIC RECOGNITION AND MOBILITY**

All regional Conventions on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education adopted under the auspices of UNESCO, include provisions requesting Member States to set up national bodies to be responsible for matters related to their application. According to these provisions, the national information bodies should have at their disposal the necessary means to collect, process and file information of use for recognition purposes. The importance of broader exchange of information between Regional Committees and of the national bodies has been emphasized and recognized by all Regional Committees as major factors in the efficient and global application of the Conventions

The progress made so far in the very complex task of setting up national bodies or strengthening existing ones is considerable. Over 100 countries have established such bodies and centres. This is a clear indication of the fact that the majority of Member States have felt the need for the existence of a national structure serving a double role: to provide information to interested institutions and individuals on mechanisms relative to the recognition of studies and degrees, and to be the contact units for regional and international co-operation in the field.

In order to encourage Member States to set up national centres and to strengthen existing ones and also to promote further co-operation and exchange of information among the Regional Committees and the national bodies, the UNESCO Secretariat has taken the initiative to compile a World List of National Information Centres on Academic Recognition and Mobility. It includes basic information on their structure and functions, as well as technical information (address, telephone and fax numbers, etc.). In compiling the list, various tools for information gathering were utilized, such as questionnaires, reference sources and existing data bases. It includes entries from over 100 States. Also listed are a number of IGO'S and NGO's working in the field of higher education.

The World List does not claim to be complete. The distribution by regions of existing National Information Centres on Academic Recognition and Mobility included in the World List is the following: Europe, 40 (of which a

large number serve jointly the purposes of the Conventions adopted under the auspices of UNESCO, the Council of Europe and the Commission of the European Community), Africa, 23, Asia, 14, Latin America and the Caribbean, 23, Arab States, 8.

Ideally, the national information centres should function as a world-wide network, covering as many states as possible. The listing above indicates that although the number of states which have established national information centres is larger than that of those which have ratified the Regional Conventions, there is still a lot to be done in order to have such mechanisms in operation in all countries of the world. Moreover, the information about them should be complete and unitary.

It is with these purposes in mind that the Regional Committees are invited to consider the necessary steps in order to complete the World List in an appropriate way, reflecting the exact information on national bodies included in it. Copy of the entry for their country is placed at the disposal of the members of the Committees and the participants in the Congress who are requested to make any revisions needed, and to return the entry to the Secretariat no later than 21 December, 1992. Entries for countries which do not send their updated information in time will be listed as they appear in the present version of the List.

The Secretariat has put at the disposal of each Regional Committee a copy of the World List for easy reference.

# **FOREIGN STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION.**

## **Comparative statistical data for 1980 and 1990**

Prepared by: Section of Statistics on Education  
Division of Statistics

### **Introduction**

International student exchange plays an ever increasing role in higher education. Study opportunities offered to students away from their country of origin may help especially developing countries with limited resources, to train much needed high level manpower. On the other hand, developed countries tend to increase their mutual exchange of students; many of these countries have already implemented special student exchange programmes, one example of these being the ERASMUS programme of the European Communities.

UNESCO in keeping with its constitution has constantly regarded as one of its main functions "to maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge" by encouraging "the international exchange of persons active in the fields of education, science and culture. In order to keep track of development in this field, the UNESCO Division of Statistics has been for many years collecting on a regular and annual basis data on foreign students enrolled in higher education institutions. The data requested refer mainly to foreign students by sex and by country or region of origin.

For the purposes of this document, data on foreign students are presented for a certain number of regions or special groupings of countries within two major categories, i.e. developed and developing countries. Mention should be made of the fact that certain countries are included under both "Sub-Saharan Africa" and "Arab States", because they belong to these two groups.

### **Foreign Students in Higher Education**

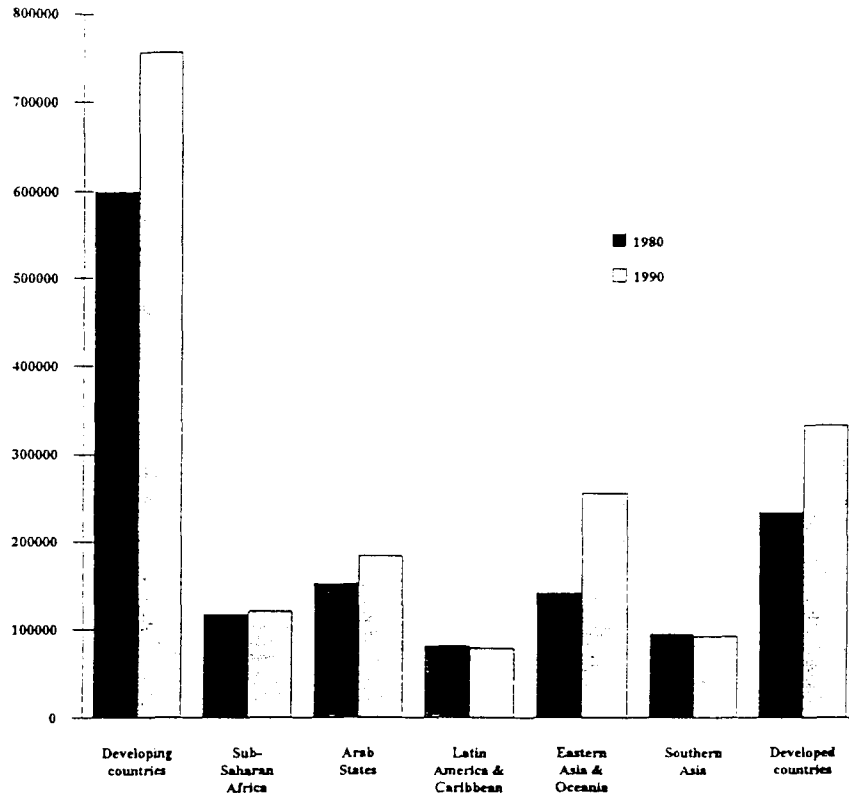
Table I shows data on 62 countries for which information on foreign students by country of origin was available in 1980 and 1990. These countries were a host to more than 95 per cent of the estimated total foreign students population in 1990.

It can be seen from the table that the number of students pursuing higher education outside their countries of origin increased by 29 per cent from 916 thousand in 1980 to 1 178 thousand in 1990. In both periods, these students constituted about 2 per cent of the estimated total enrolment in higher education. The largest number of foreign students came from developing countries (757 thousand in 1990), an increase of 26 per cent over 1980. Although students from developed countries were only 334 thousand in 1990, this was an increase of 42 per cent over 1980. Concerning the individual regions, the greatest increase was in Eastern Asia and Oceania which almost doubled the number of their nationals studying abroad during the periods under study. For Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean and Southern Asia, there was little difference during this period (see Figure 1).

Table 1 : Foreign students by region of origin, 1980 and 1990 ( 62 host countries)

Host regions		Regions of origin											
		World	Developing countries	Sub-Saharan Africa	Arab States	Latin America & Caribbean	Eastern Asia and Oceania	Southern Asia	Developed countries	Europe and ex. U.S.S.R.	Northern America	Asia and Oceania	Unspecified
World	1980	915859	599805	116713	152424	81681	141812	95964	234589	169541	37575	27473	81465
	1990	1177583	757040	120477	183927	79434	255943	93052	334036	237748	44328	51960	86507
Developing countries	1980	99837	81403	21943	45272	1920	7465	13398	5961	3537	1584	840	12473
	1990	104854	90595	27038	53966	2974	6542	8703	10647	6921	1622	2104	3612
<i>of which</i>													
Sub-Saharan Africa	1980	5375	4326	3871	667	22	13	25	382	366	14	2	667
	1990	4682	4558	4053	737	5	59	43	103	84	19		21
Arab States	1980	52158	42761	11386	37048	10	1848	1536	403	321	77	5	8994
	1990	53374	50127	12181	43095	73	1471	1313	293	225	61	7	2954
Latin America and Caribbean	1980	3919	3166	928	261	1784	153	25	315	190	112	13	438
	1990	6335	5718	2750	180	2619	93	73	502	358	132	12	115
Eastern Asia and Oceania	1980	10547	7210	624	205	48	2409	3962	2985	1110	1158	717	352
	1990	13017	8822	1468	1887	220	3521	1876	4173	1134	1170	1869	22
Southern Asia	1980	17179	14999	4257	2756	3	3015	5182	500	291	157	52	1680
	1990	13108	12447	5820	4668	36	1357	2747	413	212	159	42	248
Developed countries	1980	815793	518195	94565	107152	79761	134347	82566	228606	165982	35991	26633	68992
	1990	1072729	666445	93439	129961	76460	249401	84349	323389	230827	42706	49856	82895
<i>of which</i>													
Europe and ex. U.S.S.R.	1980	439978	231040	58410	62789	31185	37098	26275	152657	129201	16599	6857	56281
	1990	573609	330705	73406	106099	31207	56432	37038	213585	181670	21643	10272	29319
Northern America	1980	357931	271933	35843	40541	48300	87133	55627	73979	36262	18461	19256	12019
	1990	442716	290310	19664	23647	44608	150169	45960	106136	48035	19397	38704	46270
Asia and Oceania	1980	17884	15222	312	3822	276	10116	664	1970	519	931	520	692
	1990	56404	45430	369	215	645	42800	1351	3668	1122	1666	880	7306

Figure 1: Foreign students by region of origin, 1980 and 1990 (62 host countries)





## **Host Regions**

The distribution of foreign students by host regions is also presented in Table 1. Developed countries received approximately 91 per cent of the total number of foreign students in 1990, a slight increase over 1980. During this period, the developed countries of Europe and the former U.S.S.R. hosted about 48 per cent of the foreign students; Northern America received about 38 per cent of these students during the same period. As for the developed countries of Asia and Oceania, the number of foreign students in these countries more than tripled from 18 thousand in 1980 to 56 thousand in 1990. As it concerns the developing countries, the Arab States hosted the largest number of foreign students (more than 50 per cent of all foreign students in developing countries during 1980 and 1990).

## **Inter-regional Mobility**

These data can also be analysed by inter-regional mobility (Table 2). More than 60 per cent of the foreign students in developed countries were from developing countries in both 1980 and 1990. Students from East Asia and Oceania had the largest proportion, i.e. about 17 and 23 per cent in 1980 and 1990 respectively, followed by those from Arab States (12 per cent in 1990). For the remaining developing countries, the percentage distribution were: Sub-Saharan Africa (8.7 per cent), Southern Asia (7.0 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (7.1 per cent).

The number of foreign students in developing countries increased by about 5 percentage points from nearly 100 thousand in 1980 to 105 thousand in 1990. It should be noted, however, that only 10 per cent of these students were from developed countries in 1990 which was in itself a slight increase over 1980.

## **Intra-regional Mobility**

The movement of students between countries of the same region has an important role especially in developed countries where certain projects have been agreed on the exchange of students between these countries. It can be seen in Table 1 that of the 334 thousand foreign students from developed countries 323 thousand or 97 per cent went to other developed countries. The majority of these students were from Europe and the former U.S.S.R. who went to other countries within this region; within the European Communities, Greek students who went to study

in Italy and the former Federal Republic of Germany as well as the Spanish and Portuguese students who went to France and the former Federal Republic of Germany. In the East bloc countries, most of the foreign students in these countries went to the former U.S.S.R.. Northern America received a third of total foreign students from developed countries, the majority of whom came from Europe and the former U.S.S.R.. Students from Northern America tended to go to the United Kingdom, the former Federal Republic of Germany and France. Within the Northern America group, more Canadian students went to the United States.

Table 2 : percentage distribution of foreign students by region of origin, 1980 and 1990 ( 62 host countries)

Host regions		Regions of origin											
		World	Developing countries	Sub-Saharan Africa	Arab States	Latin America & Caribbean	Eastern Asia and Oceania	Southern Asia	Developed countries	Europe and ex- U.S.S.R.	Northern America	Asia and Oceania	Unspecified
World	1980	915859	65.5	12.7	16.6	8.9	15.5	10.5	25.6	18.5	4.1	3.0	8.9
	1990	1177583	64.3	10.2	15.6	6.7	21.7	7.9	28.4	20.2	3.8	4.4	7.3
Developing countries	1980	99837	81.5	22.0	45.3	1.9	7.5	13.4	6.0	3.5	1.6	0.8	12.5
	1990	104854	86.4	25.8	51.5	2.8	6.2	8.3	10.2	6.6	1.5	2.0	3.4
<i>of which</i>													
Sub-Saharan Africa	1980	5375	80.5	72.0	12.4	0.4	0.2	0.5	7.1	6.8	0.3	0.0	12.4
	1990	4682	97.4	86.6	15.7	0.1	1.3	0.9	2.2	1.8	0.4	0.0	0.4
Arab States	1980	52158	82.0	21.8	71.0	0.0	3.5	2.9	0.8	0.6	0.1	0.0	17.2
	1990	53374	93.9	22.8	80.7	0.1	2.8	2.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.0	5.5
Latin America and Caribbean	1980	3919	80.8	23.7	6.7	45.5	3.9	0.6	8.0	4.8	2.9	0.3	11.2
	1990	6335	90.3	43.4	2.8	41.3	1.5	12.1	7.9	5.7	2.1	0.2	1.8
Eastern Asia and Oceania	1980	10547	68.4	5.9	1.9	0.5	22.8	37.6	28.3	10.5	11.0	6.8	3.3
	1990	13017	67.8	11.3	14.5	1.7	27.0	14.4	32.1	8.7	9.0	14.4	0.2
Southern Asia	1980	17179	87.3	24.8	16.0	0.0	17.6	30.2	2.9	1.7	0.9	0.3	9.8
	1990	13108	95.0	44.4	35.6	0.3	10.4	21.0	3.2	1.6	1.2	0.3	1.9
Developed countries	1980	815793	63.5	11.6	13.1	9.8	16.5	10.1	28.0	20.3	4.4	3.3	8.5
	1990	1072729	62.1	8.7	12.1	7.1	23.2	7.9	30.1	21.5	4.0	4.6	7.7
<i>of which</i>													
Europe and ex- U.S.S.R.	1980	439978	52.5	13.3	14.3	7.1	8.4	6.0	34.7	29.4	3.8	1.6	12.8
	1990	573609	57.7	12.8	18.5	5.4	9.8	6.5	37.2	31.7	3.8	1.8	5.1
Northern America	1980	357931	76.0	10.0	11.3	13.5	24.3	15.5	20.7	10.1	5.2	5.4	3.4
	1990	442716	65.6	4.4	5.3	10.1	33.9	10.4	24.0	10.9	4.4	9.7	10.5
Asia and Oceania	1980	17884	85.1	1.7	21.4	1.5	56.6	3.7	11.0	2.9	5.2	2.9	3.9
	1990	56404	80.5	0.7	0.4	1.1	75.9	2.4	6.5	2.0	3.0	1.6	13.0

**Table 3: Major host countries of foreign students**

Host Countries	Number of foreign students 1980	Number of foreign students 1990	% Change	Foreign students as % of total enrolment, 1990
United States	311882	407529	30.7	2.9
France	110763	136015	22.8	8.0
Germany:				
Former German Dem. Rep.	7106	13343	87.8	3.0
Former Germany, Fed. Rep.	61841	107005	73.0	5.9
United Kingdom	56003	70717	26.3	6.0
Former U.S.S.R.	62942	66806	6.1	1.2
Canada	32303	35187	8.9	2.6
Belgium	12875	33335	158.9	12.3
Australia	8877	28993	226.6	6.0
Japan	6543	23816	264.0	0.9
Switzerland	15515	22621	45.8	16.4
Italy	27784	21416	-22.9	1.5
Austria	12885	18434	43.1	9.0
Saudi Arabia	14298	12408	-13.2	8.1
Syrian Arab Republic	6276	12309	96.1	6.7
India	14710	11759	-20.1	0.2
Spain	10997	11051	0.5	0.9
Holy See	9104	10938	20.1	-
Sweden	10401	10650	2.4	6.1
Egypt	21751	10176	-53.2	1.3

**Major Host Countries, 1980 and 1990**

Table 3 presents data on countries which received more than 10 thousand foreign students in 1990.

It can be seen that the United States, France, the former Federal Republic of Germany, United Kingdom and the former U.S.S.R. together received about 788 thousand foreign students in 1990, representing 67 per cent of the total foreign students in that year (see Table 1). During this decade, the 5 countries have been the largest recipients of foreign students. The rest of the countries shown in Table 3 received between 10 and 35 thousand foreign students during 1990.

Table 3 further shows the percentage change of foreign student intake between 1980 and 1990. These changes can be summarized as follows:

- Australia and Japan more than doubled the intake of foreign students in their countries.

- The number of foreign students in Belgium increased by almost 160 per cent.
- In the 5 major host countries, foreign students increased by between 23 per cent (in France) and 73 per cent (in the former Federal Republic of Germany).
- The most significant decreases during the two periods were in Egypt (53 per cent), Italy (23 per cent), India (20 per cent) and Saudi Arabia (13 per cent).

Data on Table 3 are further analysed in terms of foreign students expressed as a proportion of total enrolment in higher education for the corresponding countries of study, in 1990.

This information shows that:

- About one in ten of the students enrolled in higher education in Belgium and Switzerland was foreign. Several countries had a significant proportion of foreign students in their institutions of higher learning; these countries included: Austria (9 per cent), France and Saudi Arabia (8 per cent), Syrian Arab Republic (about 7 per cent), Sweden, Australia and the United Kingdom (6 per cent).
- Although the United States received the highest number of foreign students (407529), these students represented only about 3 per cent of total enrolment in this country. Other host countries with a low proportion of foreign students are: the former U.S.S.R. (1.2 per cent), Japan and Spain (0.9 per cent), Italy (1.5 per cent) and India (0.2 per cent).

#### **Foreign Students in Major Host Countries by Region of Origin, 1990**

Table 4 presents data on 19 major host countries which received more than 10 thousand foreign students in 1990 distributed in percentage by region of origin.

These data can be analysed as follows:

- In 12 host countries, the majority of the foreign students were from developing countries. More than 90 per cent of these students in Egypt, Syrian Arab Republic, India and Saudi Arabia were from developing countries. In the remaining 8 countries, students from developing countries were between 54 per

cent in the former Federal Republic of Germany and 87 per cent in the former U.S.S.R..

- In 5 of the 19 countries, the majority of the students were from developed countries, ranging from 53 per cent in the Holy See to 74 per cent in Switzerland. It should be noted that in Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Syrian Arab Republic students from developed countries were less than one per cent of total foreign students enrolled in these countries.

- In Belgium and Spain, students from developing countries represented the same percentage as students from developed countries (between 45 and 50%).

The distribution by region of origin shows that:

- The largest proportion of foreign students in the former U.S.S.R. and India were from Sub-Saharan Africa. However, in actual numbers, France received the highest number of African students in 1990 (29 thousand) as against 17 thousand for the former U.S.S.R. and India and Egypt had each more than 5000.

- The highest percentage of foreign students in Syrian Arab Republic, Egypt and Saudi Arabia were from the Arab States, but the largest number of Arab students were in: France (59 thousand), United States (21 thousand and the former U.S.S.R. (16 thousand).

- The largest proportion of foreign students in Spain was from Latin America and the Caribbean. However, in absolute figures the United States hosted 42 thousand of the students from this region as against 3000 in Spain.

- Japan and Australia followed by the United States and Canada enrolled the largest proportion of the students from East Asia and Oceania; in absolute figures, the United States had the highest number of students from this region (136 thousand) in 1990.

- 20 per cent of the foreign students in India, 2000 in absolute figures, came from Southern Asia; the largest number of students from this region, 44 thousand, was enrolled in the United States.

Table 4: Foreign students in major host countries and percentage distribution by region of origin, 1990

Major Host Countries	Total foreign students	Developed countries	Developing countries	or which:	(19 countries)					Not Specified
					Sub-Saharan Africa	Arab States	Latin America & Caribbean	East Asia & Oceania	Southern Asia	
U.S.A.	407 529	24.0	64.9		3.9	5.1	10.3	33.4	10.7	11.2
France	136 015	24.1	75.6		20.3	43.3	4.1	4.9	2.5	0.3
Former Germany, F.R.	107 005	43.1	53.6		3.2	5.1	3.6	12.3	11.4	3.3
United Kingdom	70 717	41.1	56.9		10.9	6.7	3.2	27.4	5.7	2.1
Former U.S.S.R.	66 806	13.3	86.6		26.1	23.6	12.3	15.0	11.0	0.0
Canada	35 188	24.2	73.4		11.0	7.6	7.4	39.6	6.8	2.3
Belgium	33 335	48.4	48.3		18.7	19.6	2.9	2.8	1.1	3.3
Australia	28 993	6.1	70.0		0.7	0.2	0.2	66.3	2.5	23.9
Japan	23 816	7.6	92.4		0.6	0.7	2.5	86.3	2.1	0.1
Switzerland	22 621	73.5	18.2		2.9	4.0	4.0	2.9	1.8	8.3
Italy	21 416	61.5	31.3		4.9	11.3	3.3	0.4	8.8	7.3
Austria	18 434	66.2	31.8		2.1	3.9	1.9	5.2	8.6	2.1
Saudi Arabia	12 408	0.5	91.9		12.4	70.3	0.0	5.1	7.4	7.5
Syrian Arab Rep.	12 309	0.7	97.8		7.2	94.0	0.5	0.4	1.6	1.6
India	11 759	3.4	94.5		46.6	32.9	0.3	10.7	20.5	2.1
Spain	11 054	45.2	49.0		5.0	12.0	29.3	1.3	1.4	5.8
Holy See	10 938	53.0	36.3		8.6	1.8	14.5	4.2	5.5	10.7
Sweden	10 650	64.1	31.3		2.8	2.1	4.8	3.1	15.1	4.6
Egypt	10 176	0.3	99.1		50.8	93.9	0.0	3.8	0.4	0.6

# FINAL REPORT OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON RECOGNITION OF STUDIES AND ACADEMIC MOBILITY

## INTRODUCTION

1. In accordance with the provisions of its Constitution which emphasize as one of the main functions of the Organization "to maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge... by encouraging education, science and culture", UNESCO initiated, soon after its foundation in 1946, a number of activities meant to promote international co-operation in higher education and to foster academic mobility. Action in this field has constantly ranked high in the UNESCO programmes throughout the almost 50 years of its existence.
2. As a means to promote the international mobility of students, UNESCO has included in its earliest programmes, measures aimed at facilitating the comparison and mutual recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education. Six regional conventions have been signed under the auspices of UNESCO. They have been ratified by over 90 Member States.
3. In keeping with Programme of the Organization, adopted by the General Conference at its 26th session in 1991, UNESCO has convened an international congress devoted to the interrelated issues of international mobility and the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education.
4. This took place at UNESCO Headquarters, Paris, from 2-5 November 1992 and was attended by 186 participants representing 84 Member States and non Member States and 17 IGOs and NGOs.
5. The Assistant Director-General for Education, Mr. Colin Power, welcomed the participants and emphasized the importance of the issues to be discussed within the overall theme and outlined the aims of the Congress, namely: (a) to take stock of UNESCO's past work in this field; (b) to launch an international dialogue on the issues involved and (c) to initiate new activities meant to promote international mobility and to facilitate the recognition of higher education studies and qualifications at the international level.
6. The Congress participants proceeded to the election of its Bureau in the following composition: Mr. Roger Héberlé (Canada) Chairperson, Mr. Gregorio



Reyez Vasquez (Venezuela), Mr. Fawzi Abdel Zaher Khamis (Egypt) and Mr. Ananivi Djamessi Doh (Togo) as Deputy Chairpersons, and Dr. Judith Winternitz (Australia) as the Rapporteur.

7. The Programme and time-table of the Congress were then adopted, as proposed by the Secretariat. They were consisted of:

(i) Discussions on:

International Mobility in Higher Education and the Brain Drain;

Quality Assurance in Higher Education and the Recognition of Studies;

The Recognition of Skills and of Acquired Experience and Qualifications.

(ii) Training Workshops for those responsible for evaluating higher education credentials.

(iii) Meetings of the Regional Committees responsible for the application of the six conventions on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education adopted under the aegis of UNESCO. The six Regional Committees also held a joint meeting in order to adopt a common Workplan for future action.

(iv) A Progress Report on UNESCO's work for the elaboration of a universal instrument for the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education.

8. The keynote address was delivered by the Director-General of UNESCO, Prof. Federico Mayor whose remarks stressed the close relationship between academic mobility, including the recognition of studies, and international co-operation in higher education. Mr. Mayor strongly emphasized the need to stimulate greater exchange of knowledge and know-how. This becomes increasingly urgent if the problems of sustainable development are to be reduced. Thus, the twin goals should be the proper management of mobility and the stable growth of expertise in contexts where this is sorely lacking. This is vital, as the brain-drain remains a grave problem for higher education and efforts must continue to resolve it.

Theme 1: INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE BRAIN DRAIN

9. Discussions on Theme 1 were introduced by the following speakers:

Professor Thomas Odhiambo, President of the African Academy of Sciences, who strongly emphasized the negative effects of the brain drain on the development of capacities in training and research which are prerequisites for sustainable human development.

Peter Williams, Director of the Education Programme at the Commonwealth Secretariat who has referred to academic mobility as part of a wider phenomenon of social and economic exchange and also to the increasing demand for tertiary education which is associated with employment and personal progress. In this respect, the conflict between individualism and community membership is exacerbated.

Tangeni Iijambo, a Namibian graduate who has recently completed advanced studies abroad, presented his viewpoint and experience as an African whose high level qualifications may now be used for the development of his homeland.

Dr. Horacio Menano, Director of the Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciencia, Portugal, analysed efforts to assess the current intellectual migration in Europe due to the recent socio-economic and political factors in the region. It is urgent to devise measures to ensure the maintenance of excellence while still permitting the principle of mobility.

Dr. Harrel Bond of Oxford University pleaded for the cause of the growing refugee population whose personal plight includes the loss of livelihood and the ordeal of retraining in order to find their place in a new society.

10. The debates pointed out the need to further research on the brain-drain, its direct and indirect linkages to mobility issues, its sources, consequences and possible ways and conducive conditions to resolve this problem through co-operative efforts among Member States. Recommendation in this regard has been addressed to UNESCO, requesting the latter to follow reflection and action on the brain-drain, through its research agenda, co-operation mechanisms with NGOs on higher education, and more importantly using the frame of UNITWIN Programme and UNESCO Chairs Scheme as a new tool in rapid transfer of knowledge to the universities in the developing countries, main victims of the phenomena of brain-

drain. A proposal to set-up a working group by UNESCO looking closer to this issue came as well.

Theme 2: QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE RECOGNITION OF STUDIES

11. Discussions on this topic were introduced by the following three speakers:

Dr. André Staropoli, Secretary-General (Centre national d'évaluation des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel, France) who said that in France an evaluation of higher educational institution is based on the principle that the university, as a public institution, has to carry out its mission in a local, national and international context. In the course of the evaluation process, both quantitative and qualitative criteria were applied. However, from the point of view of quality assurance priority should be attached to qualitative considerations.

Dr. Marjorie Peace Lenn, Executive Director, Council on Quality Assurance in International Education, USA, has started her presentation by pointing out that internationalization of many aspects of economic and cultural relations, among others, implies that education also becomes international. "Exportation" and "importation" in higher education is a part of this development. Thus, problems such as those related to quality assurance are essential and should be dealt with in the international context. She has stressed that "UNESCO plays a critical role" in the internationalization of the activities to be carried out by various international bodies and non-governmental organizations.

Dr. Iulian Beju, Director, Ministry of Education and Science, Romania, has focused his contribution on present situation in Eastern and Central Europe with regard to quality assurance in higher education, with a particular reference to Romania. He stressed numerous problems with this regard due to:

- lack of strategy for evaluation, reflecting new conditions in which higher education presently functions in this region;
- rapid diversification in the institutional structure of higher education in the region, which character has both "horizontal" aspects, e.g. expansion and contraction of institutional network, emergence of private institutions of higher education as well as "vertical" aspects, e.g. development of various study programmes, new opportunities for teaching and research personnel.

In the above context, the development of the quality assurance as well as those of accreditation standards and procedures should become an integral part of the strategies for restructuring the higher education in the region. It has become evident that accumulated international experience is an important starting point for a development for each country in the region of the adequate and specific own policy measures. Consequently, UNESCO, in collaboration with other organizations, can play an important role by facilitating the whole process of co-operation.

12. A discussion which has followed these presentations had only reinforced this last observation by indicating that the need for a greater international co-operation in assuring the quality of higher educational institutions and academic work is one of the issues facing higher education everywhere. In addition, some discussants pointed out the essential role played by the "buffer" organizations in the process of external and internal evaluation, professional and institutional accreditation, as well as the development of the quality assurance standards and procedures.

### Theme 3: THE RECOGNITION OF SKILLS AND OF ACQUIRED EXPERIENCE AND QUALIFICATIONS

13. UNESCO's six Regional Conventions on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees have introduced the concept of skills recognition related to the acquisition of knowledge. For this purpose, when defining partial studies, various Conventions have referred to periods of study or training, which although not constituting a complete course of study, are such that they add significantly to the acquisition of knowledge or skills.

14. Discussions on this topic were introduced by two speakers: Dr. Judith Winternitz from a National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR), Department of Employment, Education and Training at Canberra, Australia and by Mr. Jacques Lopatka, Chief of the Geneva Office for Latin America at the International Organization for Migration (IOM).

15. Dr. J. Winternitz highlighted the role of the national Office of overseas skills recognition in competency development in Australia, aimed to improve the skills recognition process by encouraging professions to develop national competency standards as a basis for assessment of professionals, including those from abroad. She stressed the fact that her country is currently in a process of transition from the traditional educational arrangements for assessment and certification to the new ones focused on industry skill requirements. In this context, relationship between university and industry becomes vital for society.

16. Mr. J. Lopatka has spoken on European graduates in Latin America, and IOM's role and action in the provision of information on the professions required from Europe and to be employed in Latin America. A policy of matching offers with demands and solid scrutiny of candidates personal files, exhaustively reflecting their basic training, acquired experiences and skills have permitted to OIM to achieve a high rate of acceptance of European graduates in Latin-American countries.

#### TRAINING WORKSHOPS

17. Two training workshops for evaluators of higher education credentials have been conducted by Mr. Arunas Alisauskas Registrar, Mount Royal College, Calgary, Canada and by Ms. M.W. Cox, expert on educational qualifications from French-speaking countries, representative of the Netherlands organization for international co-operation in higher education (NUFFIC). Both animators have presented a number of transparencies dealing with such issues, as authentication of the academic documents presented, their evaluation and estimation of academic equivalence and their recognition, as a practical application of the academic credential evaluation. An issue of recognition and accreditation of educational establishments has been brought to the fora as well.

18. Participants have been asked to evaluate above workshops, which were considered as a very useful tool, permitting to resolve through an interactive approach a number of practical problems faced by credential evaluators in their everyday work.

#### JOINT WORKPLAN

19. The last day of the Congress has been devoted to the discussion on co-operation among the Regional Committees and to the progress report on UNESCO's work for the elaboration of a universal instrument for the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education.

20. To this end, the Secretariat has elaborated proposals for the joint Workplan of the six Regional Committees for the application of the Conventions on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education. When introducing this Plan to the Congress, it was underlined that a purpose of this undertaking was "to support the development of closer co-operation between the regional committees of the existing conventions through exchanges of information, the undertaking of joint activities, the organization of joint meetings, etc.", to which the Director-

General has been invited by the 26th session of the General Conference, held in 1991. Proposals from the Secretariat have been drafted along five major axes, indicating first the areas concerning the recognition of studies and qualifications in connection to which joint action deemed to be possible and secondly, listing a number of concrete activities, to reach the desired objectives. These five joint actions included:

- 1) Exchange of information and documentation among the Regional Committees and mutual participation in their meetings;
- 2) Inter-regional co-operation among the National Information Centres for the Recognition of Studies and for Academic Mobility;
- 3) Inter-regional training activities for personnel in charge of the application of the regional Conventions;
- 4) Development of capacities for information gathering, processing and dissemination to facilitate the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education;
- 5) Undertaking of research aimed at facilitating the recognition of studies and qualifications of higher education.

When presenting the above proposals, a problem of financial resources, and the need for further efforts to seek funds outside to the regular budget of UNESCO has been equally stressed by the Secretariat.

21. Six Committees have met together for the first time to comment the joint Workplan. Presidents of the six Regional Committees have reported to the plenary session that, after having discussed the joint Workplan in their respective meetings on November 4, this Plan has been commonly endorsed and adopted without modifications. The President of the African Committee has asked for detailed and costed regional project to be elaborated on the basis of the joint Workplan and assured the Congress that the Workplan will be sent to all contracting states in his region for observations and comments. The President of the Arab and Mediterranean Committees has appreciated, that training component of the Plan should be tackled with the financial input from Member States, while the President of the Latin-American Committee felt that training should be financed rather from UNESCO's regular budget. This latter Committee was favourable for the application of a proposed "Diploma supplement" in the region, while the President of the Asian Committee has expressed some reservations on this issue, as well as on the

proposed elaboration of a list of bilateral agreements in the field of recognition of diplomas, noting that this will be an extremely difficult undertaking, in particular at institutional level, in such a rapidly developing region as Asia.

22. Further to this discussion, representatives of two intergovernmental organizations, that of the Council of Europe and the Commission of European Communities have informed the Congress on activities and instruments developed by their respective organizations for the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education. Both organizations are active in developing information exchange and experimenting system for credit transfer in the evaluation of studies undertaken in their Member States. These activities have rendered possible due to the establishment of the national networks of information bureaux and centers, known as NEICS and NARICS. Recognition of studies is done from both academic and professional standpoints.

#### PROGRESS REPORT ON THE ELABORATION OF A UNIVERSAL NORMATIVE INSTRUMENT

23. The Rapporteur of the meeting of governmental experts, convened in order to examine the drafts of the Universal Convention and the Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education and in keeping with Resolution 1.15 of the 26th session of the General Conference of UNESCO (29-30 October 1992, UNESCO Headquarters) has reported to the Congress participants on the progress achieved by the above meeting in the efforts of the Organization to prepare an international standard setting instrument in the field of higher education.

24. A discussion which followed has manifested, according to the Chairperson of the Congress, a clear preference given by Congress participants to the Recommendation as the kind of an international instrument to address the recognition issues. A number of participants, mainly from the countries of European Communities, have expressed their reservation as to the mention of the "exercise of profession" in both draft normative instruments. Some participants have asked the Secretariat to assure translation of the texts of the Draft Revised Universal Convention and that of the Draft Recommendation into all official languages of the Organization before sending them to Member States for consultation. One participant expressed the view that major UNESCO initiatives in the field of higher education - Programme UNITWIN and UNESCO Chairs deserve to be mentioned in the preamble of both draft normative instruments, as new tools in encouraging academic mobility and transfer of knowledge. Another participant has underlined the necessity of inviting states non-members of UNESCO that have already ad-

hered to one or more regional conventions, to become parties of the above normative instruments. One more participant, while supporting the Convention, has taken note of the above reservations and asked the Secretariat to clearly differentiate proposals for decision on this issue, when preparing the document for the adoption by the 27th session of the General Conference.

25. In concluding debates on this topic, the Congress asked the Secretariat to pursue its work in this field in accordance with the Resolution 1.15 of the 26th session of the General Conference of UNESCO.

#### CLOSING SESSION

26. The last plenary session of the Congress has been marked by the closing address delivered by Professor Pierre Cornillot, President of the University Paris-XIII, who has shared with the Congress his reflection on the issue of the internationalization of Higher Education, its prospects and desirable and negative effects on the progress of knowledge.

27. The speaker has underlined the diversity of reasons for which the internationalisation of academic life is presently expanding. Individual and institutional educational and scientific interests are reinforced by stated national and transnational objectives. He emphasized that on an increasing degree, the ability of states to meet the challenges of growing international competitiveness in all field depends on high level human resources for advanced study and research and, consequently, on their higher education systems. He indicated that only those countries which have higher education system fully able to participate in international academic relations are well suited for the intellectual competition and co-operation on which the future so much depends.

28. Referring to the problem of the "brain-drain", which is perceived as one of the negative "side-effects" of internationalisation of higher education, Professor Cornillot attributed its alarming proportion greatly to the unbalanced situation in the world of science and higher education. He suggested that one of the possible ways to deal with this problem could be the further internationalisation of access to knowledge and technology, without massive movement of persons. He concluded his speech by pointing out that the reduction of inequalities cannot be achieved by application of the same solutions for the different situations.

29. After presentation of the synthesis of Congress debates by the Rapporteur, the representative of the Director-General, Mr. M.A. R. Dias, Director of the Division of Higher Education has expressed sincere thanks to participants, key-note



speakers for their valuable contribution and to the members of the Bureau for an effective conduct of the meeting and assured the distinguished audience that the Secretariat will do its utmost to implement the decisions adopted, especially activities foreseen by the joint Workplan. The Chairman thanked the Secretariat team for a good organization of a meeting and announced the closure of the Congress.

**ADDRESS**

by

**Mr FEDERICO MAYOR**

Director-General  
of the United Nations Educational,  
Scientific and Cultural Organization  
(UNESCO)

to the International Congress on Recognition of Studies  
and Academic Mobility

**HIGHER EDUCATION AT THE CROSSROADS: NEW  
CHALLENGES AND NEW HOPES FOR INTERNATIONAL  
CO-OPERATION**

UNESCO, 2 November 1992

Mr President,  
Distinguished Delegates,  
Ladies and Gentlemen,

It gives me great pleasure to be with you at the opening of this International Congress on the Recognition of Studies and Academic Mobility. We are very encouraged at the most positive response to our invitation to attend this meeting. I extend a very warm welcome, on behalf of UNESCO, to the distinguished participants from all regions of the world, and I can assure you that we shall pay the closest possible attention to the substance and outcome of your discussions.

The theme of this Congress is academic mobility and some of the practical ways in which it can be promoted. You will be considering the question of the recognition of studies, the validation of skills and experience acquired outside higher education systems, and standards and quality control in higher education. You will be examining in particular the functioning of UNESCO's six regional conventions in this field, the possibility of their committees adopting a joint plan of action, and the results of the meeting of intergovernmental experts held just before this Congress to review draft texts of a possible international instrument - a Universal Convention or Recommendation - as requested by UNESCO's General Conference at its twenty-sixth session.

I am conscious of the complex technical nature of many of the subjects you will discuss and I shall not presume to pre-empt the experts' discussions on these questions. However, the topic of your Congress is far from purely technical. The recognition of studies and, in particular, academic mobility touch upon some central issues for international co-operation in higher education. I should therefore like to take your conference theme as the point of departure for considering what are the challenges and hopes in this sphere, at a time when higher education is generally recognized to be at a crossroads worldwide.

The brain drain phenomenon is one of the main challenges for international co-operation in higher education, because it is symptomatic of so much else. The adverse effects of the brain drain on developing countries are well known. Africa has been particularly badly hit : UNDP's Human Development Report 1992 speaks of nearly one third of its skilled personnel having moved to Europe by 1987, of it having lost up to ~0,000 middle and high-level managers between 1985 and 1990. In Ghana, 60 % of doctors trained in the early 1980s are now abroad, while a large proportion of Sudan's professionals have left the country - as many as two-thirds of the total according to an ILO report. The Indian sub-

continent has also been greatly affected by this exodus of talent from the developing to the developed world - the scale of which may be gauged from the fact that over one million professional and technical immigrants from the developing countries were accepted in the US and Canada alone between 1960 and 1990. When all the sums are done and all allowances made for remittances sent home, for possible boosts to the world economy, for the level of graduate unemployment in the sending countries - this enormous outflow of skills and know-how has clearly contributed to the predicament of the developing countries, and in particular to the plight of the LDCs.

The same problem is now affecting in acute form the countries of Eastern Europe. While official figures are hard to come by, Moscow News speaks of 70,000 scientific researchers having left the former Soviet Union in 1989 as a result of the catastrophic decline in their economic, social and professional conditions. In 1990 the Research Institutes of the ex-USSR Academy of Sciences is said to have lost over 500 of its high-level scientists, while every sixth Soviet emigrant was reportedly a scientist, engineer or doctor. In a different, but not-unrelated, sphere, one of Moscow's most prestigious orchestras - the Moscow Virtuosi - left the country to relocate semi-permanently in Spain. Attention has inevitably focused on the military and security aspects of the hemorrhage of brains from the former Soviet Union, but the wider implications of the depletion of one of the Union's great assets, its intelligentsia, are of the utmost seriousness. The same of course goes for other countries of the region.

The question must thus be asked, what is the likely impact of the promotion of the recognition of studies on this "reverse flow of technology" ? Is the promotion of recognition not actually conducive to the brain drain phenomenon ?

My answer to that question would be : only marginally and in the short term. The brain drain is clearly part of a much wider phenomenon of international migration governed by interrelated economic, social and political factors. A large number of those involved in the brain drain phenomenon have in fact been educated in their own countries and their subsequent emigration has little to do with any formal recognition of studies. Clearly, study abroad is a contributory factor to the exodus of talent, since many students from the developing countries do not return home at the end of their courses. However, at a time when the cost of study abroad is increasingly prohibitive for students from the developing countries, the major determinant of such study is the availability of finance rather than the existence of reciprocal recognition agreements. Over time, broader international intellectual exchanges should stimulate an overall improvement in

the quality of higher education and help to remedy the situation that gives rise to brain drain, as well as facilitating the adoption of universal measures of quality.

I believe, then, that we are justified in separating the brain drain issue from the recognition of studies. This leaves us free to promote reciprocal recognition as a way of furthering worldwide knowledge creation and international understanding while at the same time addressing the more fundamental imbalances of which brain drain is the symptom - the quality gap between academic institutions in different parts of the world, and the wider economic and social asymmetries of which they are a part.

The grave socio-economic situation in many developing countries, particularly the LDCs, has had inevitable repercussions on their higher education systems. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, where average enrolments in third-level education represent only 10 % of the 18-23 age-group as compared with nearly two-thirds in North America, some institutions are in a critical state and most have experienced a dramatic decline in the quality of their teaching and facilities. The prospects for such systems are hardly very bright in the light of demographic trends, which suggest that the number of students worldwide seeking entry to higher-level education will rise from an estimated 65 million at present to some 120 million in 2010, most of them in the developing countries. Yet, in today's knowledge-intensive world, universities are one of the keys to the human development that can reverse the trend. The question, then, is how disadvantaged education systems can escape from the vicious circle in which they find themselves ?

One of the essential first steps - for which the countries and universities concerned must themselves assume the primary responsibility - is that of institutional reform and, particularly, adaptation. Quality and relevance must be the twin watchwords of the university today, in the developing world as elsewhere. Quality means firstly quality of teaching and research, and its corollary quality of learning, but also quality of management which has a crucial impact on the teaching/learning environment. Relevance means adaptation to social needs, breaking away where necessary from models that have encouraged curricular irrelevance, artificial divisions between subjects, imbalances in enrolments between the humanities and the sciences, and inappropriate orientation of research. It means making the university a lifelong centre for updating and training, a university with sound fundamental disciplines but also with a wide diversity of programmes, intermediate diplomas and bridges between courses. Relevance also implies opening up the university to society at large, cultivating closer teaching and research links with the worlds of business, industry, agriculture, journalism

and public administration. Greater involvement of the university in society could actually lead - especially in times of financial or political difficulty - to increased institutional autonomy, which is of course an essential requirement for quality of teaching and research.

The circumstances of institutions in many parts of the world make it difficult for them to achieve these objectives unaided. International co-operation has a vital role to play in the transfer of knowledge, the redistribution of centres of academic excellence and the general rehabilitation of universities in the less developed countries. A winner of UNESCO's Kalinga Prize for the popularization of science once remarked : "Science must be like the sun; it should shine for everybody". The universities, by virtue of their vocation, should be ready to assume a leading role in ensuring the universal dissemination of knowledge and in promoting the development of their fellow institutions worldwide. Through interuniversity co-operation, it should be possible to offset the trend towards excessive concentration of expertise and to achieve a wider international distribution of academic excellence through a "division of tasks" transcending national frontiers.

All this is not to neglect the role of competitiveness in the pursuit of knowledge. I have devoted too much of my time to research not to be aware of the important part it plays in academic - as in most - human endeavours. However, in this as in other spheres, I believe we cannot let our affairs be governed simply by the competitive laws of the market. International and regional solidarity must play a part in ensuring that, in a world which as Einstein said is fated to be "one or none", sustainable human development takes place everywhere.

The recently launched UNITWIN programme and UNESCO Chairs Scheme are specifically designed to mobilize international co-operation among universities in this area. UNITWIN is intended to develop university networking and other linking arrangements along North-South, South-South and East-West axes with the aim of promoting institutional development and facilitating the exchange of expertise and experience as well as staff and students. It links up, in the case of Africa, with the Priority Africa programme, which places special emphasis on university development. The UNESCO Chairs Scheme involves the creation, in partnership with universities and other appropriate bodies, of professorships enabling visiting scholars to provide the core expertise for the development of centres of excellence in key disciplines and fields related to sustainable development. An interlocking system of international chairs can provide an important boost to higher education within a given region and can, in particular, help to promote South-South co-operation, for example through the TCDC

programme of UNDP. The response to the UNESCO Chairs Scheme has been very favourable indeed and over 50 such Chairs have been or are in the process of being created throughout the world, testifying to the readiness of the academic community to contribute to the global development of higher education.

Appropriate academic mobility is indeed of the highest importance, not only for the enrichment of knowledge but also for its extension and redistribution. Recognition of studies at both the regional and interregional level has a vital role to play here, both in enabling students to use their qualifications on return to their home country and in facilitating technical co-operation within and among regional groupings. The challenge is to see that, in a world whose rewards and opportunities are so unequally distributed, mechanisms are put in place by receiving and sending countries alike to ensure that mobility is "managed" and that expertise returns more regularly to its place of origin to contribute to the overall development effort.

I have in mind here : linkage programmes - such as that promoted by ERASMUS in Europe - whereby students spend part of their course at a foreign institution; inducements by the sending countries to their nationals to return home on completion of their studies; the establishment of a system of compensation by the receiving to the sending countries for loss of human investment. It is also worth mentioning in this connection undertakings such as the International Centre for Theoretical Physics in Trieste, set up with UNESCO's help in the 1960s and recently brought under its administrative aegis, which organizes high-level research courses specifically directed to Third World scientists, who invariably return to their countries of origin on completion of their courses.

It has however to be recognized that such measures can never be more than palliative while the problems of poverty, disease, debt, adverse terms of trade and civil strife continue to plague so many countries in the developing world. Only when these problems have been effectively addressed by the international community will it be possible to have a decisive impact on Phenomena such as the brain drain.

Yet international co-operation in higher education, including promotion of the recognition of studies, is part of the solution. Your work thus has my full support as a valuable contribution to one of UNESCO's constitutional functions, namely to "maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge... by encouraging... the international exchange of persons active in the fields of education, science and culture". My support, though, carries with it one caveat : that your undertaking should not lead to more formalization and standardization of education systems.

It is of the greatest importance in my view that education systems should remain diverse, expressive of the variety of cultural identities and attuned to local realities and needs. By the same token, it is essential that systems should be national in their design, not based on foreign models. What is therefore required, particularly in the case of a universal instrument, is flexibility in both the provisions governing recognition of studies and in their application - flexibility to take account of diversity (which regional instruments have always insisted upon), of the requirements of lifelong education, and of new social needs such as the "eco-jobs" whose importance has been highlighted by UNCED. Such a goal will not be possible without a good measure of modesty and solidarity; it will not be achieved if almost every institution and system too readily claims for itself a status of excellence that it too reluctantly accords to others.

My final word on this score will be to recall a remark of Paul Valery, who once said : "degrees are the mortal enemies of culture". His observation doubtless embodies some rhetorical excess, but it does serve to warn us of the dangers of enshrining degrees in myth and to remind us that what matters is the knowledge and skills that learners take away from universities not the parchment or paper that degrees are inscribed upon.

But this you already know, and it is indeed at the heart of some of the technical questions you are about to discuss, in which endeavour I wish you well.



**CONTRIBUTIONS BY KEY-NOTE SPEAKERS**

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## "ACADEMIC MOBILITY AND THE BRAIN DRAIN"

by  
Peter Williams,  
assisted by Tangeni Iijambo\*  
Commonwealth Secretariat, London, UK

**\*Peter Williams is Director of the Education Programme at the Commonwealth Secretariat in London and is author of a number of books and articles on the international mobility of students. Tangeni Iijambo from Namibia is on attachment to the Commonwealth Secretariat having recently completed his studies in Education at the University of Bristol**

### ACADEMIC MOBILITY AND THE BRAIN DRAIN

The growth of personal and academic mobility in the twentieth century has brought many benefits. At the same time there is a reverse side of the coin, which is that countries and communities which have invested heavily in the education of their members have often been unable to benefit from the knowledge and skills produced. The problem is as 'old as the hills' and raises in stark form issues of the conflict between individualism and community membership, and between personal freedom and social responsibility.

The growth in academic mobility is part of a wider phenomenon of human and social mobility. Whilst the mass migrations of entire populations to empty lands is now largely an item of history, the movement of individuals in search of work and study opportunities appears to have increased manifold during this century.

There are several reasons why study abroad has so greatly increased. Inexpensive mass transport systems by air make movement swift and easy. The information and communications revolutions have made it possible for young people in one part of the globe to locate study opportunities abroad and to gain admission to an institution before leaving home. The demand for tertiary education, largely because of its association with employment and with social mobility, has escalated.

## Expansion of student mobility

At any one time there are now between one and one and half million internationally mobile students. UNESCO data for the fifty main host countries show something like one and a quarter million in total and if the census coverage was extended to the whole gamut of countries, the figure would doubtless rise to one and a half million or more. Very many more students than this are migrants, studying in countries where they were not born or where they did not receive their basic education.

Table 1 shows the overall increase in international student mobility as recorded in UNESCO's statistics. It will be seen that mobility has grown by about 200,000 students or 25% during the 1980s. This actually represents a much less rapid rate of increase than in the 1960s and 1970s. The slowing down of growth could be due to a number of factors including the imposition in some countries of high fees, the widening gap in leaving standards and costs between the wealthier countries and the poorer ones, and the difficult economic circumstances into which some of the previous major senders, like Iran and Nigeria, have fallen. Possibly the development of tertiary education provision at home in many countries has also served to reduce student outflow.

The principal host countries in 1988 were, as shown in Table 2, the United States, accounting for over 30% of the total, followed by France, the USSR and Germany. The main sending countries were China, Malaysia, Iran, Morocco, Greece, Korea, Japan, Germany, India and Hong Kong. These countries are mainly middle or high income countries apart from China (for which in any case the data includes Taiwan as well as mainland China) and India; in those two cases population size is obviously a factor of major importance in explaining the prominence as sources of students abroad.

On the whole the interest of students going abroad is in fields rather directly related to remunerative occupations - science and technology, business and administration outstandingly.

However, generalization is dangerous and global totals of international student mobility aggregate many distinctive national situations. One observes especially high concentrations of student interchange between countries which have been linked by history, language or culture. The outflow of students from Morocco to France, from Greece to Italy, from Malaysia and Singapore to Britain, from Hong Kong to Canada is substantial. In terms of

disciplines, too, one finds that North African students going to France for example exhibit a very different distribution of subject studies from say Indian students going to the United States.

Again, within the overall totals private student flows tend to have different profiles from managed mobility. Private students abroad are more likely engaged in undergraduate study and for a university degree or diploma: in contrast with the higher proportion of sponsored students on specialist postgraduate programmes, in some cases not leading to any recognized qualification. In the 1960s and 1970s the expansion of «managed mobility» was one of the major growth points. Governments and public service authorities sent many employees abroad at public expense to acquire qualifications judged to be urgently needed for the development effort. International assistance agencies awarded scholarships and fellowships to the same end. One may surmise that those who go abroad under managed mobility schemes are less likely to be part of the brain drain phenomenon than those who proceed abroad under their own steam as private students.

A further distinction is between long-term and short-term study. An interesting and encouraging phenomenon in wealthier countries is the growing popularity of study abroad as part of home-based courses. An increasing number of American students is spending a semester abroad, most frequently in Europe but sometimes too in Latin America, Africa or Asia as part of their studies for US-based qualifications. Recently the ERASMUS programme of the European Community has caught the imagination of educators and politicians, and is generating substantial flows of students for periods of a few months (one or two terms or semesters) in universities abroad.

Why has international student mobility expanded so much over recent decades when the domestic development of tertiary systems might have been expected to make developing countries more self-sufficient in higher education provision? The increase seems even more surprising when one considers the rising cost of living in those developed countries which are the main hosts, and the sharp fee rises which have taken place in the industrialised English-speaking countries of the Commonwealth.

It is clear that excess demand at home remains one of the major "push" factors impelling young people to seek study opportunities abroad. There are various dimensions to this. In some cases there are insufficient undergraduate places available to absorb all the school leavers with qualifications to continue in higher education and the excess demand may spill over into study abroad if this can be afforded - as has happened in Malaysia and Hong Kong. In some develo-

ping countries the pressure of demand for university places locally is acute: a university commission in Zimbabwe in 1988 for example found that entry standards needed for admission to the University of Zimbabwe (through GCE 'A' examinations conducted by an examinations board based in Cambridge in England) had risen to a level equivalent to those required of British students entering UK universities.

In many countries there is a lack of opportunity for postgraduate specialisation in the domestic higher education system. Especially under programmes of managed mobility, a high proportion of those going abroad enrol for postgraduate study. The above factors obviously impinge most severely on small countries whose education systems inevitably lack specialised facilities. For their brightest students study abroad is not an option: it is a necessity if they are to develop their potential to the full.

The impetus to study abroad does not always come from absolute shortage of places locally. Another 'push' factor is disillusionment with the quality of facilities at home. This reflects general resource shortages in the libraries, laboratories and staffing of programmes. Sometimes the problem is frequent institutional closures and interruption to study programmes, provoked perhaps by social and political unrest among students.

So far, the reference has been to push factors of an educational nature. There are parallel factors of a social and political kind. For instance certain minority groups may actually suffer, or sense, discrimination in their home society and may wish to use study abroad as an insurance policy for the future, giving them a chance of migration in the longer term. Sometimes they have no option and are refugees forced to study abroad and willy-nilly to become part of the brain drain from their country of origin.

Many 'pull' factors complement the push factors discussed above. The high reputation of education and research institutions in the United States, Europe and Japan, and the international marketability of qualifications obtained there provide a major incentive for study abroad. These prestigious institutions in industrialised countries appear to control the agenda for international scholarship and often seem to be setting standards for the rest of the world. There is the attraction too of living as a student in an industrialised country where most of these highly regarded institutions are situated, and of directly experiencing the cultural influences which have so profoundly affected the rest of the world.

Added to this are the active measures which host universities and colleges themselves take to recruit abroad. They may for educational reasons seek to internationalise their campuses, aspiring to create a genuinely plural student community. They may have more self-interested economic and financial motives, desiring to boost institutional income. Today the phenomenon of international offices and student recruiters has become commonplace, students being actively sought out by private universities or by public institutions that appear to operate what is in effect a private subsidiary company for overseas student business.

Such are some of the pressures on individuals and institutions which boost international student mobility. They operate within the broader context of a general interest in internationalisation and against the background of an increasingly unified world economy and the proliferation and growth of international organisations. Pressures for regional economic groupings are making the economically autarkic nation state even less viable than before. Better international communications and cheap air travel moves events in the same direction of facilitating mobility. There is increasing specialisation of scientific and intellectual labour and effort, with the frontiers of knowledge being pushed back in many institutions. There will always be a desire to study the latest techniques and ideas in places where clusters of eminent academics have done outstanding work. Intellectual autarky would be an even more unrealistic aim than economic autarky.

#### The bright and the dark side

In summary international student mobility is part and parcel of the contemporary world and plays an important functional role in the working of the late-twentieth century global society and economy. It contributes to the internationalisation of society, promotes links between countries and is conducive to the promotion of understanding and the sharing of values. It is a vehicle for the transfer of knowledge and technology from one country to another. The international recognition of academic credit in particular is liberating for the individual student and opens up possibilities of professional and career development. Many small countries can only survive if they are able to draw on the international pool of science and technology: they have limited possibilities themselves of generating new knowledge or applied technologies.

And yet there is a dark side to the picture of international academic mobility which is that countries and institutions can be drained of their brain power and their stock of skills. It may well happen that a country which has invested in twenty years of education for its young people may not directly benefit from their

productive capacities. The physicist, statistician, engineer and artist may all qualify at home but then sell their skills abroad and retain the income for themselves and their families. The seriousness of the situation is particularly evident in those countries suffering from economic difficulties and whose currencies are not convertible; particularly those which adjoin countries with convertible currencies. Thus the university teachers of Zambia will gravitate to Botswana, Namibia and South Africa; school teachers from Ghana will seek posts in The Gambia; high-level manpower in Guyana sets its sights on jobs in Barbados, Canada and the United States. Sometimes even enrolment in higher education at home is seen primarily as an escape route to greener pastures overseas.

### The Brain Drain

The term 'brain drain' tends to be used rather loosely. It has generally referred to the long term migration abroad of those who have been the subject of considerable investment by their own society. The term incorporates the notion of a transfer of skills and knowledge from countries of origin of skilled personnel to the country of present work.

There is no doubt that the problem is a major one, and here just a few examples will have to suffice. D'Oliveira e Sousa suggested in a 1989 OECD publication that gross flows of skilled migrants from developing to receiving developed countries over the 1961 to 1983 period was over one million. It has been claimed that more than half of the physics and chemistry students from Africa in the United States in the 1960s never returned to Africa, and that there are 70,000 Africans trained in Europe who have remained there: and yet there are 100 000 expatriate technical assistants working in Africa, more than when African countries gained their independence. Two thirds of Sudan's professionals are calculated by ILO to have left the country and more than half of Uganda's high level manpower. The University of Zimbabwe had a 30% vacancy rate in 1992: in Makerere University Uganda the rate was 48%. The transfer of highly qualified people from India during the period 1970 to 198~ has been given a capital value of around \$51 billion for those going to the US, \$13 billion to Canada and \$3 billion to the UK. we are clearly talking of very large numbers indeed.

In this paper we are considering brain drain not only as a phenomenon in itself, but especially in terms of its links to study abroad. It is important to recognise that the study abroad is not the sole cause of brain drain: many highly educated persons seek work in another country without having previously been to school or college there.

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1. See Reginald Appleyard (ed.) (1989). The impact of international migration on developing countries. Paris Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. The article by J d'Oliviera e Sousa on The Brain Drain issue in international negotiations is one of several relevant to this subject.

2. We are indebted to William S Saint of the World Bank for these examples.

Nor is brain drain a problem affecting only developing countries. In fact it is said to have been coined first by the Royal Society in Britain when discussing the outflow of British skilled personnel to America. There are complaints in European nations that skilled scientists, technologists and engineers are choosing to migrate, or are being 'lured' away, to North America by higher salaries and better living conditions. In Britain for example there are periodic outbreaks of 'brain drain fever'.

Every few years the scientific community, parliament, the press become agitated about the emigration of prominent individual scientists, or of whole university research teams, to North America. Very often such discussions, whether in Britain or elsewhere, overlook the simultaneous importation from country 'A' of scientists, businessmen, medical staff and others into the very society from which the brain drain to country 'Z' is so much deplored.

There is a number of quite different situations where countries suffering from emigration loss of their own qualified citizens are importing others. The balancing inflow is not always importation from less developed countries. The poorest developing countries are sometimes losing their own 'brains' but bringing in highly qualified 'brains' from the more developed countries, through technical co-operation arrangements and the mechanism of multinational firms, to replace them. A problem with this exchange is the high level of international salaries, and the payment of all kinds of fringe benefits on top. In the last resort the repayment obligation often falls on the local economy.

The Gambia represents an example of a country obliged by external assistance donors to put ceilings on public sector pay budgets as part of structural adjustment packages. This makes public sector jobs unattractive to qualified Gambians who migrate. The technical assistance donors then provide foreign personnel to perform jobs that Government cannot fill partly because of pay restraints imposed by the international community. The unit cost of the technical assistance is vastly more expensive than the payments that might be necessary to keep qualified Gambians in post.



Thus while in theory the international economy works on the basis of market prices to allocate labour and other resources, in fact it is characterised by segmentation of labour markets which contain enclaves of non-competitive labour markets. The indigenous doctor, computer systems specialist or geologist who goes abroad would very likely stay at home if he or she could be paid the salary and conditions of the international expert who is provided under technical assistance to fill the gap thus left.

#### Two contrasting schools of thought

Some would deny that brain drain is a real cause for concern. They would argue that mobility of skills is an entirely normal characteristic of an emerging one-world community, a community of which all human beings are citizens. The nation state is an anachronism and each individual should have the right to study, work and live in any other country. Country of origin has no claim on a person. In any case the working of the market will ensure that the contribution educated persons working abroad make to the world economy will bring real if indirect benefits to their own country of origin. Free movement of skills is no more harmful than free movement of goods through trade, or freedom to invest financial resources abroad. Everybody benefits if resources flow to the point where they contribute most in productive output and earn the highest return. And the proponents of this view will often add for good measure that if countries properly deployed and rewarded skills at home, the so called 'brain drain' would not occur.

Those holding the contrary view assert that states and communities do have some claim on their citizens' skills and earnings; having invested large sums in the education and health of young people, the state surely has a right to some return on the investment. Poor countries can't afford to subsidise the rich by educating the latter's work force. They also point out that in practice the system does not operate as a free market in labour, responding surely to price. Imported unskilled and semi-skilled labour is shut out of many industrialised economies by restrictive immigration laws: it is only the best brains that are admitted. At the same time international assistance programmes, with their tendency to use high-cost industrialised country resources in the form of fellowships and technical assistance experts, help to distort the market for skills.

This raises deep philosophical questions as to whether individuals 'belong' to their societies, and of the nature of their social obligations to the community which nurtured them. People will hold different views reflecting both their reli-

gious and philosophical beliefs and perhaps also their own personal and individual stake in the mobility question.

There are interesting parallels between skills and financial resources. Just as labour mobility may be judged 'good' in principle but may lead to brain drain, so convertibility of currencies appears generally desirable but can produce negative side effects. The free flow of money in response to market forces has been shown in recent weeks to be very destabilising to some major economies. Freedom of money transfers, freedom for individuals to disinvest in their own country, to hold funds in foreign bank accounts and to speculate against their own currencies, and self-interested decisions by individuals responding to 'market forces', may not always be conducive to the broader public good.

### **Links between study abroad and brain drain**

Brain drain is thus not confined to those who have studied abroad. In many cases highly skilled people only emigrate on completion of studies in their home country. For them, their work abroad is not linked to the intention to undertake study or training in the country in question. A high proportion of the movement of professionals between industrialised countries is doubtless of that kind.

On the other hand the potential for study and training abroad at undergraduate or postgraduate level to serve as the precursor of permanent migration is obvious. First, the very process of travelling abroad for study tends to open the students' eyes to the possibility of working elsewhere than home, to familiarise themselves with the host country's culture and to distance them from their own culture. Second, students make personal contacts abroad, possibly even marrying into the host society, making it more attractive to stay overseas. Third the very act of obtaining a foreign academic qualification may incline students to remain in the host country where the qualification receives readiest recognition. Fourth it is possible that the course content is so heavily biased towards host society institutions and conditions that foreign students' studies may render them less competent in relation to the problems and conditions of their society of origin. Finally the university or college abroad, or the government of the host country may make a deliberate effort to retain in their own system foreign students who have shown evidence of special ability.

Evidence on return home rates is hard to come by in the case of self-sponsored students. The Association of Commonwealth Universities carried out a tracer study in the mid 1980s on former holders of Commonwealth Scholarships, investigating whether students returned as intended by the programme, to

their own country to live after their award was completed. Among about 2 900 respondents it was found that 2 200 (76%) had returned home immediately on completion of their award period. Twelve percent had returned within another one to five years and two percent after five or more years. Nine percent had not returned home. The non-return rates were highest for those studying in Britain, New Zealand and Australia, and were comparatively low for those taking up scholarships in Asia and Africa. Not too much can be read into these particular results, given that the response rate was only about 30%, reflecting the difficulty of tracing individuals up to 25 years after holding their awards. Non-respondents would obviously include large numbers who could not be traced, in some instances having in fact permanently emigrated; as well as others who were traced but reluctant to disclose their non-return home.

One might hypothesise that sponsored students on award schemes are less likely to remain abroad than those proceeding abroad to study on a private basis. This is particularly likely to be true where students on awards schemes are sponsored by their home government having been selected for training to fill particular job slots; such persons may well be bonded to serve for a specified number of years. Trainees who have a known job back home could also be assumed to be more likely to return than younger persons at the outset of their career with more uncertain job prospects. It could also be assumed that students who proceed abroad leaving spouses and children behind at home are much more likely to go back to their home country than those who travel abroad as single persons. However, much of this is speculation that could only be tested and confirmed by further studies.

### **Causes of brain drain**

The causes of brain drain can be analysed at different levels. One can consider the motives which individuals have in remaining abroad. One can examine the underlying social and economic situations which make brain drain more likely. One can also look at the incidence of migration in relation to particular characteristics of groups and individuals.

Short-term individual motivations reflect the perceived advantages of mobility and disadvantages associated with the home society. Better economic opportunities are clearly a major factor in much brain drain. The opportunity to enjoy higher living standards for oneself and one's family, including better education and health facilities for spouse and children, represents a strong motivation.

This will be linked for many individuals with improved opportunities to pursue their professional interests and to specialise in a particular kind of work for which they feel suited. Those who come from less developed countries or from very small countries may find that the range of options open to them by way of career specialisation is limited. They may also find the facilities to apply the modern technologies with which they have become familiar in the course of their training are not plentiful in the country of their origin.

To the extent that the individual has family, cultural or religious ties with the host society the tendency to migrate permanently will be reinforced - an increasing number of people have a parent or spouse of a different nationality, or other personal ties to another country, and the likelihood of this increases as the world becomes more internationalised.

There are also 'push' factors at work. Any discrimination or persecution in the home society may impel individuals to 'escape' and seek to earn their livelihood elsewhere.

The underlying social and economic factors are bound up with differences in living standards and in availability of social and economic goods and services. In the contemporary world there is an evident flow of workers from countries with foreign exchange restrictions to those where it is possible to earn incomes which are convertible to goods desired at home. Some of these countries are developing countries and it should certainly not be assumed that the only beneficiaries of brain drain are industrialised countries in Europe and North America.

Clearly such factors as shared language and institutional heritage (as among Commonwealth countries to take an example), common ethnic backgrounds or religious traditions will all facilitate permanent mobility, as will the presence in the country of migration of large populations of the migrant's own ethnic origin.

### **Counter-measures**

Not every country wants to counteract brain drain. Citizens who go to live living abroad often send back large remittances to their home countries. In a few cases remittances are said to be equal to around 10% of the gross national product. Indeed it is national policy in some countries to export workers to areas like the Gulf States which are short of skilled labour and which have traditionally paid high wages. A country may deliberately seek to improve its balance of payments through the remittances that overseas workers send home, and reduce

its own unemployment problems at the same time. Some small island states, particularly, are overpopulated in relation to economic opportunities and must export labour to reduce the pressure on resources. This can be regarded simply as a version of what goes on internally within countries, with those who migrate to the city sending back remittances to build or maintain schools, churches and clinics and providing income-support for parents and relatives in their home village. Indeed there may be as much or more brain drain within countries as between them.

The solutions to brain drain must relate to the causes identified. In so far as brain drain results from underlying political, economic and societal factors only successful long-range development strategies are likely to reduce its incidence. Thus to the extent that the economy at home begins to take off and high levels of income are attainable - as has happened in Korea or Taiwan for example - brain drain will be curtailed. Those societies which are prospering and moving forward, and which offer freedom of expression and plentiful choice to their people will be more successful in retaining their citizens.

At the level of individuals the authorities in sending countries may consider the question of academic mobility in terms of groups more "at risk". Focusing in selection and sponsorship on those with more home ties of different kinds, may be one way to reduce the risk of permanent emigration. In terms of specific policies, an obvious option is the legal bonding of students to return home and to enter government service. To be effective this requires a good system of records and energetic follow-up of students. It also requires determination to enforce the bond and even-handedness in the treatment of individuals.

Arrangements which provide for study abroad to be part of a linkage programme, with the degree awarded by a home-country university where the final year of the course is also spent, may greatly reduce the risk of brain drain.

Regular contact for students abroad with the home country, maintained through embassies and high commissions, may be helpful, as is the regular sending of recruitment missions around the major institutions where nationals are studying abroad. Opportunities to keep in touch with the home culture, language and religion may be influential. Assistance where it can be afforded to overseas workers to have their children educated in their own language and culture, so that the children too have a sense of belonging to the home country may also be an important factor in promoting return home. Attention to advisory services in relation to employment and careers opportunities can be helpful.

It is important to institute positive and helpful placement services in government for returners from abroad. The returned students should be helped to feel that their knowledge, skills and qualifications are valued at home and that there are career progression opportunities if they apply themselves in the occupations they enter. If they feel that, unlike what they may perceive to be the situation abroad, promotion and progression will depend more on family connections than on ability and application, their willingness to stay in their own home country will be diminished. One of the major causes of dissatisfaction among returning students is the sense of not being valued in their home country. To the extent that people can feel significant and appreciated when working in their home culture, they may be more likely to refrain from joining the international brain drain. In short, good personnel management practices at home may be one of the best insurances against brain drain.

Sponsoring agencies from the wealthy countries may have their own contribution to make to retention of personnel in countries of origin. Professional support could be given to returned students in the form of journal subscriptions, membership of learned societies and opportunities to attend occasional international conferences. It is often said to be the sense of being out touch with one's peers in the outside world that constitutes one of the biggest disincentives to remaining at home for those from developing countries.

In summary it will be difficult to prevent brain drain while disparities in income, living standards, career opportunities and freedom of choice are very considerable. A unifying theme behind many of the proposals for mitigating the risk of brain drain is the idea of linkage and the retention of ties with the home society and culture. Any sudden severance of ties will tend to encourage permanent migration. It is also hard to overstate the importance of good personnel management in retaining the services of well qualified nationals.

Finally mention should be made of a quite different approach to solutions, namely that of compensation. If brain drain cannot be stopped, can the losers nevertheless be compensated? One set of proposals has been for an International Labour Compensatory Facility which would compensate developing countries for the reverse transfer of human capital and technology involved in brain drain. A second approach is to ask the migrants to repay in some way (student loan repayments, graduate tax etc) the cost of the education received at home as compensation for the product and productivity loss suffered by the country of origin where such individuals were educated. Needless to say the actual mechanics of recovery cause as greater difficulty as acceptance of the principle involved.

**TABLE 1 Foreign student Enrolment 1960-1989**

	<u>Total</u>	<u>(United States)</u>
1960	237,500	(52 100)
1970	508,800	(144 700)
1976	705,200	(203 100)
1982	860,600	(330 000)
1988	1 080,800	(366 400)
1989	1 085,900	(386 900)

Source: UNESCO

**TABLE 2 Main Host and Sending Countries 1988**

	USA	FRANCE	USSR	WEST GERMANY	BRITAIN	OTHERS	TOTAL NUMBER
	(Percentage distribution by sending country)						
China (inc. Taiwan)	70.8	2.9	n.a.	3.4	1.5	21.4	70.800
Malaysia	38.5	0.5	n.a.	0.1	17.3	43.6	36.400
Iran	23.1	11.8	n.a.	28.3	3.5	33.3	33.600
Morocco	2.9	79.1	n.a.	1.4	0.1	16.5	30.300
Greece	13.2	9.1	n.a.	22.5	8.2	47.0	28.600
Korea	64.2	4.8	n.a.	12.8	1.1	17.1	27.900
Japan	77.4	3.2	n.a.	4.5	2.4	12.5	26.900
W.Germany	21.4	15.3	n.a.	-	8.4	54.9	25.700
India	81.5	0.9	n.a.	2.4	3.7	11.5	24.900
Hong Kong	38.4	0.2	n.a.	0.0	26.6	34.8	23.800
Total number	366.400	125.600	115.400	91.900	59.200	322.300	1080.800

n a = not available

Source = International Institute of Education Open Doors 1991/1992 based on UNESCO data.

## **"BRAIN-DRAIN ISSUES IN EUROPE"**

by

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This intervention is based on the discussions by experts gathered within the framework of the Project "Brain Drain Issues in Europe" sponsored by UNESCO Regional Office for Science and Technology for Europe - ROSTE.

A first attempt to evaluate the situation related to intellectual migration in Europe due to the new socio-economical and political situation in the Region, particularly in its Central and Eastern countries, was made at the Working Party on "Brain Drain Issues in Europe", which was held in Lisbon, Portugal, at the facilities of the Galouste Gulbenkian Foundation on November 26-28, 1990.

The Working Party drew the attention of UNESCO and its Regional Office for Science and Technology for Europe (UNESCO-ROSTE) to "the new Eastern European phenomenon of massive intellectual migration, which could seriously jeopardize the scientific and cultural development of the Region and could ultimately lead to the reduction of intellectual capabilities in the world as a whole". "International migration, while understandable in terms of personal decisions and as a result of basic human rights, may adversely affect intellectual capabilities at the local and national level. However, losses are particularly sensitive at the national level, when the expertise of individual and groups of highly qualified specialists is denied to their native countries".

UNESCO was invited, in collaboration with governments and institutions concerned, as well as potentially interested European organizations (e.g., CEC, Council of Europe) at the regional and national levels, to evaluate and monitor this new situation within Europe and to propose concrete actions and emergency measures in order to prevent losses of intellectual and cultural potential there".



Among the various recommendations addressed to UNESCO-ROSTE, one was to establish within the project on "Brain Drain Issues in Europe", a task force which should begin to collect and analyze information on brain drain specifically in countries which have already been affected, but also in the Region as a whole. It should formulate a clear understanding of the broader issues and thereby study all levels of phenomenon in order to elaborate concrete

1. The material presented here has been extracted from the Report of the Working Party on "Brain Drain Issues in Europe" edited by Ian O. Angell and Vladimir A. Kouzminov, Technical Report nr. 3 and from the Report of the Task Force Meeting, Venice, 1991, available at UNESCO Regional Office for Science and Technology for Europe (ROSTE) 1262-A Dorsoduro, Venice, Italy.

proposals for measures that can help to support individual scholars and research centers to maintain standards. This Task Force should also analyze the experience gained by different research centers in resolving "brain drain" problems and then share the most positive experience with all European countries concerned.

Governments should recognize the role of science and technology in the transitional period to free market economies since the majority of research centers in Europe and particularly in Central and Eastern European countries are state owned, and should undertake urgent measures to diminish "external" and "internal" brain drain through the creation of favourable conditions for scientists and university staff which do not permit them to leave their countries and areas of their professional competence.

Some countries are very seriously affected by internal or intersectorial "brain drain" which is probably more harmful than "direct brain drain" for human society and particularly for Europe. Intersectorial "brain drain" affects not only Central and Eastern European countries but also Western ones. It was also stressed that the process of privatization of industries in Central and Eastern European countries would enlarge intersectorial or internal "brain drain" due to unemployment as an unavoidable phenomenon of free market economies.

Moreover, in the course of the privatization of industry, new owners of industrial facilities will be interested to receive already existing technologies and will not be capable to invest into R&D process. This could lead to a new wave of intellectual migration both external and internal (intersectorial).

Another possible factors which could contribute to enlarging the scale of 'brain drain' issues in Europe are:

- uncertainty and non-stability of socio-economic development of Central and Eastern European countries during the transition to free market economies;
- decrease of long term capital investments into R&D process since a free market economy relies generally on short term investments;
- low capability of research centers and individual scientists for competition on a global scale;
- lack of managerial skills in science.

A major objective of this Task Force was the establishment of common methodologies to be used in national studies on Brain Drain Issues. National Studies to be started (or more often followed) in Bulgaria, Czech-Slovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Russia have accepted as basic components of the studies the following:

- analysis of socio-economical and political situation in a given country;
- collection and evaluation of available statistical data on the number of researchers, university staff involved in research;
- collection and analysis of statistical data on intellectual flow (external and intersectorial "brain drain");
- sociological studies (elaboration of questionnaires, collection and analysis of sociological data);
- analysis of national legislation related to the problem;
- collection and analysis of data on links with compatriots working abroad;
- analysis of actions of governments and other institutions related to 'brain drain'
- analysis of actions of international organizations undertaken in this particular field;

- forecasting considerations.

Some national studies will include disciplinary sections namely in physics, biology computer sciences and economics.

Each national study will decide on its own plan of action in order to have a national report on "brain drain" issues to be presented at the European seminar on this subject scheduled for the first part of 1993.

During this period of time, ROSTE will play a coordinating role in collecting and disseminating information between the national studies. The massive scale of the "brain drain problem" in the Eastern European countries in the past few year can be glimpsed at by looking to the preliminary data provided by initial studies conducted in the former USSR (Russia) and in Bulgaria.

#### **Russian National Study (B. Borissov)**

The major objective of this study is to elaborate recommendations for the Russian Government on the national strategy aimed at the resolving of "brain drain" problems at the national level. The project will last two years (1991-92) and the major outputs of this research activity should reach governmental bodies and international organizations in early 1993.

During this period the Russian National Committee on "Brain Drain Issues", established to lead this national study, is planning to convene two-three international meetings in Russia and outside, in order to provide the intermediate results of this project to international scientific community and to governmental, national and international organizations which might be interested in these findings.

Preliminary statistical data proves the growing massive intellectual migration from the country abroad. According to this data during 1990 about 450,000 persons left the USSR and among them 20% of researchers, university staff and other highly educated specialists. Moreover, another wave of alarming "brain drain" from military research centers with excellent knowledge of "now how" for the production of very dangerous weapons and other military equipment has appeared within this phenomenon following the process of military conversion in the country.

This type of intellectual flow could provoke additional political instability in some regions of the world. According to the experts engaged in the studies the number of invitations from abroad addressed to military research experts is growing constantly.

#### **Bulgarian National Study (A. Issifov)**

This study shows that from November 1989 to September 1991, more than 250,000 persons left Bulgaria and among them about 50,000 scientific workers both from academic institutions and universities. According to the results of the study the number of researchers leaving the country varies from 15 to 20% of the total number of immigrants.

During the last years, more than 1,000 researchers from the Academy of Sciences and universities were interviewed before their departure abroad. The results of this sociological study are now under evaluation and will be available in two-three months. The preliminary results of this study shows that the following branches of science are seriously affected by "brain drain":

- medical sciences.
- biology,
- software,
- technical sciences.

The majority of intellectual migrants belongs to the groups of young researchers or prominent scholars. Middle age professionals prefer to stay in their native country.

The interviews of 262 researchers showed that 70% of them had serious intention of immigrating. many of them intend to return to Bulgaria only after 10-15 years of staying abroad inspite of hard working conditions especially for young people as shown in interviews done in Austria and Germany.

According to this study Bulgarian centers of excellence particularly in biology could be completely destroyed because of the "brain drain" process if no specific measures are undertaken at national and international levels ...

## **LA RECONNAISSANCE DES DIPLOMES ET L'ACCREDITATION DES INSTITUTIONS D'EDUCATION SUPERIEURE EN AMERIQUE LATINE**

par  
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### **INTRODUCTION**

L'Amérique latine affronte actuellement une grave crise économique et sociale générée par une forte dette extérieure, des conditions peu favorables dans les échanges internationaux et l'échec d'un modèle de développement se basant sur l'état capitaliste et les politiques populistes. Cette nouvelle situation oblige les pays de la région à mettre en place des politiques adéquates pour faire face aux problèmes créés par la crise.

La réalité économique et sociale des années quatre vingt dix se caractérise par la libération et l'ouverture de l'économie et de la société en général, par la naissance de grands marchés économiques, par l'économie internationale et la nécessité d'entrer en concurrence avec des économies plus développées et plus avancées, de haute productivité et compétitivité.

Les institutions d'éducation supérieure doivent en conséquence assumer de nouveaux rôles: principalement celui de développer le potentiel humain en vue de la modernisation de leurs économies.

Face à cette situation, les universités commencent à prendre conscience du nouveau rôle qu'elles doivent jouer dans la société: favoriser l'intégration économique, politique et culturelle dans la région, formule idéale pour faire face à la crise et trouver des solutions au delà des états nationaux. Obtenir une plus ample et efficace utilisation du potentiel humain hautement qualifié dans la région afin d'éviter ainsi, la fuite des talents et réduire la dépendance technologi-

que. Promouvoir la conservation de l'environnement et viser à l'amélioration de la qualité de la vie sont deux des aspects essentiels sur lesquels les universités devraient porter leur attention.

En conséquence, les objectifs de tous les projets éducatifs dans la région devraient être liés à l'intégration. Tout en reconnaissant les particularités politiques, économiques, sociales et culturelles de chaque pays, l'établissement d'une meilleure articulation entre les systèmes d'éducation s'impose.

Nait alors le besoin de créer un encadrement juridique, qui puisse garantir la libre mobilisation des professionnels de l'éducation supérieure dans les pays de la région. Pour cela, l'accréditation et la reconnaissance des études et diplômes des institutions d'éducation supérieure s'avèrent indispensables.

Pour toutes les raisons signalées antérieurement, il est nécessaire d'établir, en matière des Sciences et de la Technologie, la mobilisation de toutes les ressources humaines disponibles et leur utilisation de façon efficace et pertinente dans notre société, dans le but d'obtenir leur totale incorporation dans les plans de développement dressés par les pays de la région.

A ce propos, nous considérons nécessaire le développement d'un projet d'intégration scientifique, culturel et éducatif qui aille de paire avec les plans d'intégration économique en place dans le cadre du Pacte Sous-régional Andin, de Mercosur, des accords de Libre Commerce du Groupe des Trois et de ceux qui opèrent de façon bilatérale entre les pays de la région.

## PREMIERE PARTIE

### LA RECONNAISSANCE DES ETUDES ET DIPLOMES D'EDUCATION SUPERIEURE

Bien que la Convention Régionale de Reconnaissance des Diplômes d'Education Supérieure a été souscrite depuis 1974 en Amérique latine et dans les Caraïbes (convention ratifiée actuellement par 13 pays, 10 de la région et trois en dehors) et qu'il existe de nombreux traités bilatéraux en la matière, la pratique des relations internationales maintient encore à ce sujet un caractère d'exception et n'atteint pas les objectifs proposés.

Les rapports présentés par les pays membres de la Convention Régionale à la septième réunion du Comité régional qui a eu lieu à Curaçao en 1988, mettent en évidence la faible influence de la Convention sur l'échange ou la libre mobili-

sation de personnel hautement qualifié entre les pays de la région, ainsi que la nullité de ses effets sur la rétention de celui-ci, qui continue sa fuite vers les pays industrialisés du nord, principalement vers les Etats-Unis.

Cette situation est due aux CAUSES suivantes:

a) La diversité des régimes légaux qui établissent les normes des systèmes d'éducation dans chaque pays, contribue à rendre difficile l'établissement d'un régime commun pour l'application des conventions à ce sujet. Pendant qu' au Venezuela et en Equateur les Universités autonomes ont à charge la reconnaissance et l'équivalence des diplômes, en Colombie l'ICFES est le seul organisme compétent, en dehors des Universités. Au Mexique, cette tâche est du ressort de trois instances concurrentes. Dans le cas des études d'enseignement supérieur, la Fédération au travers du Secrétariat d'Education nationale (SEP), les Etats fédéraux, ainsi que les universités et les organismes décentralisés autorisés par la loi peuvent se prononcer.

b) Il n'existe aucune disposition régionale qui signale l'existence d'un organisme unique, responsable de son application dans chaque pays. De ce fait, dans des pays tel que le Venezuela, les Universités refusent d'appliquer le traité, car il n'existe aucune disposition légale les en obligeant. Les demandeurs ne savent donc pas avec certitude à quelle instance s'adresser.

c) Les pays ne disposent pas suffisamment d'informations au sujet de la Convention, sur ses avantages et les obligations qui en résultent. C'est ainsi que des pays qui ont un certain degré de développement économique, ayant des besoins urgents de techniciens qualifiés comptent faire leur recrutement dans les pays de l'Europe de l'Est, sans auparavant s'enquérir de la disponibilité existante en Amérique latine et sans penser aux avantages que la Convention pourrait leur offrir à ce sujet.

d) Il n'existe pas de terminologie commune entre les Etats en ce qui concerne l'accréditation, la reconnaissance et l'équivalence. Ce ne sont pas des termes univoques dans la législation des pays.

Malgré les efforts réalisés par le Comité Régional de la Convention pour neutraliser les déficiences, les résultats sont loin d'être satisfaisants. Même si les pays et les institutions d'Education supérieure ont reconnu le bien fondé et la nécessité de l'intégration dans le secteur éducatif, la situation continue à stagner ou ne faisant que peu de progrès. C'est ainsi que la Première Réunion des Secrétaires d' Universités en Amériques latine réalisée en octobre 1991, par l'initiative du groupe de Secrétaires des Universités vénézuéliennes et l'Université de la

Havane, sous les auspices du CRESALC et avec la participation de 17 pays et la représentation de 57 Universités, a fait les recommandations suivantes:

- 1) Bien que la forme juridique de la révision n'ait pas été prévue dans le texte de la Convention Régionale, la recommandation a été faite de façon à permettre la reformulation de certaines dispositions dans le but d'atteindre les objectifs qu'elle énonce.
- 2) Introduire dans la Convention Régionale une disposition donnant aux Universités la responsabilité de la qualification pour la reconnaissance des études et diplômes. L'exercice de la profession sera sujet à la législation de chaque pays .
- 3) La création d'un Centre Régional d'Informatique (C.R.I) permettant la communication et l'échange d'information sur la formulation et la mise en oeuvre de politiques universitaires de l'Amérique latine et des Caraïbes, en particulier en ce qui concerne la dénomination des études et diplômes, systèmes d'évaluation, profils d'enseignants et de professionnels, méthodes d'enseignement, systèmes de registre des étudiants, et de tout ce que les parties décident d'inclure.
- 4) Que les Etats signataires désignent, s'ils ne l'ont déjà fait, les instances d'exécution de la Convention en conformité avec la loi de chaque pays, tel qu'il est prévu au littéral a, de l'article 8 de la Convention.
- 5) Que les instances responsables de suivre les démarches et l'évaluation de la Convention soient composées aussi par des délégués représentant les universités publiques des Etats signataires .
- 6) Qu'afin de renforcer l'intégration culturelle en Amérique latine et dans les Caraïbes, des accords multilatéraux et bilatéraux soient signés entre les Universités sur les échanges academico-scientifiques, des boursiers et l'accréditation des étudiants et, si la législation de chaque pays le permet, la reconnaissance des études et diplômes d'éducation supérieure.
- 7) Les gouvernements des Etat signataires devraient diffuser l'existence de la Convention régionale dans toutes les institutions d'éducation supérieure avec l'information concernant les parties signataires.
- 8) Que les pays d'Amérique latine et des Caraïbes qui n'ont pas encore adhéré à la Convention régionale le fassent au bénéfice de l'intégration de la région, une fois que les modifications recommandées aient été faites.



Les tableaux ci-dessous montrent la relation des études et diplômes provenant des institutions d'enseignement supérieur des pays signataires de la Convention reconnus par la Colombie en 1984-87, ainsi que les études et diplômes reconnus par ce pays, dans la même période, provenant des institutions des autres pays de la région (L'Amérique du Nord incluse).

TABLEAU I

DIPLOMES RECONNUS PAR LA COLOMBIE, PAR  
DOMAINES DE CONNAISSANCE ET PAR ANNEE

	1984	1985	1986	1987	TOTAL
Convention régionale					
Bésil	14	18	28	28	89
Chili	5	0	7	15	27
Cuba	9	2	7	8	26
Equateur	72	81	104	113	370
Le Salvador	1	0	0	1	2
México	33	29	54	85	181
Panama	7	7	5	5	25
Le Vatican	21	10	11	11	53
Vénézuéla	21	8	22	17	66
Amérique					
Argentine	15	25	23	17	80
Bolivie	2	1	4	2	9
Costa-Rica	1	9	14	11	35
Etats-Unis	43	40	58	0	141
Guatemala	1	0	1	1	3
Pérou	3	3	2	8	16
Republique Dominicaine	4	1	1	2	8
Canada	0	2	4	0	6
Paraguay	0	0	1	0	1
Uruguay	0	1	5	8	14
Honduras	0	0	0	3	3
Sub-total	69	82	113	52	316
Total	253	237	357	319	1.162

Rapport final septième réunion Convention Régionale de Reconnaissance des  
Etudes et diplômes d' Education Supérieure en Amérique latine et les Caraïbes,  
WILLEMSTAD, Curaçao. Antilles Néerlandaises, 31 mai - 03 juin 1988.

Le Tableau No. 1 montre la relation de la totalité des diplômes reconnus par domaine de connaissance, pays et année.

Les diplômes reconnus correspondent aux carrières suivantes: Agronomie, Vétérinaire et sciences connexes, Beaux-Arts, Sciences Sociales, Sciences de l'Education, Santé, Sciences Politiques, Sciences Economiques, Gestion, Comptabilité, Lettres, Sciences religieuses Ingénieur, Architecture, Urbanisme, Mathématiques et Sciences Naturelles.

L'analyse des données concernant l'un des pays faisant partie de la Convention qui dispose depuis 1980 d' un organisme central chargé de la Reconnaissance au niveau national, montre clairement la suprématie du nombre de reconnaissances effectuées dans le cadre de la Convention, ce qui rend évident l'importance et l'efficacité de son application.

TABLEAU 2

## DIPLOME PAR LA COLOMBIE SELON LA MODALITE EDUCATIVE ET PAR ANNEE

	PREGRADO				POSTGRADO				TOTAL		
	1984	1985	1986	1987	Total	1984	1985	1986	1987	Total	Genera l
Convention Regionale											
Bresil	9	12	14	16	51	5	7	14	12	38	89
Chili	4	0	5	13	22	1	0	2	2	5	27
Cuba	8	2	5	6	21	1	0	2	2	5	26
Equateur	72	81	104	108	362	0	0	0	4	4	370
El Salvador	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
Mexico	24	15	26	40	105	9	14	28	25	76	181
Panama	7	4	3	3	17	0	3	2	3	8	25
Le Vatican	12	7	5	8	32	9	3	6	3	21	53
Venezuela	19	5	21	14	59	2	1	1	3	7	73
Yugoslavia	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	2
Nicaragua	0	1	1	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	5
Sub-Total	156	127	185	213	681	28	28	55	54	165	846
Amerique											
Argentine	13	22	18	8	61	2	3	5	9	19	80
Bolivia	2	1	4	2	9	0	0	0	0	0	9
Costa-Rica	1	5	3	2	11	0	4	11	9	24	35
Etats Unis	23	22	18	0	63	20	18	19	0	57	141
Guatemala	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	3
Perou	3	2	2	7	14	0	1	0	1	2	16
Rep. Dominicaine	4	1	1	2	8	0	0	0	0	0	8
Canada	0	0	4	0	4	0	2	0	0	2	6
Uruguay	0	0	2	1	3	0	1	3	7	11	14
Paraguay	0	0	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	4
Honduras	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
Sub-Total	47	53	73	25	200	22	29	38	27	116	316
Total	203	180	260	238	881	50	57	93	81	218	1.162

Rapport final septième réunion Convention Régionale de Reconnaissance des Etudes et diplômes d' Education Supérieure en Amérique latine et les Caraïbes, WILLEMSTAD, Curaçao. Antilles Néerlandaises. 31 mai - 03 juin 1988.

La tableau No. 2 montre le nombre de reconnaissances pour chaque modalité éducative, comprenant la formation professionnelle moyenne, la formation technique, la formation universitaire et avancée. Dans le tableau, elles sont regroupées selon les niveaux «Pregrado» (licence) et «Postgrado» (maîtrise, doctorat). On note une plus grande proportion de reconnaissances au niveau de la licence. Le nombre total de reconnaissances est cependant peu significatif si l'on pense au besoin de ressources humaines nécessaires à la mise en oeuvre des modalités d'intégration en vigueur dans la sous-région andine.

#### L'EDUCATION A DISTANCE. LES UNIVERSITES PRIVEES ET LA RECONNAISSANCE

Il est bon de signaler que les Universités avec modalité à distance ne présentent aucune complication pour mise en exécution des conventions sur l'accréditation des études et la reconnaissance des diplômes, étant donné que leur création dans les pays d'Amérique latine et soumise aux mêmes conditions d'ordre légal, académique et administratif que les Universités conventionnelles, d'autant plus que cette modalité est également mise en pratique par des Universités conventionnelles dont l'expérience garantit la qualité de l'enseignement et la reconnaissance des diplômes.

Dans le cas des Universités privées très en vogue dans les pays du continent, les problèmes qui pourraient se poser à ce sujet trouvent une solution dans la création de mécanismes ou de systèmes d'accréditation institutionnelle auxquels on fera référence dans la deuxième partie de ce travail.

#### DEUXIEME PARTIE

#### L'ACCREDITATION DES INSTITUTIONS D'EDUCATION SUPERIEURE EN AMERIQUE LATINE

En Amérique latine, il n'existe pas de norme concernant l'accréditation des institutions d'éducation supérieure. La diversité des régimes juridiques en la matière dans les pays de la région ont cependant comme élément en commun, la nécessité d'intervention de l'Etat à la création ou à l'autorisation de fonctionnement des Universités et des institutions d'Education supérieure publiques ou privées. Sans cela; il est impossible de reconnaître légalement les études et les diplômes qu'elles délivrent. De ce fait, il pourrait paraître facile d'établir pour la région un système d'accréditation institutionnelle, mais en réalité, la tâche s'avère compliquée et difficile. D'une part l'autonomie dont jouit la plupart des universi-

tés fait qu'une fois créées ou autorisées par l'Etat, il n'y ait aucune limitation ou contrôle sur leur fonctionnement et développement postérieur .

D' autre part la diversité d'institutions d' éducation supérieure existant dans chaque pays, qui fonctionnent la plupart du temps, de manière désarticulée, pose de nombreux problèmes, en particulier celui de la relation entre les secteurs Universités/institutions d'éducation supérieure, la rigidité de la structure universitaire rendant difficile le transfert d' un type de formation à une autre. C'est ainsi que le principal problème à résoudre pour la création d' un système d'accréditation institutionnelle et celui de l'intégration des différents niveaux de l'éducation supérieure: Polytechnique, Institut Universitaire de Technologie, Collège Universitaire, Institut Universitaire Religieux, Institut Universitaire Militaire et l'Université.

Vers la fin des années 70, certains progrès ont été faits dans le but d'aboutir à un processus permanent d'identification d'objectifs, de fonctions et de programmes dans les institutions d' éducation supérieure, afin d' avoir une plus haute convergence et complémentarité. C'est ainsi que tout en conservant le caractère binaire du Système d'Education Supérieure, presque tous les pays de la région ont réussi à conformer une structure académique flexible qui permette l' articulation verticale et horizontale des études, tout en préservant la spécificité des institutions.

#### L'ACCREDITATION INSTITUTIONNELLE

Le premier pas pour instaurer un système d'accréditation institutionnelle en éducation supérieure serait de mettre en place un système d'information sur les études d'enseignement supérieur des pays de la région. Ce système permettrait de rassembler l' information nécessaire pour la reconnaissance des études et des diplômes, aussi bien que pour l'équivalence des études, même au niveau des matières entre les institutions des différents pays.

Le système d' information est conçu comme une base interactive de données contenant l'information sur les centres d'éducation supérieure de chaque pays, concernant spécifiquement le processus de reconnaissance des études. Il serait composé de trois sections principales: institutions, plans d' études et matières. L' administration du système serait prise en charge par les institutions universitaires elles-mêmes. Il devrait exister dans chaque pays, des organismes responsables de l'élaboration du modèle du système, ainsi que de son actualisation. Ceux-ci travailleraient en coordination avec le CRESALC de l' UNESCO,

lequel, serait chargé de collecter l'information des institutions destinée à la base de données.

L'information institutionnelle permettrait de dissiper les doutes concernant le statut juridique des institutions, leur compétence pour délivrer des titres ou diplômes et en général leur prestige et leur tradition.

Après l'étude réalisée sur les systèmes d'éducation supérieure des pays du continent, il a résulté que la réalisation d'un minimum de conditions permettrait l'accréditation des institutions et la reconnaissance des études et diplômes dans d'autres pays que celui d'origine.

Ces conditions seraient, entre autres:

- 1) Avoir terminé les études d'éducation secondaire et obtenu le diplôme ou certificat correspondant.
- 2) Exiger deux ou trois années d'études systématiques pour l'obtention du diplôme de Technicien supérieur, moyen ou technologue.
- 3) La réalisation d'un minimum de quatre ans d'études dont la finalité pour l'aspirant serait de le doter d'une formation professionnelle dans les spécialités des Sciences Naturelles, Ingénieur, Sciences et Technologie, Sciences Sociales, Humanités, dans le but d'obtenir la licence ou son équivalent.
- 4) Après l'obtention de la licence ou de son équivalent les études seraient classées d'après leur finalité spécifique comme étant:
  - a) de spécialisation professionnelle
  - b) de maîtrise
  - c) de doctorat

Les institutions qui développent ces études devraient au moins remplir un minimum de condition quant à la qualification des enseignants, les installations, laboratoires et centres de recherche.

Ce premier pas permettrait de surmonter le problème principal qui se pose à l'accréditation et à la reconnaissance des études, comme celui de la méconnaissance des institutions entre elles dans les pays de la région. Il permettrait également de faire connaître les conventions ou les traités méconnus dans la plupart des institutions d'éducation supérieure.

D'autre part, le système d'information permettrait l'établissement de paramètres communs à tous les pays afin de permettre l'évaluation des institutions et ainsi parvenir à un système d'accréditation des institutions, de leurs plans et programmes. Cela permettra à la fois de prêter assistance au niveau national et international aux institutions qui en auraient besoin pour améliorer la qualité de leurs plans et programmes.

Le deuxième pas pour obtenir un programme d'accréditation serait l'établissement des relations permanentes moyennant des conventions spécifiques entre les universités et les centres d'enseignement de même vocation, de part leur carrière et plans de recherche.

Des réunions périodiques des responsables dans les domaines de l'éducation et de la recherche devraient avoir lieu dans les différents pays. Ce serait l'occasion pour échanger des expériences, réviser les programmes, en fonction du développement de la connaissance dans ces domaines et des nécessités des ressources humaines de chaque pays.

## CONCLUSION

Il est évident que dans les Universités des pays contractants de la Convention, il existe l'intention de respecter les dispositions établies. Il serait cependant nécessaire d'introduire dans la législation universitaire de chaque pays des réformes pour faciliter l'intégration, comme l'adaptation de structures plus flexibles et diversifiées ainsi que des réformes concernant les modalités des curricula, tenant compte du nouveau rôle de la Science et de sa diffusion. Il s'avère également nécessaire de développer un système d'information entre les pays qui opèrent l'échange d'information concernant les besoins de personnel hautement qualifié dont ils ont besoin pour leurs plans de développement.

Nous pensons que l'accréditation ne devrait pas poser de problèmes quand il s'agit de diplômes obtenus en Sciences Physiques et Naturelles (Biologie, Physique, Chimie, Mathématiques), Humanités, Lettres et art, mais il existe certains domaines du savoir étroitement liés à la réalité ou à la législation nationale pour lesquels les universités refusent de reconnaître les études sans que l'on ait auparavant obtenu les examens qui assurent le niveau de connaissances requises dans certaines matières pour la pratique professionnelle.

Tel est le cas des études de médecine, quand elles n'ont pas le même contenu général, ni la même durée, des études de Droit et de l'Histoire du pays,



puisqu'elles traitent des réalités nationales dont la connaissance est indispensable pour la pratique professionnelle dans chaque pays. Ces cas devraient avoir une place dans la Convention de façon à ce que les institutions qui sont appelées à accorder la reconnaissance et l'accréditation puissent poser leurs conditions.

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**QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION:  
A Global Tour of Practice and Resources.**

by

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Preface

Globally, a focus on quality abounds in industry, commerce, government and higher education. The assessment and enhancement of quality are major issues and activities for higher education throughout the world, not only because countries have recognized the direct correlation between educational quality and economic development and growth, but also because of the growing economic and political need among countries to be interdependent in their systems of higher education. Global interdependence, reflected by the accelerating mobility of students, scholars and professionals internationally has motivated educators to assure the quality of their educational products.

The level of quality in a country's institutions of higher education is typically in direct proportion to the country's level of economic development. Because higher education and development are interdependent entities, the quality of the former only serves to bolster the latter. However, if institutions of higher education are isolated from international standards of quality (including new knowledge and technology), they are less able to improve and contribute to development or to the growing interdependency of nations.

This paper will discuss the role of quality assurance in higher education on an international scale and will outline the resources available to countries in their own development, including international networks, conferences and service organizations.

I: BACKGROUND

### Creation of a Network.

In introducing the status of quality assurance globally, it is fitting to begin with the recent creation of the International Network of Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education. Recognizing the vital role played by quality higher education within and among their respective countries, the associations, agencies and institutions responsible for assuring quality in 35 countries formed an International Network in Hong Kong in the summer of 1991. The Network's first global conference to which you are all invited will be held this May 24-28, 1993 in Montreal, Quebec, Canada. This conference is co-sponsored by the U.S. Council on Quality Assurance in International Education which I direct and the Canadian Council of Rectors and Principals of Quebec Universities. It is expected that the International Network's membership will continue to grow among those countries who are in need of developing systems. A key element of the global conference is the role of quality assurance in developing countries. Those interested in joining the Network and/or in attending the conference in May are welcome to contact me for further information. We are currently asking for proposals for papers to be presented and look forward to hearing from you.

### Role and Value of Quality Assurance.

The International Network offers a definition of quality assurance:

...quality assurance may relate to a program, an institution or a whole higher education system. In each case, quality assurance is all of those attitudes, objects, actions, and procedures which, through their existence and use, and together with the quality control activities, ensure that appropriate academic standards are being maintained and enhanced in and by each program. Quality assurance extends to making the process and standards known to the educational community and the public at large. (QA, 1992)

Quality assurance comes in various forms and is known by various terms such as accreditation, assessment, academic audit, and external examination. Common to each practice are the following elements:

- a. the development of standards;
- b. the application of those standards to a program or institution by third parties for the purposes of assessment and enhancement; and
- c. the subsequent improvement of the educational entity.

The initial purpose of quality assurance is to establish common standards. Higher education requires definition before it can be evaluated. For example, until a common definition of higher education was agreed upon by associations of schools and colleges in the United States a century ago, anarchy prevailed among those institutions which defined themselves as "colleges". It was in defining the standards for postsecondary education that accreditation as a process of evaluation was born in the United States. A current example of the need for a common definition for higher education is evident in Eastern and Central Europe. At the invitation of the Ministry of Education and Science, I visited Bulgaria about this time last year for purposes of helping them develop a system of accreditation. Their case, and that of others, will be discussed in more detail later in the paper.

It is further a key purpose of quality assurance to be a sustainable force in the improvement of higher education through third party evaluation. Although it is ultimately the program, institution or system's responsibility to maintain and improve quality, the evaluation is performed by third party evaluators external to the educational entity. Globally, these can be representatives of governmental agencies, peer educators from the same country, international experts, or some combination thereof. They can evaluate an educational entity singly or in groups, and in most all cases, they visit the site being evaluated in the process of making a judgement relative to quality.

Another essential characteristic of quality assurance is its promotion of accountability. In most countries, higher education is funded through the government which, in turn, demands some level of accountable return for its investment. Quality assurance has evolved as a system of determining the extent to which the public's money is used responsibly in higher education. Quality assurance outcomes are also used as criteria for admissions to other institutions in the same or other systems of higher education; by professional licensure bodies to determine the level of educational quality gained by individuals; by employers who need to know if their prospective employees attended accredited institutions; and by philanthropic entities in countries where funding is derived for higher education from both the public and private sectors.

#### Samples of Current Practice.

In most countries where a process of quality assurance exists, it is carried out by the government. The clear exception to this rule is the United States which constitutionally separates its educational system from the federal government.

The American process of accreditation is carried out by about 80 nongovernmental associations. The process of institutional accreditation is administered by regional associations of colleges and universities for degree-granting institutions of higher education, and by national associations for single-purpose degree or diploma-granting institutions. Programmatic accreditation is administered typically by associations composed of both practitioners and educators representing the professions (Lenn, 1991).

Hong Kong and France also count themselves among those with independent quality assurance processes, the former having cut its formal evaluative ties with the United Kingdom in 1990 and the latter having created its first national process in 1985. In preparation for its new status with the People's Republic of China in 1997, Hong Kong is rapidly expanding its publicly funded tertiary education system. In response to both growth and governmental transition, the quality assurance process in Hong Kong focuses on the validation and revalidation of individual degree courses with periodic institutional reviews. Unique to the Hong Kong process is the use of an international pool of educational specialists and the appointment of an international council with final accreditation decision-making. I have been a member of the international council there and highly recommend to every country the use of international experts to enrich their quality assurance process.

France has a government-appointed autonomous body with responsibility for quality assurance in higher education. Emphasizing qualitative peer judgement based on quantitative indicators, the French process does not have formal sanction over institutions: however, the government takes its findings into account for funding purposes (Staropoli, 1991).

With the dissolution of their binary systems (i.e., universities and polytechnics), the United Kingdom and Australia are both moving rapidly toward alternative processes to centralized governmental evaluation. In each country, the university sector has developed its own approach to quality assurance, involving external scrutiny but controlled by the institutions themselves.

The UK's Academic Audit Unit provides independent assurance that sufficient internal processes exist to assure quality. Although the reports are confidential to the institution, it is anticipated that they will become more public as the need demands.

In Australia, the use of subject panels has emerged from a concern about apparent variations in standards and criteria for the award of degrees. The Aca-

ademic Standards Panels are an alternative to an external examiner system and have extended their process on a trial basis to cover all undergraduate programs in the country in a limited number of disciplines (Kwong, 1991).

In its attempt to give greater autonomy to higher education, the Netherlands has encouraged its institutions to develop their own external quality assurance systems. Accordingly, two levels of quality assurance have emerged. One is encouraged by the Dutch government but carried out through an association of institutions which co-ordinates comparative quality assessment by peers of similar academic disciplines in the universities (Vroeijerstijn, 1991). The second level, administered by the government, takes into account the various discipline assessments and makes an overall determination of educational quality (Kalkwijk, 1991).

In Japan, an institution is chartered at its outset (and then only if it is on Japanese soil) but is not systematically evaluated again internally or externally. However, Japanese institutions of higher education are beginning to feel the pressures of a national (if not international) market-led call for quality and accountability and are currently exploring their options. Mombusho, the Japanese Ministry of Education and Culture, has announced that institutions must use a process of "self-evaluation" in the creation of all new programs and must begin discussing a similar process of internal institutional evaluation to be established at a future date. With the assistance of the United States Information Service, I met with Japanese educators and Ministry officials in January and May of this year to discuss this emerging phenomenon. My Council on Quality Assurance in International Education is planning to publish a textbook in 1993 on "self-evaluation" to be written in collaboration with Japanese educators. We hope that the text in combination with workshops and conferences will aid Japanese higher education in its development of a process of institutional self-evaluation.

## II: DEMAND FACTORS FOR QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

It is clear from a variety of sources that there is an explicit need to establish or improve quality assurance processes for higher education globally. The demand for quality is coming from sources both external and internal to higher education. External sources include professional bodies, regional trade agreements, international higher education organizations and global assistance organizations. Internal sources include the higher education systems (i.e., Ministries of Education), institutions and programs, motivated by a combination of factors,

including: intrinsic values, a global recession, and for some, a fear of isolation and economic deprivation.

#### Professional Bodies.

Externally, certain professions such as engineering, have formed global organizations and are developing international expectations of quality in professional education. In recent months, a summit meeting took place in Helsinki at which the genesis of international educational standards for the field of engineering was adopted. International educational standards such as these are expected to transcend the powerful external forces of regional trade agreements, such as those being discussed in Europe or North America.

#### Regional Trade Agreements.

Paralleling the effects of EC trade agreements on European higher education are the Free Trade Agreements of North America which are expected to pressure professional associations and their respective accrediting bodies to consider mutually acceptable standards. Simultaneous with the signing of NAFTA (the North America Free Trade Agreement) in early October was an invitational trilateral conference of higher education representatives from Canada, the United States and Mexico. On January 7-9, 1993, my Council, in cooperation with the professional associations representing law, engineering, business, nursing, allied health, veterinary medicine, and architecture, will sponsor a first of its kind conference entitled, "The Globalization of Higher Education and the Professions: The Mobility of Students, Scholars and Professionals". 14 professions currently use common educational quality standards and processes in Canada and the United States. It is the intent of the conference to begin exploring how mobility can be enhanced also with Mexico and other countries.

#### International Higher Education Associations.

International Higher Education Associations play a key role in being advocates of educational quality. This past January, I heard the President of the International Association of Universities (IAU) speak in Washington. Dr. Kamba, who is also Vice Chancellor of the University of Zimbabwe, reported the urgency to accelerate the co-operative activities of higher education in the Northern and Southern hemispheres, including the critical area of developing effective quality assurance systems before the Southern hemisphere is left behind 'forever'. His address, reflective of the IAU's operational policy, is reflective of

the needs expressed by higher education in developing countries through a variety of international education associations.

The Fulbright educational commissions dotted throughout the globe report increasingly of needs for the development of quality assurance systems. Significant among the articulated needs is that reported by the India - U.S. Educational Commission relative to the needs in that country.

The Inter-American organisation for Higher Education (IOHE) is a non-governmental presidential association representing institutions of higher education throughout North, Central and South America. Located in Quebec and supported in part by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the IOHE is playing an important role relative to the trilateral trade agreements. Key to the mission of IOHE is to help its member institutions develop management skills and programs which will serve to maintain quality. Of specific interest currently is the development of quality assurance systems in Central and South American countries. Discussions are currently taking place between the IOHE and the Council on Quality Assurance in International Education relative to these prospective activities.

Again, a key symbol and embodiment of the need to cooperate, improve existing systems and develop processes where they currently do not exist, is the creation of the International Network of Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education. Its May, 1993 conference in Montreal as detailed earlier should serve to strengthen even further the international linkages begun in 1991 when the organization formed.

Also next summer, and specifically July 2-11, 1993, a conference entitled, "Moscow - St. Petersburg '93: An International Conference on Co-operation in Higher Education" will be sponsored by the Association of American Colleges in co-operation with the Ministry for Science, Higher Education and Technical Policy, the Russian Academy of Sciences and the International University, the first private institution. Programming relative to developing systems of quality assurance for Russian higher education will be offered at that conference.

#### International Assistance Organizations.

Through this meeting of the International Congress, and its concentration on issues which will promote the quality of higher education globally, UNESCO plays a key role in the internationalization of higher education. Perhaps the time has arrived in which the organization would like to consider a global program in



quality assurance in higher education which would enhance economic development and the international mobility of students, scholars and professionals.

It is further significant that the World Bank has made higher education and the quality thereof matters of major Bank interest in the process of development as reflected in an internal white paper, "Work Program on Higher Education", produced by the Bank in 1990:

Complaints about the deterioration of the quality of higher education are common across the developing world; yet few countries have formulated specific performance goals for the sector. Targets for the level and quality of outputs from the system need to be set...Indirect interventions that have worked best include the...quality assessment through peer review and accreditation. World Bank, 1990)

It is in the best interest of countries to develop higher education systems internationally. In addition to its support of the Fulbright program, the United States Information Agency (USIA) has a history of assisting higher education globally through a variety of exchange programs, including the Academic Specialist Program, the American Speaker's Program and the International Visitors' Program. The first two programs are designed to send U.S. experts to other countries for defined periods of time to assist in specific areas; the latter is designed to bring foreign visitors to the U.S. for short-term educational and cultural purposes. In addition, the USIA operates communication systems enabling educational video tapes, tele-conferences, etc. Some of these programs are administered in co-operation with A.I.D., either from the Embassies or domestically. In addition to multiple educators coming to the U.S. annually to study the American higher education system are the following recent examples of USIA-sponsored projects concerning quality assurance, each provided by the Council on Quality Assurance in International Education:

Thailand: A video tape and a tele-conference with educators from throughout Asia concerning issues of quality assurance in higher education. The video tape is currently used globally by USIS. (1990)

Bulgaria: At the request of the Ministry of Education and Science, a U.S. quality assurance expert was sent to Bulgaria to design a process for that country. The process, in turn, has been considered for use as a model in other countries in that region. (1991)

Japan: USIS-Tokyo is playing a key role in offering in country American expertise in the area of institutional "self-evaluation". Evolving from this initiative is a book on quality assurance written by American experts for Japanese higher education as well as potential programs to be held in Japan in 1993 on this same theme. (1992)

Mexico: Plans are currently underway for a program on quality assurance for Mexican higher education to take place in early 1993 in Baja California.

Requests for American expertise in any area of higher education can be made through the U.S. Embassies and Consulates.

## B: INTERNAL PRESSURES FOR QUALITY

The demand for quality is also coming from internal sources including the higher education systems, institutions and programs themselves. As stated earlier, countries are motivated by a variety of factors, including: intrinsic values, a global recession, and, for many, a fear of isolation and subsequent economic deprivation.

### Exporting Higher Education.

Rooted in the intrinsic value that an international educational experience is enriching is the growing big business of exporting higher education. The United States has been on the receiving end of higher education imported by other countries and has itself exported an estimated 1,500 educational programs (not counting language programs). Two-thirds of these are study abroad programs for American students, and the other third are populated by foreign nationals in programs offered through American military bases and degree granting or credit-toward-degree granting programs dotting the globe. For example, over 30 U.S. institutions established degree-granting programs in Japan within the last 36 months; and the numbers expressing interest in establishing programs in Eastern and central Europe are growing daily. It is expected that as the global recession continues, institutions from many countries will seek to export their programs in greater numbers in order to secure additional revenues.

### Importing Students.

Many countries can boast growing international student populations. The United States now estimates 400,000 international students in degree-granting programs. Many of these students, and particularly those in graduate programs in

technical areas will enter the U.S. labour force. The overwhelming majority, however, will return to their respective countries to assume positions of leadership.

The growing exportation of the U.S.'s most marketable commodity, combined with the importation of hundreds of thousands of students, has spawned concern to assure quality of the educational products. This concern has led to increased interest on the part of accrediting bodies and international exchange organizations to develop principles of good practice and codes of ethics. It further has led to the creation of organizations such as the Council on Quality Assurance in International Education with two primary objectives: one centered on the assurance of quality in the globalization of American higher education and the other on assisting other countries in developing a program of quality assurance for their higher education systems.

#### Fear of Isolation and Economic deprivation.

Key to an enlightened future is a higher education system which recognizes and perpetuates quality in its institutions. The following case studies very briefly outline the current status of quality assurance processes in higher education in a select group of countries. The significance of these case studies lies in how each demonstrates the demand for and movement toward the development of effective quality assurance systems affecting technical and degree granting institutions at a postsecondary level.

#### India.

The general higher education system in India currently has a voluntary "rolling programme" of peer review. However, a mandatory system is being planned for higher technical education where there is concern about quality in the multiple institutions established in recent years. The All India Council for Technical Education is entrusting this task to a statutory National Board of Accreditation, which, in turn, is expected to: (a) assure minimum quality standards of technical education through a process of accreditation, and (b) disseminate information relative to good practice during this period of rapid expansion. (Chandra, 1991) The India - U.S. Educational Commission (Fulbright) has expressed interest in a formal system of quality assurance to be instituted throughout Indian higher education (and not limited to technical higher education).

#### Nigeria.

Accreditation in Nigeria occurs at the undergraduate level and by program among the 31 Nigerian universities. All degree programs are assessed against minimum academic standards, determined and published by the National Universities Commission for 13 discipline areas. Assessment is based on self-study forms and a panel visit to the institution. 837 academic degree programs were visited between March, 1990 and May, 1991. Of those visited, 20% gained full accreditation. Of the 80% which were granted interim accreditation, it was stated that the programs had satisfied the academic content requirements, but had inadequate staff and/or facilities as a result of economic difficulties. (Akangbou, 1991)

#### Kenya.

The Kenyan Commission for Higher Education was established in 1985 to ensure that quality was maintained during a period of rapid expansion in higher education. One of the functions of the Commission is the accreditation (and inspection) of all the private universities where standards have been comparatively low. Public universities traditionally have autonomy, but with the recent major expansion of student numbers, there is concern about the strength of their quality assurance measures. Bringing all universities under the aegis of the Commission is being considered. (Owako, 1991 )

#### China.

Because of its tradition to compartmentalize higher education, the People's Republic has several forms of quality assurance. Each Ministry administers its own technical institutes to develop standards cooperatively and conduct peer site visits and reviews. For the universities, the State Council appoints an Academic Degree Committee of senior academics and administrators. The Committee, in turn, has specialist subgroups which examine curriculum structure, number and level of staff, and research activities to determine which disciplines in which universities have the right to confer degrees. (Cha, 1991)

#### Bulgaria.

The situation in Bulgaria can be generalized throughout Central and Eastern Europe. As mentioned earlier in this paper, Bulgaria passed a Law of Autonomy in 1991 which enabled new institutions to develop and existing institutions to operate without any accountability to the State. The government through its Ministry of Education and Science was forced into the untenable position of financing these institutions without their being accountable to agreed upon stan-

dards of educational quality. Without common standards or accountability, the situation in Bulgaria (and its neighboring countries) is one of educational anarchy. In 1991, the Ministry of Education and Science requested expertise from the United States to develop a process of quality assurance for that country's higher education system. The Council on Quality Assurance in International Education was contacted by USIA which, in turn, made a fact-finding trip and developed an initial model of quality assurance for Bulgaria. (Lenn, 1991)

Philippines.

Accreditation in the Philippines is under the auspices of the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges and Universities with input from other higher education associations in the country. In a major report published in 1989, it was agreed that accreditation in the Philippines had the means to do a credible job (i.e., organizational structure, standards and the capacity for improvement), but was plagued with problems which were expected to impede a healthy future. Among the impediments listed were conflicts among the various higher education associations, the perceived threat of government domination and the "hazards of financial impoverishment nationwide". (Cooney, 1989) In addition to the report which was published with the help of the Fulbright program, a member of the Technical Panel for Agricultural Education of the Philippines was brought to the U.S. in 1990 by the U.S. Department of Agriculture for a fact-finding visit. The process of accreditation in the Philippines remains in a formative stage.

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As our world faces unprecedented change, including the growing interdependency of our economies and the accelerated mobility of our educated citizens, our commitment to assuring quality must keep pace as higher education is the cornerstone of enlightenment and global development.

**'DEVELOPPEMENTS RECENTS DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR DE L'EUROPE CENTRALE ET DE L'EST - STRUCTURES D'EVALUATION ET D'HABILITATION -'**

par  
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**1. Introduction**

Après 1989, le problème des critères et des procédures d'évaluation de la qualité et d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur est, sans aucun doute, l'un des problèmes les plus débattus en plusieurs pays, y compris ceux de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est. Le problème est étroitement lié à celui, très important, de la reconnaissance réciproque des diplômes, des titres et des études; par conséquent, l'UNESCO ne saurait ne pas s'y impliquer directement et substantiellement.

La Communauté Européenne a déjà fait des démarches importantes concernant l'évaluation de la qualité de l'enseignement supérieur dans les pays de la Communauté Economique Européenne. Nous nous rapportons aux décisions de la réunion du Conseil et des Ministres de l'Education du 25 novembre 1991, aux réunions du groupe de travail d'avril et de septembre 1992, à l'analyse très rapprochée de cette problématique dans le cadre du Conseil et à la réunion des Ministres de l'Education de la C.E.E. qui aura lieu à la fin de l'année 1992.

Ces démarches n'ont en vue que d'une manière secondaire et indirecte la situation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur des pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, où le problème de l'évaluation de la qualité et de l'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur est très accentué. Nous tenons compte des conditions spécifiques dans lesquelles ces institutions ont fonctionné et fonctionnent encore; et nous considérons également que pendant cette période trouble de transition des régimes totalitaires à des structures démocratiques d'organisation

sociale, apparaissent de nouvelles institutions d'enseignement, créées sous la pression du moment.

Voilà pourquoi une analyse quelque sommaire qu'elle soit de l'évolution des institutions d'enseignements supérieur dans les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est pendant la période d'après l'année 1989 est extrêmement importante.

## **2. Observations générales**

Une première remarque vise les tendances, les nécessités et l'évolution des institutions d'enseignement supérieur dans les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est qui mettent en évidence un rapprochement des structures et des préoccupations des institutions similaires de l'Ouest de l'Europe, mais ceci dans un contexte spécifique accentué; nous avons en vue plusieurs phénomènes, tels que:

- les préoccupations pour la décentralisation;
- le besoin de diversifier les sources de financement;
- l'utilisation systématique des ordinateurs et des nouveaux moyens d'accès à l'information;
- la sélection et le perfectionnement des enseignants et des chercheurs;
- la création des liens avec des agents économiques et avec différents segments du secteur privé, en vue d'une harmonisation des activités de la formation des futurs spécialistes avec les nécessités immédiates ou à venir des activités économiques et sociales;
- le rôle extrêmement important des mentalités, des attitudes et de l'inertie d'une partie des enseignants;
- les traditions, les coutumes et le mode de vie de la population de Chaque pays.

Deuxièmement, on peut observer que dans tous les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, nous retrouvons un développement lent de l'enseignement à distance, et une faible efficacité des formes traditionnelles de formation continue (éducation permanente).

Une troisième remarque porte sur les différences entre les pays en cause, différences qui doivent être observées très attentivement; il s'agit des traditions spécifiques des cultures nationales, et des systèmes d'enseignement supérieur, traditions qui enrichissent le continent européen.

Une quatrième observation concerne les différences déterminées de l'idéologie communiste, par les régimes totalitaires. L'Europe reste encore même

divisée en deux mondes qui continuent à se suspecter réciproquement; si l'Europe Occidentale avance vers l'intégration économique et politique, l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est est en train de chercher des voies spécifiques de transition, les moins douloureuses possibles, vers les structures de l'économie de marché, vers la démocratie pluraliste; ce qui suppose d'abord la dissolution des structures anciennes et la mise en place de structures nouvelles.

Une dernière observation: un trait essentiel de cette période de transition dans les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, ayant des implications directes sur l'évolution du système d'enseignement est l'instabilité de la vie sociale dans son ensemble, de la vie économique et culturelle, des relations ethniques bref, l'instabilité des gouvernements.

La dispute entre la jeune génération, les étudiants y compris et le personnel des structures anciennes joue un rôle important dans cette instabilité.

Mais, normalement, l'avenir dépend de la qualité de la jeune génération.

Le système éducationnel sera un facteur essentiel dans le processus de restructuration de l'Europe moderne.

Dans cette période de transition des Etats de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est vers la démocratie pluraliste et l'économie de marché, l'enseignement supérieur est censé jouer un rôle stratégique.

L'idée de base est que les institutions d'enseignement supérieur peuvent agir de la sorte que le changement nécessaire dans chaque pays ait lieu, tout en transmettant l'héritage et le message culturel européen qu'ils détiennent et tout en assimilant rapidement l'expérience des pays développés.

### **3. Vers une réforme des institutions d'enseignement supérieur dans l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est; la Roumanie**

La réforme majeure envisagée après 1989 dans les domaines économique, social et politique, dans les pays ex-communistes de l'Europe suppose la restructuration du système éducationnel, son adaptation aux demandes et aux conditions spécifiques de l'économie de marché, aux critères objectifs de valeur et de compétence, aux standards internationaux d'exigence.



Le développement de l'enseignement est considéré par les gouvernements et par toutes les formations politiques des pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est comme prioritaire.

C'est une option d'une importance majeure pour cette période de transition. Mais comment concrétiser cette option dans une stratégie de développement de l'enseignement supérieur est tout aussi important. Dans ce sens, les autorités compétentes ne trouvent pas toujours des motivations suffisantes pour examiner systématiquement les problèmes de l'éducation dans son ensemble et du développement de l'enseignement supérieur en particulier.

Voilà pourquoi pour la plupart des cas il n'y a pas de stratégie a long terme concernant les problèmes de l'éducation, ou bien si une telle stratégie existe, on ne peut pas, pour le moment, mettre en évidence des éléments qui attestent qu'elle soit systématiquement appliquée.

Par conséquent, beaucoup de changements qui apparaissent dans les systèmes d'enseignement supérieur sont partiels et apparaissent dans la plupart des cas comme des remèdes. Très souvent ces changements en engendrent d'autres afin d'harmoniser l'enseignement supérieur dans son ensemble, phénomène qui crée plutôt une image d'effervescence que de reconstruction systématique.

Les changements notés jusqu'à présent se rapportent surtout à la diversification horizontale des systèmes d'enseignement supérieur.

On peut donc identifier trois tendances majeures, à savoir;

- l'expansion de l'enseignement, c'est-à-dire le nombre croissant d'universités et l'augmentation des effectifs;
- l'essai de diversification du point de vue structural des institutions déjà existantes en créant de nouvelles facultés dans des domaines jusqu'à présent négligés, de la connaissance tels que l'écologie, le management, l'administration des affaires, l'informatique, etc.
- l'apparition des institutions d'enseignement supérieur privées. Leur nombre diffère d'un pays à l'autre. En Roumanie il y en a plus de 40 et le processus de création de parcs établissements ne s'arrête pas.

Une deuxième direction dans laquelle des changements de structure se sont produits est celle des changements verticaux. Dans ce sens, l'ancienne uniformité

de la durée des études qui existait dans les structures communistes, a été remplacée par une grande diversité de formes d'enseignement supérieur, aussi bien au niveau de l'enseignement de base (formes de longue et courte durée de l'enseignement supérieur) qu'au niveau de l'enseignement de spécialité (postuniversitaire); on envisage également le développement de l'enseignement à distance et des universités ouvertes .

Cette expansion plus ou moins contrôlée a entraîné une croissance considérable du nécessaire des ressources humaines et matérielles qui n'ont pas toujours été disponibles.

Par conséquent, on peut s'attendre soit à une décroissance générale des standards académiques du système dans son ensemble, soit à une stratification accentuée des institutions d'enseignement supérieur, en fonction de l'accès privilégié aux ressources que certaines d'entre elles ont.

En ce qui concerne le futur proche on envisage une stratification des institutions d'enseignement supérieur aussi bien qu'une diminution des performances moyennes des activités éducatives.

Outre les changements structuraux ci-dessus, nous assistons à des changements d'une autre nature dans les institutions d'enseignement supérieur dans les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est.

Il s'agit du processus d'adaptation de ces institutions dans le cadre de l'ouverture et de la collaboration internationale universitaire, sur le plan des programmes dont surtout la Communauté Européenne a pris l'initiative (TEMPUS, ERASMUS, EURISTOTE, ACTION JEAN MONNET, etc.). Ces programmes supposent en outre la mobilité des étudiants, des enseignants et des chercheurs.

Une fois engagées ces formes de collaboration interuniversitaire au niveau de l'Europe, il se pose le problème de la compatibilité des études, des critères et des méthodes d'évaluation professionnelles de manière directe et impérative.

Face à ces problèmes, les institutions d'enseignement supérieur des pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, bénéficiaires de ces programmes de collaboration ont essayé chacune de leur côté d'adapter leur propre structure à l'ouverture de l'Europe nouvelle.

Cependant, on pourrait dire que malgré son importance, la contribution significative du programme TEMPUS à la restructuration du système d'enseignement supérieur dans les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, n'est pas encore prise en compte dans une stratégie nationale cohérente de restructuration à moyen et long terme.

#### **4. L'évaluation de la qualité et l'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur - une nécessité**

Compte tenu des particularités mises en évidence ci-dessus, concernant l'état de la réforme des institutions d'enseignement supérieur dans l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, l'activité courante et les performances de tous les établissements d'enseignement supérieur publics ou privés feront bien entendu l'objet d'une attention particulière ainsi qu'à de larges commentaires et implicitement à une évaluation de la part des organismes les plus divers.

Certes, le problème de l'évolution et des performances des institutions doit faire partie intégrante de la stratégie à moyen et à long terme de la restructuration du système d'enseignement supérieur.

Avoir des institutions d'enseignement supérieur adéquates suppose une corrélation étroite entre les structures en cause et les exigences propres aux institutions similaires des pays développés.

Nous avons constaté qu'après les changements profonds survenus après 1989, les institutions d'enseignement supérieur ont trouvé de nouvelles opportunités d'évolution et de changement. En résumé se sont mises en évidence deux tendances complémentaires d'une part l'intégration de nos propres institutions dans les systèmes qui ont fait la preuve de leur efficacité (allant parfois jusqu'à une copie pure et simple); d'autre part la diversification parfois exagérée de son propre système qui a généré de nouvelles structures. Cette diversification est due à l'inertie des anciennes institutions face au changement, ainsi qu'aux évolutions imprévisibles propres à la phase de début de la transition.

Ces deux tendances de développement sont en rapport étroit avec la qualité et le niveau des programmes éducationnels promus par les dites institutions d'enseignement supérieur.

Le manque de standards académiques clairs et largement reconnus a négativement influencé l'évolution de certaines institutions d'enseignement supérieur publiques ou privées après 1989.

Nous considérons que l'introduction de l'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur constitue un problème crucial pour l'évolution de la réforme du système d'enseignement supérieur. Ainsi la nécessité de définir des critères et des procédures d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur dans les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est prend une importance primordiale dans cette étape d'évolution de la réforme générale.

Nous allons voir par la suite la manière dont la Roumanie envisage d'introduire l'habilitation de toutes les institutions d'enseignement supérieur publiques et privées.

### **5. Procédure d'habilitation envisagée par la Roumanie**

Dans une première étape nous avons opéré une recherche ample qui a inventorié les principaux systèmes d'évaluation de la qualité et de l'habilitation des établissements d'enseignement supérieur dans les Etats du monde où ces procédures existent déjà, sont appliquées ou le seront. Nous avons également analysé d'autres initiatives concernant les méthodes et les procédés ayant un caractère plus restreint d'évaluation de l'activité des institutions d'enseignement supérieur dans différents pays.

Dans une deuxième étape nous avons procédé à des analyses comparatives des procédures et des méthodes et nous avons mis en relief leur degré de compatibilité, leurs traits et caractéristiques communs.

Troisièmement nous avons étudié et analysé les instruments de mise en oeuvre des procédures et des méthodes respectives. Les conclusions de ces recherches se sont matérialisées dans une volumineuse étude qui a servi de base aux démarches ultérieures.

Entre autres nous avons mis en évidence les points suivants:

- a. Il existe une grande diversification des procédures d'évaluation de la qualité dans les institutions d'enseignement supérieur du monde malgré les contacts étroits qui existent depuis longtemps entre ces institutions.
- b. Les méthodes et les procédures d'évaluation ne peuvent pas en général être transférées d'un pays à l'autre sans avoir à les adapter profondément aux particularités locales.

c. Nous remarquons le vif intérêt dans le monde contemporain pour l'évaluation de la qualité de l'enseignement supérieur; dans les pays les plus divers, apparaissent spontanément, ces dix dernières années, des organismes d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur; certaines procédures traditionnelles disparaissent et sont remplacées par d'autres.

d. Il existe des grandes différences entre les pays quant aux rôles des gouvernements dans le processus d'habilitation .

e. Chaque pays vise à créer son propre système d'évaluation et de contrôle de la qualité mais l'objectif commun est d'assurer au processus éducatif un niveau mondialement reconnu.

f. Les mutations rapides qui s'opèrent dans de nombreux pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, ainsi que dans d'autres pays du monde dans le domaine de l'enseignement supérieur impose la mise en place d'un système d'habilitation des comparaisons au niveau international.

h. Le système d'habilitation proposé pour la Roumanie est spécifique à un pays où l'on rencontre un développement sans précédent de l'enseignement supérieur public et privé. En outre, il prend en compte l'élaboration d'une législation nouvelle relative à l'éducation en Roumanie.

Le cadre législatif nécessaire a été défini dans une deuxième partie de notre étude. En ce sens le gouvernement de la Roumanie a élaboré un projet de loi "concernant la mise en place de la procédure d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur et de reconnaissance des diplômes au niveau national".

Ce projet de loi a été soumis aux débats du Parlement Roumain. Dans l'exposé des motifs de ce projet de la loi on précise que:

"La définition d'une réglementation ferme des conditions dans lesquelles une institution d'enseignement supérieur peut être officiellement reconnue est devenue une question d'une brûlante actualité dans notre pays. Puisque la loi de l'enseignement qui légifère ce problème est encore en train d'être discutée, nous proposons d'adopter d'urgence le projet de loi ci-joint qui pourrait définir les conditions de fonctionnement des institutions d'enseignement supérieur".

Pour ce qui touche à l'enseignement privé le projet de la loi précise que:

- Les institutions d'enseignement supérieur privées ne peuvent être créées que si elles répondent aux exigences de qualité scientifiques et pédagogique et que si elles offrent aux étudiants de chances de réussite scolaire et socioprofessionnelle au moins égales, et que si elles complètent le réseau d'enseignement supérieur d'état. Ces institutions doivent offrir des alternatives éducationnelles et doivent être organisées sur la base de l'absence de profit.

- La procédure d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur a deux étapes:

1) l'octroi d'une autorisation de fonctionnement pour l'institution d'enseignement supérieur dans son ensemble ou suivant le cas pour certaines facultés et spécialités, répondant à certains critères minimaux concernant les plans et les programmes d'enseignement, la qualité des enseignants, le mode de sélection des étudiants ou d'autres participants aux cours, les moyens matériels et le financement.

2) la reconnaissance des diplômes au niveau national.

- Les institutions d'enseignement supérieur privées existantes peuvent recevoir une autorisation de fonctionnement si elles répondent aux conditions minimales stipulées dans l'alinéa précédent .

- Le Ministère de l'Education et de la Science procédera à l'habilitation par l'intermédiaire de la Commission d'Evaluation Académique et d'Habilitation dont les membres sont nommés par le gouvernement ainsi que par l'entremise d'un corps de spécialistes associés à cette Commission.

- La procédure concrète de fonctionnement de la Commission d'Evaluation Académique et d'Habilitation sera établie par ordre du Ministre de l'Enseignement et de la Science.

- Au niveau national les diplômes seront reconnus pour chaque spécialité, uniquement lorsque les premières promotions d'étudiants auront terminé le cycle scolaire.

Dans la troisième étape, on a défini les principales phases de la procédure concrète de fonctionnement de la Commission d'Evaluation Académique et d'Habilitation.

Elles consistent en:

- objectifs et principes de l'habilitation
- étapes du processus d'habilitation
- standards et niveaux d'habilitation
- rôle de la Commission et de sous-commissions dans la procédure d'habilitation.

Même si, dans le principe, toutes les institutions d'enseignement supérieur de la Roumanie peuvent recevoir l'agrément, le déroulement de cette vaste activité tiendra compte de l'existence des types suivants d'institutions:

- 1) Les institutions traditionnelles (Université, Instituts) dont une partie est considérée comme institution standard et sert de référence aux autres types d'institution.
- 2) Les nouvelles institutions d'état (institutions publiques).
- 3) Les institutions privées.

Les standards et les niveaux d'habilitation seront établis par rapport aux institutions standards, leur niveau et leur statut étant confirmés par l'activité déployée et par comparaison avec les institutions d'enseignement supérieur reconnues dans d'autres pays.

Les standards de base proposés portent sur:

- S1) l'intégrité et la probité académique
- S2) la structure et les possibilités de développement à moyen et à long terme
- S3) les modes d'administration et de direction
- S4) les plans et les programmes d'enseignement
- S5) le personnel didactique
- S6) les possibilités de documentation
- S7) les conditions d'étude et de vie des étudiants
- S8) les moyens matériels
- S9) les ressources financières.

Une dernière étape préparatoire prévoit la communication officielle à chaque unité d'enseignement supérieur de la législation des standards et des mécanismes d'habilitation.

A présent, en Roumanie, le processus d'évaluation et d'habilitation peut commencer dès que le cadre législatif le permettra.

## **6. Proposition**

Le cas de la Roumanie constituera le point de départ de notre proposition qui met en évidence les préoccupations des organes de décision concernant le problème complexe de l'évaluation de la qualité et d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur, aussi bien de celles traditionnelles que des institutions créées ces dernières années.

Il va de soi que de telles préoccupations devraient être accompagnées d'une analyse globale au niveau d'une structure mondiale, telle l'UNESCO. Cette analyse devrait mener à une synthèse de la diversité des critères et des méthodes actuels au niveau national ou régional concernant l'évaluation de la qualité et l'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur.

Les conclusions de cette synthèse, sans interférer avec les responsabilités et l'autorité des pays impliqués, devraient représenter un point d'appui à long et à moyen terme quant à l'évaluation de la qualité et d'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur, sans affecter ni les responsabilités et l'autorité des pays impliqués, ni l'autonomie des institutions d'enseignement supérieur.

Ne nous imaginons pas que cette analyse globale serait utile uniquement aux pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est. Des aspects tels que:

- l'augmentation des dépenses publiques destinées à l'enseignement supérieur (dans beaucoup de pays, ces dépenses ont atteint les niveaux les plus hauts)
- l'expansion continue des systèmes et des formes d'enseignement supérieur
- l'augmentation continue de l'effectif d'étudiants
- la croissance des domaines d'étude, surtout dans la sphère des sciences sociales
- la manière dans laquelle les institutions d'enseignement supérieur satisfont les nécessités sociales du moment
- l'ouverture internationale croissante des institutions d'enseignement supérieur
- la grande mobilité des étudiants, des enseignants et des chercheurs
- l'internationalisation du marché du travail
- l'approbation d'une convention universelle pour la reconnaissance des études et des titres dans l'enseignement supérieur, montrent qu'une attention toute particulière doit être accordée aux procédures comparables et internationalement acceptables en ce qui concerne l'évaluation de la qualité et l'habilitation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur. Dans cette direction, l'UNESCO a fait la



preuve qu'elle est le catalyseur le plus indiqué pour résoudre ces problèmes d'une grande importance.

**THE WORK OF THE NATIONAL OFFICE OF OVERSEAS SKILLS  
RECOGNITION IN COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT IN AUSTRALIA**

by  
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**Context and Setting**

Australia has a federal system of government with constitutional powers in respect of the sectors of education residing with the States and Territories. Nevertheless, a significant Commonwealth role has developed in several sectors of education and training, in particular in higher education in consequence of Commonwealth funding of this sector, and in training aligned with the federal government's interests and responsibilities in the areas of industrial relations and economic development.

All States and Territories within Australia have comprehensive secondary school systems directed at the provision of general education in which vocational education has traditionally had a lesser status. This situation is now being re-assessed.

Participation in education and training by the teenage cohort rose from 58.9 per cent in 1983 to 66.7 per cent by 1990. Nevertheless, 51 per cent of school leavers in 1989 were not participating in further education or training, so that the proportion of teenage school leavers who did not proceed into either structured training or higher education has continued to be unacceptably high.

**Economic and Industrial Context**

The Vocational Education and Training (VET) reform agenda of recent years has been driven by a combination of economic, financial and industrial imperatives. Australia's deteriorating industrial trading position, and the general experience of the Australian economy throughout the 1980's, has been a key

influence. This has led to a very general recognition of the need to up-grade the skill level of the Australian workforce as an important aspect of economic reform so that Australian industry will be more competitive on domestic and world markets.

Against this background, one of the key influences on the reform of training has been the process of award restructuring in the industrial relations arena. This process has followed a 1988 decision of the Australian Industrial Relations Commission which linked salary increases for the workforce with the acquisition of higher levels of skills, so providing for skill-based career paths.

### **The Training Reform Agenda**

A central feature of the training reform agenda has been the development of a national perspective on training needs and priorities that has persuaded the federal and State/Territory governments, employers, and unions to collaborate in the planning and implementation of the reforms.

After a series of Ministerial discussion papers issued by the Federal Minister for Employment, Education and Training in the period after 1987 the general objectives and priorities of the training reform agenda took shape in five major priorities:

1. to increase substantially the level of national investment in training;
2. to improve the quality and flexibility of national training arrangements;
3. to improve the national consistency of training arrangements and the co-ordination of the national training effort;
4. to improve the training opportunities available to disadvantaged groups; and
5. reform in the arrangements for the recognition of overseas qualifications.

In sum the training reform agenda involves a concerted national effort, supported by governments, employers, and unions, to expand the level of the national investment in training while at the same time achieving qualitative improvement, increased equity, and improve consistency and co-ordination.

The national perspective has resulted in the establishment of a national infrastructure to implement agreed developments. This national perspective has led to the new framework for VET which is discussed below.

### **A New Framework for VET**

A central aspect of the reforms has been the development of a new framework for VET. This framework involves:

- \* conversion of VET to a competency basis;
- \* the development of national competency standards to underpin the system;
- \* steps towards a unified entry-level training system with the proposed establishment of an Australian Vocational Certificate Training System;
- \* the establishment of a National Framework for the Recognition of Training;
- \* better interfaces with the other sectors of education;
- \* a national basis for the planning and funding of Technical and Further Education (TAFE).

An important aspect has been the decision taken at a special Federal/State Ministerial conference in 1989 to convert all VET to a competency-basis. A subsequent Ministerial meeting in 1990 set a target of substantial implementation being achieved by 1993.

Federal, State and Territory governments are collaborating in the implementation of the new system, with the support of employers and unions, with implementation co-ordinated through a Federal/State consultative committee called VEETAC which has established a number of working parties to undertake detailed planning.

The key features of a competency-based system in the Australian context have been defined in the following terms:

"Essential aspects of a CBT system are that delivery, assessment and certification of training should relate to the identification of, instruction in, and

demonstrated attainment of the knowledge, skills, and applications required for effective performance at the required level, as defined in competency standards."

A competency-based approach to VET is being adopted in Australia as a quality-assurance system directed at ensuring that the training system produces the competencies actually required by industry. Such a system also has advantages in flexibility and access, and is being implemented to give effect to the concept of skill-related career pathways flowing from the award-restructuring process.

Competency-based assessment and certification are central features of a competency-based system, so that the new system has profound implications for assessment, certification, and recognition practices.

The growing national perspective in VET culminated in a Federal/State agreement of July 1992 to establish a new national basis for the planning and funding of VET. Under the agreement, an Australian National Training Authority will be established to undertake these functions overseen by a Federal/State ministerial council. This approach will include an expansion of TAFE funding by the Commonwealth.

### **Competency Standards in Vocational Education and Training**

Two of the critical aspects of the new system are the role of national competency standards and the work of the National Training Board.

The National Training Board (NTB) was established in February 1990 as a joint initiative of the Federal, State and Territory governments to oversee the development of national competency standards. The NTB operates under a board on which the Federal Government, States and Territories, employers and unions are represented, reflecting the consensus approach to the reform of training adopted in Australia.

National competency standards are developed by industry bodies called competency standards bodies which are formally recognized by The Board. Draft standards are approved by the Board and these serve as benchmarks for course design, assessment and certification. National core standards may be supplemented by additional standards for particular purposes, for example at the level of the enterprise.

The role of competency standards bodies has usually been exercised by existing Industry Training Advisory Bodies (ITABS) where such bodies exist for an industry. The increased significance of the work of these bodies reflects the way VET is becoming more responsive to industry needs.

The Board has established an Australian Standards Framework of eight competency levels which will serve as reference points for the development and recognition of competency standards.

### **Mutual Recognition**

Over the past eighteen months, Australian Heads of Government have given consideration to the development of mutual recognition arrangements as part of the broader regulatory reform agenda, but particularly to improve labour market mobility within Australia. The Vocational Education, Employment and Training Advisory Committee (VEETAC) set up a working party on Mutual Recognition in November 1990 to contribute to the developments of mutual recognition arrangements in so far as they relate to occupations. Because of its expertise in the field of professional qualifications, NOOSR has provided support to the VEETAC Working Party and coordinated VEETAC's consideration of these issues.

At their meeting in May 1992, Heads of Government signed the Mutual Recognition Agreement which commits Premiers and Chief Ministers to enact legislation in their own jurisdiction by 31 October year to refer powers to the Federal Government.

Based on this, the Federal Government in turn has agreed to enact mutual recognition legislation by 1 January 1993, which will enable any practitioner registered in one jurisdiction to practice in another, provided the practitioner notifies the second jurisdiction and it is accepted that the occupation is equivalent in both jurisdictions. Under this arrangement, each jurisdiction will retain its prerogative to set entry level standards and to determine the conditions of practice within its own jurisdiction but will undertake to recognise registration in other jurisdictions.

In certain circumstances, Ministerial Councils will be empowered to decide on the agreed standards which will apply, including national competency standards, to determine the equivalence of occupations and to then make declarations on equivalence. While they were not the aim of mutual recognition, it is envisaged that where national competency standards are available, they will

provide a reference point for the smooth implementation of mutual recognition in respect of occupations.

Heads of Government have also agreed that those occupations which are registered in some but not all jurisdictions should be rationalised with a strong presumption towards deregistration. They have acknowledged that the development of national competency standards will assist in doing so.

### **The Work of the National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR)**

NOOSR was established in July 1989 by the Federal Government, as part of the National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia. The decision was taken in response to a growing awareness of the economic and individual benefits of wider recognition of occupational skills gained overseas within Australia. Recognition for registration purposes was to proceed on the basis of national competency based standards.

NOOSR's initial responsibility was thus to improve the skills recognition process for overseas trained professionals by encouraging professions to develop and then use competency standards, rather than qualifications as a basis of assessment. It soon became evident, however, that those standards were equally applicable to those trained in Australia.

Whilst essentially driven by the need to develop a competency based approach for the assessment of overseas trained professionals, a number of professions saw competency based standards as a means of providing more focus for continuing professional education and identifying areas requiring attention by education providers. Indeed, some professions started before Government decided to adopt a competency based approach in this area (e.g. nurses); others started before guidelines for the development of standards were in place, such as veterinary surgeons, dietitians, engineers, physiotherapists and occupational therapists.

Competency-based professional programs in Teaching, Nursing, Law and Pharmacy and articulation of competencies associated with professional practice, have a long history in the United States. It was the (very long) list of specifications and associated assessment which eventually led to criticisms of that competency approach, which is still used today by its opponents as an argument for dismissing the relevance of the competency approach in the higher education system.

The approaches being taken by NOOSR are, however, quite different and have learnt by past experience. Importantly, they address competencies rather than tasks and competence perceived in the full sense noted above.

### **NOOSR's role in competency development**

NOOSR aims to

- . improve the skills recognition process by encouraging professions to develop national competency standards as a basis for assessment of professionals, including overseas professionals
- . encourage professions to put into place mechanisms which offer an alternative to assessment of formal qualifications, i.e. assessment of competency
- . promote and assist the professions in the development of national entry level competency standards
- . develop skills assessment based on competency
- . encourage mutual recognition with regard to registration issues

### **NOOSR processes with professions developing competency standards**

In fulfilling its role, NOOSR facilitates agreements between interested parties within any one profession, provides advice and funding support and liaises with the NTB on policy and operational matters.

An important criterion in NOOSR's funding guidelines is the participation of all key players. These are to include the peak professional bodies, universities, registration boards and industrial parties. As with the development and acceptance of occupational competencies at professional levels.

Professions developing national competency standards with NOOSR

New Projects:

- . Accountancy
- . Medical Scientists
- . Optometry
- . Paediatrics



- . Speech Pathology
- . Medical Radiations Science

Standards by December 1992:

- . Agricultural Science
- . Architecture
- . Chiropractic/Osteopathy
- . Engineering
- . Pharmacy
- . Physiotherapy
- . Psychology
- . Social Work/Welfare

Standards Complete:

- . Dietetics
- . Veterinary Science

Developing Assessment Methodology:

- . Nursing

### **Relationship between NOOSR and the NTB**

The role of the NTB is, in consultation and cooperation with industry, to endorse competency standards for occupations and classifications in industry or enterprise awards or agreements. The Board's activities have been primarily directed to where the bulk of the workforce are, which is Australian Standards Framework (ASF) levels 1 to 6 (entry to technical and paraprofessional classifications), and are likely to stay that way for the next few years.

NOOSR's support is primarily directed to ASF levels 7 and 8. NOOSR does not have the authority to endorse the standards developed by professions, the way the NTB endorses standards developed by industries, although the role that competency standards can have in a mutual recognition context will require some formalisation of their status.

Not surprisingly, the NTB and NOOSR need to work in close cooperation and the two organisations are currently drawing up a proposal to facilitate com-

plementarity and articulation between projects. Importantly, the Australian Standards Framework provides the benchmark for both organisations.

### **Issues in competency standards development in the higher education sector**

Australia is currently in a process of transition from the traditional educational arrangements for assessment and certification to the new arrangements with a competency-based system of VET focussed on industry skill requirements.

National competency standards and competency-based assessments and certification provide the foundations for the new system. This approach has profound implications for both curriculum and pedagogy and is leading to the trialling of a wide range of non-traditional delivery strategies.

Until recently, the Higher Education sector has not been involved nor concerned with the development of a competency based training system because its target was seen to be vocational, not academic education. The traditional emphasis on the autonomy of institutions particularly in relation to admissions, curricula, accreditation and standards has been another contributing factor to this situation.

There is some concern in higher education with aspects of the emerging competency-based system of VET. On the other hand, many professions in Australia have themselves seen a number of benefits in developing competency based standards, including the increased portability of skills, a more equitable recognition of skills, easier recognition of prior learning, and the means to establish more informed dialogue between industry, training and education sectors.

### **Competency-based curricula and the role of the universities**

Universities have been concerned that the development of competency standards for industry and the professions will lead to increased pressure to structure courses around those requirements, restricting the flexibility of universities to innovate in their programs and limiting them to instrumentalist objectives. They note the wider objectives of university education and the important contribution that learning and enquiry make to the vitality of our society.

These are qualities which are widely expected of, and supported for universities and any application of competency frameworks should avoid putting them at risk.

There has always been, however, a two way relationship between education providers and industry, particularly in relation to requirements for the professions. The development of competency standards will not change that relationship. Rather it will provide a more structured and consistent basis for discussions about course design and content.

It will still be open to universities to structure their programs to meet the wider objectives of university and to innovate in new course structures and industry applications. The flexibility will be relevant to individual institutions as well as the sector as a whole.

Universities and industry will need to respect each other's requirements and the expertise underpinning them. This is not to say that those exchanges will always be straight forward, but a balance will need to be achieved if outcomes are to be satisfactory.

Essentially competency standards provide a framework for a three way "dialogue" between the interested parties. This should have regard for the legitimate interest of each in addressing such issues as the scope of degree programs, their length, articulation with post graduate programs and their relationship to subsequent on-the-job work experience, practical training and professional recognition.

### **Definition of competence**

The most immediate concern of universities has been the possible introduction of professional training in the higher education sector based on a narrow definition of competence.

However, it should be noted that the recent competency development work sponsored by NOOSR has rejected the narrow task based approach used in the 1960s in favour of a broader definition which encompasses knowledge, skills and other criteria such as understanding, transferability and attitudes. Key research papers and suggested models are being developed and circulated for discussion, and the issues are being explored by a range of interested parties right now. (See publications listed below)

### **Competency based assessment**

Competency based assessment is suspected by its critics of not being able to assess knowledge and the overall "learned abilities" that a "well rounded"

education should provide. This is because of the belief that competency based learning would only train for what is readily assessable, namely readily observable performance of tasks, divorced from their underlying attributes and removed from the intellectual context in which they must be embedded.

Proponents of competency based assessment argue that traditional forms of examinations have usually only tested knowledge, often in writing, and that those other attributes which are considered important in the exercise of competent work (professional and other) - including analytical capacity, problem solving, empathy, caring, establishment of relationship with clients, interactions with colleagues, etc - have often been neglected in examination based assessment (although students may develop these attributes through their training). This may account in part for why some people do well in written examinations but do not necessarily perform well in the workplace.

Again the issues and approaches to them are being addressed right now through research and through the experience of competency development projects sponsored by NOOSR.

### **RELEVANT PUBLICATIONS**

Establishing competency-based standards in the professions (NOOSR Research Paper no 1, December 1990)

Competency-based assessment in the Professions (NOOSR Research Paper no 2, December 1990)

A guide to development of competency standards for professions (NOOSR Research Paper no 7, April 1992)

A guide to the development of competency-based assessment strategies\_for the professions (NOOSR Research Paper, anticipated release early 1993)

Competency Standards (Higher Education Series, Information Paper no 1, August 1992)

## **LES DIPLOMES EUROPEENS ET L'AMERIQUE LATINE**

Par  
Jacques Lopatka  
Chef du Bureau

1. Dès sa création en 1951, au moment où l'Europe occidentale était aux prises avec des problèmes de personnes déplacées, le CIME était déjà également confronté aux aspects techniques de reconnaissance et d'évaluation des diplômes.
2. En effet, dans le cadre de son programme de "Migration pour le Développement" il lui incombait de mettre en place dans les pays d'émigration un mécanisme complexe de sélection de main-d'oeuvre qualifiée, mécanisme devant s'adapter aux besoins reflétés par les offres d'emploi des pays d'accueil.
3. A l'époque, les principales régions d'immigration étaient l'Amérique latine, l'Australie, l'Afrique du Sud, la Nouvelle-Zélande et le Canada.
4. La mise en place du transfert de ressources humaines qualifiées est une tâche complexe et de haute responsabilité puisque le but du processus est de tenter d'établir une correspondance parfaite entre l'offre d'emploi d'une part et la formation et l'expérience professionnelle du candidat d'autre part.
5. A ce stade, apparaît l'importance de l'évaluation de la formation du migrant par rapport aux exigences des responsabilités qu'il aura à assumer dans le pays d'immigration.
6. Il y a donc plus de 40 ans maintenant, que l'OIM s'est vu confrontée à ces questions et que l'Organisation s'est adaptée aux circonstances en s'inspirant des premières mesures concrètes prises dès 1949 par le Bureau International du Travail (BIT).

7. C'est à cette époque qu'apparurent les premiers guides définissant la méthode de base nécessaire à la collecte et à la présentation d'informations sur les professions en demande à l'échelle internationale et par ailleurs, permettant au CIME d'établir une classification interne de ses besoins en métiers nécessités par les pays d'accueil. Il s'agissait à ce moment-là de mouvements de masse au départ de l'Espagne, de l'Italie, de la Grèce vers l'Argentine, le Brésil, l'Australie et le Canada et en grande quantité de métiers tels que maçons, menuisiers, électriciens, etc.
8. Afin de respecter les normes-limites professionnelles propres à chaque profession, le CIME ouvrait donc des centres de pré-sélection où étaient proposés des entrevues avec des experts, des tests théoriques et pratiques, à l'issue desquels les candidats à l'émigration étaient retenus ou écartés.
9. Les candidats retenus étaient alors accueillis et logés dans des centres de formation professionnelle où, durant six mois, ils recevaient des cours théoriques et pratiques de perfectionnement de leurs connaissances et expérience de base. Le semestre de formation achevé par un examen réussi débouchait alors sur un départ vers la nouvelle patrie où un autre centre d'accueil similaire permettait à l'immigrant durant six mois également, de s'adapter aux méthodes de travail propres au pays d'accueil.
10. Dès 1960 les offres d'emploi des pays d'accueil outre-mer se font plus restrictives en même temps que plus diversifiées. Apparaissent des exigences de formation plus spécifique nécessitant des ouvriers hautement qualifiés des techniciens, des ingénieurs et même des professeurs pour l'enseignement universitaire.
11. Le CIME se réfère alors à l'instrument de base, en l'occurrence, la première édition par le BIT en 1958, de la "Classification Internationale Type des Professions" qui, d'une part, permet aux Missions réceptrices du CIME d'établir des offres d'emploi sur des critères bien déterminés et vice-versa, aux Missions du CIME en Europe, de diffuser des avis de vacance et de pré-sélectionner les candidatures dans les limites d'un cadre systématique et correspondant aux critères techniques définis par les parties intéressées.
12. L'évolution de la technologie se poursuit à une cadence très rapide. Les exigences des employeurs potentiels dans les pays d'immigration suivent le même rythme ce qui conduit tout naturellement l'OIM à s'adapter aux circonstances actuelles, à savoir, internationaliser les normes de reconnaissance de curricula-vitae, afin de créer une harmonie d'expression entre l'offre et la demande.

13. Une notion de base importante est actuellement retenue. D'une part la formation technique ou académique, c'est-à-dire, le ou les diplômes obtenus. Ensuite, l'expérience. Un exemple pratique : un producteur de jus de fruit recherche un responsable-qualité pour sa chaîne de production, ce qui suppose un candidat titulaire d'un diplôme en Industrie alimentaire et ayant par ailleurs une expérience spécifique en boissons de grande consommation.

14. En vue d'éviter tout malentendu dans l'interprétation internationale des besoins précis en postes à couvrir et des compétences réelles du candidat, l'OIM se base actuellement sur deux critères bien définis: une description très détaillée de l'offre et, un dossier de candidature exhaustif reflétant exactement la formation de base ainsi que l'expérience acquise.

15. Aujourd'hui, l'OIM possède une base données informatisées contenant toutes les offres d'emploi, de même que toutes les candidatures potentielles. Un tel outil quotidiennement actualisé permet une pré-sélection qui sera suivie d'une ou de plusieurs entrevues avec les intéressés.

16. En 1992, l'OIM n'enregistre que 3% d'échec d'adaptation outre-mer parmi son choix de candidatures en Europe, car son système bilatéral d'évaluation emploi/éducation-formation est standardisé et périodiquement réadapté aux exigences du marché de l'emploi. Le BIT vient d'ailleurs de lui donner un nouveau guide qui ne prête à aucune erreur d'interprétation au départ; il s'agit de la nouvelle édition 1988 de sa "Classification Internationale Type des Professions".

17. Les processus opérationnels qu'impliquent les différents programmes de Transfert de Ressources Humaines Qualifiées, nécessitent de la part de l'OIM un suivi très strict ainsi qu'une adaptation permanente et de ce fait, les conclusions qui émergeront du Congrès de Paris devront faire l'objet de la part de l'Organisation, d'une étude approfondie puisqu'elles apporteront un complément d'information significatif sur l'élaboration et l'interprétation d'un barème international, toujours mieux adapté à la diversification des niveaux de formation propre à chaque nation du globe.

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