PROBLEMS OF HUNGARIAN TEACHERS IN THE STATE EDUCATION SECTOR IN A CHANGING WORLD

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THE SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

The research with the working title 'Problems of Hungarian Teachers of Public Education—In a Changing World' focuses on gathering the recent problems of teachers on the basis of their preferences in the classroom environment. The aim of the study is to reveal the real troubles of Hungarian educators in the state education sector, the nature of these problems and how they affect the formative role of the teacher. We supposed that the nucleus of the problem is connected with skills and material or professional uncertainty. Here we share the related professional literature and the work of the survey and we would like to highlights further ways of making inquiries. The results could be applied mainly in teacher training, especially in the intellectual and existential preparation of students.

The first aim of the research was to reveal recent problems of Hungarian teachers. We cannot avoid clarifying the concept of "problem": the word exists as a category in the theory of science and as a difficulty. We aimed at the informal meaning of the term, not the theoretical one.

AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of the research is to reveal the real problems of the high school teachers after the turn of the century, what these problems are, how stressful they are and how they impact on the changing role of the teacher. It has started to be very fashionable to use the terms *self-reflection or to become self-reflective*, and expectations have indeed made teachers self-reflective among researchers and pedagogical surveys of late. So the expectations exist while the exploration of the process continues without any knowledge of the final outcome. In the meantime the teacher has remained alone in fulfilling expectations and meeting requirements, and is liable to go along his or her way without support. "Teachers, aside from their in-class service, perform several

other duties only indirectly related to education. The traditional role of schools expands into such fields as social care, transition into the world of work, the struggle against different forms of deviation, and other social problems". (Lannert et al., 2001). The ability needed to understand this role is often reflectivity, and we suggest that the teacher remains alone in the process of forming it. Our goal is to give some guidelines in setting up a process wherein one can exercise self-reflection.

SPECIALIST LITERATUREE

If we look at the related bibliography, it is clear that the supposed problems are multiple and numerous. First we should face the diversity of the difficulties and then narrow them down. What items are related to our recent issue? First of all, we cannot pass by two important statements to be found in the specialist literature: "Over the years, educational researchers have investigated many factors considered to affect student learning. At the heart of this line of inquiry is the core belief that teachers make a difference." (S.P. Wright et al., 1997) and "Teachers are central to any consideration of schools, and majority of education policy discussions focus directly or indirectly on the role of teachers." (Eric A. Hanushek et al., 2006).

Problem-identification

Another problem has been found while reviewing specialised literature for example the methodological culture. "Methodological culture of teachers—classroom work is still dominated by frontal teaching, although recently increasing efforts have been made to involve more differentiated methods, for example co-operative teaching, less rigid class structures, and use of ITC. The most frequently used method of organisation of the teaching-learning process is differentiation within a heterogeneous class. Differentiated class work is a lot more prevalent in general schools, and ICT is more frequently used in secondary institutions". (Loboda et al., 2007). Another problematic feature is teacher-pupil interaction: "There is a contradiction between students' expectations from the school and the school's values as perceived by students. While students expect the school to help them develop their personality and increase their self-reliance, in their opinion the school considers strengthening discipline and community-minded attitude to be its most important job. Students enjoy school tasks less and less, fewer of them think they have a say in shaping school rules, and they increasingly feel oppressed by school assignments

and their image of teachers has been deteriorating" (Loboda et al., 2007 ibid). Finally, violence we must list one of the most threatening phenomena in the school. "is more and more conspicuous within the school walls. Surveys conducted among school children reveal the grievances (mostly originating from teachers) students of different ages foster. The most frequent occurrences are related to evaluation in a broad sense. In a lot of schools the judgmental and disciplinary function of evaluation seems to be more prevalent than necessary. In many cases the educational potential of formative evaluation is unexploited. Student behaviour that is a problem for teachers often includes verbal abuse, but student aggression manifesting in vandalism is also a major concern". (Loboda et al., 2007. ibid).

HYPOTHESIS

Ever since the pedagogical researches had started there have appeared many monitors, surveys, data and reports about the actual matters, issues and problems of the teachers and teacher activities. However, these previous examinations were structured or set up on the base of assumptions of researchers. The possible problem-framing was quite hypothetical and suggested the presuppositions of the inventors of questions, not that of the involved teachers.

We have supposed in our research that there are existential problems that are in the forefront of teacher thinking—including skills, lack of conformity to practical demands, and material and financial uncertainness. We have focused our survey on finding the problems that are primary for the educators. An important factor in the examination was that the teachers should share their views upon their opinion and how these problems have occurred in the classroom situations.

METHODOLOGY

The methodological characteristic of the survey was data collecting with qualitative methods (observation). 84 teacher training students had been collecting data in almost 22 settlements and 50 schools. Students were given the task of listing the noticeable problems of teachers, upon their observation and declaration of the pedagogues. Each of the students had participated in 10 lessons. Then they recorded these observations. These records served as the basic data source to develop variables. After the analysis of the before mentioned documents we categorised and enrolled the typical problems and items. We succeeded in compounding the following categories:

pedagogical, societal, and existential ones. We determined the categories upon a societal-ontological consideration as these categories have been either constituent or forming facts of a societal subsystem. In the further period of the research we are going to refine the analysis of the teachers' declarations from the point of view of the relevancy of the location or the specialty, especially the foreign language skills.

PROCESS OF THE RESEARCH

During the observation of classroom activities of the teachers we paid attention to details, such as: role of the teacher, pupils' activity, conductional techniques, being late, consolidation (e.g. of classes), inconsistence between the role players, diligence, value transmission, computer (e.g. skills), partnership with parents, conducting without stress, absence (e. g. of pupils from the school), discipline in class, sustainability, closing up of some departments, impatience. Shortage of time, lack of preparing for the lessons, rewarding skills, creativity, measurement, evaluation, electing of a method, motivation were selected as problematic points, too. In case we list troubles, environmental education, responsibility, maintenance of the attention, and competition for the pupils are different kinds of questions too, that show a considerably diverse picture. Now, these elements of the problem list have started to serve as variables in our research. Then—because of the diversity of terms—we had to set up some categories upon which we could classify these issues. These have turned into the following categories: *1) Societal Problems 2) Pedagogical Problems 3) Existential Problems.* Then it occurred to us that some of the issues could not be put unambiguously in one or other category, so we needed to create further grades of classification. These are: *1) Societal/Pedagogical Problems 2) Societal/Existential Problems 3) Pedagogical/Existential Problems.* After making such sub-classes of terms we found that the observed and listed problems of the participant teachers have covered each other, e. g. one category coincides with another. Teachers' difficulties are not separable as only existential, simply pedagogical or just societal ones. Problems of how to discipline or motivate and the phenomenon of being late and absence of pupils have occurred almost in every case. Most of the teachers followed the 'traditional pedagogical' values, methodology and demands during the observations. The statement (Halász et al., 2003) in which the main problem of teachers is related to the handing over of knowledge, namely that they consider it as the most important thing, has been approved in our observation, too. In case of the small-sized schools,

the difficulty lies in how to educate the ethnic children, sometimes teachers are afraid of the adaptation of pupils to another environment—after finishing the school. So, the differences between the schools do mean a real fear factor for the pedagogues. If we see the children with specific educational demands then the problem for the teachers is not how to deal with them, but rather that the child with weak skills will hold back those who have better capabilities.

Examples, Citations from the Observations

Some brief comments can describe the situation quite well (in the [.] bracket is the code of the observed):"There will be no changes. At the most, pupils are coming and going." [Cited form a report] [H15]. Here the student-observer notes that he has realised as "the more the teacher moves away from the desk the closer relationship could be formed with the pupils (…) the desk of the teacher symbolically defends the teacher" [H15]. One of the observers [M71] set down the followings as the most distressing problems of the pedagogue (a famous school in Pécs):

a) to discipline, because the pupils chat to each other or cut into the teacher's lecture

b) Pupils leave equipments at home,

c) They don't prepare for the lessons

d) Children are occupied with other activities than learning during the class (drawing or playing with their mobile phones)

e) Pupils are arrogant with the teacher, they don't give them respect and the style of some of them is outrageous". One of the observers [GY14] was given the following advice by the participating pedagogue: "As you can see, I am not a classical teacher. My methods are quite traditional but my principles are radical: Conform Yourself to the Group! If you love them, then they will love you and bring the stars down. This is the secret, and it's not taught anywhere! The point is not the lesson hour but the children and to motivate them, in the first step. The next is to make them fond of the subject-matter and the third is to make it their passion. This is the aim." [cited from a report].

The participants had possibility to ask about the revealed problems so some specific troubles have been outlined: "The term used first and foremost was 'burnout'. The second is the number of the classes (…) and the declining of discipline (…).

Recently, everybody can be enrolled in the school" [R30]. The most illuminating notice is perhaps the shortest one, but even more suggestive: "no contact—no conflict" [T31]

EXTRAPOLATION OF DIFFICULTIES, MISTAKES OF RESEARCH

As we see, the special literature provides us with a widespread review of problems. We have to make clear what problems are related to the examined issue.

The categorising of the variables is also problematic. What should be the base for the categories? Who will define the problem? For example, the students report about the frontal method, often. Maybe this is not the problem of the teacher but the student—he or she could think that the frontal method was not the adequate one, at that moment. Apart from this, the frontal method appeared in such contexts in which the student mentioned this kind of method as the only applied one.

Humour and irony. The difficulty, in case of the before mentioned two terms, is that the use of them appears as an obstacle not for the teacher; we can rather register the opinion of the student. Namely, the students observed the misuse of humour or irony as the problem. So, the question: who claims something as a problem—the observer or the observed—appeared as the one of the constant difficulties of the research. By the way, it was also problematic that the task was not enough understandable for the participants (students), or that certain terms (like 'maintenance/holding the attention') mean the same thing, so we can not count them as separate variables.

RESULTS

We found coincidences among the categories we defined upon the variables. There are no clear differences among these categories and problems, and it has been revealed that not the existential one is the most urgent problem in the community of the observed teachers. After categorising of the variable we found that

- The variables can not be categorised as being only pedagogical, social or existential;
- The three categories are overlapping each other;
- The coherency between pedagogy and society is examined by the field of Sociology of The Education while there is no field for examining the common aspect of pedagogy, society and existence. Our research can help in the working out of such a field.

FURTHER TASKS IN THE RESEARCH

In the further stages of the research we plan structured interviews with 25-30 pedagogues to compare their answers with our findings in order to confirm or disclaim them. In the latter phases of the research we are going to examine the presence of the issue abroad and compare with our national findings. It is a fact that we have "less opportunities to talk about professional attitude, behaviour in an international comparison" (Nagy M., 2007). Completing the research we tend to compare our data to the related OECD indicators.

POSSIBLE IMPLEMENTATIONS OF RESULTS

The results could be applied mainly in the field of the teacher training, especially in the mental and existential preparing of the would-be-teachers. It has also an actuality, since the teacher training stands before a changeover from the traditional structure to the two-level structure (transition between the former traditional and the BA and MA levels of higher education), so these remarks can also add somewhat to the reform program and—at the collective level—to the identification of issues important to the community of teachers, would be teachers and teacher educators.

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UNIVERSITIES: A REGIONAL DIPLOMA-MILL OR A GLOBAL INNOVATION CENTRE?

PÉTER DOBAY

TRADITIONAL ROLES REVISED

The word "regional" should involve activity of an organisation towards many regional actors. Universities have always had a—minimum—role to communicate with the regional government, later with labor market agencies and politicians. Today universities also work as entrepreneurial organisations, attracting fee-paying students and participating in lifelong learning movements for adults. How are they to maintain their traditional roles—research and the training of talented young people—within these new circumstances? This article is going to focus upon these new challenges.

Traditional universities have always used the dual-objective strategy of "Research and Education" as "terms of reference". While for hundreds of years universities emerged at venues where political or social circumstances supported (or, as a minimum, permitted) the cultivation of these aims on a relatively free basis, today, I suggest, the situation has totally changed.

In a global networked economy (and all these words have significance) the site, that is the locality in which to establish an institute for fulfilling these aims seems to be neutral. Is it compulsory to provide well-trained professionals for the local community? For which "community" in a unified Europe, where free movement of labour and ideas are among the main principals to live on? Second: is it necessary to run basic research in a situation where global companies spend 20-30% of their revenue for product development and related research projects and use global virtual networks of excellence involving university researchers? Does the "regional university" exist at all?

Medieval universities aligned structures to the mission and strategy of their time. Mainly they followed a voluntary organisation model; however, the regulations (the "statutum") of the School had to be strictly followed by university citizens. The professors were anyway only responsible for the scientific community and their own

university bodies, although the students achieved high academic levels, and possessed real competence to modify the structures, invite professors and hence to change the direction of training.

In 1810 the Universität zu Berlin was established by the liberal Prussian educational reformer and linguist Wilhelm von Humboldt, whose university model has strongly influenced other European and Western universities. The idea of "free research", freedom of intention towards any part and direction of sciences, pursuing "the truth and only the truth" has become very popular within leading universities, as it emphasized the necessity of social funding of institutes that served the community, mainly with proven research results. The organisation of a Humboldt-type university is based on the "cathedra", on the professor, who leads this research-oriented process. All can learn from the leading researchers—a strict hierarchy, a safe university career. I think this is the time to leave this path and turn towards much more flexible, service-oriented structures.

UNDERSTANDING TERMS: PRODUCTION, VALUE, CUSTOMER, PRODUCT?
Several Authors (Temesi, 2006, Barakonyi, 2004) are in debate over the "economical role" of a university today. A diploma in these contexts might be simply a "product", families sending (and sponsoring) their children are "customers" and university programmes are "production processes". The question in this case is to understand and accept the value of the diploma—customers pay for value only.

My guess is that there is no doubt that a modern university produces knowledge in two main forms:

- First, it "produces" educated, creative, innovative people, graduates & researchers, bearers (and also end-users, builders) of knowledge;
- Second: it produces basic & applied research results, tangible innovations, which might support industrial and other field development.

What can the word "produce" mean in this context? In business, a company produces a product, offers a service,

- as a response to demands of customers, giving them value,
- while working effectively, fulfilling the requirements of owners and shareholders.

If this process is a value-generating process, who is the beneficiary? This question has become essential, as many of formerly state-sponsored universities have opened doors to mass clusters of students, fewer and fewer students are finishing their studies within the normal time period, and infrastructural investment prices have been rocketing sky-high towards a modern higher education. If a higher education institute is interested in enrolling more students (call it "value generating") and in deriving the state funding, then it will follow that type of business model. The result is well known: the Hungarian higher education sector has tripled the number of students in 10 years (see Figure 1.).

Figure 1. The enormous growth of the number of students in the system
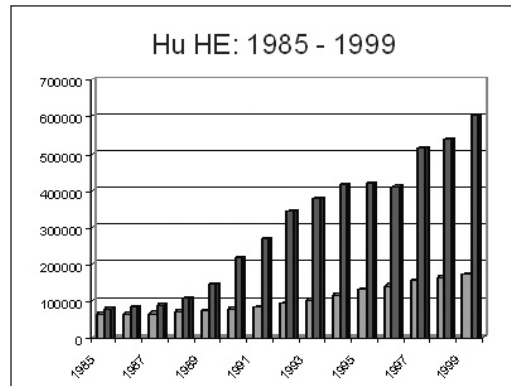
(Source: KSH, OM)

Many arguments state that the benefit is a "state-level profit", having more highly-educated people, they will have better qualified jobs, attract more investors, etc. This was an indubitable truth when countries normally enjoyed the labours of workers with degrees within their borders for decades as the normative. Now look at the EU, as an example of today: millions are "on the road", having temporary or final workplaces in another country. If they are knowledge workers, their knowledge is an asset, having been accumulated in a higher education institute of their home country. The circle is closed then: it becomes very bad "business" to offer free home education and suffer—for many reasons—the loss of the educated population.

Figure 2. Growth in funding higher education
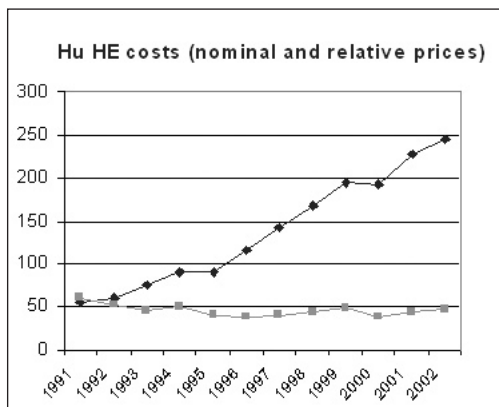
(Source: KSH, OM)

The real beneficiary is the student (and, indirectly, his/her family)—the "student-network". I call them a "network", as they interchange information about their future schooling, about faculty, about courses, performances, future job possibilities and all other problems around, together. All of these groups have different expectations, they have non-equal information and we compete for their decision. The knowledge gained (certified by a degree) is an asset for them, if used well as a resource, it can produce profit (i.e.: higher salaries, a better job and position in society, etc.). If an institute can produce good statistics to prove that alumni have better jobs, higher positions, higher salaries, the value generated by the educational process is given as acceptable evidence—this can be called a reference-based value. A huge problem is the information supply towards these "student-networks" about requirements while being in the institute, the full costs of educational programmes and, of course, the value of the degree in the labour market. To see just how biased the situation is, look at Figure 3. It shows what false expectations student-networks have about the future value of the demanded degree.

There is another case, which is important as well for our investigation: when the "product" is needed by a profit-oriented firm. The formula is clear here: if the production process (let it be anything) requires a special trained-educated-skilled workforce, a "university factory" can have production capabilities to produce the demanded number of people. Adult education, further educational forms, vocational trainings: all can produce direct value for a nearby company, offering a business-like alternative for a regionally embedded university. Many experts call those modern

institutes, where the educational budget is half covered by these type of activities—fee-paying courses, make-to-order type educational programmes, accredited testing and so on "entrepreneural-type universities"—a new role, with a new paradigm: "serving the region", instead of (or simply alongside) "serving science".

Figure 3. Applications to study fields in 2006, Hungary (accepted vs. all applicants)
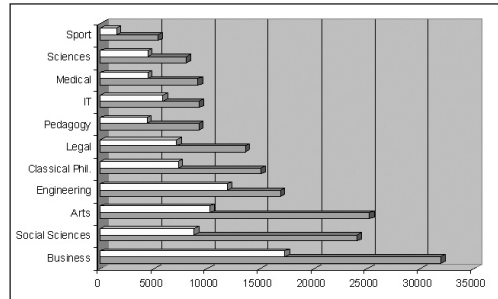

Source: Hungarian HE Statistics, KSH, 2007

THE INNOVATION ISSUE: THE TRIPLE HELIX MODEL

There is another field of activities that has always been a role for solid HE institutes: scientific and industrial innovation. Today the well-known academic narrative, the Triple Helix Model, focuses on innovative ideas coming from the Universitas, on seed capital for basic research coming from Society (the State), and on "orders" for new procedures, products AND new knowledge workers coming from Industry (the Economy)—see the Figure 4. below.

Figure 4. The Triple-Helix Model of regional innovation networks
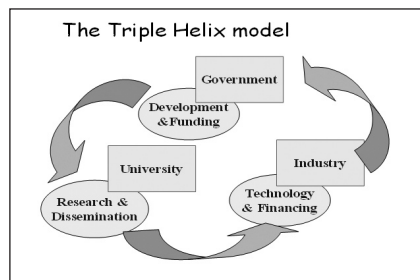
Source: edited by the Author

The idea of a changing innovation environment is well-known from literature: the former linear model does not work any more (individual invention—industrial innovation—new product/service on the market—people pay for it—profit feedback to new experimental work). Figure 5 demonstrates the relationship of different partners of today's world. In a linear innovation model the universities have the illusion that we do research, make publications, they come and pay for the idea. By the 1970s this process had changed radically towards "marketing-oriented innovation": transfer organizations come with customer (market-) demands, offer funding for R+D centres to work on innovations. This is new stress and pressure for university centres, a paradigm shift: do they have to decide to insist on ideal academic freedom, or decide upon well-paid research-for-order? The third wave is here: the innovation explosion. The markets (industries, the army, large businesses, customer market, etc.) are demanding ever newer products, processes and services – the first to satisfy demand, wins all. Can a regional university play this role? If not, it does not matter: it can be a small research lab, it can be a software company in India, it can be somebody from Asia—in a global world of information exchange everyone is a competitor for a local university!

Figure 5. Change in innovation processes—new roles for R & D knowledge centers
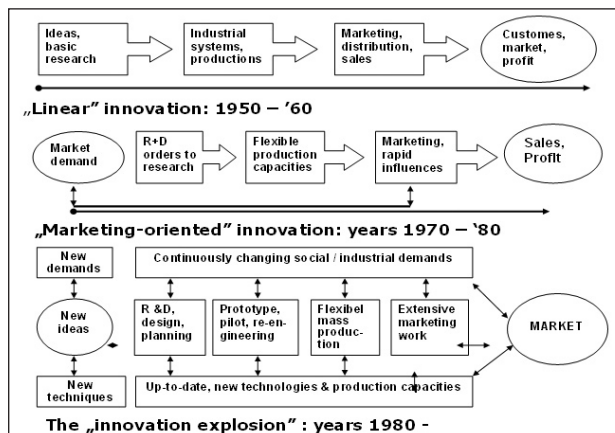
Source: edited by the Author

Figure 6 demonstrates how this works at Pécs, Southern Transdanubia, Hungary. This TH model (The S-D Regional Innovation Network) explicitly shows relationships among knowledge-bases (universities), transfer organisations (agencies, expert networks, consultants) and financial partners (like state-origin and EU funding, banks, etc.).

Figure 6. The Triple Helix model implemented at the Southern TransDanubian Region
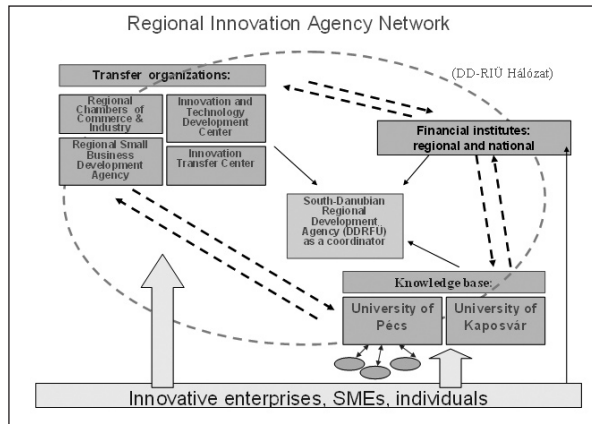
Source: edited by the Author

But numerous questions emerge even with this model. Would this rotating "helix" and the activities involved satisfy universities and academic communities —in academic and in business fields, too? How can the regional community transfer demands to a regional university of well-trained and locally "rooted" people to foster regional business development? Would it be possible to have resources from this university for lifelong learning, or for more "community oriented", mainly basic level courses, if academic departments run for global high-tech research funding? Could university branches participate in local innovation projects and listen to SMEs, while they rather listen to "A" category publications in research papers and seek for global academic rankings? Can we call a regional university complex a "diploma-mill" disdainfully, if the regional needs are served well and satisfactorily? Where are the borders of the middle-aged phenomenon of "university autonomy" in a world of business efficiency and even, in some cases, economic crisis?

A honest answer could only be a compromise between the demand for world-class innovation and research, and small, application-oriented, field-research towards the region.

But, also, innovation should not be contained within the local city or region. Let me quote here a Hewlett-Packard story from the California Institute of Technology, one of the high-tech institutes of developed world. The local HP research centre offered a problem to CalTech students to create any ideas to support poor rural communities in India. The story is about two young women, Saraswati and Gowri. They live in a rural community called Kuppam, India, and it is about 100 miles from Bangalore, the most developed high-tech region of India. But at Kuppam, one in three citizens is illiterate, more than half of the households have no electricity, and many of the adults are HIV-positive. Now what HP students did: they packed a solar-powered digital camera and a solar-powered colour printer into a backpack and went to Kuppam. They trained the ladies, who started taking photos and had success in the villages around. Then they took some photos of local citizens posing together with a popular, elected politican. It seemed so successful they decided to follow the campaign tour and distributed very cheap photos to locals. This micro-business showed up a larger success in a week then long months of work before.

Is this a regional activity? Of course, not. In our global world a university can outreach to even India from Europe, or vice versa and innovations can be an inspiration and/or have an effective utilisation anywhere on the Globe.

THE RESPONSIBILITY TO SHARE

Regionalism means a diversified and developing labour market, means that the level of local services, development in local industries, space to live and the overall quality of life are safe for generations. Education is part of our life, part of everyone's life career. As the world around is increasingly more complex, more technical, more fast-moving, citizens need more and more time to spend on educational forms. Their need to learn is lifelong. The word "responsibility" is the best to use, when we take HE institutes as regional players on this ground. I strongly believe regional universities should form a new, broadening educational portfolio. Here are some of the reasons worth mention:

- new & developing professions need new training,
- fewer full-time students foster internationalisation,
- people at work (and/or engaged by other reasons) demand part-time & eLearning forms.

To know and understand these demands, we need professionalism. It means a new organisation, it means professionals to be employed, it means processes worked out. Some ideas:

- A professional "liaison office", a "reachout center" or other solutions might generate more external effects upon decision makers,
- A special "regional policy" calls the interest of all partners to University offers,
- Building a "regional network" needs close co-working activities from university leadership towards regional governmental bodies and towards business representatives,
- Communicating the idea of a "Learning Region" should convince all partners: the University will never more be an academic ivory tower, with never-ending demands for a higher budget to spend—but an "embedded entity", a serving organisation "Let Academia Serve the City".

LOCALITY VERSUS GLOBALITY

Borders are not so strict and can even be transparent. See some arguments:

- Academic research has ever been a "global" issue, and this tradition should not change,
- In a "welfare society" students can be mobile, selecting distant venues to learn (even for only a semester abroad), if language barriers are easy to break—"global" universities emerge again, like in the Middle Ages!
- Additional "university services" can be globally marketed (textbooks, cases, Ph.D., lecturers, software, special trainings, research projects, educational methods, etc.).

What a university can do when training its decision makers to plan globally and act locally:

- An institute has to know and understand the borders (the scope) of the region itself and understand & declare what "locality" means. A region can be a city, an economic space, 100,000 or a million citizens, a poor or rich, a developing or a depressed area. If the University has misinformation about basic parameters this is a bad message to build a strategy.
- The institute has to understand the business and development trends of the region call it Role A/: Serving the regional labour market. Industries always need (and immediately need) specific labour, even executives, and if they cannot find them

locally, will go away form the region, or as a minimum, import people form far-off places. Neither is a good message to a regional training institute.

- According to the above, a regional institute has to offer a broad educational & further training portfolio—call it Role B/: Serving immediate community demands. business and social communities always change around: if a local university is narrowing its portfolio for any reason, another institute will emerge very soon. A market need forces players to react!

- As a consequence: we have to re-structure existing (and formerly planned) resources in line of the above—call it Role C/: Governing with a clear regional strategy. All partners around us should know we are able and we intend to serve regional educational and research / application needs—it has to be expressed in a real, strict regional strategy, publicly repeated at any possible occasion.

- And finally: we have to try forcing our labs and research centres to orientate research to local innovation—Call it Role D/: Applied research, regional reachout centres. Having a dedicated regional "Science Park" or similar organisation gives a clear picture to all would-be partners that we are committed to regional development, and we can do basic and even high-end research to support their aims. Future funding depends on this belief. If local players always run to the capital, or even abroad for a simple consultancy work needed—we have done a very bad job.

THE STAKEHOLDERS CONFLICT

Some words have to be said on possible conflict when turning towards regional directions. There could emerge academic conflicts, like

- Excellent departments may intend to be "global" in their research & even education,
- Installed and supported high-tech facilities, other resources might not be utilised well for local research,
- Traditional educational programs and courses are easier to run than creating new ones,
- Local problems are less attractive to solve with a traditional publish or-perish attitude of faculty.

But even the regional community should highlight conflicts, as:

- "Research" level seems to be a strange, unusual solution to solving regional problems,

- Local industries do not show a clear demand for basic and further education,
- No real links exist between academia & local agents,
- Local problems are usually solved by far-off consultants and researchers—do they have any reason to change this way of management?

To solve these conflicts requires an indoor change management, with professional skills and with strong leadership commitment. Although universities are frequently called the most conservative organisations, environmental changes (not to forget funding restrictions worldwide) might lead to successful solutions.

FINAL ISSUE: ALTERNATIVES FOR A REGIONAL STRATEGY

We talked about "productivity", "efficiency" and other business terms related to modern universities. Productivity is a probability process, as we never know whether a freshman will become a Nobel prize winner or will simply fall out during the first year! If productivity means only to issue more diplomas with less cost, we can call the institute a diploma-mill. Parents and student-networks have traditional perceptions, they listen to simple media messages, maybe they have a background informal network of opinions—and they believe in the institute's reputation. Running a diploma-mill means duping the families and students by telling them they will have a valuable diploma, and cheating society with low level knowledge and missing competencies of graduates. Not a proud portfolio.

Allow me now to finish with an ideal structure for a regional university strategic organisation. Figure 5 shows a demanded level of standard BA level mass-education ("responsibility for labour market"), some valuable MA, MSC programmes mainly with regionally dedicated content. These programmes are running parallel with vocational, higher-level vocational courses and short traineeships, with strong links to local businesses and other labour needs. Research also has to be rooted into local demands, and if the institute is fortunate enough to be able to present some internationally accepted R+D teams, individuals—well, they should do so! Generate local support and be a flagship research topic for the institute.

Figure 7. Proposal for a regional paradigm in structure and in activities
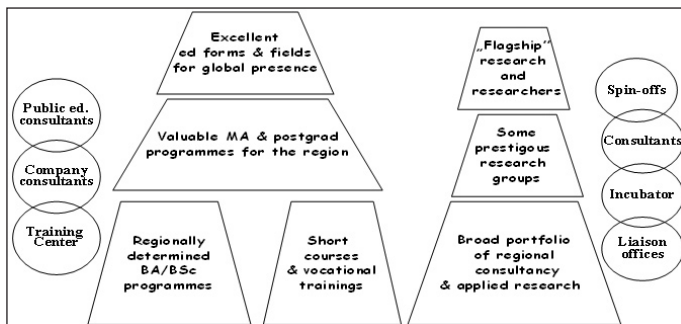
Source: edited by the Author

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REGIONAL DIMENSION OF INVESTMENT ON RESEARCH
THE CASE OF THE SOUTHERN TRANSDANUBIAN KNOWLEDGE BASE

Zoltán Gál

KNOWLEDGE CREATION: A NEW TOOL FOR REGIONAL COMPETITIVENESS

A general consensus exists on innovation-oriented regional development in the literature in which the utilisation of regional knowledge base, innovation potential and co-operation between businesses and research institutions continues to play an increasing role not only in regard to business success but also in the competitive economic performance of a certain region (Cooke, 1995).

Although several factors are influencing regional competitiveness, its driving forces still can be identified. The European Union's regional reports consider innovation, research and technology development to have the major potential in gaining competitive advantages. The competitiveness of regions can be increased by successful R&D activities within the region and by the creation and spreading of innovation in a wider sphere. Regional level innovation, and especially the practical implementation of R&D results may directly be manifested by the competitive advantages of the region's business enterprises (Lengyel, 2000).

The development of science and technology and their accumulated knowledge basis have become one of the key factors in the development of regional economy. Universities and research institutes as knowledge centres extending and disseminating comprehensive scientific information are playing an increasing role in regional development. A wide range of literature has studied the regional effects of the universities' research-development potential (Ács and Varga 2002; Varga, 2004). Not only has the direct support of universities increased significantly, but for regional governmental budgets the subsidisation of projects involving universities in various forms with the support of university-industry links are the biggest items of expenditure (Varga, 2004).

This paper provides an overview on the ERAWATCH regional benchmarking surveys—in which the Southern Transdanubian region participated—on innovation potential and investment into research surveys concentrating on the role of innovation networks, within them highlighting the special role of regional universities in collaborative research networks. The introduction will be followed by a demonstration highlighting the role of universities in national and regional knowledge transfer, emphasising the fact that the spatial (regional) structure of innovation is very much determined by the transformation of university potential and their widening innovative functions during the economic transition in Hungary. The next section will introduce the findings of the ERAWATCH survey (2006) on the role of universities in regional network building and university—industry links and will discuss those factors that are necessary for the establishment of a research university model.

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES IN REGIONAL INNOVATION

Higher education has a potential influence on regional development, not only because of its place in the R&D sector, but also because of its dominant position in the training of experts responsible for producing technologically-developed products and competitive services. From this point of view, the rapid development of tertiary education, especially outside Budapest, plays a balancing role. The number of students has been growing rapidly since 1990, especially in the newly-established provincial tertiary education centres (Table 1).

Table 1. Share of Higher education in the Hungarian RTD indicators, 2003.

INPUT	OUTPUT
RTD units: 70%	Published books: 77%
RTD expenditure: 25%	Published studies: 70%
RTD personnel: 57%	Patents: 32%
RTD personnel (FTE): 38%	Patents at EPO & USPTO: 16%
Share of doctorates: 72%	
RTD investment: 12%	

Source: CSO publications, 2003.

Universities can have an impact on the economic development of their own region in two ways (Forax, 1992): on the one hand through the multiplier effect of the purchasing of students (a so-called expenditure effect) and on the other hand through the knowledge transfer (scientific, technical, technological and economic) from the university into

the business sector (knowledge effect) (Varga, 2004). A very important side-effect of technology transformation is that industries and companies manufacturing competitive products are selecting their sites on the basis of qualitative criteria.

Higher education is an extremely significant factor the attractive force for capital of which is secured not only by creating competitive advantages in the local labour market but also by its absorbing innovative capacities. It can be seen all over Europe that while the development of large technology systems concentrated in metropolitan agglomerations was mostly determined by the research-development units of large firms, the technology innovation of SMEs, the organisation of local and regional technology clusters in the majority of cases was initiated by institutes of higher education. The engine force of regional higher education can touch upon the development of the Western European core regions (Bennett and Krebs, 1991). In several Hungarian regions (for example in Southern Transdanubia) the higher education sector is the largest knowledge potential and value generator, yet at the same time it has fewer links with the industrial sector than would be necessary. The potential links between the two sectors should be identified and the institutional background of these links should be created. Successful cooperation between the business and university sectors may secure a favourable environment for innovation.

Enablement of the higher education system to exercise its innovative functions and to be capable of performing its *integrative functions* as an element of the innovation system (Horváth, 2003) emphasizes the necessity of at least preconditions:

1) Research should be regarded as a primary function of higher education. This should be reflected in its financing and the development of the knowledge potentials of university research bases should also have a key role.

2) The structure of higher education should be adapted to the requirements of a post-fordist economy and should be capable of generating technology and economic innovations.

3) National innovation policy and regional policymakers should support the institutionalised co-operation of higher education and business organisations.

4) Higher education should territorially be decentralised, institutional developments and university integrations should be in conformity with the aspects of the economy of scale. An optimal efficiency of scale with the institutions of the core region can create equal chances, both for accessing research funds and for joining the international division of labour in research and development.

Higher education, which is placed among the R&D performing sectors is very much in the national interest as it plays a significant role in innovation processes. The economic attractiveness of the regions and spread of knowledge depend largely on a spatially-balanced network of university-based research facilities, with special regard to their relation to companies (Gál, 2002). The Act on higher education defined the tasks underpinning a dual transformation of the universities so that research might be returned to them and traditional universities transformed into research ones.

Higher education has developed into Hungary's biggest R&D generating sector and while its share of Hungarian higher education from governmental R&D spending is similar to Western European ratios, lagging behind may be observed regarding two indices. One is the very low ratio of business sector funded research departments and the other is the very weak links between university research and the business sector. While in OECD countries the average rate of corporate funded R&D is 70%, in Hungary this figure was only 38% in 2002. The ratio of R&D expenditures to Hungarian GDP is also low (0.3%), especially when comparing it with the 0.87% of Slovenia or with the 1.2% EU-15 ratio.

However, most of the university-based research units are too small to be effective both in terms of the share of researchers and overall R&D expenditure. Despite the co-operation between universities and the private sector, and participation in multilateral scientific programmes, the R&D budgets of universities are largely dependent on governmental subsidies.

DESCRIPTION OF THE REGIONAL KNOWLEDGE BASE IN SOUTHERN TRANSDANUBIA

The knowledge (RTDI) infrastructure, which includes universities and research centres, plays a significant role in the knowledge creation capacity of the regions. This infrastructure, which is easily accessible to firms, may constitute the foundations of innovative systems (using proximity arguments), but not automatically. There are many cases reported where HEIs or research laboratories operate in relative isolation from the regional productive processes, in particular when they concentrate on formal educational duties rather than covering the wider range of functions of a modern university, when they are active in sectors that lead them to have better connections with firms outside the region or when they focus exclusively on basic research.

Knowledge transmission mechanisms and knowledge enhancing linkages, including university-industry and intra-industry links such as technology intermediaries, spin-offs and inter-firm research collaborations, as well as the development of science parks and technopoles are important factors in strengthening the knowledge diffusion capacity of the regions. The knowledge enhancing linkages, ideally based on a dense interaction of interdependencies between research establishments and firms and/or among firms themselves, evolve into trust relationships that characterise, for example, economies of scope.

Southern Transdanubia is not among the wealthiest regions in Hungary. Until the mid-1990s Southern Transdanubia had the poorest R&D capacities in Hungary (in 1995 only 3.5% of all R&D employees worked in the region and not more than 1.5% of the total expenditure was realised here). This setback in R&D activities was an outcome of the disintegration of those large enterprises and research institutes engaged in R&D. The Southern Transdanubian Region has the largest provincial university centre in Hungary (Pécs) in terms of the number of students (34,000), and the two universities (Pécs, Kaposvár) in the region have significant research capacities in certain fields. The HEI sector plays a dominant role in R&D performance as it accounts for 78% of total RTD expenditures. Despite these endowments RTD creation of the business sector in Southern Transdanubia is limited (3.4 M € BERD in 2003). Outputs of R&D and the uneven disciplinary structure of higher education are not very advantageous from all points of view of innovation. Southern Transdanubia's regional GERD was 22 M Euro in 2004, which is only 3.2% of Hungary's total.

Based upon the key indicators (measured as a percentage of the national average) the following picture of the regional knowledge base of Southern Transdanubia can be drawn. *The region has large public RTD infrastructure mainly based on the two universities absorbing more than two thirds of regional GERD.* Among them, the University of Pécs has a dominant position. It hosts 87% of the enrolled students and 84% of the research staff of the HEIs. Unlike the public RTD sector, the visibility and the performance of the business sector is very low, even in comparison with the national average. Universities are the major employers of RTD personnel. They account for three quarters of the total RTD personnel of the region. The remainder is divided almost equally between the corporate and public RTDI sectors. As a percentage of total employment with the national average (=100%), Southern Transdanubia's share of RTD personnel is 73%. However, there are huge differences

in expenditures between the different sectors. HEIs exceeded the national average (107%), while RTD personnel make up very small shares of the total in business and the government sector, accounting respectively for only 28% and 25% of the national average, (Graph 1).

The orientation of the knowledge creation activity of the region is based to a great extent on the scientific profile of its universities. Of all the knowledge creation sectors, HEIs[1] have the strongest potential in life science (biotech and animal cytology) research and they also have a good reputation with measurable RTD outputs in laser physics, environmental and agrarian research. At the same time, engineering and some fields of science (informatics, electronics and chemistry) are proving to be the weakest elements of the regional RTD base.

The strength of *the life science (biotech) research base* is demonstrated by its large share of total input-output indicators and also by the increase of RTD spending in this field (€4.8m in 2004). In addition, the 11 university spin-offs in the biotech sector are tightly connected to the Medical School (MS) which has 48 employees (40 of them with an HEI degree) and produces a turnover of €3 million (2004).

In contrast to this positive trend, the share of engineering in total RTD personnel especially in the fields necessary for technology change (micro-electronics, informatics, automation), dropped from 8.9% to 6.9% during the short period from 2002-2004. Due to the uneven disciplinary structure of HEIs the outputs of the RTD sector in the region are not very advantageous and from the point of view of innovation are clearly characterised by lower patenting activity in the region. There was a similar decline in the proportion of researchers in natural sciences and also in agrarian science (which declined from 6.6% to 5.4%, and from 8% to 7.3% respectively). The traditional overrepresentation of researchers in social sciences and humanities is changing only slowly, and even though their share has declined from 42% to 29.5%, it is still high (Graph 1).

The lagging position of the region is best expressed by the RTD expenditure indicators measured as a percentage of GDP. Comparing the performance of the region in relation to the country as a whole, the GERD only improved slightly during the last decade, reaching only 43% of Hungary's average. The largest increase in R&D expenditure in the case of Southern Transdanubia can be observed in the HEI sector, illustrated by its high HERD figure of 108% (above the national average). Unlike the

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[1] University of Pécs and University of Kaposvár.

HEI sector, the limited RTD activity of the business sector is the main characteristic of regional RTD performance, accounting for only 17% of Hungary's average as a percentage of GDP. *This figure is lower than the RTD expenditure of the government RTDI sector* (23%).

Figure 1. Key indicators on Southern Transdanubia's knowledge base development in comparison to the national average
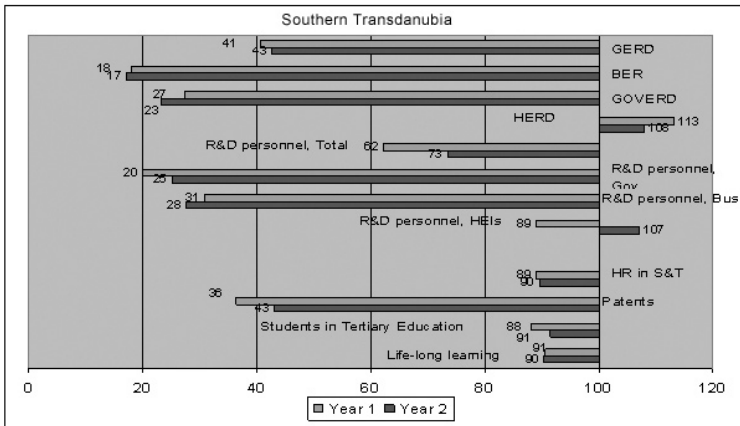
Source: calculated by the Author based on EUROSTAT data

Note: The following years were used for BERD, GERD, HERD GOVERD 1999, 2003; R&D personnel 1999, 2004; HR 1997,2005; Patents 1995, 2003 and Lifelong learning 1999, 2004.

UNIVERSITY INDUSTRY LINKS: CULTURAL BARRIERS?

Through their integration into national and international knowledge bases and networks, universities and research institutes are functioning as potential knowledge bases for companies in their environment even if universities are generally less embedded into their regional context and prefer national and international co-operation (Koschatzky and Sternberg, 2000). The importance of universities compared with customers and suppliers is by far less for the business sector than as information and knowledge bases. It is obvious that small companies are co-operating with universities to a lesser extent and local SMEs particularly rarely communicate with universities for technology information, but in the case of co-operation geographical proximity certainly plays a key role in connection

building. It seems obvious that the co-operative affinity of SMEs is the smallest, yet it is they are who are most in need of co-operation. In the case of co-operation, SMEs naturally prefer establishing relations with local knowledge bases (Koschatzky and Sternberg, 2000).

In regional innovation surveys special attention is paid to universities as major sources of regional innovation. One thing that our survey assesses is the importance of universities in comparison to other actors of innovation systems with the channels of knowledge transfer and also the geographical features of knowledge flow between universities and industrial companies. In some less developed regions the university sector has no links with the economic sector.

It is clear that most Hungarian businesses do not want to collaborate with any non-business organisations. The most popular non-business organisations for past and future co-operation in the Southern Transdanubian Region are the Chambers (47%), the University of Pécs (40%), and the regional innovation centre (DDRFÜ) (37%).

The spatial extent of knowledge flows emanating from university research laboratories has attracted considerable attention in the international literature. There are theoretical arguments for localised knowledge transfers (the importance of tacit knowledge, the role spatial proximity plays in easing maintaining interactions etc) which are to a large extent supported by empirical evidence; however, substantial variation can be observed according to firm size, industrial sector or the stage of innovation (Varga, 2002).

It is clear that university research units more frequently collaborate with local (within the region) firms and the intensity of co-operation vanishes with distance. There are also notable differences across research fields. Whereas for some scientific fields we can observe that active local collaboration is followed by active domestic and international interactivity with firms (physics and surgery) for some other fields (such as informatics and construction) localised connections are more important than collaborations with distantly located companies.

Several hindering factors may be owed to universities in building regional level relations. Universities are operating by their own rules and principles, which are hard to make compatible with the objectives of the business sector. Both universities and companies are organised by their own differing logical, cultural and organisational limits, which raises difficulties in co-operation between the two parties. The majority of university research departments carry out basic or applied research, but very few

university research organisations are joining experimental development projects. The interest of universities in co-operating with business sector is much more oriented towards short-term fund-raising than towards a strategic development of the innovation chain. Universities with industrial links are rather more interested in projects involving large-scale funding than in the support of SMEs. In several cases the purchase of technology licenses from outside the region is much more profitable for companies than intraregional innovation co-operation.

Thus, the potential areas of co-operation should be identified between the two sectors and an institutional background should be created for these links (Table 1). A successfully co-operating business and university sector may secure an innovation-friendly environment. The majority of researchers is doing basic research and despite the difficulties in the financing of higher education are uninterested in direct co-operation with the business sector as yet. Research tasks are fragmented, the concentration and their corporate relation system are weak, and market-oriented research development is still a rare phenomenon. To provide an example from the University of Pécs, being one of the largest provincial universities in terms of student numbers, recently a five-year contribution by the business sector project to the university's total income was about the third of the one year total budget. Spin-off ventures originating from universities have important functions, although they are rare cases in the LDRs (Gál, 2003).

Generally, the co-operation of universities and research institutions with businesses and especially pre-competitive research have positive impacts on the business success of companies and the region's economic performance, yet large and medium-size companies have more extensive relations with universities though these links are crossing the border of their region and this seems to support the theory of the low impact of universities on their region. For all that, the building of information and technology transfer links between SMEs and university R&D bases and the co-ordination of university re-training and information courses are very important for both sectors.

Table 2. Motivations behind university-industry co-operation

UNIVERSITY	INDUSTRY
Decreasing state support: gain additional financial resources	Knowledge has become the main factor of business competitiveness
Increasing cost of R&D: force to co-operate	Access to knowledge base/R&D infrastructures
Developing the service & knowledge transfer function of the university	Outsourcing: involving academic expertise
Increasing researchers' practice in outer contracts	Strengthening external relations of companies
New challenges of experimental research & development	Increasing pre-competitive R&D
Direct link to the labour market; an increasing labour mobility	Acquaintance with students as potential future employees
Practice-oriented training	Influence on improving the training structure and curriculum
Strengthening Spin-off entreprises	Favourable start-up conditions
Stimulating Regional development	Stimulating economic development

Source: edited by the Author

ASSESSMENT OF THE REGIONAL INNOVATION SYSTEM IN SOUTHERN TRANSDANUBIA

Here we try to assess the efficiency and coherence of the RIS with regard to the needs and capacities of the regional economies and the extent of matching or mismatching between knowledge and economic specialization (Table 2). Southern Transdanubia is considered to be a backward region in terms of RTD and the knowledge absorption capacity in its economy, and the basic conditions for change in the technology sphere were rather unfavourable in the region during the transition period.[2]

Public sector RTD infrastructure investment, which is dominated by the local universities, is much larger than the investments and the RTD capacity of the business sector in Southern Transdanubia. The orientation of the knowledge creation activity of the region is to a large extent based on the research profile of the two universities. As regards the relationship between RTD and economic specialisation, we found a *stronger correlation* in certain traditional fields with a considerable research background (agrarian research). Universities have also built up strengths

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[2] Some restructuring can be seen within the industrial sector, moving towards mechanical engineering and the emergence of high-tech electronics through foreign direct investment; however, the share of labour-intensive, lower-tech sectors, such as the food, textile and leatherwear industries, is still above the national average.

in *biotechnology, laser physics and in environmental science, demonstrating the most promising and deeply rooted avenues of research for the future development of the region*. The new clusters of the biotech, health and environmental industries have been built on the expanding knowledge creation capacities of the affiliated faculties and the enterprise networks. *Nevertheless, the industrial background of the region in these fields is still weak*. Therefore, *the research outputs from biotech (produced by the university spin-offs) are still mainly utilised outside the region*.

When comparing the matching of the *economic structure in the region with its knowledge specialisation*, some discrepancies can be observed. In contrast to the positive trends in RTD, some fields of natural science are rather under-represented in terms of the research capacity in engineering, while social sciences and humanities with less direct economic benefits are over-represented. The absence of a strong research capacity in S&E during the 1990s became one of the serious obstacles to the modernisation of industry, as it was unable to meet the demand coming from the high-tech companies located in the region. The shortage of highly skilled engineering graduates at the University of Pécs and the lower standard of RTD at the Faculty of Engineering in the fields of informatics, IT and electronics contributed in large measure to the relocation of the NOKIA plant from Pécs in 1999. In the case of engineering, both the weaker research capacities and the low demand from the underdeveloped branches of local industry compound their respective handicaps.

The private sector in the region is dominated by SMEs operating in low/medium-tech sectors (LMT) characterised by a lower level of innovation. The smaller number of indigenous large companies mainly specialise in traditional LMT industries (food, textile, leather). A few large enterprises in high tech electronics (mainly multinationals or locally based joint-stock companies) have been engaged in high-tech activities, but their influence on the local RTD sector is considered to be marginal, as they usually rely on the in-house RTD activities of their parent companies importing the technology from outside the region. Nevertheless, a few dozen innovative SMEs with significant RTD performances are to be found in the biotech, IT, plastic and the mechanical engineering sectors. *In general it can be said that the RTD capacity and visibility of the business sector is still low and the region is heavily dependent on public funding*.

However, the main reasons for the poorer performance in RTD activities are the following: on the one hand, the mismatch between the economic and research specialisations, combined with the low share of the business sector in RTD

investment, the high share of the traditional lower tech sectors, the small size of local SMEs and the consequent lack of resources to invest into RTD and absorb its results and, on the other hand, the lack of demand for research results from larger (mainly foreign) companies and, to some extent, the lack of the necessary knowledge supply in the region in certain fields. These factors, together with other mismatches in economic and RTD specialisation, explain why demand for research results in the region remains low.

From a study of the relationships between the regional economic structure and knowledge creation it can be concluded that establishment of the local knowledge base in some cases (e.g. laser research) did not take the existing sectoral specialisation of industry into consideration. In other cases, the extensive agrarian research base, strongly linked to the agro-food sector, is slightly loosening their sectoral background due to the structural decline of agriculture during the transition. The biotech sector, based on the Medical School research teams and university spin-offs, relies to a much lesser extent on local RTD co-operation. As a result, the players have integrated into the interregional RTD networks, establishing co-operation with companies outside the region.

Other research bases in S & E were established in order to extend the disciplinary profile of the HEIs during the 1980-90s, and their development was based on their internal dynamics rather than on local economic development. RTD processes have been speeded up recently, mainly through accelerated public investment. In the future, RTD investment ought to rely much more on the business sector contribution in order to ensure the direct economic benefit of RTD activities which can foster industrial modernisation and economic restructuring of the regional economy.

The conclusion can be drawn from the findings of the survey that RDTI intensity is not necessarily a decisive element of regional growth. It should be emphasised that the region needs to build on existing capacities rather than attempting to build their strategies by reference to as yet undeveloped or non-existent technologies, industries or fields of research. Nevertheless, an international reputation in university-based RTD activities (e.g. biotech), even without an extensive local industrial background, would make the regional knowledge centres more attractive for business sector investment, which may lead to the location of new plants in the region. Also, when making RTD investment decisions, the importance of the regional context and the established policies have to be taken into account.

Table 3. Strengths and weaknesses of the Regional innovation system

	Strengths	Weaknesses
Knowledge creation capacity	- Strong university base with wide disciplinary profile - The largest provincial university centre in Hungary in terms of the number of students (UP) - Strong RTD base at HEIs in agro and life sciences	- Weak and biased RTI base, -Uneven disciplinary structure in HEIs' RTD (over-representation of social sciences, weaker S&E base) -Limited RTD activity of business sector -Lower share of national GERD indicates the lower fund absorption capacity in the region -LMT sectoral dominance in the case of SMEs -Low level of patenting activity
Knowledge diffusion capacity	-The region has developed technology and business park infrastructure -High-tech oriented university spin-offs with good performance in Biotech	-Technology transfer/liaison infrastructure still in its initial phase and lacks resources to supply all needs of SMEs
Knowledge absorption capacity	- General HR endowment of the region is close to the national average	-Participation rate in Lifelong Learning is half of the EU-15 average - Share of HR in S&T is below the national average -Students in tertiary education is lower than the national average
Interactions of main actors	- Huge variety of collaborative programmes from informal networks, clusters to the Regional University Knowledge Centres – introduced - Active participation by a few innovative firms in a variety of collaborative ventures	- Difficult to orientate and choose among the forms that best fit the participants' needs - Overall low intensity of participation and low level of utilisation of results - Weak communication among the different sectors / potential partners
RTDI governance capacity	- Reorganised RTDI governance structur following EU recommendations, growing regional awareness	- Centralised policy-making but rather weak coordination among the different national bodies - Lack of legislative and decision-making right and financial resources of the regions

Source: edited by the Author

SUMMARY

The role of universities and research institutes as knowledge centres improving and disseminating comprehensive knowledge have an increasing importance in regional development. Today the facilitation of the spatial diffusion of knowledge, the spatial mechanisms of knowledge transfer and the access of business sector to knowledge bases are priorities in support and development policies (Landabaso, 1997). A general consensus exists on innovation-oriented regional development in which, through the co-operation between businesses and universities, it continues to play an increasing role not only in regard to business success but also in the economic catching up of a certain region.

Spatial differences in economic development have serious impacts on the network relationship of universities and business organisations. The differences between the advanced core regions of metropolitan agglomerations and the most backward regions are manifested in the relationship between universities and their environment. In his research, Attila Varga points out that agglomerations are not negligible factors of the efficiency of regional development policy. With the same amount of university expenditure the impact of university knowledge transfer is significantly higher in areas of high industrial density than in smaller towns (Varga, 2000). This statement is highly important from the aspect of economic policy suggesting that the support of university researches for stimulating local economic development may be an outstanding instrument in case of advanced regions but not necessarily for the backward areas.

Most of the sample businesses still view the university as a traditional educational centre. The most significant impediment of a stronger co-operation between university units and businesses is the limited information about each other. Most firms have no information about what the university is doing besides education, while university researchers and staff have only rather dim ideas about business needs and the potential business application of their research. It is very positive that recently most university researchers now at least recognize the requirements of the practical applicability of their research, but acceptance and appreciation of business requests are still under way.

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THE EUROPEAN DIMENSION OF HIGHER EDUCATION BETWEEN THE LISBON STRATEGY AND THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

CRISTINA BOJAN

INTRODUCTION

Changes of the last 60 years in Europe and in the whole world have affected education both in theory and in practice. One of the most important changes was initiated by the Bologna Declaration. This running process presented and is still posing many challenges for higher education at the level of the national education systems. Another important element of the reform process of higher education area is the Lisbon Strategy, but this regards only the member states of the EU. The Implementation of the European Dimension in higher education is an objective of the Bologna Process, but how can/should one implement it following the concepts/policies in these two contexts? And first, what is the meaning of the phrase European dimension of education, and especially of higher education? What should be implemented?

I suggest recognising different contexts—a global one (outside of the EC/EU) within the context of the Bologna Process, and the EC/EU context within the Lisbon Strategy—to try and outline the parameters of a debate about the definition of this concept.

A global context—What does the European dimension of education mean within the context of educational policy co-operation outside of the EU?

After the Second World War many Europeans from different geographical points of the continent pronounced their wish to act against the possible repetition of a catastrophe like this. The result of this "hard lesson of history" was the foundation of many international organisations, whose common point was the trauma caused by the War, which formed objectives like economical rehabilitation, peace-keeping and the development of an education for democracy and for peace. Included among

such organisations are the UNESCO, the OECD, and the Council of Europe, whose educational profiles I would like to briefly present.

UNESCO [1] functions today as a laboratory of ideas and a standard-setter that forges universal agreements on emerging ethical issues, and helps its 192 Member States and six Associate Members to build their human and institutional capacities in various fields.

The Organisation supports governments and institutions worldwide in building capacity and formulating educational policies and strategies. The activities of UNESCO-CEPES [2] are focused foremost on higher education in Central and Eastern Europe. Since September 2003, UNESCO-CEPES has been a consultative member of a Follow-up Group of the Bologna Process (BFUG), which is tasked with the implementation of the Bologna Process goals.

The mission of OECD [3] is to help its member countries to achieve sustainable economic growth and employment and to raise the standard of living in member countries while maintaining financial stability—all this in order to contribute to the development of the world economy. Its Directorate for Education helps member countries achieve high-quality learning for contributions to personal development, sustainable economic growth and social cohesion. It focuses on how to evaluate and improve outcomes of education; to promote quality teaching and to build social cohesion through education. It also works on the adjustment needed by tertiary education in a global economy as well as on the future of education and strategies for promoting lifelong learning.

Inside the *Council of Europe* [4], *Education,* Culture and Heritage, Youth and Sport are also coordinated by the department *Education for Europe*, which has the mission of

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[1] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, which was founded on 16 November 1945 with the goal "to build peace in the minds of men" through means like Education, Social and Natural Science, Culture and Communication. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=3328&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.htm, 29.09.2007.

[2] European Centre for Higher Education/Centre Européen pour l'Enseignement Supérieur was established in September 1972 with a view to promoting co-operation in higher education among Member States of the Europe Region (the countries of Europe, North America, and Israel). At present, the Director of UNESCO-CEPES is the Representative of UNESCO in Romania.

[3] The forerunner of the OECD was the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), which was formed in 1947 to administer American and Canadian aid under the Marshall Plan for the reconstruction of Europe after World War II. The OECD took over from the OEEC in 1961. www.oecd.org/pages/0,3417,en_36734052_36734103_1_1_1_1_1,00.html, 29.09.2007.

[4] The Council of Europe was founded in 1949, to develop throughout Europe common and democratic principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights and other reference texts on the protection of individuals. http://www.coe.int/T/e/Com/about_coe/, 29.09.2007.

"helping to incorporate the principles of human rights, democracy, tolerance and mutual respect, the rule of law and peaceful resolution of conflicts into the daily practice of teaching and learning"[5]… To name only a few programmes and trainings run by this department, they include Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights, Intercultural Education, Language Policy, Partnerships for Educational Renewal, and the Training Programme for Education Professionals.

Regarding the educational profiles of the above-mentioned international organisations, it can be concluded that the European dimension of education is defined through the activities and programmes of these organisations, meaning universal agreements on emerging ethical issues, international collaborations to sustain economic growth and social cohesion through promotion of quality teaching, education for democratic citizenship and human rights, intercultural education, promotion of linguistic diversity and language learning.

This superficial contour of the European dimension of education is important in order to see its common elements with the European dimension of higher education as defined in the context of the Bologna process.

What is meant by the European Dimension of Higher Education?—A definition in the actual context of the Bologna Process

The European Dimension of education can be defined in the context of the Bologna Process. At the outset one is confronted by one of the aims of the Bologna Declaration: "Promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education, particularly with regards to curricular development, interinstitutional co-operation, mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research" (Communiqué of the meeting of European Ministers in charge of Higher Education in Bologna, 1999: 4)

By the next meeting in *Prague 2001* the Ministers "called upon the higher education sector to increase the development of *modules, courses and curricula at all levels with "European" content, orientation or organisation*. This concerns particularly modules, courses and degree curricula offered in partnership by institutions from different countries and leading to a recognised joint degree." (Communiqué of the meeting of European Ministers in charge of Higher Education in Prague, 2001: 2)

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[5] www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural%5FCo%2Doperation/education/

Two years later at the meeting *in Berlin* the Ministers reported that "initiatives have been taken by Higher Education Institutions in various European countries to pool their academic resources and cultural traditions in order to promote the development of integrated study programmes and joint degrees at first, secondary at tertiary level. Moreover, they stressed the necessity of ensuring a substantial period of study abroad in joint degree programmes as well as proper provision for *linguistic diversity and language learning, so that students may achieve their full potential for European identity, citizenship and employability.*"(Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education in Berlin, 2003:6)

In the *Bergen Communiqué* (The European Higher Education Area – Achieving the Goals), the promotion of the European dimension does not appear separately like an independent point in the paper, but the Ministers stress only the importance of mobility of students and staff, whose realisation will be facilitated and supported by them. "We reconfirm our commitment to facilitate the portability of grants and loans where appropriate through joint action… We shall intensify our efforts to lift obstacles to mobility by facilitating the delivery of visa and work permits and by encouraging participation in mobility programmes."(Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, Bergen, 2005: 4)

At this year's meeting, in the London Communiqué, the mobility of staff, students and graduates remains a core element of the process, "creating opportunities *for personal growth, developing international co-operation between individuals and institutions, enhancing the quality of higher education and research, and giving substance to the European dimension.*" (Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education, London, 2007: 2)

Summing up the elements of the above communiqués, the European Dimension of Higher Education can be defined by its goals, which are the following:

- Development of modules, courses and curricula at all levels with a *"European" content, orientation or organisation*,
- development of the international co-operation between individuals and institutions and the joint degree recognition,
- development of the mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research,
- promotion of linguistic diversity and language learning,

- The achievement of full potential for *European identity, citizenship and employability of students, with mobility creating opportunities for their personal growth*.

We can conclude that the core goal of the European Dimension is the development of mobility, seeing that this can "give substance" to the European dimension, and that the realisation of the implementation of European Dimension of Education will happen at an institutional and an individual level. Regarding the implementation reports we have to mention that at this time the implementation of the European dimension is focused primarily on the goals that can be realised at the institutional level. The goals regarding European identity, citizenship and personal growth do not have enough "substance" to be implementable. They touch the individual level: the European identity can form on the stratification of a more local personal identities of individuals; the notion of citizenship (I think what is meant here is active citizenship) presupposes a European "state", knowledge about this "state", an understanding of democracy and of the importance of citizens in this form of government and of the form of life in a Deweyan[6] sense, and a personal intention to act. In the case of the non-EU member states it raises the question of what kind of European citizenship they need. What do they understand by "European citizenship" in the context of the Bologna Process?

Concerning the opportunities for the personal growth of students created by mobility, it is difficult to define exactly what it means and to find an adequate method to check the realisation of this goal. The development at all levels of modules, courses and curricula with "European" content, orientation or organisation can support the formation of an European identity and citizenship, of course only in the frame of institutional education, which has its limits. But what shall constitute this European content or orientation? Should it be oriented on common values or should it be on information and knowledge about the structures and function mode of the European Union? (This second option is more available for the EU member states).

Education for democracy and intercultural education (practiced in the form of different programmes of the Council of Europe) can help to find "European content" and its implementation methods, especially at the "individual level".

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[6] John Dewey in his "The ethic of Democracy" makes the difference between democracy understood as a simple technique of the periodical election of leaders, and democracy as a "form of life", which is present in all the units of society. It begins in the family and continues in increasingly larger contexts of society.

The educational policy-context of the EC/EU—The European dimension of Higher Education between the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy

The Bologna Process is an intergovernmental process which began formally with the signing of the Bologna Declaration on 19 June, 1999 by the ministers in charge of higher education from 29 European countries outside the political framework of the European Union. Today, the Process unites 46 countries, both members and non-members of the European Union, all party to the European Cultural Convention[7], that co-operate in a flexible way, involving also international organisations and European associations representing higher education institutions, students, staff and employers. Regarding the history of the development of the co-operation in the higher education area for the last 40 years, it is important to mention that events like the foundation of the *European Universities Committee* and its activities culminating in conventions on equivalence like the *European Convention on the Equivalence of Diplomas* leading to Admission to Universities (1953); the *European Convention on the Equivalence of Periods* of University Study (1956) and the *European Convention on the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications* (1959), the foundation of the *Council for Cultural Co-operation* (1962) and its aim to promote student and teacher mobility (1974-77) (Council of Europe: *Forty years of European Cultural Co-operation*) give the background for the Bologna Process of today.

The European Commission, representing the European Union, became an active participant of the Process only in 2001, at the Prague Summit on Higher Education on March 19th 2001. Here it was decided that the hosts of the evaluating summits of the Process will be the countries of the presidencies of the European Union, and they will manoeuvre the monitoring professional corpus.

One argument for the later participation of the European Union in the Bologna Process is the development of its own strategy in politics of education at the level of Higher Education, which is the Lisbon Strategy. The two processes do not weaken but fortify each other; their aims are more complementary than concurrent. (Halász, 2007: 3)

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[7] Founded after the Second World War, the European Cultural Convention is considered the earliest instrument on multilateral and European cultural matters. Its drafting in 1952 by the 4th session of the Committee of Cultural Experts, was responsible for the conduct of multilateral cultural projects, and was approved and signed in September 1954 by the Committee of Ministers and the Consultative Assembly.
The objectives of the Convention are: 1. to support to further understanding of one another among the peoples of Europe and mutual appreciation of their diverse cultural traits, particularly by facilitating the movement of persons and cultural objects. 2. to aim to encourage national contributions to the common cultural heritage of Europe. 3. to seek to promote cultural activities of European interest so as to preserve European culture. See more 50th Anniversary of the European Cultural Convention, http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/culturalconvention/Origines_en.asp , 29.09.2007.

To better understand the importance of these two processes and their role in the development of the concept of European Dimension it is necessary to briefly present *the development of the educational policies of the EC and European Union.*

The development of the educational polices of the EC since the 1960s has had a programme-oriented, distributive character. A clear presentation of this development is given by Aristotelis Zmas, who presents it in its chronological phases (Zmas, 2002).

The first period, between 1957 and 1967, was a period of preparation of the common educations law, and began degree recognition (in the 6 countries) for medical, dental, pharmaceutical and architectural studies.

The second period began with the Conference at the Hague in 1969 (at which the 6 countries participated) when they recognised that education could have an important role in European Integration. 1976 marked the start of the "Actions program for co-operation in the education area" with goals like the deepening of common actions in the area of Higher Education, the perfection of the education of foreign languages, the intensification of reciprocal information and the co-operation of the national educational systems. In 1975 the *Cedefop* (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training) was established to help, promote and develop vocational education and training in the EC (European Community) and presently in the European Union (EU). And four years later, in 1980, the European Commission and Member States established Eurydice (the information network on education in Europe) to boost co-operation by improving understanding of systems and policies. Since 1995 *Eurydice* has also been an integral part of Socrates, the Community action programme in education.

The third period had the motto "The Europe of citizens", and focused on the developing of different programmes to bring the United Europe into the everyday life of its citizens. A few of these programmes are Comett, Erasmus/Socrates, Petra, Lingua, Tempus, and Youth for Europe, etc.

The fourth period began with the Maastricht treaty in 1992, in which Articles 126, 127 and 128 define education, vocational training and youth, as well as the culture of the new European Union. It defines educational policy as something with limited reach, because education and culture are managed on the basis of the subsidiarity principle, meaning that the member states take responsibility for decisions about the content of education and the forming of the educational systems, and manage the multiplicity of cultures and languages (Zmas, 2002: 81-90).

A consideration of this short presentation of the development of European educational policies allows us to conclude that education from the beginning was considered as a part of economical and employment policies and that harmonisation (if we can speak about such a thing) has primarily been concerned with vocational training, general education and the diploma agreement in certain sciences. Another important point is that parallel with the economical character a "European dimension" has developed as well. Here the programmes of the "Europe of citizens" period come to mind, which have the aim to form, to make people aware in the public sphere of a common European background of everyday life which can sustain a forming European identity. Today this political slogan gives the name to a larger programme, the "Europe for citizens" 2007-2013[8], which provides the Union with instruments to promote active European citizenship. It responds to the need to improve citizen's participation in the construction of Europe and it focuses on the European political foundations, civil society organisations, town twining, etc.

As a continuation of this chronology we can interpret the Lisbon Strategy as a fifth period of the development of European educational policies, which brings important changes with it. In 2000 at the summit in Lisbon educational policy was considered not only a part of employment policy as it had done earlier, but even more common political aims for Higher Education were decided upon as well and a bigger budget was allocated for this.

The core document of the strategy is the Communication of the Commission *Mobilising the brainpower of Europe: enabling universities to make their full contribution to the Lisbon Strategy*, which has its roots in the consultation of stakeholders launched by the Commission's 2003 Communication *The role of the Universities in the Europe of knowledge.* According to the communication, "Europe must strengthen the three poles of its knowledge triangle: education, research, innovation. Universities are essential in all three. Investing more and better in the modernisation and quality of universities is a direct investment in the future of Europe and Europeans" (Communication from the Commission, 2005: 2). The core modernisation agenda contains three elements: *attractiveness, governance and funding.* Attractiveness and its subordinate aims like differentiation of quality and excellence, better communication between universities

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[8] Its implementation is managed by the Citizenship team of the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA). EACEA operates under supervision from its two parent Directorates-General: DG Education and Culture (EAC) and DG Information Society and Media (INFSO). http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/index.htm , 29.09.2007.

and society concerning the "value of what they produce", etc. is the closest to the aims of the Bologna Process; the other two aims are not common with the Bologna Process (Halász, 2007:6).

The implementation method is the open method of coordination (OMC)[9], which rests on soft law mechanisms such as guidelines and indicators, benchmarking and sharing of best practice, and its instruments are policy coordination, structural funds and educational programmes. The first two instruments can be used only by the member states of the EU, which brings with it a differentiation in the implementation of the Bologna Process among the implementing states. With the Lisbon Strategy, the EU member states have more chances so that the reforms within the Bologna Process to improve their Higher Education Systems so that in turn those would support economic competitiveness and society. In this reform process the EU member states must think about the implementation of both dimensions (Bologna and Lisbon). Halász asks how to implement the aims of the Lisbon Strategy and the concerned policies of the EU in the reform process of higher education that is developed within the framework of the Bologna process.

In the case of the implementation of the European Dimension—especially regarding those aims, whose implementation/realisation is at the individual level—the question can be inverted: how can we implement the sub-aims of promoting the European dimension of higher education of the Bologna Process within the framework of the educational policies of the EU, and may this take place within the Lisbon Strategy? Does the EU really need the European dimension of higher education in order to form a European identity?

What are the normative values that stay on the basis of a common identity of Europe? We can talk about differentiation of promoted values as conceived by the EU member states and non-EU member states (regarding the countries which implement the Lisbon strategy too) or about more general concepts (that can be accepted from the non-EU member states too).

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[9] OMC is a relatively new and intergovernmental means of governance in the European Union, based on the voluntary cooperation of its member states. This means that there are no official sanctions for laggards. The method's effectiveness relies on a form of peer pressure and naming and shaming, as no member state wants to be seen as the worst in a given policy area, and involves so-called "soft law" measures which are binding on the Member States in varying degrees but which never take the form of directives, regulations or decisions. Thus, in the context of the Lisbon strategy, the OMC requires the Member States to draw up national reform plans and to forward them to the Commission. http://europa.eu/scadplus/glossary/open_method_coordination_en.htm, 29.09.2007.

The EU supports the European identity mobility programmes at different levels of education, higher education included, and other programmes that are focused on youth organisations, civil society organisation and political foundations. It is another question whether the mobility programmes by themselves can lead to the realisation of these goals.

If we search for the values that stand on the basis of a common European identity of a Higher Education Area, they are to be found in the university itself, as the values promoted by it. On September 18th 1988 eighty universities from all over the world signed a document, whose aims were to celebrate the deepest values of University traditions and to encourage strong bonds among European Universities. This document was the Magna Charta Universitatum. Underlining the vocation and the role of the university for the future, the document contains fundamental principles concerning the autonomy of the university, the inseparable bond of research and education and its freedom, and considers it "the trustee of the European humanist tradition", whose "constant care is to attain universal knowledge; to fulfil its vocation it transcends geographical and political frontiers, and affirms the vital need for different cultures to know and influence each other" (Magna Charta Universitatum, 1988: 1).

This most traditional, Humboldtian view on the mission of the university is frequently criticised by the promoters of the new university models like entrepreneurial, research universities in the debate about what is/should be the mission of the university in its reform process. The Lisbon strategy promotes the establishing of a new relationship of the University with the society, which brings with it changes in many aspects for the university.

The university must meet the needs of the world around it, but from the point of view of the clarification of the concept of a European Dimension of higher education is important to keep the European humanistic tradition too, because in this tradition the development of individuality is rooted, a development that can support the forming of a European identity.

To clarify the concept of the European Dimension of higher education and to find the European content, orientation of modules, courses and curricula at all levels of education—what shall be implemented—we need to debate upon it, and this is a challenge for the future.

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CHANGES IN THE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AT BELGRADE UNIVERSITY IN LIGHT OF THE ADOPTION OF THE BOLOGNA DECLARATION

ALEKSANDRA TRKLJA

INTRODUCTION

A very important and equally current phenomenon today in the whole European region, the Bologna Declaration, as one of the major bearers of higher education reform represents the subject of interest in this work. To be more exact, in this work we shall focus on the implementation of the Declaration at one of the Belgrade Universities in Serbia. For the sake of a precise and clear examination of this occurrence, we decided to consider one Faculty. This is the Faculty of Fine Arts in Belgrade[1] where the target group represents the students of the first year of graphics, painting and sculpture[2]. The research questionnaire, which I carried out in June of this year in the form of an inquiry, has three sheets consisting of thirty questions and involves twenty students from the three above mentioned groups, ten of each sex. Although the initial idea was that the research should take into account as many students as possible, favourably a full tally of fifty students, most students, thirty of them totally refused to talk about the Bologna Declaration at all. Such a reaction is most interesting and as will be shown in the work later on harmonious with the answers given from the other twenty students who accepted to participate in the research.

In order to meet present editing constraints and because of the extent of the work, I have chosen to examine the students only, leaving out the administrative staff and professors in order not to widen my research. Because of this and being aware of the imperfection of this text, I will focus only on the thoughts and reactions of the students.

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[1] The Bologna Declaration came into operation in 2006 at the Faculty of Fine Arts.
[2] This work refers only to the first year students because the Bologna Declaration, at least for now, only involves the first year on this Faculty.

The primary objective of the study was to examine how the students perceive the reaction to the practices that the Declaration introduces. Besides studying their judgments the informedness of the students was also examined, in other words, what they know about the Declaration, what the sources of their information are etc.

However, before we present the results of the research we will present the Bologna Declaration in brief, defining it, acquainting the reader with its basic principles and presenting a brief view of its beginnings and development process. This review is given for the purpose of comparing data, which are based on the students' answers so that we could examine the extent of their acquaintance with the Declaration and how it is applied in practice.

KEY GOALS OF THE BOLOGNA DECLARATION

The Bologna Declaration is the 'Joint Declaration of European Education Ministers signed in Bologna 19.06.1999'[3] and represents the School Reform for establishing a European Higher Education Area by 2010. In broad terms but very precisely, the Declaration is:

- 'a clearly defined common goal: to create a European space for higher education in order to enhance the employability and mobility of citizens and to increase the international competitiveness of European higher education;
- a deadline: the European space for higher education should be completed in 2010;
- a set of specified objectives:
- the adoption of a common framework of readable and comparable degrees, 'also through the implementation of the Diploma Supplement';
- the introduction of undergraduate and postgraduate levels in all countries, with first degrees no shorter than 3 years and relevant to the labour market;
- ECTS-compatible credit systems, also covering lifelong learning activities;
- a European dimension in quality assurance, with comparable criteria and methods;
- the elimination of remaining obstacles to the free mobility of students (as well as trainees and graduates) and teachers (as well as researchers and higher education administrators)'.[4]

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[3] Bolonjska deklaracija (The Bologna Declaration) http://www.unsa.ba/pdf/Bolonjska%20deklaracija.pdf (Downloaded 10.08.2007.)

[4] The Bologna Declaration on the European space for higher education: an explanation http://www.crue.org/eurec/bolognaexplanation.htm (Downloaded 26.09.2007.)

The aim of this project is to achieve within the European Higher Education Area by 2010 the following:

1. easier mobility from one country to another—in order to continue studying or finding employment;

2. the attractiveness of European higher education for people from non-European countries, also for the purpose of coming to study and/or work in Europe;

3. a broad, high quality and advanced knowledge base, and ensuring the further development of Europe as a stable, peaceful and tolerant community[5].

'Every two years a Ministerial Conference is organised where Ministers responsible for higher education of all participating countries gather to evaluate the progress and to set guidelines and priorities for the upcoming period. The last conference took place in London in May 2007. Previous conferences were held in Bergen (2005), Berlin (2003), Prague (2001) and Bologna (1999)'[6].

The development of the Bologna Declaration is based on the Sorbonne Declaration established on May 25, 1998 with the accent on 'the central role of University regarding the development of cultural dimensions in Europe'[7].

THE RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

Interestingly enough, not a single student has ever read the document of the Bologna Declaration so that sources are mostly hearsay, the following being what they had heard from: the media, their professors and other people. It means that the informants have based their attitude towards the Declaration merely on these sources. Although there are some differences in their judgments they are all, generally speaking, characterised by negative appraisals of application of the Declaration. In other words, students emphasise that the implementation of the Declaration on their Faculty makes studying more difficult than it was before. In order to understand the reasons for this negative attitude, we classified all their answers in two main groups.

The first group, taking into consideration their knowledge and notion about the Declaration, refers to the definition of the Declaration, its beginning and history and

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[5] What is the Bologna Process?
http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/EHEA2010/BolognaPedestrians_en.asp#P12_187
(Downloaded 26.09.2007.)
[6] ibid.
[7] Evropska zona visokog obrazovanja (The European Higher Education Area) http://www.mapss.info/bolonja/deklaracija.pdf. (Downloaded 26.09.2007.)

the relation between the Declaration and the EU. This also includes their opinion about the advantages and disadvantages of the Declaration.

The second group considers the students' reactions towards the practical implementation of the Declaration. To be exact, this group refers to their knowledge about the beginning of its application on their University, the basic elements of the Declaration applied on their Faculty, changes caused by the application of the Declaration, and their thoughts about the above mentioned as the most important issue in this paper.

STUDENT KNOWLEDGE CONCERNING THE BOLOGNA DECLARATION

The beginning and history of the Bologna Declaration

As we mentioned, students have not read the Bologna Declaration and are not acquainted with its history or with the Sorbonne Declaration and the Lisbon Convention either. Neither are they acquainted with other conventions and the meetings in Prague, Berlin, Bergen and London. They do not know either any dates concerning the constitution of the Declaration, nor who were the initiators and the signers of the Declaration. One student said that he is not acquainted with the beginning and the development of the Declaration with the words: 'I am not acquainted with it and I believe that nobody at my Faculty including our professors is'. Another student expressing revolt against the Declaration said: 'I do not know and I do not care for it!'. Such lack of interest is very common with the majority of the students included in my research and is partly caused by having no choice, as one of them stated: 'I have not heard about the Sorbonne Declaration and I am not acquainted with its development process and it is not important for me anyway since I do not have a choice!'

The Bologna Declaration and the EU

As for the notion about the relation between the Declaration and the EU, four students connected the constitution of the Declaration with the EU. They suppose that the constitution of the Declaration is linked to the EU, as a female student says, and I quote: 'the Declaration is probably constituted by a body within the EU'. The others did not offer any information regarding these relations.

Condition for entering the EU with regard to the Declaration

Two students believe that the Declaration does not have anything to do with entering the EU while five students believe it has, as one student emphasises that 'the Bologna Declaration has great significance in the international negotiations for entering the EU and if only one link is left missing, surely the whole thing will come to a halt'. Three students believe that the Declaration is: 'an extenuating circumstance' for entering into the EU, as they said, and two stress: 'it is one of the conditions but not the most important one'. The remaining eight students said they do not know anything about the relationship between the Declaration and the EU.

Defining the Bologna Declaration by the students

Concerning the question, how would they define the Declaration, four students could not define the Declaration and were not acquainted with its principles at all, as one student said: 'I do not have any idea'. Another four students relate it with Europe and the EU. One of them said, 'the Bologna Declaration is to a dying the EU without real practical improvement of the educational system'. The others propose that it has to do with the 'unification of European higher education'. In the words of one student, 'The Declaration is a test of the system which has for its goal the purpose of unifying a part of Europe's higher education' while another student mentioned that 'the Declaration is important for the sharing of knowledge'. Three students relate it with the production of a cheap work force, because of the same educational system for all European countries. As one of them stated, 'It is a system for the production of a cheap work force in Europe'. For two students the Declaration means, as they said: 'a shorter period of studying and compressing of subjects' while the others stressed the reform of the educational system but in a negative way, as one student said: 'I cannot reach a definition because it is obvious that it is not clear to anyone what it means. It is still just an overall experiment, which for the time being has the greatest effect on the first year, in a negative way, because being so unclear it disturbs the work of all individuals'.

The Goals of the Declaration

For the majority of students i.e. for eleven of them the aim of the Declaration would be the globalisation, standardisation or unifying of degrees from European Universities, as one of them said: 'unification of profession, system and knowledge everywhere'.

Another student also claims: 'I think that its goal is the establishment of universal educational standards', adding: 'as well as an international exchange of knowledge, ideas and experience'. Two students believe that the Declaration makes studying more expensive. Three students think that the goal of the Declaration is education shortening, as one student said: 'probably to disqualify long-time study, either you study or you do not'. They also added: 'easier studies and more accessible studying'. Four students do not have any clue regarding the aims of the Declaration.

Advantages and disadvantages of adopting the Declaration

More than a half of them or, precisely, eleven students believe that the adoption of the Declaration is important for the connecting of people and sharing of knowledge, although they also point out that 'the climate in Serbia is not adequate for its implementation', as one of them stressed. Two of these students favour universities abroad and believe that the quality of education is better abroad than in Serbia, so that they see a chance not only for the adoption of Western values in the educational system, but also the possibility of going abroad for further study and professional development. One student is hesitant because the lectures or courses are mandatory and he does not like pressure. Seven students are against the adoption of the Declaration because they believe that they are damaged by its use. As a reason for this, they stated a shorter period of education, higher schooling fees, a more compact programme and mandatory lectures. One student does not have an opinion of its significance.

Knowledge about ECTS

ECTS or the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System as a credit system for mobility of students across Europe do not mean anything for the majority of students i.e. for fourteen of them. They do not know what ECTS means and one of them added that the professors are not informed either. For six students it is only a credit system or scoring system concerning their grades. More precisely, they stated that you need 60 points all together until the end of the year and they added that the Declaration changes the way of grading, meaning that it introduces besides qualitative (a grade is determined from 5 to 10), also some other different types of evaluation or quantitative scoring. They state that quantitative scoring, which for them represents a novelty, refers to attendance and activeness in class that is now also being scored. All of this has to equal 60 points and affects the final grade.

THE REACTION OF THE STUDENTS REGARDING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE BOLOGNA DECLARATION

The changes caused by the application of the Declaration

The majority or fifteen students express their negative attitude towards applying the Bologna Declaration on their Faculty. As reasons for their dissatisfaction, they provide the following: mandatory lectures, expensive scholarship, harder passing to budget scholarship funding, an inappropriately extensive programme in comparison with the shorter schooling period and as one student added, 'the Declaration brought stagnation in the quality of lectures'. Another student is dissatisfied because he 'is spending too much time on the Faculty' and apart from studying, does not have time for any other activities. One more student said: 'it is easier to pass exams because of numerous colloquiums'. The others said that 'everybody is confused and they do not know anything'. They also blame the professors for not being informed about the Declaration, which also brings about its poor implementation.

Conditions for passing on to the next year and the mobility of exams

Besides the important aforementioned changes conditioned by the educational reform, as to have a more precise image about the given phenomenon, we will also state other important points. First, we shall call attention to the changes which refer to the terms for passing on to the next year of study. Before the implementation of the Bologna Declaration at the Belgrade University, students had the right to enroll for the next year with the possibility of transferring some exams from the past year. However, as the Declaration has a goal to shorten the years of studying, students are obliged to meet terms by passing all the exams before enrolling into the next year of study. A majority of the respondents included in this research state that they received this announcement from their professors at the beginning of the year. Nevertheless, as the students were not happy with the application of the Declaration they went on a strike in February this year that lasted for three weeks. They asked for lower school fees, to have the right to take two exams into the next year, as did generations before them. They achieved the right to take two exams into the next year, lower school fees and that those who have an average grade of 8.5 or higher can pass automatically to budget scholarship funding (this I heard only afterwards). Because of the strike, missed lectures were to be compensated for on Saturdays

every week and the school year was extended for another week. However, three students do not know which conditions are needed for passing to the next year.

Financial system

Six students do not know if anything has changed regarding self-financing of scholarships because they are on state budget scholarships. Four students think that nothing has changed, as one of them said: 'I think that the price of scholarship has not changed by the implementation of the Bologna Declaration'. Seven students said that the scholarship is different from before and they strongly voiced their conviction that 'the ministry has cut the budget for faculties; therefore, fewer students are on budget funding'. In addition, the scholarship has gone up. Three students said that it has not, but they believe it will in the future. As one of them stated, 'for the time being it has not but I believe it will and doing so on account of the students without any significant improvement in quality' and another student thinks that the faculties will fund studying and that the budget will be cancelled.

Relationship between professors and students

To the question: whether anything had changed in the relationship between professors and students, I received many different answers from the students. Their answers are based on comparing their own experience and the experience of other fellow students from higher years. Sixteen students believe the relationship has not changed and that it is the same as before, with the words: 'I think the relationship has not changed, it has stayed the same' and 'in my opinion it has not, only that now they keep closer evidence of attendance in classes'. Four students state that some academic staff s are tense, confused, strict and more formal than before. A student confirms with following words: 'The teachers are confused and we the students are angry because they are confusing us' and another student said, that 'they are strict because they have to adapt to a program that is unknown to them'. One more student said, 'Now the staff are acting like tyrants because they are adapting to a program that is unknown to them and they do not have any work plan'.

Staff informativeness about the Declaration based upon the opinion of students

Students believe that the Declaration is not clear to staff either, because they have tried to explain it to them but they did not know exactly what the Declaration represents or

means. One of the students said: 'some of them tried to explain' while another added that 'they do not know what the Declaration is'. However, only a few staff succeeded in explaining, although only 'some aspects of the Declaration', as they stated, precisely the system of scoring and how many lectures they are allowed to be absent from, as well as that the condition for passing to the next year is to give all the exams, 'and nothing else', as students emphasised.

The absence of students from the lectures

The majority or fifteen students attend lectures regularly; two students do not, while three are trying to make an effort. They have a right to be absent three to five times in one semester, depending on the subject. Asked what the consequences were in case this number exceeds the given limit, six students do not know what the consequences would be while eight students said that they would not have the right to ratify the semester and would further loose the right for the final exam. Two students believe that it would mean less points in the activities before the final exam, and as of one of them says: 'the teachers are angry at first, but later they let you pass'. One student believes that they would loose the right to go on studying while three students said it would mean lower grades. Thirteen students said that some staff allow more absence from lectures than previously defined, while one student said that 'irresponsibility is in question'. Five students stated the staff do not allow more absence and one student does not know.

Advantages of the application of the Declaration—assumptions based on student's experience

Twelve students do not see any advantages to the application of the Declaration. As one of the students stated, 'The quality of study has not improved, for now it is even more difficult to remain within the student status and keep up with the imposed pace'. Two students said that application is 'very bad' and added that 'the Declaration is probably a good idea but we do not know the right way to use it'. Three students believe it is better because the Declaration gives the opportunity for all the activities during the year to be included in the final grade and not only one final exam. Contrary to this, one student said that 'all the countries should never be the same, neither should all the people be the same, nor can they', considering an identical system of higher education throughout Europe. Another student said that the grading is obsolete and the others

think that grading harms them because it does not take into consideration individual abilities, but acts as a system of grading moderation. A student, who emphasises that evaluation is not adapted to an individual, illustrates this opinion with the words, 'because some people prefer only to work and not talk about their work'. One more student stated that he does not have time for anything but lectures, expressing this with the words, 'the lectures are mandatory and because of this I cannot earn a living and study at the same time. I do not have time for anything else!'.

CONCLUSION

From the above given results we can see that students have a very poor knowledge of the beginnings, history of and principles given in the Declaration. They give several different definitions about the Declaration but as regards the aims of the Declaration it becomes clearer what the Declaration exactly means to them. For most students, the Declaration is a unification of higher education in Europe. Their knowledge is based on mere notions about the Declaration and its elements, which is further more based on 'mere rumours' and they do not even make the effort to obtain precise and authenticated information on the Declaration. At the same time they are confused and blame the academic staff for the lack of information about how the Declaration functions in practice as well as for its bad application. Generally, there is a negative attitude towards the application of the Declaration owing to the expense of school fees, mandatory lectures and extensive courses, which has not been cut down proportionally regarding the years of study.

Nevertheless, the majority of students are in favour of the acceptance of the Declaration in general at the Belgrade University, because of its significance in connecting people and the sharing of knowledge and experience, yet, in their words: 'The conditions are not yet adequate in Serbia for the implementation of the Declaration'.

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MILITARY ARCHAEOLOGY AND OPTIONS FOR MILITARY AND CIVIL HIGHER EDUCATION

FERENC DÁVID

THE MEANING AND HISTORY OF BATTLEFIELD ARCHAEOLOGY

The first officially organised Hungarian "battlefield archaeology" was made by the archaeologist, László Papp on the historical battlefield of Mohács (1526). The archaeologists' group had been working hard for many years, making a reconstruction of the structure of former settlements (16th century) and discovering the first two common graves. Their first aim—to locate the inner battlefield—failed, but these projects proved that a territory covering several tens of thousands of square metres is too great to use traditional methods. That is why we had to find new methods, to make the best reconstruction of the battlefield and military events.

The aim of the military archaeology is to reconstruct a sequence of military events on the battlefield and to be able to provide more information for the science of history. The books and archive documents are the basis for locating the scene and obtain the necessary information about the military events. With these together we are able to start mapping the findings which turn up during the discovery. The course of proceedings resemble the methods of procedure in the law-court. There are three main respects: the evidence or sources, the scene and the discovered trails on the territory. After the procedure we need to have enough information to get answers about the events or in the case of problematical events to verify or refute previous knowledge.

To date, the most documented discovery was that of the battlefield of Little Bighorn (United States of America) between the years 1983 and 1985. Nowadays this is considered to be a typical example of military archaeology, and the methods used there have been the basis for Hungarian projects too. Other interesting projects from foreign countries include Monroe's Crossroads (United States of America), Teutoburg (Germany), the Western Front of the first world war (France, Nederland) and the Eastern Front of the second world war (Russia).

The official institutes in Hungary which are permitted to be engaged with military archaeology are the Hungarian Association of Military Science's the Section

of Military Archaeology and the Ministry of Defence, Institute and Museum of Military History. The leaders in both institutes are Lieutenant General Dr. József Ferenc Holló and Lieutenant Colonel Lajos Négyesi Ph.D.

ABOUT NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

In the event of any project, it is essential that international co-operation is taken into consideration in order to maximise the chances of a successful outcome to the research.

This study discusses a research method of military history and the exploitation of the results in military and civil higher education. I would also like to share with the reader my experiences and ideas regarding the facilitation of cooperation among countries in the region. We are given a better chance to know more about our common general and military history if universities and local associations co-operate with one another.

One excellent example of international co-operation was when the Hungarian Zrínyi Miklós National Defence University, the Bulgarian Vassil Levski Military Academy and the G. S. Rakovsky Military Academy executed a military archaeology project together near the village of Kisbajom in the county of Somogy, to explore the Bulgarian Army's battles in Hungary. Here the outcome of the archaeological work could be used in higher education both in Bulgaria and Hungary. The result of this cooperation helped in making a better reconstruction of the military events (the movement of the platoons, the point of break-through, the process of the Soviet-Bulgarian counter-attack, the weapons and ammunition used), and this new information were sometimes in marked contrast with Hungarian and Bulgarian bibliographical data. In this way military archaeology represents an important role in history teaching alongside the archive documents which are the basis of teaching and writing history.

The research was the collective success of the Hungarian and Bulgarian multinational group and the relationship between the participants (men and institutions) is still very good. The documentation of the research was built into the syllabus of both universities. We want to continue the research with the Bulgarian delegation near the River Dráva in the future.

In the Danube region our common history is as important as the common desire to know more about it and for this reason there are important Hungarian projects carried

out in foreign countries by Hungarian researchers under international cooperation in Slovakia, Slovenia, Romania and elsewhere. An example of international cooperation and of the use of military archaeology in tourism, culture and education is in Kobarid-Caporetto (Slovenia), where a local group has established a museum from the relics of the first world war with the assistance of collaborators from the Hungarian Ministry of Defence Institution and the Museum of Military History.

Such methods in history teaching in national, international and the Danube region's higher education are less widespread. With the use of military/battlefield archaeology, we are able to reconstruct the events on the historical battlefield and the students acquire practical experience of military history, the techniques used and tactics as well as becoming acquainted with the material culture of war.

ABOUT THE CONNECTION BETWEEN MILITARY ARCHAEOLOGY AND EDUCATION

The results of battlefield archaeology were first used in Hungarian military higher education at the Zrínyi Miklós National Defence University by the scholar Lieutenant Colonel Lajos Négyesi and in civil higher education at the University of Pécs by the author.

The role played by war history and military archeology is unambiguous in military higher education. The encyclopaedical knowledge, the experiences of the former military operations of war (or military) history has set examples and morale for students in the future during a war situation.

We cannot teach something adequately to students if we do not have a reliable and suitable amount of information about it. One of the aims of teaching is to give more experience to students and during the process of learning they have to hear, see and feel the theme of the lecture, so that they get a full picture about periods in history; all three perceptions are employed in those methods, with which we have made trials of at the University of Pécs. In the case of military history the micro and macro events can be understood, too. I would like to present to the reader some Hungarian examples of military archeology projects from the age of modern history and the results of projects, which may be attached to the concept of practical education and which have been used at the University of Pécs.

VÁGOTPUSZTA, 1956

The conflicts during the Hungarian revolution in 1956 are the most recent events in Hungarian war history. Fifty years after the events numerous eyewitnesses are still alive, aiding the work of the historians. We might believe that there are only any unsettled questions, but the whirl of the fight, the danger of life and the effect of spiritual pressure make eyewitnesses' accounts contradictory.

In this situation military archaeology carries out research to clarify questionable points in testimonies and the course of proceedings are like the methods of the procedure in the law-court. Academic and special research methods and the examined and mapped traces make the territory an objective source.

In November 1956, when the Hungarian Revolution was defeated by superior forces, a large group of freedom fighters from the town of Pécs, about 340 people, decided to continue the fight in the Mecsek Hills. One of the most significant centres of resistance was established in Vágotpuszta, situated on a hilltop by Road 66 from Pécs to Kaposvár, and this hilltop was hardly approachable by any means of transport. The freedom fighters based themselves there on 7th November, and carried out their enterprise with more or less success until the location was detected. At about 9-10 o'clock a.m. on 12th November, after a fifteen-minute mortar barrage, an unknown number of Soviet troops and Hungarian police entered the village from the East and put the insurgents to flight. The leaders of the group managed to gather the remainder in the forest and lead them to Kisújbánya, but the group disbanded in a few days after a failed mission against the police station at Pécsvárad.

In the spring of 2006, the Pécs Branch of Military Archeology decided to explore the scene of the struggles that took place in a hilly, forested terrain, far from inhabited areas, which was most untypical of the 1956 fight for freedom. As a result of our research, which was carried out using various instruments (metal detector, GPS, theodolite), the traces of a fairly large group of the "Invisible Resistance Fighters of the Mecsek Hills", which fled in a south-westerly direction during the attack of 12th November, were found. The findings included many Nagant and Tokarev cartridges, a stick grenade and a DP-28 medium machine gun, which was a rare automatic weapon for the resistance group. The given terrain, the properties of military objects and the locales where they were found form the basis of our conclusions at to the series of events. The location of the items found along the route of the fleeing insurgents was documented on a map. These methods of battlefield research contribute to the

knowledge of the events of the 1956 Revolution in Pécs and the Mecsek Region, as well as the history of the "Invisible Resistance Fighters of the Mecsek Hills".

The result of the research was a study published in the Quarterly of Military History for the jubilee of the revolution, in addition to which several conference lectures were held in the University of Pécs and Budapest during the years of 2006-2007. In the University of Pécs we have organised with the students an exhibition and a tour to reconstruct the events in the city and on the Mecsek Hills too: the movement of the fighters, the fights with the Soviet mechanised infantry and tanks, the targets of the mortar barrage fire.

The other result was the small-scale but nationally unique exhibition organized and opened in the regional historical museum of Pécs. During the one-month exhibition we projected documentary movies, photographs and maps with narrations of the events of the freedom fighting and about our research. We have exhibited pieces of material culture from the '50s, such as propaganda brochures, the uniforms of the Hungarian military forces ("Néphadsereg" = People's Army), the Hungarian political police forces ("Államvédelmi Hatóság" or abbreviated to "ÁVH" = State Defence Authority) as well as other uniforms made for revolutionaries during the weeks of the revolution; the types of weapons and equipment used and the flags which were the symbols of the age. We were the first to exhibit personal objects associated with the local revolution, such as uniforms, personal belongings, a handwritten curriculum vitae of the military commander of the revolution in the region and the weapons found during the research. Our group hopes to continue its research related to the struggles of the revolution and to open more exhibitions in cities and towns of the region like Pécs and Kaposvár.

DRÁVASZABOLCS, 1945

The Pécs Branch of the Section of Military Archaeology carries out regular research on the area of the bridgehead at Drávaszabolcs to know more about the fighting and other events there. We have found and mapped out the former artillery and anti-tank positions, infantry trenches and pillboxes in the woods near the main and dirt tracks around the villages. We have sought out eyewitnesses of the events, written down their orally transmitted histories. Books and archive documents about the story of the bridgehead were our basis for locating the scenes and getting the information necessary for reconstructing military events. We summarised the detailed new and

former information in a study which was successfully outlined in the military science Section of the 28th National Academic Students' Associations Conference.

To date, we have been able to utilize the results in two educational forms at the University of Pécs. In the autumn of 2005 I organised fieldwork for the students attending the History of the second world war seminar Together with another staff member I a new, much modified seminar about the second world war was planned, but abandoned because my colleague had to move to Budapest. In 2006 and 2007 the students of the correspondence course made regular trips around the county of Baranya to explore places of historic interest, one visit being to the former bridgehead in order to become acquainted with the memories and events of the second world war and with the fortification systems of the '50s and the cold war period.

ABOUT THE FIRST FIELDWORK WITH THE STUDENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PÉCS, IN 2005

We arrived in the morning at Harkány on 4th November, 2005. We stopped after a short walk near the town in the forest, where the students received a simplified map about the bridgehead. I sketched the global background of the battle, code-named "Operation Sylvan Devil": the strength and the tactics of the defenders (Bulgarian, Yugoslavian and Soviet forces) and aggressors (German and Cossack divisions), the morale of the men and the part played by Hungarian civilians. We inspected a trench system constructed by the Soviets, which was taken over by the Bulgarian Army in 1945. We went to Ipacsfa, but here I split the students in two groups and they had to navigate themselves to the village independently. The first team had a GPS, the second a map without a compass. While it might appear likely that the group with the GPS had more chance of arriving at their destination first, this area near the River Drava, with brooks and channels and without a bridge is problematic and while the GPS shows the shortest way, its direction and distance, that way is sometimes impassable. To be successful the offered direction has to be tested several times from a height or from a tree. On the other hand, the map ensures so many benefits that it was unnecessary to search for the right way blindly if one was able to deduce their position (surrounding hills, church tower). However, if we miscalculate the direction, we lose time. In Ipacsfa and Kovácshida the students made presentations with a notebook (which helped them with archive movies and coloured pictures) about the military vehicles and heavy weapons used and they acquainted themselves with the weapons and equipment. Drávaszerdahely was our next stop, where

a local eyewitness told us of his experiences near the village, near former trenches, dug-outs, pillboxes and near an anti-tank position on the ground.

Originally I would have finished the tour near this village, but the students wanted to go on, because they wanted to see the villages with traces of former street fighting such as damaged cemeteries, church buildings, the graves of soldiers and trenches.

The feedback of participants was very good and I think that we ended up with a fruitful day after 12 kilometers based on a new idea. The students gained knowledge of the wartime micro-history of the area, obtaining personal impressions through the traces of the war which could be seen, heard and felt. All of these have been realised with the help of the University of Pécs and military archaeology.

FUTURE & SUMMARY

With the use of military/battlefield archaeology we are able to reconstruct events on the former battlefield and the students gain practical experience from military history and the techniques and tactics used as well as acquainting themselves with the material culture of war. These methods in history teaching are more widespread for example in the United States of America and the United Kingdom, but less often employed in the higher education of the Danube region to achieve results. In the Danube region our common history is as important as the common interest to know more about it and we have a chance for co-operation. In the future we could start common research and education projects, help each others' exhibitions in Austria, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Romania, Italy and Croatia as well as in Hungary.

Battlefield/military archaeology is one more chance for international co-operation (history is without borders) and all of the countries acquire more knowledge about their war history. The role of the method is unquestionable in military higher education. In civil higher education, war history plays only a partial role during history teaching, for example in the history of techniques, costume and lifestyles, but the use of results from military archaeology makes history more intelligible.

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CHAPTER 2

UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT – TASKS FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

UNIVERSITY GOVERNANCE
OVERVIEW AND CRITICISM ON THE HUNGARIAN SITUATION

Károly Barakonyi

Universities are basically centers of learning and teaching activities, but research activity has always been important. Recently, in our global work rapid changes of the environment have generated new challenges which require new managerial approaches. The number of students has increased enormously (massification) and large institutions of complex activities have emerged. The inner structure of a modern university has become similar to small towns, internally requiring and providing a similar range of services (inner complexity). At the same time, they are external suppliers of services to the environment, to their customers: a continuing flow of well-qualified, fresh graduates with up-to-date knowledge and skills; part-time and short course study opportunities to develop existing employees; consultancy services, research and development support to solve industrial and commercial problems and help expand business. The higher education institution has itself become a business. All these aspects require professional management, management development programs, and new forms of organisation: new ways to solve new problems (Shatock, 2006).

University governance is a relatively new paradigm, helping to solve institutional management and control problems in this new academic world. University governance is not only an academic study but a central question of practical importance to answer threatening environmental challenges, to maintain the integrity and effectiveness of universities. University governance is similar to corporate governance (same basic principle: division of power and responsibility) but the differences are essential, too. Corporate governance models cannot be copied directly: deeper understanding and proper adaptation are needed. First, I overview the basic scheme of corporate governance, and then discuss the differences and the main features of university governance. Finally, I observe the Hungarian situation, whether the present controlling model corresponds with the generally accepted university governance models.

Corporate governance: what could we learn?

Corporation is a mechanism established to allow different parties to contribute to the operation of a firm with capital, expertise, and labor for their mutual benefit. The main structural elements of a corporate governance system are as follows:

- *Investors/shareholders*: they bring (and risk) money but they have no responsibility for everyday operations (limited involvement in activities).
- *Managers (executives)*: they run the company but have no responsibility for providing funds.
- *Board of directors:* it represents shareholders (or owners, investors) and protects their interest. It establishes main strategic directions, formulates basic corporate policies and ensures follow-up. It has the right and obligation to make or approve long run performance (strategic) decisions.

Corporations are fundamentally governed by a board of directors overseeing top management with the concurrence of the shareholder. The main task of the board is providing guidance to top management. The board's responsibilities are connected to the firm as a whole: setting vision, mission, strategy, hiring/firing CEO, top management, controlling, monitoring and supervising top management, reviewing/approving the use of funds, caring for shareholders' interests in accordance with the law. A judicious balance is required among the interests of diverse groups. The board has to direct the corporation, not to manage it!

In order to meet these responsibilities it is necessary at least to monitor and observe carefully developments inside and outside the corporation. Frequently the board organises special committees to help in its monitoring and controlling work. There are active and less active boards. A more active board evaluates and influences the firm: it examines proposals, analyses and evaluates decisions, actions, agrees or disagrees, specifies strategic options, gives advice, suggests other solutions, outlines alternatives, delineates mission etc.

Figure 1. Corporate governance model
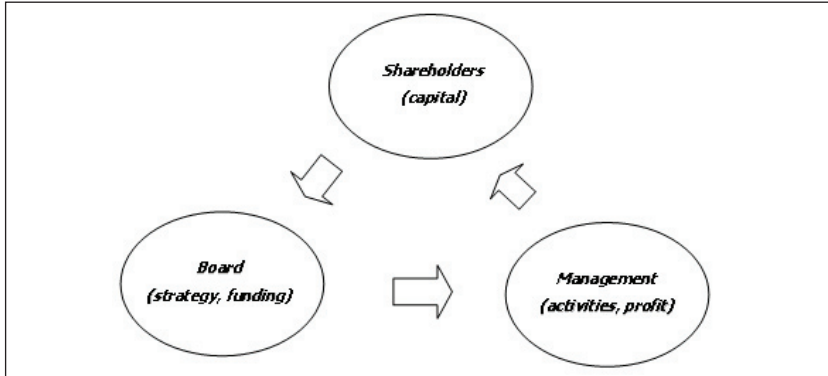
Source: edited by the Author

A less active board never initiates unless a crisis occurs. A CEO serves as Chairman of the Board: he/she nominates directors, keeps board members under control ("Mushroom treatment": throw manure on them and keep them in the dark!) The following classification gives a clear picture of the degree of involvement in strategic management of the firm.

- PHANTOM: never knows what to do, if anything—any degree of involvement,
- RUBBER STAMP: permits officers to make all decisions, it votes as the officers recommend on action issues,
- MINIMAL REVIEW: formally reviews selected issues that officers bring to its attention,
- NOMINAL PARTICIPATION: involved to a minimal degree (review of selected key decisions, indicators or programs),
- ACTIVE PARTICIPATION: approves questions, makes final decisions on mission, strategy, policies, objectives, (active board committees, fiscal and management audits),
- CATALYST: leading role in establishing mission, objectives, strategy, policies, very active committees keep management alert, CEO must explain deviations, manager's bonuses connected to financial performance.

The operation of the board is not always satisfactory. Problems occur with the knowledge of the board members, with their involvement and even enthusiasm. Problems may arise also because agents (top executives) are not willing to bear responsibility for their decisions unless they own a substantial number of stocks in the corporation. (Wheelen, 2004)

UNIVERSITY GOVERNANCE

As has been mentioned above, radical changes in the environment of universities have forced changes inside academic organisations, too. Massification of education, a decreasing willingness on the part of society to finance, decreasing financial governmental support and increasing institutional autonomy have forced universities to adapt new management forms of control. Most European states have joined the European Higher Education Area and—as a consequence—most universities have had to alter their educational systems (transform them from a dual structure to a linear one). As a result of the changing environment, strengthening market influence and demanding societal needs, increased autonomy and responsibility and more complex inner structures a new management paradigm is needed. New ideas and methods have become familiar to the academic world: the categories, rules, methods and phrases of change management, business process reengineering, leadership, professional managership, university strategic management and total quality management are an organic part of today's university management vocabulary. Nowadays we are in the middle of the "second revolution of the university".[1]

One of the most important developments is the appearance of the university governance paradigm, which originated from the corporate world. In this complex, changing and hostile environment only university governance could help universities to survive.

Governance and management in the university context is not parallel in corporate governance generally, for a university is not equal to a corporation! The academic sphere plays an essential role and in the life of a higher education institution it requires distinguished attention.

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[1] The first revolutionary change happened in the early phase of the industrial revolution, when the medieval concept of a university was destroyed by the Humboldtian, Napoleonic and American university models (Mora, 2007)

- The identity of the owners, (the "shareholders") is not as clear as with companies. Who are they? The Society, the government, the ministry of education, the taxpayers, the local community or somebody else? What is their interest? How can the agency and stewardship theory be applied in university governance?[2]
- Students and staff involved in teaching and research are there by choice and most of them work very hard.
- The university is special organisation: governance must operate at a great variety of levels in a university setting (university, faculty, department, councils and boards, meeting at many different levels).
- The university is a knowledge-based organisation with highly educated, independent-thinking individuals etc.

All these special features must be taken into account when creating and operating a university governance model. As the most important difference, the university governance model consists of four basic elements instead of three. (CUC, 2000)

Figure 2: Structure of university governance
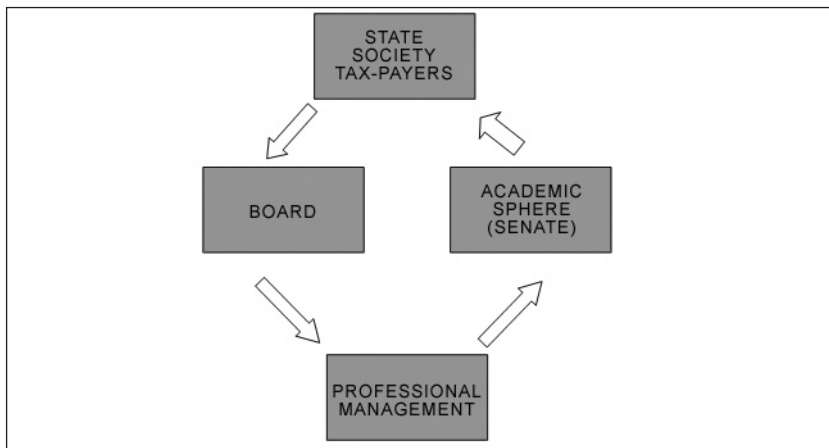
Source: edited by the Author

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[2] Managers of large, modern corporations are typically not the owners. Agency theory focuses on extrinsic rewards that serve lower-level needs (pay, security). Managers are "hired hands" who may very likely be more interested in their personal welfare than in that of shareholders. The agency problem arises when the objectives of the owners and agents conflict or it is difficult to verify what the agent is actually doing, or the owners and agents have different attitudes toward risk. Stewardship theory – in contrast to agency theory – suggests that executives tend to be more motivated to act in the best interest of the corporation than in their own self-interest – this theory focuses on the higher-order needs (achievement, self-actualisation). (Keasey, 1997), (Wheelen, 2004)

How does governance model in a university setting? There are similarities but there are different aspects and solutions, too. Governing bodies (boards) are

- responsible for a promising institutional strategic direction,
- determinations of the educational character and mission of the university and overseeing of its activities,
- selecting and appointment of executive officers,
- supervising and motivating university management
- the financial wellbeing of the university,
- the effective and efficient use of resources,
- the solvency of the university,
- the safeguarding of its assets, the well-being of staff, lecturers, researchers and students of the institution,
- appointment and employment conditions of staff,
- the consideration and approval of the annual estimates of income and expenditure prepared by the Rector,
- having an important role in relations with industry and commerce, reputation of the higher education institution,
- establishing and maintaining high standards of academic conduct and probity, in association with the Senate (Kwickers, 2005).

Members of the governing board, the structure of the board could be different country by country but generally they are composed of some typical characters:

- members appointed by the government from industry, commerce and professions, bringing financial management expertise into the organization and representing the demands of the society (usually they compose the majority of the board),
- student representatives (only a few),
- representatives of professors, the staff,
- the rector (sometimes only as a voting member).

The *executive power-structure* is similar to the line management of a company. The head of the executive organisation is the rector. Members of executive systems are secretary, vice-rectors, financial and other directors, deans and heads of departments. They are responsible for fulfilling strategic objectives and plans, budgets and so on.

The *appointed rector* should be recognised not only as an academic leader but also as the CEO of the university. The governing body should not simply provide a framework of authority for its rector but also hold him accountable for achieving objectives of the institution. The Rector is a formally designated CEO and made responsible for presenting proposals to the governing body (mission, educational character of the university, strategy, annual budget etc.) and implement approved strategic and tactical decisions (Bargh, 2000).

The *secretary* (or registrar) is the second key figure in the university governance system: he/she is the unitary head of the institution's administration, reporting to the Rector, with secretarial, managerial and advisory responsibilities. He/she is the steward and coordinator of the external and internal constitutional and business rules and procedures in terms of timing and content, recorder and provider of information and papers on items of business The secretary is appointed by the board, provides information, advises the governing body in matters where potential or real conflict may occur between the board and the CEO. If there is a conflict of interests on any matters, it is the secretary's responsibility to draw it to the attention of the governing board.

The role of the *dean* has been changed in this system. Earlier, in the traditional university system, the part-time deans were elected for 2-3 years by faculty members: they represented the faculties' interest in the university council or senate. In the governance structure the dean is appointed by the rector as part of the line management with responsibilities to the rector, usually as a fixed-term full-time, publicly advertised appointment. He/she is the budget holder for the faculty and a member of the senior management team of the university.

The *Department* is the basic academic unit of the university and it is of particularly importance in the determination of professional values and academic expertise. In the overall governance structure the heads of departments usually have a reporting responsibility to the dean. They are dependent on the dean for resources towards fulfilling strategic objectives, budget prescriptions and student number targets. Instead of holding permanent headships of department universities have adopted electoral procedures or processes whereby the rector (dean) consults the academic staff members of a department, identifying a person individual to serve for 3-5 years. An advisory departmental meeting is necessary to accept the candidate by the department staff. The term of appointment is made by the executive rector. Heads of department are under accountability and resource management pressure. As a result, the process

reduces the role of individual academics and professors who had previously enjoyed personal involvement, especially in large departments (Lorange, 2002).

In management and governance questions the *Senate* is restricted to advising the governing bodies on academic developments and resource needs directly or through the rector. Furthermore, the Senate plays an advisory role on matters which have been referred to them by governing bodies. The Senate is responsible for

- ongoing academic activities, including academic standards,
- consideration of the development of the activities of the university and resources needed to support them,
- provision of advice thereon to the rector and the board.

The US university governing model is differs considerably when compared with those of the Continent and the UK. The dominant American unicameral structure has traditionally followed the 17th century Swiss Calvinist governing structure generally consisting of external groups of lay trustees holding the status of corporations. The board chooses the President, and oversees his/her management activities. The president is without tenure (*"serving at the pleasure of the board"*), a complex academic committee structure exerting influence on board decisions. There are exceptions, too: at major private universities (Harvard, Cornell) the faculty is extremely strong (Kerr, 1989).

Figure 3: Forces influencing university autonomy
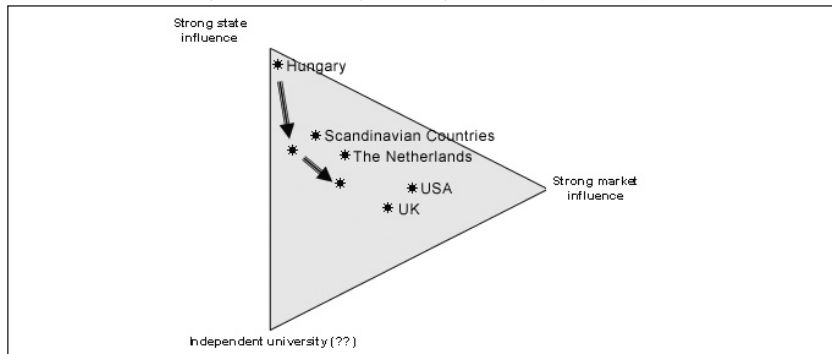
Source: edited by the Author

The *balance of university governance* structures has changed over the last century and will change in the future, too (Middlehurst, 2004). Changes in university autonomy have strongly influenced the structure. In the case of strong state influence

the decision-making authority is highly centralised: the ministry takes over not only strategic but usually operational decisions, too. Increasing market influence is a result of the government's withdrawal from full financing while at the same time giving more autonomy to the universities. Case in this scenario institutions enjoy a larger freedom, taking strategic decisions, but at the same time are forced to obtain missing funds from the markets (tuition fees, selling services, research to industry, commerce, local society etc.). In such a case a limitation of the executive officers' power is necessary. A supervising, restricting, approving (strategic decision maker) board is required to defend the interests of taxpayer, the society at large and other stakeholders to keep executive power within required limits.

The *Environment* is volatile, complex, increasingly demanding and pushes institutions toward more formal management systems. These new managerial routes can derive their effectiveness more from the executives (rector, senior managers, governing bodies) than from deliberating academic boards and bodies (senate, committees etc.). Individual members of staff would be probably much less closely connected with the governance process than in the past. Conversely, managing good governance in a university setting means ensuring that governance at all levels in the organisation works well, that all parts of the system (board, rector, deans, departments and senate) connect smoothly, efficiently and effectively, being able to create a robust, flexible organisational culture willing to make unpleasant but important decisions in good time.[3]

"*Lay governors and a close lay involvement in the university governance bring enormous benefits to academic institutions. In addition to their professional expertise in finance, the management of physical resources, or in other technical areas, lay governors have the ability to take a long view because they are not encumbered with immediate institutional management concerns, they can act as the critical friend and as the referee over internal arguments, and they can offer a reading of the environment which may be broader, and less higher education centered, than that of an institution's senior manager. But what these contribution reflect is a need for a partnership between lay and academic governance, 'shared governance', rather than a dominant relationship*

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[3] "Governing bodies, senates/academic boards and vice-chancellors in the first decade of the twenty-first century are probably working in a more strategically constrained climate than at any time in the last century. The combination of a formidable and externally imposed accountability regime and of a highly circumscribed strategic environment has meant that the governance at all levels has tended to become less about initiative and new development and much about process and compliance." (Shattock, 2006: 39.)

between governing bodies and their senates/academic boards. Governing bodies may have the final legal power of decision making but the most effective governing bodies exercise that power only in conjunction with the senior organs of academic governance" (Shattock, 2006: 57).

UNIVERSITY GOVERNANCE IN HUNGARY

After signing the Bologna Declaration in 1999, the active reform process began only in autumn, 2002. The main issues of Hungarian higher education reforms at that time were as follows.

- Transformation of the old dual HE educational system into a linear, three-tiered model (Bachelor-Master-Ph.D. levels).
- Establishing individual responsibility instead of "organised anarchy".
- Separation of management and academic questions, authority, responsibilities.
- Assurance that strategic decision-making should be taken in the interest of society and the institution.

After studying American and Western European (Scandinavian, British, Dutch, and Austrian etc.) models and practices—a new controlling paradigm —the university governance model was chosen to serve the painful structuring transformational process separating strategic decision-making process and the handling of academic affairs.

- The main governing body, the board should play an active, catalysing role. It consists of external laymen only, representing different stakeholders from the society and the university. According to the draft, the members of the board must take full financial personal responsibility for their wrong decisions (including personal property and assets). No students and inner professors are allowed to be members of the board.
- The Senate would deal only with academic issues. In strategic questions (like alteration of educational structure, investments, other financial problems, etc.) they would play an advisory role.
- Students receive a decreasing role in strategic issues but an increasing one in student matters.
- Top managers (rector, deans etc.) would not be elected but after taking into account recommendations of the searching committee and faculty opinions would be appointed by the board. Acceptance of the nominees by the senate

is a critical issue, of course. They would be appointed for longer periods with a requirement not to take on other academic obligations (full time appointment).

- The rector would be a non-voting member of the board with an obligation to initiate and prepare strategic and financial decisions. His main task would be to put through decisions taken by the board. He/she would have full responsibility for his/her activity.

- The concept is intended to change the inner structure of the faculties replacing the Humboldtian chair-system with a modern department-based system. In the department the educational decisions and responsibility are separated from research responsibilities. Similarly, the organisation and management of different kinds of programmes is separated from normal educational and research activities, taking clear responsibility for the action and results.

The reform concept of 2003 became a political question: a battlefield for the governing parties and the opposition. The political fight against the modernisation process of the Hungarian higher education was supported by the *ab ovo* conservative professors and faculty staff. The reform process became a failure. When in 2005 the Act was approved by the Hungarian Parliament, it was a deformed conception.

- Instead of the board an Economic Advisory Council was established without any strategic decision-making authority. Its activity was confined only to advising, monitoring and evaluating the budget and strategy of the university.

- The Economic Advisory Council consists of 7-9 members, (appointed for five years), including 2-3 persons delegated by the minister of education, 2-3 faculty is delegated by the Senate, a student, the rector and the financial director (members of government and politicians are excluded).

- The chair of the Economic Advisory Council is the rector.

The Senate continued to be the highest decision-making body with full authority. The rector is still elected (and not appointed by the board), he/she is a part time officer, able to work as an acting professor or a researcher. The Economic Advisory Council is far from a real, powerful board. It is not a decision-making body. Distribution of power in this system does not exist (the chair of the council is the elected, not appointed rector). The Senate makes decisions in all important university matters, including vital financial and strategic questions.

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CONCLUSIONS

The present Hungarian university management structure has a long way to go before it becomes a generally-accepted university governance system. It is a surviving example of the Humboldtian controlling-management system. The election of a part-time chief executive officer is an outdated solution in the present situation. It originated from the praxis of the medieval universities, who borrowed this election model from the medieval cloisters and abbeys. By the way, the church itself has abandoned this outdated election method: today the election of clergy-officers happens in a different way!

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HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT 2020
CHALLENGES AND NEW APPROACHES
IN THE FUTURE

ATTILA PAUSITS

INTRODUCTION

Competition on the higher education (HE) market, due to the increasing number of public and private higher education institutions (HEIs) as well as the Bologna process as a driving power of a new European Higher Education Area are forcing institutional changes. Because of this and new HE regulations in many European countries HE is in a change process. More market and stakeholder orientation leads to a competition-oriented HE-system and to new profile development at the institutions, underlining the need for (in the case of HEIs) innovative management instruments. HEIs are thus in need of modern management approaches and tools to cope with this "competitive stress". The question of exactly how these concepts are implemented is the particular challenge faced by an expert organisation (Pellert, 1999) on the way to further developing the organisation of HEIs and the corresponding professionalisation of the management. At the same time, HEIs have demonstrated a certain degree of resistance against the adoption of new models as well as reform ideas. In many cases, Humboldt's ideal of autonomy runs counter to Machiavellian objectives and limits, as well as the state and governmental influence (Clark, 1983). Thus, there is a conflict of priorities between the impulse for renewal and the necessity for controlat the policy-making, institutional, instrumental and individual levels (Hödl and Zegelin, 1999: 12; Cordes et al 2001: 7; Fröhlich, 2004: 10).

HEIs are knowledge-based expert organisations with a strong focus on teaching and research. Nowadays academic services such as the third pillar have been incorporated into the thought processes of HEI leaders and have been given more attention within HEIs. Education and research activities are de facto services to the public, to companies, students etc. Through strong competition in the HE market, institutions are constraining to search for competitive advantages. Knowledge production alone is not enough. This limited mission of HEIs has to be changed.

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Through the integration of a service culture the original tasks of HEIs are given additional support in order to be successful. In this "service mode" HEIs have to change their attitude, discarding the image of an ivory tower and transforming into a relationship-based organisation.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

In recent years, university policy in Europe has been characterised by increasing reliance on the differentiation of the university system as a modernisation factor, by the catalytic forces of the Bologna Process toward shifts in thinking and acting within higher education institutions. Meanwhile, these institutions are being granted more autonomy and their behaviour in the resulting competitive situation (Hödl and Zegelin, 1999) is expected to become more customer-oriented (Hansen, 1999; Nullmeier, 2000; Pausits, 2006), more cost-aware, and more sensitive towards the needs of society.

The approach adopted by public authorities with regard to universities has essentially transformed, and the shift towards enlarged 'managerialism' (Enders et al., 2005; Pellert, 1999) has been seriously influenced by ideas of 'academic capitalism' (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997) and 'entrepreneurial universities' (Clark, 1998).

Enders et al. developed three different scenarios for the future of higher education in Europe (Enders, J. et al., 2005). The characteristics of the first model—Centralia—would include a state-oriented organisation, European integration, synchronisation and big organisations. The second model—Octavia—would harness institutional and economic developments on the road toward a network economy and focus on control by the academic community as its crucial identity. In the third model, in contrast with Centralia, attention is focused on a market orientation, small organisations and high freedom for decision-making or integration to describe what Enders et al. have called '*Vitis Vinifera*'. Without predicting which "world" will become reality, it is clear that the wind of change has already arrived upon the European higher education landscape.

File et al. (2005) point out that European higher education institutions will act in a setting far less secure than that of even just a few decades ago. They will benefit from new self-government, which deals with crucial issues such as student selection, influencing tuition fee levels, setting income policies for employees and deciding autonomously which programmes to offer. These will be new aspects of the universities' interior "management existence". Modes of competition for

students, staff and contracts will increase significantly. More liberal regulations lead to greater financial independence, further chances and higher risks (File et al., 2005). Academic administration and management have become increasingly complex: the institutions have so far become larger and more multifaceted, the tasks have multiplied (modern "multiversities") and therefore the need to provide skilled management and administration has increased (Kerr, 2001). More management tasks have to be fulfilled at the institutional level than before. Professional management is an important prerequisite to enable the higher education institution to perceive itself as an autonomous organisation (Bleiklie, 2005) instead of being subordinate to central government.

Specific modes of management for a specific organisation have to be developed and new forms of participation have to be created (Hanft, 2000; Pellert, 2000). Another important prerequisite for establishing appropriate forms of management is the appreciation of management (Ruch, 2001) in the sense of honouring good performance in the field of management and organisation.

The quality of management will depend on the quality of the administrative web that "ties together" different management functions and administrative positions in different parts of the institutions and with different tasks (Cordes et al. 2001; Hanft, 2000; Hansen, 1999).

This new development has its roots in the growing number of professional activities within European higher education institutions and in their relevant environments; however, adequate, practice-oriented degree programmes designed for international target audiences are still comparatively rare.

SERVICE-BASED HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

The orientation and "changes in knowledge transfer," (Müller and Böling, 2000: 5) from teaching to learning, refer to a customer orientation in such a way that the "potentials and processes are coordinated with the learning prerequisites provided by the students" (Hansen, 1999: 371). One example of this is the new flexibility of times and places of learning or the use of E-learning. The improvement of an institution's services takes place by orienting the services towards the students, as well as through the better use of students as external factors. This customer orientation is reflected in the main processes of HEI, i.e. teaching and research, as well as in the perception of students, strategic partners and enterprises as customers. The core competence of

HEIs is still knowledge development, transformation and sharing. At the same time HEIs should become a "partner for life" through life-long learning. As a knowledge service organisation the HEI is not prepared for this shift.

Customer orientation as the motto of reform efforts at higher education institutions is more and more often the subject of scientific studies (Bastian, 2002; Krulis and Randa 1996; Meissner, 1986: 125). The approaches, for example, of Hansen, Sinz or Müller and Böhling, (Hansen, 1999; Sinz, 1998a; Müller and Böling, 2000) to turn HEIs into a real service provider are becoming more and more accepted within HE organisations and the relevant ministries. These demands are reinforced by the causality between services and the HEIs (Bastian, 2002: 11; Heiling, 2003; Hansen, 1999: 369):

- Services are immaterial. At the higher education institution, they include research (in the sense of the progress of knowledge) and teaching (as knowledge transfer) (Sinz, 1998b: 3; Hansen, 1999: 371).

- Services are largely about experience and trust, and are thus a priori not entirely measurable (Wochnowski, 1999: 287). For example, the evaluation of the quality of teaching only takes place during or at the end of studies (von Lüde, 1999: 135). Students must trust the HE institution to follow through on the evaluation results.

- Services, moreover, require an external factor—these are the students at the higher education institution—which actively participates in the production process of the service and thus has an influence on the quality (Hansen, 1999: 371).

A fundamental difference between HEIs and service enterprises is the educational task. Different target groups have divergent demands with regard to teaching and research. Thus, an orientation towards any individual group of customers—students, the state, providers of third party funds, etc.—is, strictly speaking, only possible to a limited extent. Instead, the HEI has to consider the interests of all the social stakeholder and customer groups (stakeholder approach) in the course of any educational task (Stegner, 2000: 1; Franck, 2000: 19; Hödl and Zegelin, 1999: 5).

Besides their educational tasks, higher education institutions also have to pay attention to the particular logic of the relevant market at any given time. A transition from a sellers' market to a buyers' market has occurred. This transition has forced higher education institutions to critically examine their own potentials

and processes and to better orient themselves to the various demands (Thielemann, 1997; Schäfer, 2003: 144; Rothschild and White 1993: 20; Stauss et al., 1999: 1). In a sellers' market, there is little incentive to orient potentials and processes towards the expectations of different groups of customers by means of a service orientation (Schrader and Eretge 1999: 104). A shift from sovereign institutions demanding services, such as education ministries, to potential students has just begun in recent years. For example, the Western Hungarian University in Sopron offers a business administration study programme in German. This educational offer appeals both to Hungarian students as well as those from neighbouring countries.

One finds different approaches to the theoretical examination of the education market as a buyers' market. Ruch calls this "trusting the marketplace" (Ruch, 2001: 68) and Keller sees a "management revolution" (Keller, 1983: 16) at HEI. These considerations indicate a shift from a transaction-oriented and knowledge-based to a relationship-oriented perspective in HE management. The advantages of a relationship orientation are systematised by Hennig-Thurau and Klee (Henning-Thurau and Klee, 1997: 737) in the following way:

Social Benefits refer to the forming of social relationships between customers and companies. In the context of higher education institutions, this finds its expression in the social integration of students into the higher education institution (Tinto, 1993), as well as into the higher education institution's community as a network.

Confidence Benefits, on the other hand, result from the degree to which students and graduates have confidence in the activities of the higher education institution and its members.

Special Treatment Benefits result from the degree to which customers experience individual care by the higher education institution.

Identity-related Benefits in the context of higher education stand for the advantages that result from the public prestige and image of the higher education institution and the positive influence they have on professional life.

Customer orientation does not automatically ensure the customer base, but it does create a necessary condition for such a base. It has to be clearly stated that periodic satisfaction ratings and evaluations of teachers and courses are a necessary, although not the only, requirement for building long-term relationships

between students and any given HEI. Today, due to the life-long learning approach, we assume that students will not only study at the HEI once, but they will have recourse to the (teaching) services of the HEI again and again over time. Thus, the relationship takes on the character of companions for life. However, HEIs are not yet prepared for this kind of commitment. Continuing education in the sciences is still underdeveloped as a basic support and activity of HEIs in the LLL-process, particularly at public HEIs. A reorientation of HEIs is necessary here.

The potentials, processes and outcomes of a HE institution form the basis of its relationship orientation. Hansen emphasises that the higher education institution's processes and potentials are rarely coordinated because "the desired outcome quality is not always clearly defined and because the potentials and processes are not interpreted clearly enough as determinants of the outcomes" (Hansen, 1999: 377). Therefore, attention has to be paid to coordination in the development of a relationship value model. The organisation of potentials and processes of the production of services determines the quality of outcomes.

In service-oriented fund appropriation systems, students are the capital for HEIs. Something similar applies to alumni, who open up attractive cooperative and financing opportunities for HEIs above and beyond the students' studies. Thus, one of the paramount tasks of the higher education institution is to structure its relationship to these two groups without restricting students' freedom in the process.

A relationship is based on strategy, processes and people to manage the interaction with stakeholders in an organised way. New information and communication technologies like the internet, data warehouse solutions etc. are able to support this triangle and improve their performance.

First of all, relationship management stands for the development and implementation of a new stakeholder-centred higher education strategy. A reorientation of all the processes and responsibilities of HEIs towards stakeholders has to take place in order to implement relationship management. Relationship management is a higher education strategy aided by state-of-the-art technologies that is used to optimise the quality of the long-term relationship between the higher education institution and her stakeholders. The task of relationship management is therefore to analyse, plan and structure the connection channels of the stakeholders. Along the lines of McKenna (1991: 86) and Diller (2000: 20), the basic principles of Relationship Management are as follow:

Intention of a unique relationship: The objective is to set up a special relationship, which has the goal of beneficial co-operation for all involved bodies.

Individuality towards stakeholders: Different segments of stakeholders should receive different service options.

Information on stakeholder: In order to be able to fulfil the first two points, it is imperative to obtain, store and analyse as much comprehensive information on the relationship and stakeholders as possible.

Integration of stakeholders: Stakeholders should be connected to the HEI in the best way, bearing in mind their particular role..

Interactions with stakeholders: It is only possible to gather data and information or to build up a relationship with stakeholders at all through interaction with them.

Investment in stakeholders' relationship: All of these steps cannot be realised for free. Relationship management also requires the readiness to commit oneself financially. In view of the target successes and outcomes, these are more than just costs involved, but an investment in stakeholders and thus in the future of the HEI as an organisation.

These "six I's" are the basic driving forces for a strategic relationship management. The framework for relationship management is finally based on these rules and has to follow them by creating single tasks and actions to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the relationship with the stakeholders.

The soul of the information technology revolution, in particular the Internet, is the chance given to HEIs to choose how they interact with their stakeholders. The Internet opens up the possibility to create better relationships with stakeholders than has been previously possible in the offline world. By combining the ability to respond directly, for example to potential student requests, and to provide the same stakeholder group with a highly interactive customised services, HEIs have a greater ability today to establish, nurture, and sustain long-term relationships than ever before. This is also needed in order to open the gates of the old HEI ivory towers. Gibbons at al. describe this as Mode 2 knowledge production. (Gibbons et al., 1994) Whereas Mode 1 is seen to be discipline-oriented, homogenous, stable and more hierarchically organised, Mode 2 is seen to be transdisciplinary, heterogeneous, heterarchical and transient. In Mode 2, value, sustainability and social acceptability are fundamental criteria in the evaluation of quality. In Mode 1 it was the academic communities that "spoke"

to society. Under Mode 2 society "speaks back" at the academic communities. Thus, the conventional academic model of 'open science' and disciplinary based research driven by internal reflection is challenged. (Arbo and Benneworth, 2007: 40) The connectivity between HEI and their stakeholders is more complex and therefore a strategic management of the different relationships to different stakeholders' groups is needed. The hybridisation between forms of knowledge and forms of organisations, and previously separated realms of society are becoming more and more intertwined. Figure 1 shows the complexity of stakeholders' relations in Mode 2:

Figure 1. Management "directions" of higher education institutions in Mode 2
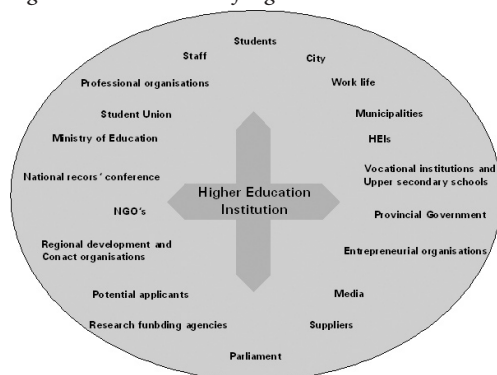
The named management relationships in Figure 1 could be divided into HEI to governmental bodies to business and to customers. All three groups require different relationship strategies and activities. The success of HEI is significantly determined by the quality of these touch points of the outside and inside world of the institutions. To mange all these different levels and highly differentiated relationships a systematic framework is an absolute requirement.

CONCLUSION

In future, HEIs will have to use the relationship capital of students and alumni in a better way. If alumni are the only group considered as customers of HEIs because, as former students, they can support the university via sponsorship and other contributions, it is already too late. Instead, alumni work has to begin when the students first make contact, even before they begin their studies. The potential

relationship with alumni can only be used if the process of forming the relationship is seen not as a purely isolated activity, but as part of a process in the sense of a full life cycle. Therefore a shift from knowledge to relationship orientation is essential. Finally, the service-oriented management is about creating framework conditions that make it possible to proactively proceed in the service processes of the HEI (Homburg and Sieben, 2000: 490). It is necessary to systematically stimulate relationships towards segment-specific strategic objectives so that the desired success and an ideal type of relationship can be assured in a stakeholder approach.

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CO-OPERATION BETWEEN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND INDUSTRY
THE CASE STUDY FROM WROCŁAW IN THE LOWER SILESIA REGION [1]

AGNIESZKA KLUCZNIK-TÖRŐ

INTRODUCTION

Under the conditions of the rapidly changing global environment, knowledge-based sources of economic and social performance tend to determine the direction and conditions of progress in the most developed countries. The quality and adaptability of human capital in response to technological changes represent the most valuable contribution to development in the contemporary international economic contest for investment and technology transfer.

Generally, and particularly in its most advanced forms—higher education and R&D—the process of education can be considered the potent source of sustained economic growth and competitiveness due to the fact that education is likely to have a significant influence on economic, personal and social development (Klucznik-Törő, 2007). The logical consequence is that through the responsive, structure of higher education, with its qualitative and quantitative understanding, sustainable development can be stimulated.

The sustained accumulation, expansion and renewal of knowledge through higher education institutions and programmes in response to a changing global environment provides for the creative assets and sources of higher added values in global competition. Hence, higher education institutions play a significant role in the creation of knowledge and its transfer, and these roles are recognised in the knowledge-based economy as core functions of higher education institutions. Development of co-operation between academia and the world of labour tends to focus on achieving aims such as:

- increasing employability of university graduates,
- decreasing alternative costs of higher education (higher in case of employment below qualifications or occupation without link with formal education),

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- the "production" of highly competitive human capital—not in the context of lower costs of employment, but rather by means of higher qualifications and lifelong learning skills,
- giving a shape to the education system, responding to the needs of the current and future demands of the labour market,
- building more competitive industries.

Table 1. Partnerships, alliances and collaborations between the two actors/sectors of socio-economic life (i.e. universities and industry) can take various forms such as:

long term research agreements	between specific firms and specific universities
consortia of firms supporting research	in one subject area at a single or multiple universities
campus-based interdisciplinary research centres	which bring together scientists from different areas to focus on agendas presented by business or industry
technology parks	to locate businesses near university campuses and university facilities
incubator facilities	to nurture fledgling enterprises seeking to develop and market new technology and industry associates programmes
technical service agreements	
specialised training programmes	for high tech fields

Source: Clark, Neave, 1992, p.1602

The choice of the option of collaboration is dependent on organisational culture, previous experience on both sides and the purposes of the collaboration.

UNIVERSITY—INDUSTRY RELATIONS FROM THE HISTORIC POINT OF VIEW

The first universities in the world—Bologna (est. 1088), Paris (est. 1150) and Oxford (est. 1167) were built on three faculties—law, medicine and theology (Davis, 1996). The first universities, especially in Italy, enjoyed broad independence from the local communities and local guilds—the predecessors of industrial organisations. The history of many universities shows that they were established in one town, after four or five years moved to another town and after some time moved again or closed down (Bender, 1991). This happened in cases when the local, usually financial, conditions became unsatisfactory for professors. The number of teachers and students was made a change of venue feasible, e.g. the Italian Renaissance universities usually amounted to 30-40 teachers and 100-150 students.

It is interesting that both students and scholars created a corporate organisation: a student guild and scholars' guild that were recognised as a guild of "consumers/customers" and a guild of "service providers".

Besides the first Italian universities, most historic cases have shown that in the following centuries universities usually represented some symbiotic relationship with their local communities because those societies and the academics benefited from each other e.g. in the form of prestige for the city and a stable budget for the university.

Just to summarise the role of the first universities: not only now, but also in the past, universities have played the role of revitalising the local communities and towns, even though the relations between universities and guilds (predecessors of industrial organisations) were very limited or did not exist at all.

The Humboldtian university model was established (in 1810) by Wilhelm von Humboldt, rector of University of Berlin, without a long-run impact on industry—academic relations. The new model introduced the principle of academic freedom resulting from the status of academics who were conceived as an elite creating independent knowledge with no social obligations (Weber and Duderstadt, 2004). The positive effect was that academics could dedicate themselves to knowledge, learning and discoveries independently. However, on the other side of the coin came the separation of the world of academia from the world of industry, which in many cases of European universities exists to some extent to this very day.

In the late 19th century in the United States of America, a strong social criticism of higher education institutions appeared. The criticism was caused by the lack of responsiveness of universities to the needs of the labour market for the increasing role and importance of high tech industries. It gave an impulse to establish the first forms of co-operation between universities and industry. The pioneer in this field was the Mellone Institute at the University of Pittsburgh (1910). Later, there was a huge renewal of interest in the 1970s and 1980s (Clark and Neave, 1992: 1602).

What is the current state of co-operation within the European system of education? It seems that academic society has widely recognised the necessity of closer co-operation between universities and industry (business). But the fact is that it is still rather wishful thinking then reality. The EU Future Presidency conference in Stuttgart dedicated to European Researchers of Tomorrow—crossing the borders of Academia and Industry can be taken as one example. The topic and the high

status of the conference (organised under the German EU Presidency) and its localisation (in the stronghold of one of the German industrial regions) gave a perfect opportunity to link the sphere of knowledge with the sphere of industry. But the fact is that representatives of enterprises and business were not very much encouraged to participate in this event—among more then 300 participants there was only one representative of industry.

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN UNIVERSITIES AND INDUSTRY—THE CASE STUDY FROM THE LOWER SILESIA REGION

Since the opening of the system of education in Poland to the private universities in 1992 18 private higher education institutions established which number rised up to 221 in 2002 (Oświata i wychowanie, 1999; Szkoły wyższe, 2003), competition has been increasing in the educational market. A growing number of universities—from 112 in 1990 up to 344 in 2002 (Szkoły wyższe, 2003)—with a decreasing number of secondary school graduates has resulted in stronger competition between universities for new students. The offering of interesting pro-market programmes and courses is one of the methods applied in this competition; another is to offer possibilities to complement theoretical education with practical experience. The additional practical aspect of education is made possible by co-operation with industrial and business actors. The co-operation provides benefits for both sides. Universities benefit by providing students opportunities to obtain practical experience during the university period and increase their chances after university graduation for interesting and well-paid employment. For industry, co-operation with universities is the simplest way to recruit the most talented students.

However, until recently co-operation with universities has been recognised as a new phenomenon, mainly caused by the problems of the transitory Polish labour market and one of the highest levels of unemployment (above 19% in 2004 (Rocznik Statystyczny, 2006) in Europe. Currently the opposite process can be observed—the increasing problem of a lack of qualified and unqualified workers brought about greater openness of the industrial sector for co-operation with universities and other educational institutions.

So far experiences are positive on both sides and those companies which established their activity in Lower Silesia are pleased with the quality of their labour force. This quality results from the high level of education offered by universities in

Wrocław and the wider range of available courses. The quality of higher education institutions from Wrocław is confirmed by the fact that universities like the Wrocław University of Technology, the University of Wrocław or the Wrocław University of Economics are ranked as the best higher education institutions not only in the region but also at the national level.

A large group of companies have signed long-term contracts with universities, which guarantee access to top class specialists or commit them to conducting complicated research. Bilateral agreements have been signed among others by Electricite de France, Fagor, HP, Macopharma, Master Foods, Philips Lighting, Siemens, Volvo and Whirlpool.

Various elements of the regional picture have reinforced each other and produced a favourable environment for the achieved results. Intensified actions of local government have encouraged investors to set up their businesses in the region. Efforts were made by university leaders to meet the expectations of students and fulfil the social mission of universities by adapting education programmes to the needs of the economy as well as the co-operation of investors looking for human capital. Finally, a large number of students undertake university educations with the hope of achieving a competitive position in the labour market. All of these circumstances have contributed to the creation of 100,000 new workplaces in the metropolis since 2003 and around 80,000 more are predicted in the next 3-4 years.

The Wrocław University of Economics offers a remarkably successful example of co-operation between university and industry. The Careers Service Office was established as a unit solely responsible for this university activity. The main aim of the office is to play the role of the bridge between 1) the university and the labour market as well as 2) student/graduates looking for employment or work experience and employers looking for qualified employees. The mission of the office is to bring closer the two worlds—employers and students—by observing the regional (local) labour market and learning its needs, e.g. planned investments, forecasting of the labour market, etc. The activities worth mention:

- "Open Door Days" organised by the university to create an opportunity for firms to present themselves and advertise their work offers for students,
- "Meetings With Employers" events organised twice a year with the purpose to give a chance for a face-to-face meeting between students and 20-30 employers, who present their offers of work, training, practice etc.,

- training of generic skills co-organised together with employers from the region, giving a chance for students to learn such skills as operating with the integrated management system (SAP), office correspondence and trade correspondence, training of contacts with clients, telemarketing etc. The office has observed a new and interesting phenomena: employers expect the university to provide practical skills. Prepared trainings should fulfil this demand, at least to some extent.
- co-operation of the university with the Wrocław Agglomeration Development Agency also providing a great opportunity to learn the needs of employers and investors.

The development of co-operation between universities in the Lower Silesia Region and the business-industrial sector has been possible thanks to the great support from the local government, especially the City Promotion Office of the Municipality of Wrocław. Some of their pioneer actions are unique, not only at the city scale but also on a European scale. The most interesting among them:

- "Let's Win Index, Scholarship and Place in Dormitory—and Do Study for Free!"—internet competition organising, together with Wrocław University of Economics, Wrocław Technical University, Higher School of Banking, Higher School "ASESOR"; programme was addressed for secondary school graduates,
- "Taper Wrocław"—encouraging young people from the Ukraine to study in Wrocław by promotion of Wrocław as a place with a dynamic economic, social and scientific development and prospects.

Another important element has been the establishment of the European Institute of Technology in Wrocław became a priority for the local government. As part of its contribution to the project, the city would provide accommodation for its employees (flats), a complete infrastructure, organisational support at all stages of the implementation and later the operation of this significant investment and support related to developing its communication system (ICT, road and air transport).

A step forward into closer academy—industry collaboration—the European Institute of Technology and the response of Wrocław to the European Commission project
Although the framework and concept of education policy is generally defined at the national level, nevertheless the composition, the focus and orientation of coordinated programmes among EU member states can be influenced or stimulated by initiatives

launched at the level of the European Union. One illustration of these initiatives is offered by the European Commission in 2005. It proposed the establishment of the European Institute of Technology (EIT), its mission being to promote education, research and innovation:

- education—as a unique educational model would attract candidates for MA and Ph.D. students and would give them education at the highest international level,
- scientific research—it would range from basic to applied research with a particular focus on industry concentrating on interdisciplinary areas with a strong innovation potential,
- innovation—the EIT would develop strong links with the business community which would ensure that its work is appropriate for market needs and would help orientate its research in directions useful for the economy and society.

The idea of establishing the European Institute of Technology (EIT) was born as part of the policy of building the bridge between the European Area of Higher Education (EAHE) and the European Research Area (ERA), and represents promising elements of co-operation for rewarding and joint efforts to reproduce and renew the foundations of knowledge on the European scale. However, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was regarded as the prototype and model in terms of financing and structure.

The essential condition of the creation of the EIT was determined as its capacity to generate more and new forms of co-operation among academic centres across the Union as well as between the Institute and potential industrial partners. The very first response of the academic world to this idea from the European Commission came from Wrocław and its scientific society. In favour of the quick decision expressing the willingness and readiness of Wrocław and its universities to host the EIT project was:

- excellent location of the town— in the middle of Europe at the crossroad between west—east and north-south of the continent, on the border with Germany and the Czech Republic,
- strong and long-lasting academic traditions coming not only from Wrocław itself but also from the university of Lvov, moved from eastern Poland to Wrocław after the Second World War with its firmly established achievements in sciences, especially in mathematics, chemistry and physics,

- great scientific potential of Wrocław linked with the quality and number of professors and students (135,000 academic students),

- massive investment on the part of the local government, the academic community and foreign companies (since 2003 investment has reached over 3 billion Euro resulting in the booming regional economy with its demands for further investments in knowledge.

Among the 6 pillars of the Polish offer to the call of this great EU project, the first two represent education, science and research, while the remaining are composed of business, local government support, regional potential and the generation of further growth. The foundations of the education pillar are as follows:

- the institute will attract the most gifted youth from the whole of Europe and provide students with access to top teaching staff from all over the scientific world of outstanding specialisations, e.g. IT, biotechnology, chemistry etc.

- English should become the official language of education and research at EIT,

- EIT will operate through integrated partnerships with universities, research centres and companies in the region and across Europe,

- EIT co-operation with leading companies from various industrial sectors will enable direct access of Wrocław laboratories and education to state-of-the-art technologies. It will also open a possibility to deal with management-related challenges.

The science and research pillar assumes that the main area of EIT knowledge will concentrate on IT[2], computer sciences, new materials, nanotechnologies, biotechnology, advanced medical applications and so-called "frontier research" especially in mathematics, physics and chemistry.

The research infrastructure has been already subsumed into given research units: Lower Silesian Centre for Advanced Technologies, Wrocław Technology Park, Wrocław Medical Science and Technology Park, Lower Silesian Centre for Energy Security, Lower Silesian Park of Business and Innovation, Wrocław Agency of Regional Development, Wrocław Agglomeration Development Agency.

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[2] Just to mention some of the results achieved by students from the region in international rivalries so far: top positions in team programming world championship – ACM International Collegiate Programming Contest, Internet programmer competition – TopCoder and in application design competitions – Microsoft Imagine Cup.

SUMMARY

The logical consequence of the fact that education can exert a crucial influence on improved economic and social performance is that economic and social development through higher education is possible under the condition that the quantitative and qualitative structure of higher education will respond to economic needs. In order to achieve this, stronger and more efficient co-operation between universities and industry should be promoted and established.

The case study taken from the Lower Silesia region presents the possibility of co-operation between one of the universities—Wrocław University of Economics—and industry from the region.

The example also illustrates that the co-operation between universities from Wrocław and local industry is very much supported by the local government, especially by the City Promotion Office of the Municipality of Wrocław. It has been presented the interesting initiative of EU of establishing the European Institute of Technology and Polish answer for this call. From a regional point of view, the possibility of establishing the EIT in Central Europe offers a fresh and remarkable opportunity for increasing regional co-operation of universities with industrial actors from various EU Members and not only from Central Europe.

The EIT is meant to gather the best and the most talented students, researchers and academics from the whole world. They will co-operate with leading companies, which apply advanced knowledge and research, thus contributing to the general enhancement of the competence level in research and innovation management. The integration of teams from universities, research centres and companies under specific knowledge communities will give the Institute an edge over universities or networks organised in the traditional way.

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DILEMMAS OF CAREER MANAGEMENT IN CONTEMPORARY UNIVERSITIES

GERGELY KOVÁTS

INTRODUCTION

The central thesis of current higher education research literature is that the borderline between higher education and the business sector starts to dissolve (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 1997; Slaughter and Leslie, 1997; Clark, 1998; Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004). This is the result of capital accumulation in the business sector which makes possible investment in research and educational technology. As business and other non-profit organisations become able to enter into higher education markets, universities start to loose their monopoly of knowledge production (and partly dissemination), leading to the change of knowledge production regimes. The dissolution of borders is clearly noticeable in the growing number of corporate universities and the growing participation of business organisations in research and technology development (OECD, 2004: 14).

One might think that universities have good chance of being global players in the knowledge economy, provided that they are able to transform themselves into entrepreneurial organisations (Etzkowitz, Webster et al., 2000). The first step on this road is to accept that universities are not just symbolic institutions of societies which take part of its development in an indirect way (suggested by the traditional Humboldtian view) but organisations which directly participate in market transactions.

Others, however, see this trend as the end of the university era because universities will be able to play only a minor role in the future (Gibbons, Limoges et al., 1994). There are some even more critical voices arguing that the instrumental logic of business imperializes the universities (Readings, 1996; Lyotard, 2001). The denomination of 'university' will be used in order to gain more credibility and legitimacy on the market by suggesting an image of objectivity and impartiality, while the term itself will become vacuous. 'University' will become the synonym of educational business organisations because there will be nothing which makes universities different from business organisations. Although the fears of these critics are sound and persuasive, they rarely offer alternatives or tell us what to do differently. What is worth consideration,

however, is that the transformation of the university is much deeper than is usually assumed, which requires conversation inside and outside of universities.

To sum up, it remains an unresolved question as to what extent universities should and can maintain their traditional organisational forms and values. It is, however, a fact that there is a convergence between sectors. A clearly visible sign of this trend is that recently many management techniques and methods have gained ground, both in higher education and in general, in the public sector (e.g. the movement of new public management). The pace of this trend depends on the institutional setting of the given country, but terms such as 'strategic management', 'customer', 'market', 'performance measurement' are common even in those countries in which higher education is traditionally strongly regulated and administered by the state.

Borderlines are dissolving not just among sectors but among countries as well (e.g. brain-drain, brain-gain). This trend further accelerates the convergence of higher education to the business sector. The reason for that is the increased mobility which helps the flow of personnel and practices among countries and organisations. The dissolution of borderlines has an enormous effect on the life of higher educational 'managers' and academics, creating new human resource management challenges that universities must face. Permeable borders lead to intensified competition for talented employees. Universities cannot avoid the war for talent.

In Hungary, for example, this competition was especially visible for many faculties during the transition period when the business sector successfully recruited most of the young academics. Today the middle generation is in the minority in in many disciplines in universities, as can be seen in the case of Corvinus University (see figures 1 and 2).

Figure 1. Distribution of academics on the Corvinus University of Budapest in 2004 and 2006.

Figure 2. Distribution of qualified academics on the Corvinus University of Budapest in 2004 and 2006.
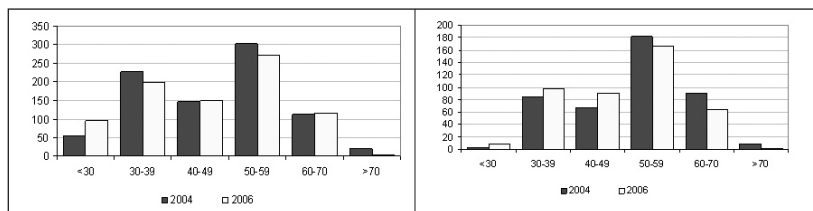
Source: edited by the Author

Higher education seems to be disadvantaged in the war for talent as the attractiveness and competitiveness of being an academic is decreasing (Enders and Teichler, 1997; Huisman, de Weert et al., 2002). It is often argued that one reason why universities fall behind in the competition can be found in the rigid career system (c.f. Huisman, de Weert et al., 2002).

In this paper I am going to focus on the (usually implicit) human resource practices and especially on career management systems applied on universities. It is important to note, however, that the regulation of human resource and career systems variesfrom country to country and among disciplines. My aim in this paper is not to seize upon these differences, but to sketch out the general trends and to provide an overall diagnosis in order to identify those questions which need to be answered.

The structure of the paper is the following: first, I describe the change in knowledge production regimes. Then I present human resource practices applied in different regimes. Based on this analysis, I am going to pose some questions related to career management systems.

CHANGES IN THE NATURE OF KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION

As Gibbons and his colleagues have argued, there is transition from Mode 1 Knowledge (M1K) production to Mode 2 Knowledge (M2K) production (Gibbons, Limoges et al., 1994). Mode 1 Knowledge represents a disciplinary-based and university-governed mode of knowledge production which depends on the creativity of the individual researchers and is controlled by academics themselves (peer review). What counts as knowledge is defined by disciplinary communities and they have the privilege to define research problems (Gibbons, Limoges et al., 1994: 2).

Mode 2 Knowledge, however, is context-driven and transdisciplinary, which means that research problems root in the context of application, that is, they are defined by the wider societal context. As problems become more complex, they can be solved only by combining different disciplines, or, to put it differently, by combining specialists from different fields. Therefore, successful research is based on groups of specialists rather then on genius individuals. (See also that borderlines between disciplines lose their significance.) (Gibbons, Limoges et al., 994: 3-11).

As a result, research production is no longer the monopoly of universities, but business organisations, governmental agencies and non-profit organisations also participate in it. The control of the process does not remain in the sole hand of

disciplinary communities. Instead, it is social accountability, utility, cost effectiveness and profitability which replace the governing body of disciplinary communities.

It is not surprising that organisation of research and education change as well. The importance of flexible organisational structures such as project organisations and department-based organisations has increased, where departments are pools of specialists from where project leaders can recruit people for temporary research or educational works (Laki and Palló, 2001; Barakonyi, 2004).

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS IN DIFFERENT KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION REGIMES

Mode 1 and Mode 2
Knowledge production regimes are supported by different HR practices. Assuming ideal-type regimes, in the following I am going to describe the characteristics of HR practices applied in each regime.

Mode 1 Knowledge Regime
In the Mode 1 Knowledge regime, the higher education sector has strong borders which are usually created and maintained by many human resource practices. One of these practices is the career system. In this regime career is usually interpreted as advancement in the hierarchy. By climbing the ladder, one gains "larger command positions, while the core of the job remains the same" (Gilliot, Overlaet et al., 2002: 284). That is why Gilliot and his colleagues call this type of career a 'command-centred career'.

Hierarchy has two meanings in the academic environment. The 'academic career' means advancement in the scientific career hierarchy (e.g. assistant professor, associate professor, professor, etc.), while the management career is advancement in the organisational hierarchy (head of department, dean, rector, etc.). The two types of career in the M1K regime are usually tied to each other, that is, the prerequisite of a management position is the advancement in the discipline. In the M1K regime the (scientific) career track is highly regulated and is mainly based on the mixture of seniority and scientific performance. Performance criteria are set by the disciplinary community in a way that provides for the possibility of further advancement (and therefore, incentive) for the whole lifetime spent in academia. To achieve the top of the career ladder, an average academic has to spend her whole life in the higher education sector.

The flow of personnel usually remains within the border of the higher educational sector. As there is low inter-sectoral mobility, the base of recruitment is Ph.D. students and academics employed by other universities or governmental research organisations. The ideal faculty member has a strong academic identity, a strong network within her discipline and a strong theoretical orientation (as in Mode 1 Knowledge theory and practice are separated).

Figure 3: Personnel flow in the Mode 1 Knowledge regime
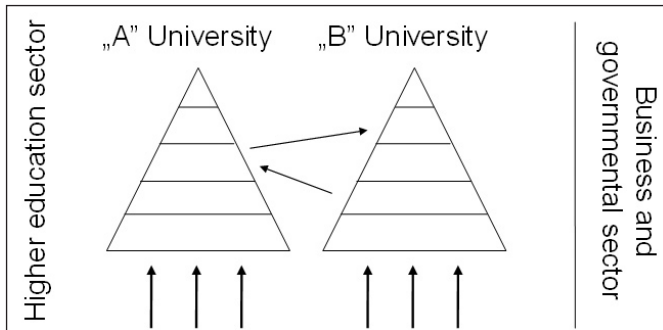
Source: edited by the Author

Within the M1K regime, long term, non-monetary incentives dominate: high status (academics are usually civil servants), high job security (tenure, life-time employment) and high reputation are only achievable in the long term. Being an academic is a long term, risky investment because committing oneself toward an academic career requires specialization. This risk is only accepted if there is an opportunity for stable employment because there is a limited possibility to transfer the skills and experiences accumulated during the academic years if one has to leave the higher educational sector. On the other hand, the long term incentives reproduce the exclusivity of the academic profession and the closeness of the higher education sector.

Compensation schemes are usually defined on a national level, thus individual academics are allowed only to negotiate their working conditions and not the compensations they get. The framework is usually based on internal equity, that is, compensation packages are tied to different hierarchical levels. Packages are always defined to reflect the hierarchy. In other words, it is the hierarchical levels rather than the general market that serve as a reference point to which compensation packages are justified, because the inter-sectoral movement is limited. In this way internal conflicts

can be minimized, and the strength of academic profession can be maximized against other professions (strengthening the exclusivity of the sector).

Mode 2 Knowledge Regime

In a pure M2K regime different HR principles prevail, as experience outside academia is also valued. As a result the base of recruitment is widened because all the professionals in other sectors are potential faculty members. The ideal faculty member therefore has much professional experience in several fields, has a strong network both inside and outside academia and has the ability to utilize developed knowledge.

The M2K regime supports a different interpretation of career than that of the M1K regime. Career means switching among sectors/organisation and enjoying the transfer of knowledge from one context to another. The number of those academics who spend only a short time in the university participating in temporary existing educational or research project is on the increase. Also growing is the number of those who simultaneously work in the business/governmental sector and in the university environment (as consultants, experts, researchers, etc.). This kind of career is called a 'constructional career' by Gilliot at al., because individuals construct their own career routes (Gilliot, Overlaet et al., 2002: 284).

The career system therefore needs to be very flexible, rewarding output rather than the potential or the time spent in academia. As people spend less time in the university environment, formal systems are required to assess and measure performance and previous experience. Performance management systems are linked to the goals of external accountability.

Figure 4: Personnel flow in the Mode 2 Knowledge regime
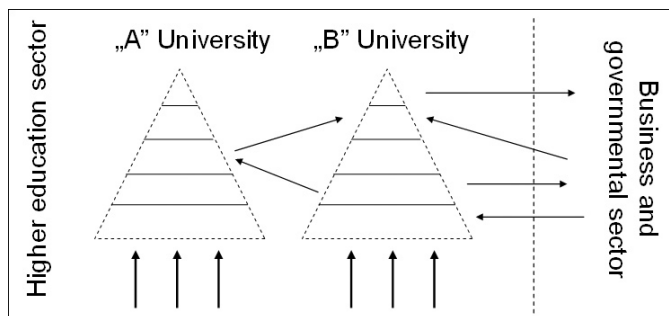
Source: edited by the Author

Another consequence is that long term, non-monetary incentives are replaced by short term, monetary incentives. The compensation system also changes. In order to attract experienced, popular professionals, the university has to compete with all the other sectors by offering custom tailored, competitive compensation packages. It is not just the working condition, but the salary and other elements of the package which are negotiable. As a result, internal conflicts are sharper, because payments are only loosely connected to the time spent in higher education or in the organisation. In a pure M2K model it is also possible to fill in management positions by persons coming from the business or governmental sector.

Table 1: Human resource practices in different knowledge production regimes

Mode of knowledge production		Mode 1 Knowledge: investigator-initiated and defined by the disciplinary community	Mode 2 Knowledge: context-driven and transdisciplinary.
The aim of HR practices		To build up strong academic identity	To find and employ good professionals and experts
Career systems	Main characteristics of the career system	Closed (regulated) career tracks based on seniority (time spent in academia) and performance.	Open (flexible) career tracks based on performance.
	The meaning of career	Career as advancing in the disciplinary or organisational hierarchy (command-centred career (Gilliot, Overlaet et al., 2002)	Career as moving between sectors. (constructional career; Gilliot, Overlaet et al.)
	Flow of personnel	Up-or-out model, lifelong employment (Bakacsi, Bokor et al. ,2000)	In-and-out model (Bakacsi, Bokor et al. ,2000)
Base of recruitment		PhD students, academics employed by other universities or governmental research organisations	Professionals with experience outside academia
Incentive mechanisms		Long term orientation: non-monetary incentives counterbalancing the risk of specialization: high status (civil servants), job security (tenure), reputation.	Short term orientation: monetary incentives, low job security
Compensation		Conflict minimization (internal equity): compensations are predefined (working conditions are negotiable)	Competitive (external equity): compensation is negotiable

Source: edited by the Author

The main characteristics of the HR practices in different regimes can be summarised by the well-known "make-or-buy" dilemma, that is, whether to recruit people with high potential and then to educate and train them to acquire the necessary skills ('make'), or to find people with the required skill on the market ('buy'). In the first case the implicit contract between the individual and the university is to "join us, be part of the community, make an investment in the profession and in the long

run you will be richly rewarded". In the latter case the implicit contract is to "do the required task for the negotiated reward and then say goodbye".

DILEMMAS OF CAREER SYSTEMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Although Gibbons (et al. 1994) describes the current situation as a transition from one phase to another, it is more accurate to characterise the process as a change of emphasis because different knowledge production regimes do not exclude each other, but coexist (see Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004: 29.).

The weight of knowledge production regimes differs among disciplines and countries. For example, the deeper a discipline is embedded into society, the stronger the link is with practical life, and the easier it is to transfer knowledge and skills to other sectors. In addition to the differences in disciplines, it is also possible that members of the same department have different career. Thus, universities, faculties and departments have to balance between different expectations.

It is also important to pinpoint other career aspirations. For example, Gilliot at al. mention a third type of career. Evolutionary career is the fulfilment or realisation of a pedagogical or managerial mission (Gilliot et al., 2002). To see how students or the organisation evolve may provide a sense of personal advancement as well. It seems, however, that none of the regimes incorporate that kind of career explicitly.

Another question to solve is how to handle people who change their career focus during their lifetime. What if I want to start by accumulating experience, by working at different organisations and sectors, and later I want to focus on the university by following a command-centred career? And how should we compare such a course of life to those who follow the command-centred career from the beginning? How should we evaluate and take into consideration the experience gained outside of the university?

To conclude, as different knowledge production systems coexist, more than one career aspiration is supported. In consequence, there are different and often contradicting opinions about whom to promote or what to reward. Therefore it is very difficult to develop a uniform, consistent career (and reward, performance management, etc.) system, because it has to bridge the differences between presumptions about the goal and the nature of the university.

I am convinced that the question of career and all human resource policies root in the different convictions about the mission of the university. I agree that universities are in a transition period where the goals and mission of the university are

contested. But instead of offering general advice about how to adapt to different and contradicting expectations (and in this way implicitly taking a stand on the mission of the university), I take the advice of the critics of the entrepreneurial university. I believe that it is dialogue about the desired university that is required. Each university as a community of people has to find its own answers. By providing an analysis and raising questions, my aim in this paper was to participate in this dialogue.

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THE ENTREPRENEURIAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE CAREER EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENTS IN HUNGARY IN INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

GÁBOR MÁRKUS

INTRODUCTION

In this paper we present the results of the "International Survey of Collegiate Entrepreneurship 2006" organised by the University of St Gallen and conducted in 14 countries, mostly in EU countries. We investigated two fields: students' career expectations and the conditions and environment for starting a business at universities. About student career expectations we have found that there is a significant difference between the first 5 years after graduation and the following period, and that the differences between the various fields of study are surprisingly small. As regards the entrepreneurial enviroment of universities, we concluded that the conditions provided by the universities are "quite good" overall in the view of students, and that the differences among domestic universities are greater than among individual countries.

The economic impact of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises is very diverse. According to Hungarian statistics, by 2003 SMEs already employed more than 70% of the workforce in the private sector (Román 2006), and the relative importance of the big companies in terms of employment is continuously decreasing. No less important is the contribution of the smaller-sized companies in generating GDP: 53% of the value added tax created in Hungary is produced by SMEs.

SMEs are—from the technical point of view—those firms, who have less than 250 employees, whose net asset value is less than 50 million euro, and the annual sales revenue of which is less than 43 million euro. Approached differently, entrepreneurship can be linked to innovation, creativity, increased risk-taking, non-routine decision-making at the individual level and high growth (Szerb, 2004). Moreover, it can even be seen that a specific tight circle, approximately 1-4% of the young entrepreneurial businesses, the so called "gazelles", are responsible for the critical portion of job creation and economic growth (Autio 2005; Birch, 1987, Csapó, 2006; Szerb et al, 2004, Vecsenyi, 2003). From the

standpoint of the entire national economy, therefore, the number of these dynamically growing businesses is more important than the absolute number of companies.

The entrepreneurial activity of adults (aged 18 to 64), and the relative position of Hungary are well-known from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor research analysis (Szerb et al. 2004; Szerb, 2004, Szerb et al. 2006). On the basis of the indicators, Hungary occupies a middle-to-low position on the rankings list, although close to the other post-socialist countries (Croatia, Poland, Latvia and Slovenia), and not far removed from the other European Union countries. From the point of view of the future development of Hungary, the increase in low-level early phase entrepreneurial activity, and with this, the increase of the number of the opportunity-motivated enterprises with high potential have primary importance.

What are the characteristics of the people establishing rapidly-growing businesses? According to Autio's analyses (2005), these young entrepreneurs have a high income and are university or college graduates. They are almost exclusively opportunity-motivated to start up a business. The businesses expected to be established in future years by those who are now in their twenties and still, at least partially, involved in university studies, will determine the national economic growth and influence the creation of new jobs in the years following 2010. This means that an analysis, perhaps an international comparison, of the entrepreneurial attitude and entrepreneurial characteristics of university students will enable us to estimate future entrepreneurial activity, and that, in consequence, we will also be able to extract some indirect information about our economic growth prospects.

The entrepreneurial intentions of university students have already been analysed in several countries. Studies were carried out in Australia, in the USA, in the Scandinavian countries and also in the German-speaking area comprising Austria, Switzerland and Germany (Kuratko, 2003, Autio et al., 2001; Franke and Lüthje, 2004; Krueger and Reilly, 2000; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003; Schwarz et al., 2006). They indicated that the prestige of entrepreneurship and the intention to start up one's own business had increased among students who had completed entrepreneurship courses, but still we know little of the entrepreneurial attitudes of the younger age group and of their intentions to establish businesses in the future.

In what follows I describe, first and foremost, the method of data collection, the basic characteristics of the sample, following which I examine students' expectations regarding their future employment and career, and then the universities' entrepreneurial enviroment. In the final part, I summarise and assess the results.

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DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA-COLLECTION AND THE SAMPLE

The "International Survey of Collegiate Entrepreneurship 2006" was organised by the University of St Gallen. The research group at the University of St Gallen was responsible for coordinating the survey and assembling the questionnaire, together with disseminating the results and organising their publication. Research teams in each of the 14 countries were responsible for designating institutes of higher education to participate in the survey and for keeping contact with the students. The survey itself was carried out via the internet, the link to the questionnaire being given to the students by email. The questionnaire was prepared in 5 languages—English, French, German, Hungarian and Finnish. Hungarian students were allowed to complete the questionnaire only in Hungarian; other language options were not given.

The international (total) sample contains 37,412 completed questionnaires. The most important characteristics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Participating countries and the characteristics of the sample

Country	No. of universities interviewed	No. of registered students	No. of completed questionnaires	Response rate (%)	Proportion of full-time students (%)	Year of study of student (average)	Age (average)	Male students (%)	Students of Business and Economics (%)
Australia	3	52,536	67	0.1	79.1	2.28	23.2	44.8	8
Austria	23	122,600	8,857	7.2	74.7	3.64	25.3	47.7	37.9
Belgium	5	21,954	1,612	7.3	92.7	2.75	23.0	51.9	38.6
South Africa	1	12,600	25	0.2	96.0	3.68	22.9	60.0	96.0
Finland	8	45,400	1,566	3.4	85.8	2.48	25.5	48.3	38.9
France	1	2,500	67	2.7	100.0	1.00	21.0	37.3	98.5
Ireland	4	37,000	248	0.7	95.6	3.11	23.8	48.0	62.9
Liechtenstein	1	570	200	35.1	65.0	2.31	26.3	71.5	75.0
Hungary	8	169,025	3,346	2.0	90.6	3.19	23.3	51.6	47.0
Germany	9	111,474	3,189	2.9	96.9	3.23	24.0	48.7	22.9
Norway	6	38,125	1,086	2.9	97.2	3.06	24.4	60.0	22.1
Switzerland	26	55,105	8,825	16.0	84.4	3.10	24.8	62.8	28.3
Singapore	1	3,500	354	10.1	98.3	2.18	22.5	49.4	75.7
New Zealand	2	27,353	7,970	29.1	93.7	2.91	22.8	46.8	17.2
Total	93	690,922	37,412	5.9	86.6	3.15	24.2	52.2	31.4

Source: edited by the Author

It should be noted that the survey cannot be considered representative because of the low number of respondents from France, Ireland, Australia and Singapore. In fact, Australia, France and South Africa were largely omitted from the analysis due to the extremely low number of samples. The majority of students are full-time, typically in their later years of study, and, due to the professional background of the survey operatives, they were in most cases from the Business and Economics fields of study. The Hungarian sample does not differ essentially from those of other countries.

Table 2 shows the Hungarian sample on the basis of the participating Hungarian universities. We note that, in order to provide a homogeneous sample, we confined our questions to universities, although we did try to provide an appropriate regional balance.

Table 2 Hungarian universities participating in the survey and the response rate

| Universities participating	Total student numbers	Number of completed questionnaires	Response rate
Corvinus University of Budapest	16,511	543	3.29
Budapest University of Technology & Economics	25,553	387	1.51
Debrecen University	25,230	236	0.94
University of Miskolc	14,335	410	2.86
Pannon University	10,473	358	3.42
University of Pécs	35,326	655	1.85
Széchenyi István University	11,071	346	3.13
University of Szeged	30,526	313	1.03
Others		88	
Totals	169,025	3,346	1.98

Source: edited by the Author

The average response rate in Hungary (2%) lags well behind those of Liechtenstein, Switzerland and New Zealand, but it is still acceptable. The most active universities were Corvinus University of Budapest, Pannon University and the University of Miskolc.

STUDENTS' CAREER EXPECTATIONS

Naturally, students' future job expectations do vary. It happens quite frequently that, immediately after graduation, the first job is not exactly the preferred choice of the student. However, respecting labour market conditions, the prospect of further training and of the acquisition of new skills, some form of compromise could be rationalised. Therefore, the questionnaire separates career expectations for the first 5 years after graduation and for the years thereafter. Table 3 shows the results of the international comparison.

Figure 1. Career expectation of the Hungarian students after university within 5 years.
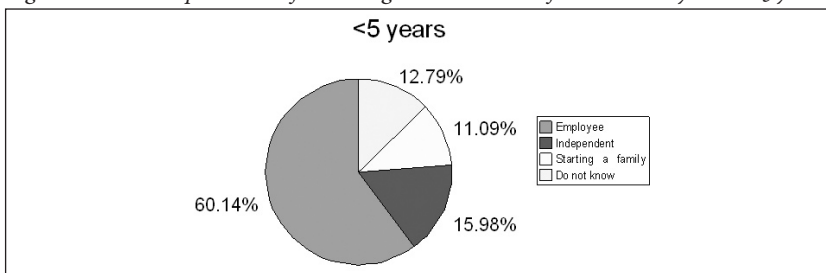
Source: edited by the Author

Figure 2. Career expectation of the Hungarian students after university after 5 years
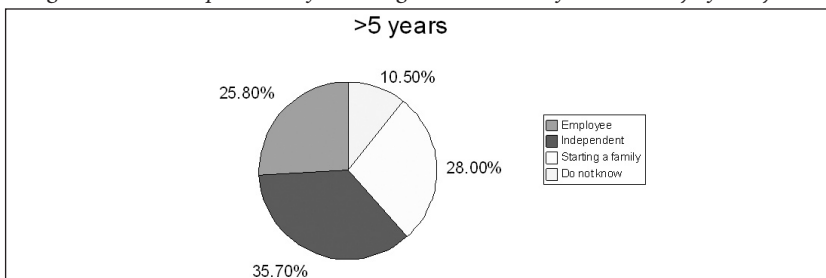
Source: edited by the Author

Immediately following graduation, students can mainly envisage life as employees, 12,25 % of them would prefer to be an entrepreneur, and at the same time, there are a number of students preferring to establish a family (5.4%) and also who still have no firm ideas (15.4%). 5 years after graduating the balance shifts in favour of those who prefer an entrepreneurial position, since now more than half (50.1%) of those who have clear preferences would prefer not to work as an employee. At the same time there is a

large number of students preferring family foundation (13.5%) and 17% who still have no firm idea, or who are hesitating.

Table 3: Career expectations of the Hungarian students within 5 years after the university in specific fields

	Economics	Technology	Natural sciences	Humanities	Other
Employee	64%	58%	60%	47%	54%
Independent	15%	16%	15%	21%	21%
Starting a family	10%	11%	12%	16%	12%
Do not know	11%	16%	13%	16%	13%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: edited by the Author

Table 4: Career expectations of the Hungarian students after 5 years after the university in specific fields

	Economics	Technology	Natural Sciences	Humanities	Other
Employee	26%	23%	26%	24%	27%
Independent	37%	37%	36%	33%	30%
Starting a family	27%	30%	26%	33%	32%
Do not know	10%	10%	12%	10%	11%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: edited by the Author

The differences between the various fields of study are surprisingly small with perhaps only the Humanities being somewhat out of line. This can presumably be explained by the very poor job opportunities open to an employee with a Humanities background, so much so that, on graduation, 21% of students from these fields would like to have a job with independent status. The equivalent figures are 15% for both the students of Economics and of Natural Sciences and 16% for students of the Technologies. In terms of job opportunities after 5 years, it is again students of Technology (37%) and those of Economics (also 37%) who lead the way in terms of a preference for independence. Very slightly behind (at 36%) follow the students of the Natural Sciences, whilst those from the Humanities occupy the last place with 33%. Variations from field to field are minimal.

The following figure shows the current entrepreneurial activities of students compared internationally.

Figure 3. Entrepreneurial activities and intentions of all students in individual countries.
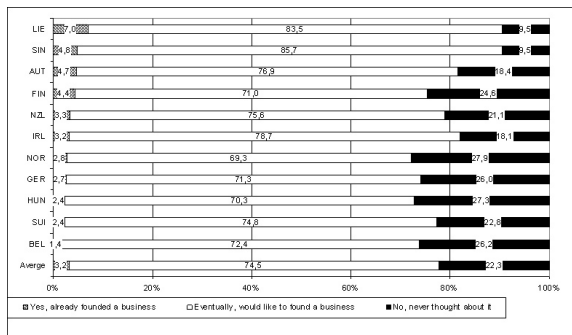
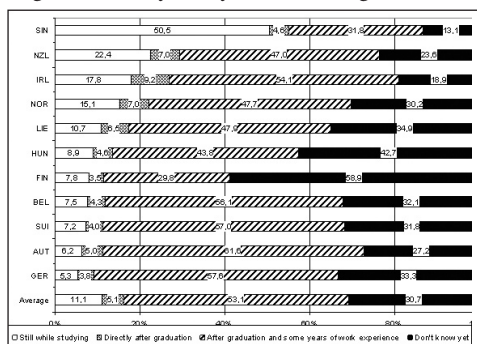

Source: edited by the Author

As the above figure shows, the majority of students have not yet established their own company. In Hungary, in fact, only 81 students (2.4% of the respondents) have their own enterprise—at which level we lie at the bottom of the list along with Switzerland and ahead only of Belgium. (Belgium led in terms of job preference!) The proportion (27.3%) of those who have not yet thought about establishing a business is relatively high and in this we are ahead only of Norway. At the same time, some three-quarters of the total number of students (70% in Hungary) do not exclude ultimately the possibility of forming their own company at some point during their career.

If we examine more closely this 74.5% who did not exclude establishing a business, we can also note that in reality most (45.5% of the total) do not think about it too seriously, 11.5% do, a further 7.7% have decisive ideas about their own business and 2.2% have already started the process and have taken specific steps. Moreover, 7.2% thought seriously about starting a business earlier but abandoned the plan.

What might also indicate the level of seriousness of entrepreneurial intent is the time when students want to start an enterprise (Figure 4). In total, some 10–11% of students want to establish a business during their studies, although, in fact, more than half only wish to do so some years after graduation, when they will already have some appropriate experience. Hungary comes second—after Finland—from the point of view that a good proportion of students, almost 43%, have no idea of when they will

start their business. Perhaps one special relevant factor is the current uncertainty in respect of future macroeconomic conditions.

Figure 4. Time-frame for establishing a business.

Source: edited by the Author

It is natural that there should be a number of external and internal obstacles to establishing a business—which is why we asked students to evaluate on a scale from 1 to 6 the difficulties which they face. Figure 5 shows the responses, with the Hungarian and international results viewed separately. Clearly, students consider the financial risk (4.51) and the lack of initial capital (4.46) as their most serious problems with the lack of credit occupying the 4th place (4.18). This, however, is in accordance with the results of other studies analysing self-employment preferences (Román 2004). A weak negative correlation between the financial resources and the ability of students to set up a business is evident, and so we may assume that whoever considers the financial risk as important is likely to start an enterprise of more modest potential.

Figure 5. Obstacles to establishing a business abroad and in Hungary as a percentage of students

Source: edited by the Author

The lack of suitable business ideas (4.21) and the lack of contacts with clients (3.98) must be linked to the relatively limited practical and professional experience of students. The lack of a suitable founding partner (3.78) and complicated regulations (3.95) were considered less important obstacles by students in most countries. The lack of personal entrepreneurial skills (3.75) and the fear of failure (3.71) were given almost equal points (slightly above average). At the same time, the business environment (3.46), the lack of time (3.41) and the lack of support from family and friends (2.65) belong to the category of less critical obstacles.

Comparing the Hungarian results with international experience, the general picture is very similar: Hungarian students also consider that financial problems have prime importance, scoring these even more highly than their foreign peers. Complicated regulations (4.33) and the lack of know-how in relation to a business start-up (4.25), however, go well beyond the international average, and this result seems to underpin the data from the World Bank when analysing and comparing the entrepreneurial environment, on the basis of the "Doing Business Index". In terms of the effects on business of the regulatory environment in Hungary, the country slipped 6 places (to 66th out of 175 countries) in one year. From the point of view of starting up a business, the position is even more unfavourable, in that we occupy 87th place; whilst, in respect of obtaining licences, we are 143rd on the list. The clear warning sign is not only the basic fact of our lower evaluation, but the fact that all other countries in the region overtook us.

CONDITIONS AND ENVIRONMENT FOR STARTING A BUSINESS AT UNIVERSITY

In addition to the analysis of the students' entrepreneurial attitudes, it is also worth analysing what conditions are provided by the universities for students to start a business. Nowadays, it is already expected of universities that, besides providing traditional education, they should foster students to become entrepreneurs in various ways. This, however, is a two-sided affair in that it is not merely a matter of what opportunities are offered by universities; the students should be able to make use of them. We should highlight the analysis made by Roman (2006) among the domestic analyses relating to entrepreneurial education, and in this work we offer a comparison of the entrepreneurial conditions offered by means of courses and other facilities by universities—not only at the international level but also among Hungarian universities (Roman, 2006).

There were several questions in the questionnaire attempting to examine how students considered the opportunities offered by the universities and the general atmosphere – from the standpoint of becoming a successful entrepreneur. To the question of how the student considers the atmosphere in his/her institute and the conditions for starting up a business enterprise, it was possible to reply by using the 6-grade Likert scale where values range from 1 = "very bad" to 6 = "very good". (Figure 6)

Figure 6. The entrepreneurial environment at universities by international comparison
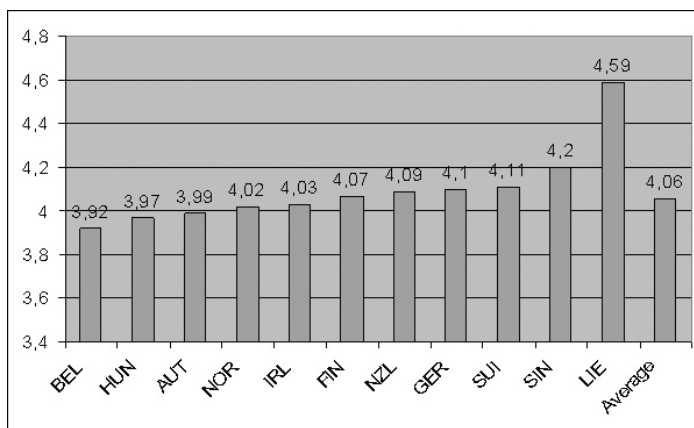
Source: edited by the Author

The entrepreneurial conditions provided by the universities are "quite good" overall in the view of students. The differences among individual countries are relatively small, only Liechtenstein (the top of the list) having an outstandingly high value (4.59). The average of the others varies from 3.92 to 4.20. A further interesting fact to be mentioned is that the correlation between entrepreneurial potential and the entrepreneurial environment is very small—not significant.

Examining the entrepreneurial environment in those of our domestic universities which took part in the survey, we can see larger differences than at the international level. The two extreme values ("very good" and "very bad") represent a very small proportion, on average 3.6% and 1.7%, respectively, in each institution. The greatest proportion is represented by other alternative replies: "rather good", "relatively good" or "rather bad". On the basis of this, we can say that most students participating in the survey do not consider the university atmosphere as being bad in overall terms. The highest assessment was given to Corvinus University of Budapest (4.15), whilst

the worst was awarded to Debrecen University (3.60). Slightly below the average we find the Széchenyi István University (Győr), the University of Pécs, the University of Pannonia (Kaposvár) and the Budapest University of Technology and Economics, whilst above the average come the University of Miskolc and the University of Szeged.

Figure 7. The ranking of the entrepreneurial environment at Hungarian universities
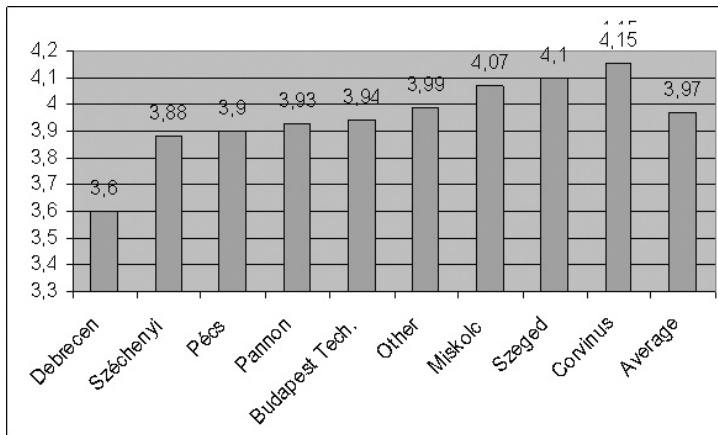
Source: edited by the Author

If we examine university environmental factors from the point of view of the four major academic fields, then what is clear is that the replies from the Economics field were much more optimistic (4.15) than the overall average. Those from the students involved in the other academic fields the replies are relatively uniform. The average assessment for Natural Sciences was 3.80, for Technology 3.74 and for the Humanities 3.73. The outstanding position of Economics can be explained by the fact that, in this area, subjects involving the teaching of business planning and other relevant entrepreneurial knowledge are given much greater emphasis than in other academic fields, and students are, therefore, more familiar with the related issues.

The entrepreneurship courses themselves, acquiring entrepreneurial skills and fostering new business start-ups are important not merely for students in fields related to Economics and Business; in recent decades we have experienced a boom in the growth of entrepreneurial-related courses in the USA (Kuratko, 2003), even though, at the same time, Europe and other parts of the world did not follow this trend. We should not forget that, under the influence of entrepreneurship courses, the number considering self-employment as an alternative to the employed status

may well grow. Besides analysing potential opportunities, what is also worth a closer examination is the activity shown by students in taking an entrepreneurship course. The international comparison is provided by Figure 8.

Figure 8. The percentage of students not taking entrepreneurship courses
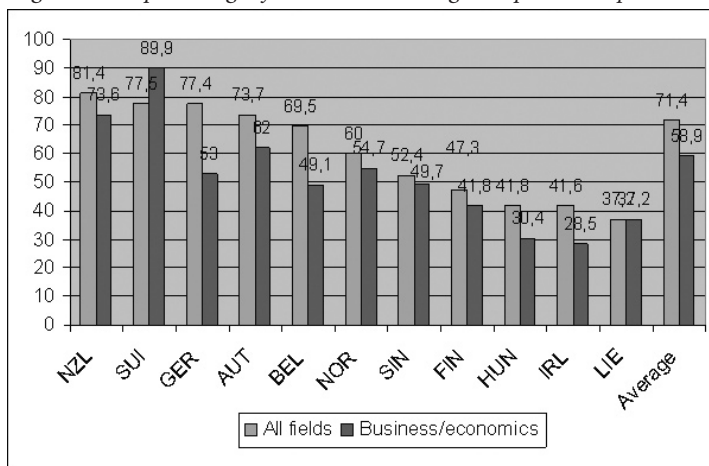
Source: edited by the Author

Hungary's position is not bad considering that opportunities provided to take courses in entrepreneurship were used most effectively by the Hungarian students after those from Liechtenstein and Ireland. Our situation is even better in respect of students involved in Business/Economics studies, where we hold the second place. Both surprising and, at the same time, incomprehensible, is the extent to which the entrepreneurship courses offered by universities in New Zealand and in the German-speaking countries (Switzerland, Austria and Germany) are unused. One aspect of the issue is of course what the universities actually offer, but it is also important to take into account what students believe that they need. Figure 9 shows these student preferences in relation to all fields of study and, separately, to the fields of Business and Economics.

Figure 9. Supports students would like to see offered at university—international comparison by percentage of respondents
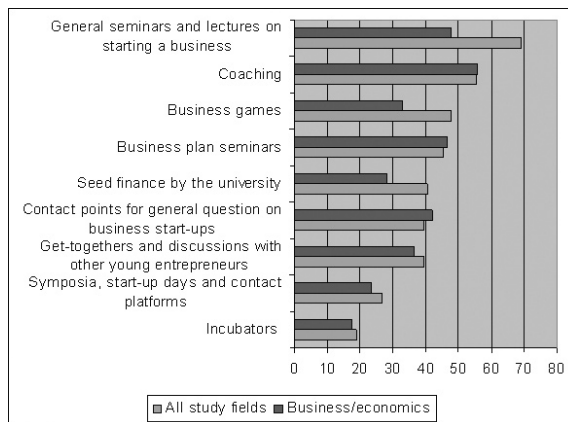
Source: edited by the Author

The lowest demand from students is for the last 2 categories—Incubator Services, and Symposia, Start-up Days and Contact Platforms. On the other hand, the most popular are the general seminars and lectures on Starting a Business and on Coaching (again, to start a business). Business Games and Business Plan Seminars are also highly evaluated, although there is less respect for the Forums and for Meetings with Other Young Entrepreneurs. Some 40% of students think that Seed Finance should be available from universities, but with students of Economics, this expectation applies to only 28.1%. There is no significant difference in the demands of Hungarian students and those from other countries, but the Hungarians like Business Games less and Meeting Other Young Entrepreneurs rather more. In connection with the domestic situation, we show those activities which students would like to see offered at the universities in Figure 10.

Figure 10. Supports students would like to see offered at university at the different universities (as a % of respondents within the given category)
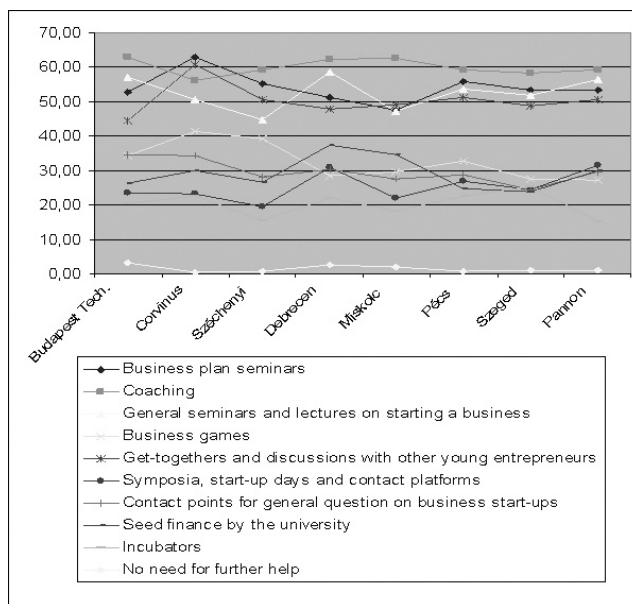
Source: edited by the Author

This can be easily shown with a simple visual presentation, but the cluster analysis also proves that there are 3 well-differentiated groups of needs. The first is the most obvious: 0.2-3.1% of students require no more help. In the second group, 15-41% of students need business games on starting a business; symposia, start-up days, forums for general questions, consultation points; seed finance from universities or colleges; and incubator services. In the third group 44-63% of students need a business planning course, a preparatory course for individual business start-up, general seminars on starting a business and meetings with young entrepreneurs.

CONCLUSION

This paper has presented the results of the "International Survey of Collegiate Entrepreneurship 2006", organised by the University of St Gallen. The research was made in 14 countries, the sample contains 37,412 completed questionnaires. We investigated two fields: student career expectations and the conditions and environment for starting a business at universities.

With regard to the students' career expectations we have found that in the first five years after graduation graduates prefer to be an employee but after 5 years 35.7% of them would like to become independent. Additionally there is a stable 25-30%, who either would like to start a family or do not know yet. The differences between the various fields of study are surprisingly few, with perhaps only the Humanities being somewhat out of line. This can presumably be explained by the very poor job opportunities open to an employee with a Humanities background. Consequently, some three-quarters of the total number of students do not exclude ultimately the possibility of forming their own company at some point during their career. The crucial obstacles are lack of suitable business ideas and the lack of contacts with clients. At the same time, the business environment, lack of time and lack of support from family and friends belong to the category of less critical obstacles.

As regards the university as an entrepreneurial enviroment we concluded that the conditions provided by the universities are "quite good" overall in the view of students, and the differences among individual countries are relatively small. Amongst those of our domestic universities which took part in the survey, we can see larger differences. The students have rather good opportunities to take entrepreneurship courses but it is also important to take into account what students believe that they need. The cluster analysis proves that there are three well-differentiated groups of needs. The first is the most obvious: 0.2-3.1% of students require no more help. In the second group 15-41% of students need business games on starting a business; symposia, start-up days, forums for general questions, consultation points; seed finance from universities or colleges; and incubator services. In the third group 44-63% of students need a business planning course, a preparatory course for individual business start-up, general seminars on starting a business and meetings with young entrepreneurs.

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CHAPTER 3

BRAIN-CIRCULATION AND OTHER ASPECTS OF MIGRATION IN THE EU OF 27

MIGRATION POLICIES FOR THE HIGHLY SKILLED: THE CASE OF FOREIGN GRADUATES

AUGUST GÄCHTER

THE DEMAND FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

According to the OECD, in 2004 non-citizen students globally numbered about 2.7 million, of which about 2.3 million were to be found in the 30 OECD member countries. Out of these about 2.0 million were so-called "international students", i.e. they did not have permanent residence rights in the country in which they were studying. This was about 6.5 percent of all students. At 16.6 percent this share was especially large in Australia. In the UK it was 13.4 percent, with 12.7 percent in Austria and 11.3 percent in Switzerland. Germany, France, Canada, and Ireland were also above the 6.5 percent average. The largest percentage was probably in New Zealand, but the country's statistics do not distinguish between foreign and international students. 28.3 percent of all students in New Zealand were foreign, far ahead of the 19.9 percent in Australia. At more than 570,000 the US hosts by far the largest number of foreign students but they make up only 3.4 percent of the entire student body (SOPEMI, 2007: 53).

Between 2000 and 2004, the number of foreign students in OECD countries increased by more than 40 percent. The percentage increases were especially large in New Zealand, the Czech Republic and Korea, but in the latter two countries from a very low base. Other countries with increases exceeding 50% included those in southern Europe, Ireland, Australia, France, the Netherlands and Japan. The OECD estimated that the increase in the number of international students was "most likely a response to signals which many OECD countries have been sending in recent years, concerning possibilities for work and residence following the completion of their education" (SOPEMI, 2007: 22f, 54), but unfortunately provided scant evidence to support this notion. If true, it would have indicated an increased demand for students from abroad. Lacking evidence, a larger supply of students due either to increased demand in the country of origin or to an increased ability to finance studies abroad is just as plausible a cause.

Even if the signals noted by the OECD are indeed there, there is a shortage of data to prove that students, once they graduate, are actually able to stay on and work in their field of study and at an adequate occupational level. Canadian data show that, in 2005-2006, less than 6% of international graduates stayed on, while in 1990 over 20 percent had done so. In Norway, the number of graduates with new work or family permits remained steady throughout the 1990s, but as a percentage of all finishing students declined from about 25 percent to close to 15 percent. But when Norway eased the quarantine provision in 2001, the number of international students rose strongly and the number of graduating students staying on began to rise as well. Almost three quarters of those who then stayed on did so on the basis of a work permit; while ten years before it had been for family reasons, i.e. usually marriage (SOPEMI, 2007: 55). Other countries seem to be unable to provide such data. Even if they were, the data would be hard to interpret. There is a difference between staying on in fact and in the letter of law. In Austria, for instance, a graduate may be required to leave the country and to reapply for residence from abroad. In the unlikely event of being granted a permit the graduate would appear as a new immigrant and the system would have no memory of earlier studies and graduation. Biographically the person concerned would merely have changed residence status but statistically one person would have left and another would have arrived.

There is some doubt over whether OECD countries really do have a demand for international graduates. The main reason is that education levels have been rising. Consequently, most rich countries, for most of the time, have little need of poaching education from elsewhere. Very few countries have become acquisitive of graduates, even in professions where there are shortages. Such sizeable needs, as of for physicians in British hospitals, are rare. These usually last for five years or so until, on the one hand, the demand bubble collapses and, on the other hand, internal supply rises. Furthermore, diagnosing shortages in the present or predicting them for the future is a poorly developed art (see Doudeijns, 2002). It would presuppose an improved understanding of how markets, and interventions into markets, fail and succeed. For the time being they remain tinged with a suspicion of special interest pleading.

Canada is a case in point. The educational levels of newly arriving immigrants have been rising but their wages have been falling. This much noted effect may partly be due to the rise in supply from non-immigrant households (Reitz, 2005). The pertinent question is really whether the wages of highly educated immigrants match

those of non-immigrants of the same age and education, not whether they have been rising or falling. The other question, of course, is why Canadian migration policy continues to favour education when the market no longer rewards it.

DESKILLING

In at least 13 OECD countries recent immigrants tend to include a larger share of highly educated than both earlier immigrants and the native population, and often considerably so (SOPEMI, 2007: 61). This could partly be due to selection effects. Perhaps, as time goes by, more of the highly educated recent arrivals will be leaving again than of the lesser-educated ones. If so, the share of the highly educated among the recent arrivals might become more similar to the share in past arrivals. The point of note really is that among 21 OECD countries with data there is not a single one in which the share of the highly educated among natives exceeds both that of older and of recent immigrants. Only in three countries, Denmark, Finland, and the US, is it safe to say that all three part-populations have roughly the same shares. In about 17 countries did the share of the highly educated among recent immigrants exceed that among natives. If economic structure changes gradually, and if a domestic population responds to the opportunities of the economy it grows up in, how it could it make any sense for countries to have a demand for an educational structure among immigrants that is quite different from that among natives?

The fact is that much of the education of immigrants remains unused, a phenomenon frequently termed "brain waste". The OECD, on one occasion, attributed this to the educational degrees being from abroad and thus largely unknown to employers in the country of immigration. International graduates from domestic universities would thus be at an advantage, they argued, since they have a locally acquired and thus locally recognised degree to show (SOPEMI, 2002: 95). Once again there is little evidence to support or contradict the hypothesis. If it were true, this should also mean that international graduates would actually be at a disadvantage if they returned home, because employers there would not be familiar with the degrees from abroad.

Austrian evidence supports the OECD's contention. In mid-2005, working age tertiary education graduates had different occupational distributions depending on where they had graduated but not where they were born. Using data from the EU Labour Force Survey the following results are obtained:

- If born in Austria 9 percent were inactive, 2 percent were unemployed, 2 percent were in training, 1 percent was in an unskilled occupation, and a further 17 percent were in a medium skilled occupation. The remaining 69 percent were in high skilled and leadership positions.
- If born outside Austria but graduated in Austria, Germany or Switzerland 10 percent were inactive, 2 percent were unemployed, 1 percent was in training, 5 percent were in unskilled occupations, and 14 percent were in medium skilled occupations. 67 percent were in high skilled and leadership positions.
- If born outside Austria and graduated outside Austria, Germany, and Switzerland 23 percent were inactive, 6 percent were unemployed, 5 percent were in training, 16 percent were in unskilled occupations, and 12 percent were in medium skilled occupations. 39 percent were in high skilled and leadership positions.

Evidently, on the one hand the expectation that immigrant graduates with an Austrian degree would be better off than immigrant graduates with a degree from abroad clearly holds. On the other hand being immigrant and having an Austrian tertiary degree does not lead to an occupational distribution that differs in a statistically significant way from non-immigrant holders of Austrian degrees—with the exception of medium skilled occupations, where immigrants with Austrian, German or Swiss degrees are less likely to be found than non-immigrants.

The key issue clearly is where the degree was obtained. There is a serious risk that degrees from abroad will not be accepted. Almost paradoxically European Union member states in their migration policies have tended to pay little attention to where degrees were obtained. Virtually no effort has been made to retain in-country graduates. From an employment potential point of view there clearly is a case for adapting migration law to treat them as natives.

Regarding those that graduated abroad there is thus evidence to suggest that a number of countries are looking for overeducated immigrants. The employment patterns suggest there is a demand for unskilled workers which would not necessarily need to be filled with university graduates. States might as well permit unskilled immigration, if this is what the labour market demands.

As the Austrian data show, brain waste can happen at home, too, but it is much more likely after migration. 18 percent of the Austrian-born tertiary graduates were employed in unskilled or low-ranking skilled occupations while the same was true

of 28 percent of those with tertiary degrees obtained abroad. On the other hand, the highly skilled specialist may need to migrate to avoid deskilling, and may return home to face it when adequate research facilities and funding simply do not exist.

DOES RETURN AID DEVELOPMENT?

Students are generally being expected to leave the country after graduation (Suter and Jandl, 2006: 15). Scholarships stipulate return after graduation as a condition. The ideology is that graduates should go back and develop their countries of origin, and that they should be forced to do so. It is commonly regarded as morally bad, even as egotistical of graduates to want to stay on. At the same time, there does not seem to be an empirical study to show the benefit of forced return.

Quarantine provisions, i.e. the obligation forstudents to return home after graduation, are usually being justified on grounds of development. But to say that education is good for development, as is frequently being done (see for instance Easterlin, 1981), is one thing, while to blame the emigration of students and graduates on a lack of development is quite another. Over the past 60 years a number of countries have stood out for their rapid economic growth alongside a sustained brain drain. These include South-Korea, Taiwan, Ireland, and Austria. The last of the four, in particular, has had remarkable success in achieving wealth with comparatively low levels of education.

In Europe, the country with the largest emigration rate of the highly educated is Malta. In 2000, 58 percent of the tertiary graduates born in Malta were living elsewhere in the OECD. Next in line are Ireland and Macedonia with 29 percent each, followed by Croatia and Bosnia with 24 percent each, and Iceland and Portugal with 20 percent each (Docquier and Marfouk, 2005). These countries span almost the entire range of economic achievement in Europe. Recent estimates show that in south-eastern countries it is usually only four to six percent of the highly educated resident abroad who left while they were students while elsewhere in Europe this share tends to be between eight and twelve percent. In all countries in Europe over 60 percent of the highly educated that left did so when they were at least 22 years old but in eastern and south-eastern Europe this share tends to be above 75 percent (Beine et al, 2007).

There are serious gaps in the data. We know neither how many left and returned nor how many of those that left after graduation had in fact graduated abroad and only returned home to await renewed departure. Nor do we know which people left and

where they returned in terms of occupation. Quarantine provisions assume that on the one hand returning graduates will find adequate employment and on the other will be able to support their families. Whether these assumptions actually hold is unknown.

HOW TO STAY ON

In many OECD countries it is legally possible to apply for residence status or for permission to work in a regular full-time job, not just a part-time or vacation job, but after a lot of paperwork chances of a positive decision are limited. One obstacle may be that a job has to be found first, while work can only be started when the application has been granted. It may even be necessary to leave the country in order to make the application. Countries may require the job to be within the field of study, or permits may only be available for particular specialties such as the proverbial information technology graduate. Usually a labour market test applies, i.e. access to employment will only be granted if there are no EU citizens or unemployment benefit recipients with vaguely similar educational or occupational qualifications. A particularly perverse requirement is the one the European Commission also seems to gravitate towards. This is to set a certain legal minimum a job has to pay and to set it so high that a beginner is unlikely ever to qualify. This favours older, experienced workers coming from abroad over new graduates from local universities. If there were a credible concern with the brain drain, this would perhaps be the first practice to stop. Another thing is that the regulations keep changing and one cannot be sure that what seems a plausible perspective at the start will still apply when graduating. In summary, even where the transition from studying to work seems formally possible the legal small print may erect nearly insurmountable barriers. Generally chances are much better in science and technology than in the humanities.

The only reasonably sure way of staying on is having a child with or getting married to a citizen or somebody with firm residential status while still a student. In Canada, in 2005-2006, almost one third of the graduates staying on were spouses of Canadian citizens or residents (SOPEMI, 2007: 55). In Norway, 25 to 30 percent belonged to this category, even after the quarantine provision became considerably less strict in 2001. Before that date it is more likely that three quarters of those staying on did for family reasons. Going to a third country after graduation rather than staying on or returning home may sometimes be an option. Other people go on studying one degree after

another, doing internships in-between. So we end up with very highly educated and trained young people who are prohibited from working.

There are also longer-term strategies of circulation. Becoming self-employed on the basis of a reasonably good business idea and/or working through the internet can be a precursor to getting hired for a job abroad. A more realistic option, perhaps, is to seek employment with a company headquartered in the emigration country of choice, and to work for them in one's own home country for a period. A later transfer within the company may make it possible to complete the desired migration—but, of course, it could also lead to quite different countries, or perhaps one's preferences change. Within the company it may also be possible to meet colleagues, suppliers and customers from the destination country of choice who might make a rapid transfer possible by either hiring or marrying one. All in all, for the time being it takes determination, some networking and patience in order to turn a student sojourn into an emigration.

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CHALLENGES FOR LABOUR MIGRATION POLICY IN CENTRAL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

HEIKKI S. MATTILA

INTRODUCTION

This brief essay is a summary of my presentation given at the DRC Summer School on 24 July 2007 in Pecs, Hungary. The main sources of information were some of the country reports written for IOM in the framework of a nine–country research and policy project "*European co-operation in labour migration—search for best practices*", carried out from September 2006 to November 2007. The project was managed by IOM in Budapest and funded by the ARGO Programme of the European Commission.

One main goal of the project was to produce updated knowledge for migration policy makers and encourage them to develop pro-active labour migration policies. Such encouragement is needed to address demographic decline and the related labour shortages common to all European countries.

Another goal was to support better coordination among EU states so that the less wealthy Member States or other countries of origin would not lose too much of their human capital when acting, as is the case, as labour force providers for wealthier EU Members.

In the last 2-3 years, lack of qualified professionals in numerous sectors has been felt in countries such as Poland, Romania, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, whose economies are growing at high rates. At the top of the table, Slovakia's GDP growth in 2006 was 8.3 per cent and the expected growth figure for 2007 is 9 per cent. Unemployment in these countries has been in decline, showing that the domestic labour force reserves are getting smaller.

The labour reserves in these countries are limited due to the low participation rate (with a large share of working age people outside the work force) and large immigration to Western Europe. Part of the officially inactive working-age population is however employed in the shadow economy, which also employs a significant part of the migrant workers, especially in the Mediterranean EU states and in Central and Eastern Europe.

Some Central European countries are already active with recruitment from abroad, and some, such as Romania and Poland have taken action to recruit at least part of their skilled (and also non-skilled) émigrés to return. In the following I am discussing especially the data and analysis of policies in the Hungarian and Polish reports.

DECLINE IN POPULATION AND SHORTAGES OF LABOUR

All country researchers in the ARGO project were first asked to look at fundamental issues and developments that would have an impact on migration policy and recent and projected demographic developments, and to analyse the current and future needs for labour force.

Against such demography- and economy-based labour market analysis, the researchers were asked to look at labour migration, its recent trends and currently debated policies, and finally to recommend new proactive elements on the basis of the comprehensive analysis in this study. Indeed, one of the fundamental phenomena that justified a research and policy project of this nature was the demographic decline that practically all European countries are now facing: the natural growth of population (childbirths minus deaths) has slowed down close to zero or even turned negative. The latter is in fact the case in many Central European countries.

For the project, the IOM-affiliated Central European Forum for Migration and Demographic Research (CEFMR) carried out the demographic and labour force projections. Table 1 shows one of the mainstream scenarios, which, even if a moderate immigration is included, shows the rather steep population decline in all of the Central European countries in the forecasted period 2004-2054.

Table 1. Population and labour force projections for selected European countries for the period 2004-2054.

Country	Population (x1000)		Labour force resources (x1000)		Population 15-64 / Population 65+	
	2004	2054	2004	2054	2004	2054
Czech R.	10 216	8 171	5 170	3 475	5.07	1.57
Hungary	10 107	8 169	4 178	3 490	4.42	1.83
Italy	58 175	62 215	24 343	23 855	3.44	1.58
Poland	38 182	30 253	17 182	12 809	5.36	1.63
Portugal	10 502	10 518	5 518	4 875	3.98	1.65

Romania	21 685	14 342	9 808	6 457	4.76	1.83
Slovakia	5 382	4 344	2 655	1 830	6.14	1.66
Ukraine	47 271	27 141	22 553	12 190	4.40	1.79
UK	59 879	68 703	30 402	32 290	4.12	2.08

Source: Central European Forum for Migration and Population Research (CEMFR) 2007.

For example, the Hungarian and Czech populations, in the year 2004 10.1 and 10.2 million respectively, are forecast to decline to the region of 8.2 million in both countries by 2054. At the same time their active labour forces are calculated to go down from a respective 5.32 and 4.2 million to under 3.5 million in 2054. The ratio between active and inactive population is expected to diminish very steeply. For Poland, Romania and the Ukraine, the estimated declines of both their populations and their labour forces are extremely dramatic. It is clear that with such anticipated developments the active populations in these countries will face the increasingly difficult task of supporting the inactive part of the populations. Thus, these countries really do have a long term interest in keeping their own working age population at home, instead of functioning as labour force reserves to Western European countries that are facing the same demographic challenges.

Already the famous report on "replacement migration" published by the United Nations Population Division in 2000 has argued that any immigration of a realistic and reasonable magnitude cannot turn around the trend of population ageing. UNPD also pointed out briefly in its conclusions that alongside migration, that can provide some remedy, other parameters to be addressed would probably include retirement age, and the level of retirement benefits and the pension duties paid by the active population. Furthermore, countries are thought to need to raise the participation of the inactive working age population and try to turn declining fertility upwards.

SOME LABOUR MARKET INDICATORS IN CENTRAL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES
Central European countries have in the last less than 20 years undergone dramatic political changes, from the collapse of the Communist Party autocracy to the accession to the European Union. Although the fall of the Iron Curtain did not cause a mass exodus, migration from Central and Eastern Europe has continued in significant numbers and was also accelerated after the accession of eight Central European countries in 2004, in spite of the transition period for the liberation of mobility from the new Members, introduced by most of the then 15 EU Member States.

It has been countries such as Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and the Baltic States from which people have moved to the West, and that migration has concentrated, especially in the United Kingdom and Ireland. These were the EU15 countries (along with Sweden) that did not impose transition periods in the 2004 accession.

The demographic decline, combined with strong economic growth and certain labour market characteristics make the Central European countries particularly vulnerable to such exodus of labour.

On average, Central European countries suffer from a lower participation of their working age citizens in the labour market than the average for EU member states, and of course they differ even more clearly from the old Member States (See Table 2). Especially in the young and in the oldest age groups among the 15-64 age range of active people the participation and employment rates are clearly lower than in the West.

In the last few years, Poland especially and most recently the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Romania have experienced shortages in their work forces in some highly skilled groups (in construction, the health sector and some technical professions) and feel that the recent emigration to Western Europe has made these shortages more acute.

Although there are no comprehensive data of the emigration from the new EU Member States to the old ones, it does seem that emigration from Hungary has not risen to the same levels as those of many other A8 countries. Moreover, as regards the labour market in Hungary, the Hungarian speaking citizens from the neighbouring countries Romania, Ukraine, Slovakia and Serbia together represent a large majority of foreign registered citizens working in Hungary, and are in a very important way complementing the Hungarian labour force.

Although the emigration levels from Hungary have been lower than from many other A8 countries, the Hungarian economy could not have reached the same growth levels as it has achieved without the reinforcements to its labour force received from the neighbouring countries.

Table 2. Labour market characteristics in four Central European countries

	Poland	Hungary	Slovakia	Czech Republic	EU 15
Participation rate	62.8	61.4	68.5	70.4	71.3
Employment rate	52.6	56.9	59.9	65.5	65.4
Unemployment	14.9	7.3	13.5	7.8	8.2

Sources: Kupiswewski et al. 2007; Hars and Sik 2007; Drbohlav and Janska 2007; Divinsky 2007; OECD 2006

As shown in Table 2, Hungary shares many labour market characteristics with other Central European countries. A key feature is the low rate of participation by the working age citizens in the labour market, Hungary and Poland particularly being in 2006 almost 10 percentage points lower than in the EU on average. Slovakia and especially the Czech Republic were practically at the average level of the Union as a whole. When the level of the actual employment of their citizens was looked at, only the Czech Republic maintained the average EU levels, whereas for Hungary the gap is large and for Poland (which during the transition period and actually until quite recently has suffered from mass unemployment) the gap to the EU average was in 2006 about 13 percent in the employment rate. Labour market statistics suggest some explanations for such low participation. A combination of age, education levels, and the changing structure of the economies in the Central European countries seem to offer some logic behind the low participation, and give an idea of the challenges for possible labour market interventions that might be needed to mobilise a larger share of people than are now active in the labour market.

Figure 1. Changes of employment by education in Hungary in 1992-1998 and 1998-2005
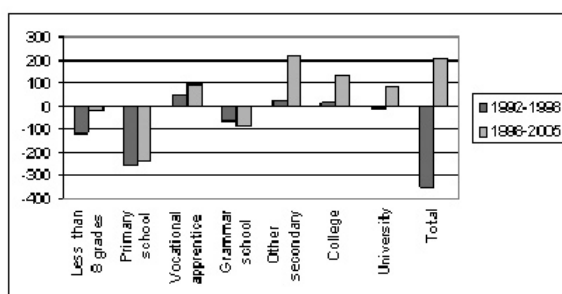
Source: Hungarian Labour Force Survey data, the figure presented in Hars and Sik, 2007

THE STRUCTURAL TRANSFORMATION OF THE LABOUR MARKET IN HUNGARY

The data presented by Hars and Sik (2007) provide interesting background features of the Hungarian labour market from the early 1990s to the present, which should increase our understanding of low Hungarian labour market participation.

Figure 1 on the changing level of employment by education in Hungary shows the changes in employment level in different education groups in two consecutive time periods: 1992-1998 and 1998-2005. In total the figure shows that between 1992 and 1998 more jobs disappeared from the Hungarian economy than were created in the next seven year period. Therefore, the general level of employment has not recuperated from the loss of jobs that took place in the years that followed immediately the change of the political system. The figure shows that jobs have disappeared at a very high rate and during both periods from those with low education: only primary school, grammar school or with no completed obligatory school education.

The number of jobs has grown for those with vocational training, or other secondary middle level training and also, especially in the latter period, for university graduates.

Figure 2. Employment rate in Hungarian labour market by age group between 1992 and 2006.
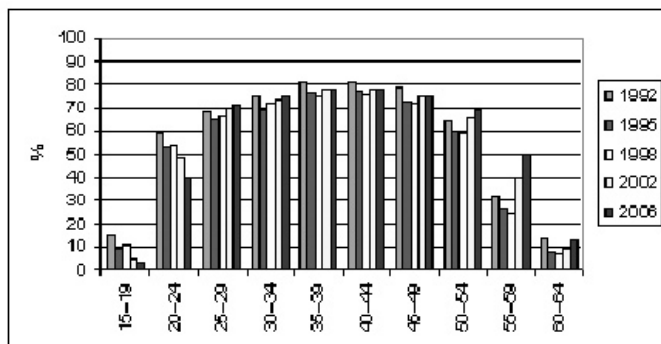
Source: Hungarian Labour force survey; the figure presented in Hars and Sik, 2007.

Another aspect, the change in employment level by age groups in the transition period, is shown in Figure 2. In Hungary, employment levels are low in comparison with European norms, especially for the youngest working age groups (15-24 years) and for the oldest (55-64 years of age). For the youngest group, the employment level has kept diminishing after the changes. It is said that the reason behind this fall is the

rising share of young generations participating in secondary and higher education. This increase in training participation seems to correspond well with the recent growth of employment levels of graduates of higher education, shown in Figure 1 immediately above. For the older group, their employment level came downwards throughout the 1990s but has started to go up during this millennium, clearly remaining however below the EU average.

Table 3. Changes of employment in various economic sectors in Hungary,
in periods 1992-98 and 1998-2005.

	1998/ 1992	2005/ 1998
	change, %	
Primary sector & utilities	64.6	68.8
Manufacturing	86.6	95.1
Construction	106.1	137.0
Distribution & transport	93.6	111.6
Business & other services	103.8	125.8
Non-marketed services	103.8	107.0
All	91.3	105.6

Source Hars and Sik (Ibid.) based on LFS.

Table 3 shows yet again the levels of employment, this time by different industry sectors in Hungary. The numbers indicate the changes in the same time periods as in Figure 1: 1992-1998 and 1998-2005. The table shows the steep decline in employment offered by the primary sector, and also a continuously diminishing level in manufacturing through both periods. Construction and the service sectors have been the sectors with the strongest growth.

These figures reflect the post-communist modernisation of the economy and support the picture, offered by the previous data, of the adaptation of the labour market and labour force to the evolution of the economy. It seems that within the political and economic transition, large groups of the industrial and agricultural work forces with low education have been pushed out of the labour market, and many people belonging to these groups have never returned to work again in any other sectors, even dropping out of the work force entirely.

The continuing economic transition and the new structure of the national economy have set new requirements for the training system to respond to the demands of new types of skills that the modern service-oriented, international and information technology and market oriented economy has needed.

The booming construction of housing and of new infrastructure could not have expanded at the pace it has without the important inputs of immigrant workers, many of them working in the informal and non-declared side of the economy. However, with the transforming economic structure, Hungary's economic expansion has taken place without a real growth in the number of jobs.

As described above, Hungary has so far avoided significant labour shortages, largely thanks to the continuous inflow of ethnic Hungarians from its neighbouring countries. Demographic development is anyhow going downwards and it would be advisable to initiate moderate labour immigration programmes that would enlarge the recruitment area. Politically, such proactive labour immigration policy would however be very difficult to pursue for a number of reasons. First, although the inflow of ethnic Hungarians from the neighbouring countries has been very useful for the labour market, that phenomenon also touches the politically sensitive question of the status of Hungarians across the border—a possible source of tension with the neighbouring states.

Secondly, the economic situation in Hungary has lately been difficult, with a very high deficit in government finances, and pressures to scale down the public sector institutions, in order to balance the state budget. Such a delicate situation has caused the Government to delay taking initiatives for active immigration policies. Also, the political system is very polarized and inflamed, with migration getting over-sensitized as a topic following a heated debate between the Government and Opposition, on an alleged (and obviously non-existing) Government plan of large-scale recruitment of Chinese—who already have a quite sizeable community in Hungary.

POLAND REACTS ACTIVELY TO LABOUR SHORTAGES

Poland, the largest A8 country, has topped the statistics of size of emigration from the A8 countries to the old EU Members after joining the Union. The UK has been the most important destination country, with about 350,000 Poles registered there between May 2004 and December 2006. Emigration to the western neighbour Germany has also been sizeable, and temporary, short term work in Germany very common.

As the Polish economy has since a few years ago grown in impressive figures, much helped by the steadily strengthening domestic demand (Kupiszewski et al. 2007) that the big country can generate, the country has faced an unprecedented and partly unfulfilled demand for a work force, especially in the construction sector. The low participation rate, the so far small immigrant stock and significant emigration abroad

have aggravated the labour market mismatches and shortages. The employment level and utilization of the domestic labour force reserves have started to rise, which shows in the recent steep decline of the unemployment rate.

Poland has in fact arrived at a somewhat acute situation where a labour force is missing, while the reserves that were unemployed (openly or outside the statistics) seem to have been mobilised. The Polish agriculture sector, with its still very high share of the national labour force (about 19 per cent), still constitutes some reserve of workers for other sectors.

However, the Polish government, along with the private sector, and some dynamic cities, such as Wroclaw, has already reacted to the lack of workers, and initiated action to recruit workers from abroad. The goal is to recruit both Polish citizens so that they return from abroad, notably from the United Kingdom and Ireland, and foreign citizens from inside and outside of the EU. The Polish authorities have already carried out missions to the UK in attempts to attract Polish emigrants to a return.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS

The researchers in the ARGO project suggested, in anticipation of the diminution of the labour force, that countries need to do their utmost to try to mobilise the domestic labour force reserves through training and rehabilitation measures. However, such active labour market policy is not in contradiction with the similarly recommended proactive labour immigration policy that seeks to recruit professionals from abroad. Such programmes, if carefully planned and implemented, will not have great demographic impact but may importantly ease the situation, by providing qualified individuals in shortage sectors. The well trained also tend to bring new dynamism to the the economy and help to create new jobs.

In Central Europe, the Czech Republic has shown an example with its recruitment programme targeted, since 2003, for highly trained graduates and their families from a number of non-EU countries. These recruits so far amount to under 2,000. They are offered the option of permanent settlement in the Czech Republic, including a rapidly acquired right to permanent residence.

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MIGRATION TYPES AND MIGRATION PATTERNS IN EUROPE

INEZ KOLLER

Although the European Union has assumed the goal of common immigration and asylum policy, all the Union's decision-making in immigration issues still requires concensus, which normally is very hard to obtain in such a divisive field. This puts in danger the ambitions of Tampere[1] (1999), as the Member States have difficulties in finding commonly shared interests to promote such immigration and asylum policy.

Lack of common interest lies in different rates and compositions of immigrants, in different kinds of social tensions: whether they challenge cultural traditions (like Muslim groups in France, Belgium or in the Netherlands), the social net (the result of family unification in France or in Germany) or the labour market (East-European economic migrants in Germany or the United Kingdom). The intention of this study is to introduce characteristic migration types and migration patterns in Europe and, furthermore, to categorise European states as destination countries according to the composition of migration types of their immigrants. The aim of the study is to show at least one side of the coin, explaining diverse immigration policies in the European Union and the lack of common goals.

Europe is facing a change in its immigration structure and new intensity of economic migration within it in the first decade of the century, which can be characterised by the realignment of economic motivations on the continent. Roughly, these are labour demand from Western Member states of the European Union, with restrictions on some specific sectors and the duration of the residence of economic immigrants, and a wide scale of economic migrants from Eastern Member states and third countries. The variety of previous tendencies shows that migration routes between different parts of the continent or in a wider geographical context evolved under the influence of complex relationships of pull and push factors. Pull factors—motives for immigration to a country—are economic growth that is resulting in

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[1] „The EU decided to create a common asylum and immigration policy at the 1999 Tampere Summit, based on the 1997 Amsterdam Treaty. However, there has been little progress in this area since 1999 due to high national sensitiveness. (EU ministers agree on asylum procedures harmonisation)" http://www.euractiv.com/en/migrations/eu-ministers-agree-asylum-procedures-harmonisation/article-114346)

increased demand for labour force, and a higher standard of living. Meanwhile, push factors—motives for emigration from a country—include unemployment, poverty, economic, political crisis, social conflicts and natural disasters. These pull and push factors go by particular migration patterns that shape preferences of migrants of where to migrate. Decisions of migrants are directed not only by one aspect, for example to maximize their living standards, but are defined also by 1) historical relations between sending and destination countries as between the United Kingdom and its former colonies, 2) settled groups of significant size with similar language, culture or ethnicity in the destination country as in the case of second and third wave Turkish migrants to Germany or 3) geographical accessibility as happened in the case of Yugoslavian refugees who chose mainly Germany and Switzerland instead of the United Kingdom as their destination.

MIGRATION PATTERNS, MIGRATION ROUTES

One important factor shaping migration flows are historical relations. In the decades following the Second World War, colonial ties played a strong role in directing the routes of migrants to the United Kingdom, France, Spain, Portugal, Belgium and the Netherlands, coming from their former colonies. Different but comparable historical ties between today's Russian Federation and other successor states of the Soviet Union have shaped migration routes to Russia. Yet another type of historical linkage made Germany a destination country (formerly between Western and Eastern Germany) for German minority populations of Poland or the Russian Federation (also Germans from Kaliningrad, the former Prussian Konigsberg region inside European Union, now belonging to Russia[2])

The first wave of economic immigration to Western and Northern European countries such as Germany, Austria, Switzerland and Sweden originating from Southern European countries and Turkey in the 1950s and 1960s undoubtedly paved the way for later refugees and displaced generated by the Balkan crisis. The outbreak and prolongation of the war caused mass refugee flows in Western and Northern directions. Although there were a number of refugees moving to Slovenia and Hungary, most of them left these (transition) countries for Germany, Austria and Switzerland.

Geographical accessibility is also a significant factor in shaping migration routes. That is why the composition of settled migrants has been changed in Greece. This

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[2] Kaliningrad: No easy answers. 2002. 10.21. http://www.euractiv.com/en/enlargement/kaliningrad-easy-answers/article-118198

country had been a popular destination of immigrants from Western countries, but is today the destination of Eastern European immigrants such as Albanians, Bulgarians, Romanians and Georgians. The situation is very similar in Italy, where geographical accessibility is also the main migration route-shaping factor in the case of Romanian, Serbian and Albanian immigrants and many Roma with different citizenships. Many migrants from Africa also choose Italy (along with Spain and Malta) as one of the nearest secure destination countries.

Moreover, migration routes can be shaped by peculiar conditions as well: Iraqis arrived in Denmark and Sweden with main refugee flows as did Iraqis, Somalis, Chechens and Afghans to Norway, probably attracted by the generous social security benefits in these countries or the indirect affect: when main destination countries flooded with refugees such as Germany and France introduced tighter immigration laws, other destination countries such as the Scandinavian ones did not follow them (immediately).

MIGRATION TYPES IN EUROPE

Migration in Europe appears in different types and in different combinations of types at different times. The main legal and voluntary migration types are return migration, migration of national minorities, economic migration and family unification, while an illegal but voluntary type is the smuggling of migrants. A legal and forced type is the migration of refugees and/or asylum seekers, change in population with different national backgrounds and the displacement of people, while an illegal and forced form is human trafficking.

Table 1. Types of Migration in Europe

Types of Migration in Europe	
Legal and voluntary	Legal and forced
Return migration	Refugees, asylum-seekers
Migration of National Minorities	Change population
Economic migration	Displace people
Family unification	
Illegal and voluntary	Illegal and forced
Smuggling of migrants	Trafficking in persons

Source: edited by the Author

Return Migration

In general, before the second world war Europe was characterised by emigration, not immigration, as many migrated mostly to the United States of America both from Western and Eastern countries. The situation changed later as in some countries with colonial ties, such as the United Kingdom, France, Spain, Portugal, Belgium and the Netherlands return migration began from ex-colonies. The economic world crisis, that had its effects mostly in Western European countries, forced many Irish economic migrants to return from the United Kingdom, and many Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Yugoslavian and Turkish economic migrants to return from Germany, Switzerland, Sweden or Luxemburg in the 1970s. Starting from the beginning of the 1990s, return migration to the Russian Federation followed the dissolution of the Soviet Bloc. Germany was the destination of hundreds of thousands of return migrants from Poland, successor states of the Soviet Union and Romania. Today's typical return migration routes in Europe are refugees of the Former Republic of Yugoslavia moving back to its successor states, especially to Bosnia and Herzegovina (from Germany, the Scandinavian countries, Switzerland and Slovenia) which is supported by aid programmes of the international community.

Migration of national minorities

New state borders defined by peace treaties closing the first and the second world wars took little notice of the situation of national minorities. To "remedy" nationality problems, many people belonging to national minority groups had to leave their homes, especially Hungarians and Germans living in Czechoslovakia. Moreover, many Germans were displaced from Central-Eastern European countries, based on collective condemnation. Although, these governmental programmes forced "only" a few hundred thousand people to leave their homes, millions remained. Minority policies in these Central-Eastern European countries belonging to the Socialist Bloc were so repressive that they caused mass migration of national minorities during and after the change of these regimes from Romania, Yugoslavia (and its successor states, mostly from Serbia), Slovakia and the Ukraine to Hungary, from the Czech Republic to Slovakia and in turn from Slovakia to the Czech Republic, finally from the Ukraine to Poland and Bulgaria. Many Turkish settled in Bulgaria under the centuries-long conquest of the Ottoman Empire and many of their descendants were forced to emigrate under Communist rule and migrate voluntarily to Turkey today. Migration of national minorities was observed

after the closing of the Yugoslav war that caused more homogenous ethnic structures in the successor states and in their provinces. Finally, one of the consequences of the Kosovo crisis is that many Serbs have emigrated from the autonomous territory of Kosovo under UN authority to Serbia (and Montenegro) and especially to Vojvodina, overbalancing the ethnic structures of both regions as the percentage of Serbs droped from 9,9% (1981) to 6% (2002, estimated) in Kosovo and increased from 57,2% (1991) to 65% (2002) in Vojvodina[3]. These migration types are significant in Central Eastern and South-East European countries as they have not latched on to global migration trends yet.

Economic Migration

The first wave of economic migration emerged after the Second World War subsequent to the economic growth of Western European countries that directed migration routes between Northern and Southern part of Europe. In this period, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Irish immigrants entered the labour markets of Germany, France, the Benelux states and the United Kingdom. Immediately thereafter, the circle of countries of origin for economic migrants to work markets was broadened, with Yugoslavia and Turkey joining the flow to the West. Germany introduced the guest-worker system and made bilateral agreements with Italy, Spain, Greece, Turkey, Morocco, Portugal, Tunisia and Yugoslavia. The guest-worker system supplied temporary work facilities originally, but it turned out to be the perfect ground for nurturing the conditions for permanent settlement. to the German formula repeated itself in Austria, the Netherlands and Sweden. Immigration networks supported by the principle of free movement of workforce encapsulated in the Treaty of Rome in 1957 resulted in five million people leaving their homes between 1955 and 1973.

New destination countries like Ireland, Italy or Spain formerly belonged to the group of sending countries. These had experienced the first immigration wave by the time of the economic crisis when workforce recruitment ended in the 1970s, and their nationals migrated back to their motherlands. Unlike Italy and Spain, Ireland attracted the return migration of Irish emigrants through its economical development. Afterwards, all of the countries had to face other types of immigration besides return and nationality migration, particularly Spain, Portugal and Italy, where the composition of immigrants started to change as more and more immigrants came from non-EU countries (Central Europe, Africa, Latin-America).

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[3] Source: http://www.mup.sr.gov.yu/

The integration process of the European Union has facilitated economic migration from East to West. This period began in the mid 1990s and is still under way. It is characterised by migration routes within Europe, or more sharply between old and new member states of the European Union. In a polarized way, some may say that this migration has caused brain drains and losses of population in the new member states while creating economic growth in old member states. Most changes are not only in rates (there are more and more immigrants) but also in the composition of immigrants. Romanians moved mostly to Spain, Italy and France, their integration being helped by their language kinship. So settled immigrants in Spain are mostly from Latin America (Ecuador, Columbia), North-Africa (Morocco) and Romania. Meanwhile, Germany and Austria have blocked historical routes from Poland by strict limitations on economic immigration that have resulted in the redirection of several hundred thousand Polish to the United Kingdom and Ireland. After the first Eastern enlargement of the European Union, most old member states (Germany, Austria, Denmark, the Benelux states, France and Italy) introduced limitations on economic immigration, as these governments worried about the flood of Eastern immigrants to their work markets, causing social tensions mostly through polarising the competition for jobs between natives and immigrants. These restrictions are effective up to seven years; however, there are concessions in some sectors including information technology, health care and the building industry for temporary economic migrants.

Family Unification

One of the spill-over effects of economic migration is family unification in the second and third migration waves. Family unification is when the presence of economic migrants in their new resident countries enables family members to join them. This became a characteristic migration type during the 1980s in Western European countries, especially in Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands and France. Recently, within the framework of their new strict immigration laws the Netherlands and Denmark have introduced measures to limit family unification by requiring a higher age of migrants in marrying someone from their home country and other special requirements[4].

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[4] For example in the case of Denmark young immigrants have to reach the age 24 to marry someone from their home country and "the marriage must be contracted voluntarily, and the spouses must as a rule not belong to the same family. For example they must not be cousins". http://www.nyidanmark.dk/ Templates/Search.aspx?NRMODE=Published&NRNODEGUID=%7bF509F662-8300-448C-B98D-C07 AEAE5548B%7d&NRORIGINALURL=%2fen-us%2fpublications%2fSearchPublications%2ehtm%3fsearc hType%3dpublications&NRCACHEHINT=Guest&searchType=publications.

Refuge, Asylum Seeking

After the close of the Second World War, for the second time mass forced migration characterised Europe between 1988 and 1996. While in the 1970s and 1980s asylum seekers originated mostly from Africa and Asia, the number and percentage of refugees and asylum seekers from the Eastern Bloc, especially from the Former Republics of Yugoslavia, increased significantly. This elevation in numbers of refugees and asylum seekers can be explained by the political crisis of the post-soviet bloc, the fall of the iron curtain, the outbreak of the Yugoslavian war and Turkish-Kurdish clashes in Turkey. Several hundred thousands of people from Eastern Europe were forced to leave their homes, and searched for a better life in Western European countries. Germany was the main destination country for Yugoslavs, Turks, Romanians and Bulgarians, as they had historical ties (former economic migration relations) and because Germany was easily accessible geographically. Finally, the German government introduced stricter immigration regulations in 1992, which enabled the country to send back refugees and asylum seekers who arrived from other European Union countries or from other "safe third countries". Western destination countries realised that wide misuse of social benefits could develop among refugees and asylum seekers and this could happen because destination countries did not co-operate in monitoring and controlling immigration. More and more destination countries followed Germany by tightening their immigration regulations, and this became one of the causes why mass immigration decreased after 1992. The other main cause was the end of the Yugoslavian war in 1995.

Smuggling of Migrants

Irregular immigration can take place, for example when state borders are crossed without legal identification documents (valid visa, passport), often avoiding border checks. The most notable smuggling methods in Europe are transports in small ships, which arrive at the north coast of the Mediterranean Sea, in Italy, Malta, Greece, France and Spain[5]. They receive wide publicity, especially when accidents happen. Destination countries aim to stop illegal immigration but their strict immigration and asylum policies and the Schengen-borders[6] tend to achieve contrary results. Irregular immigrants arrive with

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[5] Still, the largest number of trafficking victims were still single women: 65 percent for Albania and Kosovo, for example. The greatest number of people identified and assisted as victims of trafficking came from Albania, Moldova, Bulgaria and Romania" The EU and Southeastern Europe: confronting trafficking in human beings. 2004.03.05. source: www.euractive.com.

[6] Schengen borders – less control on the territory of the Schengen-area but stricter control those coming from outside the area since 1985.

different aims, some try to get employment while others apply for asylum, and they can arrive by different means, independently or with the help of smugglers. The main illegal migration routes to Western Europe originate from Africa, Eastern Europe and Asia.

Trafficking in Persons

Finally, Western Europe one of the main destinations of human trafficking (alongside the United States of America). Central Eastern European countries are mostly transition countries in this aspect, but the trafficking of women originates from Eastern European countries as well: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Albania and the post soviet successor states.

New Tendencies

In the following we will analyse a table based on the migration database of the International Labour Organisation that aims to show the five biggest resident groups by their citizenship in European destination countries. These destination countries were collated on the base of correspondences and overlaps in resident groups. The data are from 2003.

Table 2. Largest Immigrant Groups in Destination Countries

Destination country	Citizenship of the five biggest groups by countries of origin (2003)				
France	Portugal	Morocco	Algeria	Tunisia	Italy
Belgium	Italy	France	Netherlands	Morocco	Turkey
Netherlands	Turkey	Morocco	Germany	United Kingdom	Belgium
Luxemburg	Portugal	France	Italy	Belgium	Germany
Germany	Turkey	Yugoslavia	Italy	Greece	Poland
Switzerland	Italy	Yugoslavia	Portugal	Germany	Spain
Austria	Yugoslavia	Turkey	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Germany	Croatia
Denmark	Turkey	Iraq	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Norway	Germany
Sweden	Finland	Iraq	Norway	Denmark	Yugoslavia
Norway	Iraq	Somalia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Russian Federation	Afghanistan
Finland	Russian Federation	Estonia	Sweden	Somalia	Serbia and Montenegro
United Kingdom	Ireland	India	USA	Italy	Republic of South Africa
Ireland*	United Kingdom	USA	-	-	-
Spain	Ecuador	Morocco	Columbia	Romania	United Kingdom
Portugal	Cape Verde	Brazil	Angola	Bissau -Guinea	United Kingdom
Italy	Morocco	Albania	Romania	Philippines	Serbia and Montenegro
Greece**	Albania	Bulgaria	Georgia	Romania	USA

Poland	Ukraine	Russian Federation	Germany	Belarus	Vietnam
Czech Republic	Ukraine	Slovakia	Viet Nam	Poland	Russian Federation
Slovakia	Ukraine	Czech Republic	Viet Nam	Russian Federation	Poland
Hungary	Romania	Ukraine	Serbia and Montenegro	Germany	China
Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yugoslavia	Croatia	Republic of Macedonia	Ukraine
Russian Federation	Ukraine	Kazakhstan	Finland	Azerbaijan	Lithuania

Source: ILO Migration Database 2003
*Data available only from 1999 and 2000
** Data available only from 2000.

THE WEST

The first group contains Western European countries that had colonies before the Second World War and attracted economic migrants afterwards, namely France and the Benelux states. Manifestations of these relationships between the states and the immigrant groups can be found in the North African communities. Furthermore, there are Turks, Portugees and Italians in relatively large numbers in France and Luxemburg as a consequence of South-North economic migration. Germany, Switzerland and Austria belong in the second group characterised by economic migration (Turks, Portugees, Italians, Greeks, Spanish people) and refugee flows from the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in the years of the Balkan crisis. The third group involves the Scandinavian states, where Turkish immigration is economic, Bosnian immigration an indication of the Balkan crisis, and the immigration of other communities with other than European origin due to a variety of reasons. These groups include Iraqis, Somalis and Afghans, who arrived as refugees and asylum seekers to Scandinavian states as a double result of the saturation of main destination countries and the comprehensive social safety systems of Scandinavian states. Effecting the case of Finland, the proximity of the Russian Federation is also a perceptible factor (where the great majority of Russian citizens are Ingrians, ethnic Finns whose movement to Finland has been facilitated as a special sort of return migration); moreover, we find immigrants with Russian citizenship, but actually Chechen refugees, in Norway, too. The fourth group has only one member, the United Kingdom, which is the main destination point for former parts of the British Empire, but whose open policy for immigrants of the Eastern member states is having an effect on the composition of its residents and workforce, especially in the case of Polish immigrants. The fifth group contains the so called "new destination countries", namely

Ireland, Spain, Portugal, Italy and Greece. Of these, the South European countries (i.e. with the exception of Ireland) are not characterized mainly by return migration but are developing into new destinations of refugee routes from Africa and Asia and economic migration routes from East Europe.

As a consequence of family unification, the number of Muslim immigrant groups coming from outside Europe has gradually increased. Their particular social and religious practices have sometimes raised problems with other parts of society. Societies of Western European countries with strong individualistic values have been forced to rethink the role of religion, and within this framework conservative forces aim to make a revival of Christian values to strengthen the communities of European societies. However, this process remains in the background for as long as individual values are not attacked seriously.

Outweighing the expansion of Muslim societies that counter the wide-ranging practice of liberal principles, the opening up of borders for Eastern member states could be a perspective. However, old member states are still divided in adjudging the consequences of Eastern European immigration flow. The United Kingdom, Ireland, the Scandinavian states and the South-Western European states opened their labour markets for new member states after Eastern enlargement, while Germany, Luxemburg and Austria closed theirs and the Netherlands and Belgium decided to open with a range of limitations, all of which display the magnitude of the perceived threat of negative effects of mass immigration on their work markets. While Germany is afraid of oversupply of work force, the opening of the United Kingdom is based on macroeconomic indexes and economic growth. The Netherlands is planning to open its work market but with many restrictions, for example that employers will have to pay at least the official minimum wage for immigrants. Today, Spain receives the most economic migrants to fill its increased work market[7]. Western European states have to face two kind of social tensions: 1. the opposition of Muslims endangering social and cultural values, traditions, sometimes social security and 2. the rush of economic migrants from Eastern Member States may lead to social-economical problems in Western Member States, polarizing labour market competition in some sectors like the services or the building industry, where immigrants seem to crowd out natives with their better skills and cheapness.

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[7] 2,5 million immigrants speaks Spanish in Spain as most of its immigrants come from Latin-America. In: Mennyit hoz a spanyoloknak, hogy spanyolul beszélne? 2007.04.07. and 4,1 million immigrants reside today in Spain. In: Majdnem minden tizedik ember „idegen" Spanyolországban. 2007. 03.02. Sources: www.euraktiv.hu

THE EAST

Migration from the East to the West has contributed to economic growth in Western European countries, but what consequences has the increased emigration of the work force brought to the new Eastern European member states? The opening of several Western European labour markets has forced Eastern European member states to comply with a long period of emigration and the constraint of exploring and opening up their own immigration markets. We ranked most Central European states in the sixth group where migration between neighbouring countries has a very low rating. The Czech Republic[8], Slovakia, Hungary and Slovenia tend to become new destination countries, following the pattern of Italy, Spain and Portugal. Provisions for this new approach had already been implemented in the Czech Republic, where a dynamic emigration of professionals takes place in those special sectors that were formerly deficit sectors in Western European member states: doctors, highly-qualified health care staff, information technology, electronic and mechanical engineering professionals, managers. One instrument of attracting economic migrants to the Czech Republic from outside the European Union is the possibility to gain permanent residence in an accelerated process. The differential treatment of various immigrant groups also entered into force in Hungary in 2006, but so far only for ethnic Hungarians to facilitate their settlement. As migrants coming from South-Eastern European states choose older member states instead of the new ones, the latter will have to push into the Russian zone in the near future. More and more Ukrainians appear among the sixth group countries that seem to underpin this. The Russian Federation is the target country for millions of illegal immigrants from the Ukraine, Moldova and Belarus, but also some try to enter neighbouring countries to the west. This causes a lot of problems for border control in Poland, Slovakia and Hungary. Joint regulation against illegal immigration at the community level is still in early stage period, and gives rise to the smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons.

The Russian Federation, which makes up the last group, still attracts the most immigrants, receiving ten millions of people from Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Oppositions in social, economic and cultural spheres, different claims and fears against immigrants, different rates and composition of immigrants, as well as different migration routes challenge members of the European Union to take opposite

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[8] You will learn more on pilot project „Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers to the Czech Republic" on http: //www.iom.int/jahia/Jahia/pid/817

stances. Moreover, dependent migration ties of the Eastern member states to the Western member states makes the situation more complex. Being aware of this it does not seem likely that an effective and unanimously accepted common immigration and asylum policy will be drafted in the near future.

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RESOURCES FROM THE INTERNET

Internation Organisation for Migration http://www.iom.int

Eurostat http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/

International Labour Migration Database

 http://www.abetech.org/ilm/english ilmstat/stat01.asp

European Union Information Website www.euractiv.com

hvg www.hvg.hu

Website of the Serbian Ministry of Interior http://www.mup.sr.gov.yu/

THE REFUGEES IN VOJVODINA: PROSPECTS FOR SOCIAL INTEGRATION AND OTHER ALTERNATIVES

Vassilis Petsinis

The break-up of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was accompanied by ethnic conflicts. These conflicts and the ethnic cleansing practices resulted in a massive exodus of refugees from their hearths. According to the 1996 UNHCR census, 646,066 refugees of predominantly Serbian nationality were stationed in the territories of Serbia and Montenegro by that time. An approximate 40 percent of these refugees were accommodated in Vojvodina, most of them in Bačka and in Srem (Tables 1 and 2). My focus in this article will concentrate on the refugees' integration process within Vojvodinian society, its difficulties, and the other options available (e.g. repatriation, emigration to a 'third' country). What will be demonstrated is that the most feasible option, and that favoured by most refugees, seems to be the refugees' integration to Vojvodinian society. Prior to all these, however, a definition of the term 'refugee' ('izbeglica') within the legal contexts of Serbia and Montenegro should be made[1].

Table 1. War-displaced persons, accommodated in the territory of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, according to the 1996 UNHCR census:

Area	Refugees	Percentage	Evicted persons	Percentage	Total	Percentage in total population (%)
Serbia	537,937	95.0	79,791	100	617,728	6.3
Central Serbia	282,022	51.0	48,801	61.2	337,830	5.8
Vojvodina	229,811	40.6	29,908	37.5	259,719	12.9
Kosovo	19,097	3.4	1,082	1.3	20,179	1.0
Montenegro	28,338	5.0	0	0	28,338	4.5
FR Yugoslavia	566,275	100.0	79,791	100.0	646,006	6.2

Source: edited by the Author

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[1] It should be borne in mind that much of this article was written prior to the Montenegrin referendum for secession from the Serb-Montenegrin federation (May 2006).

Table 2. Colonists and refugees in Vojvodina (1948-1996)

Area	Colonists (1948)	Total population (1948)	% of colonists in total population (1948)	Total population (1991)	Refugees (1996)	% of refugees in total population (1991)
Bačka	125,684	802,235	15.7	1,032.915	127,214	12.3
N.Bačka	9,032	262,449	3.4	286,354	15,942	5.6
W.Bačka	72,100	200,465	36.0	215,916	33,200	15.4
S.Bačka	44,552	339,321	13.1	530,645	78,072	14.7
Banat	79,465	599,120	13.3	648,611	45,720	7.0
N.Banat	15,818	100,864	15.7	98,830	8,404	8.5
C.Banat	31,126	219,164	14.2	221,353	15,324	6.9
S.Banat	35,251	279,092	11.7	328,428	21,992	6.7
Srem	11,162	224,752	5.0	332,363	84,805	25.5

Source: edited by the Author

DEFINITION OF THE TERM 'REFUGEE' WITHIN THE LEGAL CONTEXTS OF SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO

According to the definition issued by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (1967), a refugee is: a. a person who, under fear of persecution because of his/her race, religion, national affiliation, or political convictions resides outside the state of which he/she is a citizen; b. a person who does not hold citizenship of the state where he/she previously resided and which he/she fled under fear of persecution and cannot or does not want to return to his/her native place of origin[2].

In the cases of Serbia and Montenegro, however, there was an internal distinction among the refugees. First of all, there were those who were refugees in the international legal sense. These were persons who fled the war-zones of Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina after these two states' official recognition by the UN and did not possess any valid legal documents regarding their citizenship[3]. On the other hand, there were the so-called 'displaced persons', or *'raseljena liča'* according to the Serbian terminology. These were persons who fled to Serbia and Montenegro from Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1991, before those two states' official recognition by the international community. These persons held documents that made them eligible for Serbian citizenship (i.e. passports of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia) and cannot be regarded as refugees in the international legal sense. According to the 1996 UNHCR data, 29,908 out of the 259,719 refugees stationed in Vojvodina by that time fit into the category of 'displaced persons' (Table 1). In this light, the arrivals from Kosovo, between

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[2] For this definition see UNHCR 1996:113.

1999 and 2000, can also be classified as 'internally displaced persons', since they already possess Serbian citizenship. In this text, both terms will be used alternately.

THE SOCIAL INTEGRATION PROCESS

The migration of the displaced Bosnian and Croatian Serbs to Vojvodina fits into the category of forced migration[4]. Forced migrations cause a variety of psychological traumas to the migrants. Therefore, there exist psychological factors that hinder the refugees' adaptation to the new environment. Most important, the evicted feel that the spatial-temporal relation with their land base has been violently disrupted. So, the reconstruction of a new identity within a new environment is a painful procedure, especially when the new environment differs morphologically, culturally, as well as socio-economically from the old one. In Vojvodina, this is the case with the older refugees from the mountainous parts of Bosnia-Herzegovina and the Croatian Krajina. The non-regulated refugee status, for over 9 or 10 years, of many refugees is a factor that aggravates their psychological tension. This issue will be dealt with, in greater depth, later on.

As a result of their psychological tension, the majority of the Serbian refugees in Vojvodina feel a more powerful attachment to the Republic of Serbia than to Vojvodina as a specific region[5]. This is understandable, bearing in mind that most of the refugees who were evicted from Bosnia-Herzegovina and, particularly, Croatia saw and still see the Serbian republic as a shelter from persecution. On certain occasions, the frustration involved in the loss of the homeland had an additional repercussion on some of the refugees. Namely, it encouraged their adoption of nationalist political options. For instance, the refugee community in Srem has often rallied behind the banner of the Serbian Radical Party[6]. Moreover, a notable participation of young refugees in local groupings with a militant nationalist orientation (e.g. 'Obraz') has been witnessed. Nevertheless, it is not an easy task to diagnose the political trends among the refugee population in Vojvodina, since many refugees are yet not entitled to vote. Apart from political options, psychological frustration has had its impact on other group aspects of the refugees. For example, surveys carried out in Srem

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[3] The Republic of Croatia was recognized by the UN on January 15th, 1992. As for Bosnia-Herzegovina, it was internationally recognized on April 6th, 1992.

[4] For more on this issue see Nikolić 1994: 192.

[5] Lazar and Marinković 2001:185-86.

[6] On this issue see 'Predsednički Izbori 2002' at: http://www.cesid.org .

demonstrated that the low birthrate of the refugee population in this region has been conditional upon psychological factors as well. Indeed, between 1992 and 1996, a mere percentage of 7 to 8 percent out of the total 10,600 newly born in Srem came from a refugee background[7].

The second major obstacle is of a legal and political nature and has particularly affected those refugees who came from Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina in the mid-'90s. The official norm for the solution of the refugee issue, adopted by the Serbian government back then, became the repatriation of the refugees to their native places of origin. As far as those refugees originating from *Republika Srpska* (Bosnia-Herzegovina) are concerned, their recognised citizenship by the Serbian authorities became that which they were granted by the Bosnian Serb authorities. This policy, though, had a variety of legal consequences on the refugees who arrived from Croatia and did not possess any valid documents with regard to their citizenship. The most notable of these consequences was a prolonged lack of citizenship, which corresponded to a restriction, even deprivation of basic civil rights (e.g. the right to vote and the right to social security). Consequently, many Croatian Serb refugees in Vojvodina have remained stateless for a long period of time[8].

The social integration of refugees has also been hampered by economic obstacles. The most crucial of these has been the high unemployment rate among them. The unemployment crisis has obstructed the utilization of a well-qualified labour potential among the refugee community. These are usually refugees originating from the economically developed regions of Baranja and Slavonia, which have a greater experience of market economy.[9] An additional percentage of refugees survive through the 'grey economy'[10].

Finally, the successful integration of refugees into the regional environment may be obstructed by cultural factors. The friction between refugees and locals over scarce job opportunities has often fuelled prejudices and stereotypes (e.g. these associated with the social implications of the mountain/plain dichotomy) concerning a group other than one`s own. In quite a few surveys, a remarkable percentage of refugees

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[7] About this data Madžić, Petaković, Malobabić and Solarević 1997: 201-03.

[8] For example, it is estimated that by the first half of 1995, there were 200,000 ethnic Serb refugees with a non-regulated refugee status stationed in Serbia and Montenegro. For this data see Đurđev 1997: 307.

[9] As a matter of fact, 142 out of 300 refugees originating mainly from Slavonia and Baranja (in other words, 48.1 percent) in 1991 were previously employed as executives of various kinds in Croatia. On this issue see Nikolić 1994: 193.

[10] Bubalo 1994: 22-23.

stationed in Vojvodina have complained about instances of discrimination against them[11]. The drive towards ethnocentrism has also taken its toll upon the refugees' integration into the new environment. For a start, this drive has resulted in the popular identification of the western Serbo-Croat variant spoken by many newcomers (i.e. *ijekavica* also their more frequent use of the Latin alphabet) with Croatia and the Croats. Therefore, a social pressure has been exerted on many refugees from Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina to switch to the eastern variant (*ekavica*) that is predominantly spoken in Vojvodina.

The long-term integration of the refugees into Vojvodinian society can be pursued along two paths. The first is to render refugees economically independent individuals. What could happen, at this given moment, is the improvement of the local infrastructure in those municipalities where a considerable percentage of refugees are accommodated. This would assist the utilization of the labour potential among the refugees, especially in Vojvodinian municipalities that demonstrate symptoms of demographic and economic stagnation. This is the case with some depopulated villages along the Croatian border in Srem[12]. The implementation of positive discrimination policies for refugees at the employment sector would be another step towards their social integration. A complementary option is the cultural integration (not assimilation) of the refugees to the new environment. The emphasis on Vojvodina's cultural plurality may encourage the acceptance of the refugees into the regional society and, vice versa, the refugees' acceptance of the new environment with all their distinctive characteristics.

What might be further required is the adoption of a more 'inclusive' variant of Serbian national identity by Serbian society. This can be achieved through the recognition of certain catalysts (e.g. most commonly, a different collective historical experience—also multicultural cohabitation) that have resulted in the formation of 'sub-identities' within the Serbian nation. At this point, it would be useful to recall Miroslav Krleža's address to the Croatian Communist Party committee in 1957 (in an attempt to illustrate the 'hybrid character' of the Serbian and Croatian nations to his fellow cadres) that 'the differences between Herzegovinian Croats and Croats from Zagorje are more pronounced than those between Croats and Serbs in Herzegovina'.

Another interesting incidence is the fact that, at this given moment, the refugees form a distinct segment within Vojvodinian society. This brings them quite close to

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[11] On this issue see Lazar and Marinković 2001: 179; Nikolić 1994: 202-03.
[12] For more information about this issue see Đurđev 1997, pp 315-17.

the case of national minorities. As a matter of fact, many refugees already belonged to minorities in their former places of residence. This means that they have already experienced multicultural cohabitation (Table 4). Therefore it might well be argued that, despite some occasional cases of inter-group friction between refugees and certain national minorities (e.g. Hungarians and Croats), the abovementioned factor may facilitate the establishment of better intercultural understanding between refugees and Vojvodina's national minorities. This prospect, however, is always conditional upon the political, socio-economic, and cultural integration of the refugees to the new environment.

Table 3. Number of refugees in municipalities with a dense or a majority Hungarian and other ethnic minority population

Ada	438 out of 21,506 residents
Bačka Topola	3,816 out of 40,473 residents
Bečej	3,541 out of 42,685 residents
Kanjiza	905 out of 30,668 residents
Mali Idoš	194 out of 14,394 residents
Senta	620 out of 28,779 residents
Subotica	4,091 out of 150,534 residents
Temerin	1,732 out of 24,939 residents
Čoka	493 out of 15,271 residents

Source: http://www.cesid.org

Table 4. Did you have Croatian friends, neighbours, colleagues, or relatives prior to the breakout of the war?

Friends	YES- 264 cases or 89.5 percent	NO-36 cases or 9.5 percent
Neighbours	YES- 253 cases or 85.8 percent	NO-47 cases or 14.2 percent
Relatives	YES- 185 cases or 62.7 percent	NO-115 cases or 37.3 percent
Colleagues	YES- 248 cases or 84.1 percent	NO- 52 cases or 15.9 percent

Total sample: 300 Croatian Serb refugees (mainly from Eastern Slavonia).

Source: Nikolić 1994: 192.

THE MEDIUM OF REPATRIATION

The option of the refugees' repatriation to their native places of origin remains to date the preferred medium of the Serbian government with regard to the solution of the refugee question. This option, however, has not been particularly popular with the majority of refugees. Return to the native places of origin is discouraged

by two factors: One of them is the fact that the former houses and other property of many refugees have either been occupied or destroyed. The other is the reluctance by refugees to live under state authorities regarded as hostile. The incentives for return are equally restrained by the new political and legal circumstances in the refugees' native places of origin. In Croatia, the acquisition of Croatian passports by Croatian Serb refugees has proven a long and painful legal procedure.

Most importantly, the Croatian law on citizenship is based on a double-standard approach. On the one hand, those ethnic Croats who owned property in the territory of the Croatian republic but resided in another republic of the former Yugoslavia (or even abroad- e.g. Canada, Australia) until October 8th, 1991 (i.e. the date of declaration of Croatian independence) were entitled to Croatian citizenship. On the contrary, the civic status of persons who owned property in Croatia, by that date, but at the same time had a 'special relationship' with some other former republic of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (e.g. the case of the Croatian Serbs in relation to Serbia) was to be 'regulated'. In the case of many Croatian Serbs, currently accommodated in Vojvodina, the situation becomes even more complicated since they have abandoned their homes and cannot prove that they actually owned them[13]. Any agreements reached between Croatia and Serbia (e.g. the Agreement for the Normalization of Relations between the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Croatia signed on August 23rd, 1996) have not produced any fruitful results with regard to this issue.

On the other hand, quite a few of the formerly Serb-owned properties in Croatia have been occupied by Croatian refugees or other Croatian citizens. Some of these houses have even been rented to tourists over the summer[14]. Lack of Croatian citizenship makes it increasingly difficult for many refugees to start a legal procedure over their properties in a Croatian court of justice. An additional discouraging factor has been the arrests of some Serb returnees, by the Croatian authorities, and their indictments with charges, often unsubstantiated, of war crimes[15]. The ethnification of the Croatian educational system also serves as a factor that discourages the younger generation of refugees from returning to Croatia.

The recent developments, with regard to the repatriation option, have been more positive in the case of Bosnian Serb refugees. In this case, the positive developments

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[13] For more information over this issue see Bubalo 2001: 21-33; Helsinski Odbor za Ljudska Prava u Srbiji 1997: 71-76.

[14] Interview with the manager of Novi Sad based refugee NGO (March 12th, 2001).

[15] On this issue see Bubalo 2001b: 3.

have resulted from the more active involvement of the international factor, as dictated by the Dayton Agreement. Indeed, Section VII of the Agreement has enabled quite a few Bosnian Serb refugees to obtain citizenship of Bosnia-Herzegovina and regain their homes and other abandoned property[16]. According to the Belgrade daily Danas, approximately 114,000 refugees of Serbian nationality had returned to Bosnia-Herzegovina, from Serbia and elsewhere, by late autumn 1999[17].

Nevertheless, the Bosnian Serb refugees who have so far chosen the option of repatriation are essentially those who own property or have family and friends in the territory of Republika Srpska. The case of the Bosnian Serb refugees who originate from the Croat-Muslim federation is rather different. These refugees' incentives for return are blocked by a feeling of insecurity. Indeed, some Bosnian Serb refugees went back to the Croat-Muslim federation only to return to Vojvodina a few months later. Finally, as far as the 'internally displaced persons' from Kosovo are concerned, the current prospects and their intention to return are virtually non-existent.

Table 5. Internally displaced persons from Kosovo in Vojvodinian municipalities (as in October 1999)

Zapadnobački okrug (Sombor)	1,139
Južnobanatski okrug (Pančevo)	3,050
Južnobatski okrug (Novi Sad)	1,500
Severnobanatski okrug (Kikinda)	580
Severnobački okrug (Subotica)	2,500
Sremski okrug (Sremska Mitrovica)	550
TOTAL	12,590

Source: Statistical data offered courtesy of the 'Humanitarian Centre for Integration and Tolerance', Novi Sad.

EMIGRATION TO A 'THIRD' COUNTRY

Apart from repatriation, an alternative option to social integration is emigration to a 'third' (mainly Western) country. At this point, it might be interesting to mention some empirical evidence with regard to the social adaptation of Serbian refugees in the United Kingdom. The information presented below is taken from a survey carried out by the sociologist Gordana Vuksanović in the greater Oxford area, between late

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[16] For some detailed information over the repatriation of Serbian refugees to Bosnia-Herzegovina see Bubalo 2001c: 1-29.
[17] On this issue see Danas, November 24th, 1999, at: http://www.danas.co.yu .

1996 and early 1997. The findings of the survey paint a negative picture, with regard to the refugees' prospects of adaptation to the new environment.

First of all, there have been certain cultural barriers. The most notable of them is the problem of cultural differences with the domestic population, which has hindered the establishment of successful communication between refugees and locals. Even the local British Serbs were regarded as rather 'Anglicized'. On the other hand, many refugees did not demonstrate any effort to learn English because they regarded their stay in the United Kingdom as temporary. With a poor knowledge of the English language and equally poor prospects for return to the old territory, many adult refugees in the greater Oxford area and elsewhere in Britain remained unemployed. Most refugees in the survey expressed a wish to return to the former Yugoslavia. Fearing to return to their native places of origin, though, they often expressed their intention to settle in Vojvodina, a place where many of them had relatives and friends.[18]. Indeed, the medium of emigration to a 'third' country has not been particularly popular among Vojvodina's refugee population[19]. The refugees are discouraged by the prospects of moving to a geographically remote as well as culturally different environment.

CONCLUSION

The majority of Serb refugees in Vojvodina seem to opt for their integration into Vojvodinian society. According to the present circumstances, this appears to be the most feasible option. Judging from the current circumstances, the most effective way to integrate (not assimilate) the refugees into Vojvodinian society might be through a fruitful combination of economic assistance and cultural tolerance. However, it should be borne in mind that the refugees constantly oscillate among the following options: a. social integration; b. repatriation to their native places of origin (most commonly these refugees from Bosnia-Herzegovina); and c. emigration to a 'third' country. Indeed, according to the 2002 UNHCR census, there were 160,806 fewer refugees stationed in the territories of Serbia and Montenegro than according to the 1996 registration. It is exactly this mobility of the refugees that makes them a very 'dynamic' group and no precise data about them can be available.

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[18] See the findings of this survey in Vuksanović 1997: 225, 227-78.
[19] For example, less than 3 percent of the refugees stationed in Bačka Palanka expressed the desire to emigrate to the West. For this figure see Čolović 1997: 59. Also, a mere 7.62 percent of the refugee population expressed the same desire in Novi Kneževac (Northern Banatt) as well. For this figure see Bugarski 1997: 208.

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http://www.cesid.org: The website of the 'Centre for Free Elections and Democracy', a Belgrade-based NGO.

http://www.danas.co.yu: The website of the Belgrade daily Danas.

ALIYAH AND YERIDA[1]

ZOLTÁN GRÜNHUT

According to the Declaration of Independence which was proclamated on 14th May 1948 in Tel Aviv, Israel is home for all Jews, wherever they live in the world. It's not only a declaration, it's an obligation for the Jewish state. The population of Israel has been increasing since 1948; however, the country fears a demographic crisis, because of a) the growing Palestinian community, and b) the decreasing tendencies of Jewish immigration. According to the last year's data, the number of immigrants and emigrants is nearly the same, the net is almost zero, and the population grows only because of the relatively high birth rates. This paper would like to analyze these processes, to explain the migration policy of Israel and the special status of the Jewish immigrants, and to summarise a historical overview of immigration to and emigration from Israel.

THE DEMOGRAPHICAL CHALLENGE

Besides the well-known violent happenings of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, there is a parallel process that can present a similar challenge for the Jewish state, to whit, the demographical tendencies. Compared with the developed Western countries, Israel has high rates in almost every demographic indicator (population growth index, number of new-born babies per woman, etc.). However these figures are clearly lower than the corresponding Palestinian indicators. Israel holds it necessery to stabilize the Jewish majority, because without that, Israel will only be an ordinary and not a Jewish state. This challenge and Palestinian terrorist activity have pressed the Israeli government to withdraw from Gaza and North Samaria. The more than 700-kilometer long security fence is therefore given a demographical role as well, not just to keep out the Palestinian terrorists, but also to separate the whole Palestinian community from Israel.

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[1] These are Hebrew words. When a Jew immigrates to Israel, he or she makes an aliyah: to "lift off" to the Holy Land. Emigration, Yerida is the opposite: to descend to the diaspora.

Table 1. Demographic tendencies in Israel and in the Palestinian Authority

Indicators	Israel	Palestinian A.
Population growth/year	1,18%	3,20%
Birth rates/1000 people	17,97	32,07
Death rates/ 1000 people	6,18	4,20
New-born babies/woman	2,41	4,78
Number of migrants/1000 people	0,10	1,99

THE IMMIGRATION POLICY OF ISRAEL

The above quoted part of the Independence Declaration that guarantees that Israel is a home for all Jews was made concrete in the three times revised (1950, 1954, 1970) Law of Return. According to this law–with the exception of a small number of reasons for exclusion–every Jewish person can obtain Israeli citizenship in a special, relatively uncomplicated procedure. The question of who is a Jew divides the Israeli parties and also the whole of Jewish society. The religious hang on fanatically to the *Halacha* (the traditional Jewish law), saying that there are only two ways to be a Jew: a) to have a Jewish mother or b) to turn into a Jew according to specific rules. The Law of Return declares something else: a Jew is a person whose father or mother, or rather one of whose grandparents is a Jew.[2] According to the law, the close, non-Jewish relatives (wife, husband, son, daughter, father-in-law, mother-in-law, brother-in-law, sister-in-law) of a Jewish immigrant have the same rights to settle in Israel.[3]

After the exposition of the general regulations, it seems evident that the migration policy of Israel is ethnically preferential, it underlines the necessity of stabilizing the Jewish majority in Israel. Compared with the typical European mainstream, this declaration can be dismissable and unliberal, although several European governments would like to modify their immigration policy to a more controllable system.

In Israel, there are several establishments (ministry, commissions, specialised organisations) with national or international competency that would like to inspire the Jews in the diaspora to immigrate to the Holy Land. In the present government Ya'akov Edery, member of the Kadima party, is responsible for immigration and absorption. The Israeli parties often lead serious debates about immigration, previously because of the high number of Soviet migrants, and the problems of how to settle them, and now because of the decreasing tendencies. Some parties—especially the religious ones—would like to modify the Law of Return to keep out non-Jewish

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[2] Every paper written by the rabbinate can be corresponsive for the verification.
[3] The religious rarely stand against this supplement, especially after the migration from the former Soviet Union.

people, while others—mostly the left-wing Merec and the Arabic parties—would like to create a generally liberal immigration system.

Besides the ideological contrasts, immigration policy also induces explosive disputations because it takes a large part in the Israeli budget. The cost of the international network (*Sochnut*) and the reductions for the new migrants consume money from other national necessities (economical and health investments, recoveries, etc.). Although in the last decade several foundations and associations began to support the immigration policy of Israel, the money is still not enough. By way of summary, we can emphasise the following programs from the Israeli supply (these are only for Jews and their close relatives):

- "*Taglit/Birthright*" – A free ten-day trip around Israel for Jewish youths.
- "*Ulpan*" – A six-month intensive language course in a kibbutz or in any Israeli city.
- "*Naale*" – Three school years and graduation in secondary school for free (full board services in a student village).
- "*Masa*" – Scholarship at an Israeli university or college for those aged between 18-30 (studies are offered in several languages).
- "*Naale University*" – Three school years and university/college certificate for those aged between 18-24.
- "*Sela*" – Free studies in any Israeli university during settlement in the Holy Land.
- "*Stas*" – 2-6 month technical tutorial for students at university and graduates between the ages of 19 and 35.
- "*Nadav*" – Voluntary job with full board services in the Israeli health, social, civil or military sector.
- "*Sar-El*" – Voluntary job with full board services in the Israeli Defence Forces.
- "*Mada*" – Voluntary job with full board services with the Israeli ambulance service (age 18-25).
- "*Lehavot*" – Voluntary job with full board services with the Israeli fire services.

There are other benefits for those who would like to settle in Israel. If somebody decides to change his/her status to olim (new immigrants), these allocations of course are also available during the programmes enumerated above. What are these advantages? Cheap accommodation (*Merkaz Klita*), generally (*Sal Klita*) and special money allowances (for example in the case of a single parent with children), cheap "*olim-loans*" (for buying property or a car), other helpful opportunities (in finding a job, shool, etc.), and free Hebrew language course (*Ulpan*).

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OVERVIEW OF IMMIGRATION INTO ISRAEL

Generally we can differentiate four groups among the new immigrants arriving in Israel. First, the Jews and their close relatives. As we can read above, these have special rights and possibilities, they are the preferred and naturally the most populous. Secondly, we can separate those immigrants with cultural objectives (mostly Christians who would like to live in the Holy Land). The third group consists of labour migrants. We can differentiate two sub-groups here: the highly qualified (from the European Union, North America and in lesser numbers from the Far East—all non-Jewish, only coming to Israel for high-status jobs) and the low-qualified ones (who compensate for the fall-out Palestinian labour force, most of them from Romania, Russia, the Philippines, China and Thailand). The last group consists of the neighbouring Palestinians, who obtain Israeli citizenship or residency with increasing difficulty as a result of a) the violent acts of the conflict, and b) the demographical problems of Jerusalem.

Focused on Jewish immigration to the Holy Land we can differentiate several aliyah periods. The first and longest period began after the first radically antisemitic pogroms in Western Europe [4] and went on until the formation of the Zionist movement. The pogroms of the late 19th century (the violent acts in Russia, antisemitism in France, etc.) caused Zionism to emerge, and this was also the starting point of the Zionist aliyah period (from 1880 to the formation of the State of Israel). This Zionist aliyah period had six larger waves: the first between 1882 and 1903[5], the second from 1904 to the First World War[6], the third between 1919 and 1923[7], the fourth until the outbreak of the worldwide economic crisis, the fifth from 1930 to the Second World War[8], and the last during the war and until the formation of the Jewish state. The last two were parts of Aliyah-Bét, which took place during the British restrictions (The White Book of Palestine about the prohibition of Jewish immigration into Palestine, 1939).

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[4] In 1290 the Jews fled -England, hundred of years later France and in the 15th century Spain. Most of them settled in Eastern Europe, Russia and North Africa, only small numbers of them moving to Palestine, which was under Byzantine and later Ottoman rule.

[5] Circa 35,000 Jews made aliyah during this period, mostly from Russia, Yemen and Eastern Europe.

[6] Nearly 40,000 Jews came to the territory of the Palestine Mandate during these years, especially from Russia. They created the foundation of the modern Isareli state, with new settlements, farms, roads, social and health care networks, schools and so on.

[7] During the third Zionist aliyah around another 40,000 people came (mostly from Russia again), most of them settling in the Jordan Valley. At this time it was becoming clear that the Arab and Jewish communities couldn't live together peacefully. The Arabs were afraid of losing their influence, and also their economical status.

[8] Parallel with the Nazi regime's coming into power, more than 170,000 Jews left Europe. During the well-known antisemitic pogroms and massacres the British authority in Palestine closed the border for the Jewish refugees. They indirectly killed thousands in Europe and also directly killed many others in Palestine in alliance with the Arabs (Hebron, Safed, Jerusalem). In answer to these actions several radical Jewish armed groups (Stern, Irgun) formed, which declared war against Britain and also against the Arabs.

On 14th May, 1948 David Ben Gurion proclaimed the establishment of Israel. With this declaration every British restriction was abolished and the new immigrants could set foot on the Jewish state. On the same day the neighbouring Arabic countries went to war against Israel, which managed to preserve her existence. During the one and a half years of fighting the new migrants continued to arrive in Israel. Most of the men went onward to the battlefields, while women and the elderly built the state. After the war the Arabic countries expelled their Jewish populations—the so-called *Sefards and Mizrahis*—which totalled nearly 800,000 people. Many of them were brought to Israel in organised rescue activities like the "Magic Carpet" (50,000 Jews from Yemen), "*Ezra*" and "*Nehemiah*" (in both, 115,000 people from Iraq). Because of the lack of money of the Israeli government, the new migrants had to live in tent camps (*ma'abarot*) for years.[9]

In the following years the number of immigrants reduced, with an average of 25,000-30,000 people arriving each year. Until 1990-1991, the time of the collapse of the Soviet Union, there were two larger immigration-waves: after the Islamic revolution in Iran in 1979 nearly 30,000 Jews left the country, and in 1985-1986 there were two great rescue actions from Ethiopia through Sudan (operations "*Moses*" and "*Solomon*").

Table 2. Jewish immigration into Israel (1948-2006)[10]

1948	101,828	1963	64,489	1978	26,394	1993	77,860
1949	239,954	1964	55,036	1979	37,222	1994	80,810
1950	170,563	1965	31,115	1980	20,428	1995	77,660
1951	175,279	1966	15,957	1981	12,599	1996	72,180
1952	24,610	1967	14,469	1982	13,723	1997	67,990
1953	11,575	1968	20,703	1983	16,906	1998	58,500
1954	18,491	1969	38,111	1984	19,981	1999	78,400
1955	37,528	1970	36,750	1985	10,642	2000	61,542
1956	56,330	1971	41,930	1986	9,505	2001	44,633
1957	72,634	1972	55,888	1987	12,965	2002	35,168
1958	27,290	1973	54,886	1988	13,034	2003	24,652
1959	23,988	1974	31,981	1989	24,300	2004	22,500
1960	24,692	1975	20,028	1990	200,170	2005	22,818
1961	47,735	1976	19,754	1991	176,650	2006	19,900
1962	61,533	1977	21,429	1992	77,350	Total	3,033,038

Parallel with the collapse of the East European socialist regimes, the Soviet Union cancelled the quota, that limited Jewish emigration. After this change more than half a million Jewish (and non-Jewish[11]) people left the countries of the former Soviet Union.

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[9] Golda Meir: My life, Suliker, Budapest, 2000.

[10] Composed from several data: The Ministry of Immigrant Absorption: Immigration Data 2004, February 2005.; Immigration Data 2003, February 2004.; Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics: Statistical abrsact of Israel, 2006.

[11] One-third of the Soviet olim are non-Jewish, which has induced serious problems in Israeli society (like the not long ago discovered neo-nazi group in Israel, with members only from Russia).

The number of new immigrants surpassed 50,000 yearly until 2000, most of them coming from the former Soviet countries, as today.

Table 3. Immigration to Israel and number of migrants from the former Soviet Union[12]

1948	101,828	1,175	1963	64,489	314	**1978**	26,394	12,192	1993	77,860	66,145
1949	239,954	3,255	1964	55,036	541	**1979**	37,222	17,614	1994	80,810	68,079
1950	170,563	290	1965	31,115	895	**1980**	20,428	7,570	1995	77,660	64,848
1951	175,279	196	1966	15,957	2,054	**1981**	12,599	1,770	1996	72,180	59,048
1952	24,610	74	1967	14,469	1,403	**1982**	13,723	782	1997	67,990	54,621
1953	11,575	45	1968	20,703	224	**1983**	16,906	399	1998	58,500	46,032
1954	18,491	30	1969	38,111	3,019	**1984**	19,981	367	1999	78,400	66,848
1955	37,528	139	1970	36,750	992	**1985**	10,642	362	2000	61,542	50,817
1956	56,330	470	1971	41,930	12,839	**1986**	9,505	202	2001	44,633	33,601
1957	72,634	1,324	1972	55,888	31,652	**1987**	12,965	2,096	2002	35,168	18,508
1958	27,290	729	1973	54,886	33,477	**1988**	13,034	2,283	2003	24,652	12,383
1959	23,988	1,362	1974	31,979	16,816	**1989**	24,300	12,932	2004	22,500	10,127
1960	24,692	1,923	1975	20,028	8,531	**1990**	200,170	185,227	2005	22,818	9,378
1961	47,735	224	1976	19,754	7,279	**1991**	176,650	147,839	2006	17,474	6,643
1962	61,533	194	1977	21,429	8,348	**1992**	77,350	65,093	Total	3033038	1156977

Beside the great number of migrants from the former Soviet Union, in the 1990s– for different reasons–Jewish emigration also rose from Argentina (economical crisis), France (increasing antisemitism), Ethiopia (mostly family-unification), South Africa (the well-known changes of the regime) and also from the USA.

Table 4. Immigrants in Israel by country of origin (1948-1995)[13]

Country	Number of immigrants	Country	Number of immigrants
Former Soviet Union	813708*	Egypt and Sudan	37548
Western Maghreb	345753	Lybia	35865
Romania	273957	France	31172*
Poland	171753	Hungary	30316
Iraq	130302	India	26759
Iran	76000	United Kingdom	26236*
United States	71480*	Former Czechoslovakia	23984
Turkey	61354	Germany	17912
Yemen	51158	South Africa	16277*
Ethiopia	48624*	Former Yugoslavia	10141
Argentina	43990*	Syria	10078
Bulgaria	42703		

* Between 1995 and 2005 361,363 immigrants came from the former Soviet Union, 18,905 from the USA, 26,898 from Ethiopia, 14,884 from Argentina, 17,377 from France and 1,820 from South Africa.

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[12] Aliyah and Klita Department, Jewish Agency for Israel: Immigration to Israel by country, 2005.
[13] Own collection collated from several tables and data from the Jewish Virtual Library and other sites.

THE PRESENT TENDENCIES—RISING LEVEL OF EMIGRATION

Before we start to analyze the present trends, we have to mention the Jewish communities in the world to see the potential number of new immigrants. It is necessary to notice that in the USA there are nearly as many Jews as in Israel. They are very important for Jerusalem because of their lobbying power, so the Israeli associations do not make really effectual emigration policy in the USA, contrary to Europe or in the former Soviet Union.

Table 5. Jewish communities in the World[14]

Jews in the European Union			Jews in other countries		
Country	2002	2006	Country	2002	2006
Austria	9000	9000	Argentina	195000	184500
Belgium	31400	31200	Australia	99000	103000
Bulgaria	2300	2000	Azerbaijan	7900	6800
Cyprus	>100	>100	Brazil	97500	96500
Czech Rep.	2800	4000	Belarus	24300	18200
Denmark	6400	6400	Chile	21000	20700
Estonia	1900	1900	South Africa	78000	72000
Finland	1100	1100	USA	cca. 5400000	cca. 5350000
France	519000	491500	Georgia	5000	3500
Grecce	4500	4500	Croatia	1300	1700
Netherland	28000	30000	Canada	364000	373500
Ireland	1000	1200	Kazakhstan	4500	3700
Poland	3500	3200	India	5300	5000
Latvia	9600	9800	Iran	11200	10800
Lithuania	3700	3200	Morocco	5600	3000
Luxembourg	600	600	Mexico	40500	39800
Hungary	51300	49700	Moldova	5500	4600
Malta	>100	>100	Norway	1700	1200
U. Kingdom	273500	297000	Russia	265000	228000
Germany	103000	118000	Switzerland	17700	17900
Italy	29500	28600	Serbia	1700	1500
Portugal	500	500	Turkey	17000	17800
Romania	10800	10100	New Zealand	5100	7000
Spain	12000	12000	Ukraine	100000	80000
Sweden	15000	15000	Uruguay	22500	18000
Slovakia	3300	2700	Uzbekistan	6000	4800
Sovenia	100	100	Venezuela	16000	15400

The migration rate of the 1990s has radically decreased in the last four years. The opposition parties use these tendecies to remind Israeli society that the government is

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[14] Sergio Della Pergola: World Jewish population, American Jewish Yearbook, New York, 2002. and 2006. It is necessary to notice that cca. 2,200 Jews live in Peru, nearly 3,100 in Colombia, and officially 5,000 in Panama.

impotent to stabilize the level of necessary Jewish immigration, although everybody knows that the great migration wave of the 1990s happened for of geopolitical reasons, and not because of a perfect immigration policy. The present increasing tendency of emigration is mostly because of economical changes: it is not only the Palestinians, but also a number of Israelis who have lost their jobs after the policy of separation (withdrawal from Gaza and North Samaria, the security fence), and so, since the neighbouring Arab countries are not an option, they move to Europe, North America or Australia. Israeli companies support this economic emigration to substitute their lost market. Between 2000 and 2003, during an active stage of Palestinian terrorism, nearly 170,000 new migrants arrived into Israel. After 2004 this had dropped to 83,000, although the Israeli Defence Forces managed to reduce terrorist acts. During this period emigration increased from a yearly 10,000-11,000 to 14,000-15,000.

In April 2007 an Israeli association made a survey about social satisfaction in Israel. Nearly 70% of the Russian-migrant Israeli-born children said that they would like to be reborn abroad (19% in Russia, 15% in the USA). 62% of the Sabres (Israeli-born) with more than average salary answered the above question by stating that to be foreign might be better (18-18% would like to be American or Canadian, 8% to be Swedish and 6% Swiss). 60% senior citizens and 58% of poor people would like to be reborn abroad (they also prefer the USA, Canada, Australia, Sweden and New Zealand). However, 80% of the religious and kibbutz-dwellers feel that they can't be anything other than Israeli. Also 80% of the new immigrants are satisfied with their new homeland, and just 7% of them feel that emigration was a mistake. 70% of the migrants from the former Soviet Union said they are Israelis (it represents the rate of the Jews among them), and 72% feel that immigration was a good choice.[15]

This survey tells us that most of the new immigrants are satisfied with Israel; however, this opinion is not shared by the Israeli-born. They are not unpatriotic, they just feel that living abroad would be easier (do not need to do the long military service, no religious involvement in everyday life, etc.). Many of those who emigrate move back in two or three years, and during the time of living abroad, they support Israel through associations and foundations (the above mentioned lobby-power), although such emigration is not appreciated in the Jewish state. With the above analysed demographic and political circumstances and conditions, Israel continues its efforts to bring home the Jews from the diaspora.

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[15] Shelly Paz - Haviv Retig: Israel's population reaches 7,150,000, Jerusalem Post, 23. April 2007.

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CHAPTER 4

LIFELONG LEARNING:
OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

LIFEONG LEARNING: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES—EUROPEAN NETWORKING

ANIKÓ KÁLMÁN

INTRODUCTION

Lifelong learning has been the subject of policy discussion and development for many years now. Yet today there is a greater need than ever for citizens to acquire the knowledge and competences necessary both to tap into the benefits, and to meet the challenges of a knowledge-based society. Higher levels of education and continuous learning, when accessible to all, make an important contribution to reducing inequalities and preventing marginalisation. This, however, raises fundamental questions about how well equipped traditional education and training systems are to keep pace with the developments outlined.

A cross-disciplinary European University Lifelong Learning Network (EULLearN) was established in 2003 in response to the Commission's Communication, "Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality". EULLearN serves as a core element to partner institutions to develop LLL in European co-operation by:

- Identifying coherent strategies and practical measures to foster university lifelong learning.
- Exchanging and sharing ideas, experiences, good practices and actions to contribute to building the European area of the lifelong learning.
- Enhancing the European dimensions of lifelong learning by supporting strategies on national as well as international levels.
- Providing a Forum of networking to share and test relevant and actual issues, experiences and challenges of Lifelong Learning in Europe.
- Developing new European lifelong learning innovative tools, learning materials and environments to support university Lifelong Learning.

EULLearN, with 112 partners from 31 countries including European universities and non-university partners, supports the exchange of good practices and experiences and the identification of common problems, ideas and priorities through the work of

three Targeted Thematic Groups (EULLearN TTGs): EULLearN is the continuation and the development of an earlier successful Thematic Network THENUCE which ran between 1996 and 2003.

THE MISSION OF EULLEARN

EULLearN is aiming at becoming a Forum of Networking to share and test relevant and real issues, experiences and challenges of university lifelong learning in Europe, and a Centre of expertise to support the European dimension and European policies in university LLL initiatives by providing a platform for developing new innovative European tools, learning materials and environments to support university lifelong learning.

EULLearN serves as a core of European co-operation in developing LLL through identifying strategies and practical measures to foster university lifelong learning by exchanging and sharing ideas, experiences, good practices and actions to establish the European sphere of lifelong learning, thus developing the European dimensions of lifelong learning by supporting strategies on national as well as international levels.

THE BACKGROUND

Most European Universities consider themselves to be international institutions but there are still many problems, such as how their continuing education staff can best express this European inspiration and incorporate this in their portfolio of activities. Furthermore, there is the question of how university lifelong learning with a European emphasis can be expanded in the most efficient way.

The traditional systems must be transformed to become much more open and flexible for the learners to have individual pathways of learning that match their needs and interests, and, thus, to take the genuine advantage of equal opportunities in the course of their lives.

This, however, raises fundamental questions on how well-equipped traditional education and training systems are to keep pace with these developments? Why is it that in many European countries' universities take very little part in the provision of lifelong learning? These and other questions are addressed by EULLearN, the European University Lifelong Learning Network, through its activities.

Between 1996 and 2003 a large Thematic Network, THENUCE (Thematic Network in University Continuing Education) mobilised experts from some 140

universities in thirty European countries to identify several important transitions which are required for current university Lifelong Learning management.

Since 2003 the activities of THENUCE have been continued and developed by EULLearN. THENUCE & EULLearN are Socrates "Thematic Networks".

Table 1. THENUCE / EULLearN Evolution

	THENUCE	EULLearN
Theme	University Continuing Education	Lifelong Learning
Partnership	Open Network of more than 140 partners	112 selected and targeted partners
Partners	Universities only	Higher Education Institutions and social / economic / political partners
Working Groups	9 Thematic Groups	3 Targeted Thematic Groups
Management	Belgium	Lithuania

Educational Institutions can no longer function in an isolated gashion. They are in a competitive world which alone, one by one, they cannot face, and so they must work with each other, and they must work with all partners and stakeholders in society and the labour market. We must point out that 20% of EULLearN partners are already from the non-educational sector!

EULLEARN OBJECTIVES

The EULLearN objectives are to enhance the quality of university lifelong learning (LLL) and to promote European-wide activities that would develop LLL in society. The target groups are the managers/providers of LLL and the expected added value is the positioning of LLL in Europe as a normal activity of universities, recognised as such at both the internal and the external level.

EULLearN aims to give a new wider European dimension and target to the network activities by developing Europe-wide actions and means of identifying and disseminating good practice.

THE "THEMATIC NETWORK"

EULLearN, with 112 partners from 31 European countries, supports the exchange of good practices and experiences through the work of three Targeted Thematic Groups (TTGs):

- TTG A LLL Methods & Environments, Common Core References, Learning Materials
  Leader: Helka Urponen, FI – Lapin Yliopisto

- TTG B National University Lifelong Learning Networks and European Co-operation
  Leader: Anikó Kálmán, HU – Debrecen University

- TTG C Accreditation, TUNING, APEL & ECATS (European Credit Accumulation & Transfer System in LLL)
  Leader: Aune Valk, EE – Tartu Ülikool

TTG A OUTPUTS

University Lifelong Learning Managers' e-Handbook

EULLearN—the European University Lifelong Learning Network—funded by the EU Socrates—Erasmus programme—aims to make a European area of lifelong learning (LLL) a reality by identifying coherent strategies and practical measures to develop LLL, especially in universities. EULLearN is working to make traditional systems much more open and flexible and to promote equal opportunities, so that individuals will be able to find educational opportunities to suit their needs and interests throughout their lives.

This e-publication—the European University Lifelong Learning: The Managers' Handbook—is a practical guide on the management of LLL in European universities, frequently termed university continuing education. The Handbook is the result of collaboration between experts in 31 European countries and benefits from their experience and knowledge of LLL, which is reflected both in the text on important management topics and in more than 70 case studies reflecting good practice in LLL across Europe.

This new edition (the fourth) reflects the developments which are changing higher education and LLL in Europe, e.g. European policy promoting LLL; ECTS, the Bologna process, and AP(E)L; e-learning and ICT; regional development activities; and regional, national, European and international collaboration on LLL. The text has been thoroughly revised, there are new authors, almost half the case studies are new

and others have been updated. The Handbook's new format on the web makes it easier for readers to access the contents and to find what interests them.

The Handbook is designed not only for those who are involved in deciding policy on LLL or who manage LLL in higher education, but also for students and teachers involved in the many courses concerned with LLL and e-learning. Although it principally concerns universities, much of the Handbook is also relevant to other providers of LLL for adults, such as colleges, employers, LLL businesses, the professions and voluntary organisations.

The Handbook provides a range of challenges for those involved in shaping both policy and practice which will promote the further development of LLL within higher education. It seeks to examine the contribution which university LLL can make to meeting new challenges in a knowledge society. It examines the range of programmes and services which are provided for individuals, business and society and provides a resource for exchanging good practice and experience. Its also contributes to the European Commission's database on good practice, providing knowledge and expertise from all over Europe.

In The Managers' Handbook, the authors of chapters—Helka Urponen, Valerie Mitchell, Mick Brennan, Danguole Rutkauskiene, Frank Moe and Rob Mark—address the following key aspects of the management of LLL:

1. The Management of University Lifelong Learning: An Overview.
2. A Policy for Lifelong Learning.
3. Regional Development and University Lifelong Learning Management.
4. Organisational Structures.
5. The Management of E-Learning.
6. Marketing.
7. Staff and Staff Development.
8. Financial Management.
9. Quality Assurance.
10. Looking to the Future: Universities and Lifelong Learning in the New Europe.

In addition, over 120 contributors from across Europe have contributed over 70 case studies on these topics, illustrating both the wealth and diversity of LLL and its management across Europe. Through the case studies, the Handbook provides examples of how Europe's universities are responding to the new economic, social,

political, cultural and environmental challenges posed by the new Europe and the knowledge society. These include changes in policy, regional development projects, ICT strategies, organisational changes, regional and European collaboration, marketing, developments in curricula and in teaching and learning, quality and accreditation models, and much more. There are also some case studies from non-university providers of LLL. In short, the Handbook provides policy makers and practitioners in LLL with a wealth of new ideas on how to implement change.

MASTERS PROGRAMME—LLL FOR REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

This is a multidisciplinary programme developed through EULLearN. It is offered in collaboration with a number of other European universities. It is designed to support students working in public and private agencies with an interest in regional development through the enhancement of lifelong learning opportunities.

Entrance requirements are normally an undergraduate degree and current involvement in teaching and administrative positions in university continuing education. Applications are also considered from those working in public and private agencies with an interest in regional development and lifelong learning.

This programme is taught in collaboration with the University of Lapland in Finland, Lund University in Sweden, the University of Tartu in Estonia, Kaunas University of Technology in Lithuania, Queens University Belfast in Northern Ireland and the University of Malta in Malta.

The programme objectives are to critically explore the ways and extent to which different stakeholders contribute through lifelong learning to social and economic development at a regional level within Europe. The programme also aims to enhance the capacity of practitioners in a range of organisations to improve policy and practice through engaging in critical inquiry.

To be awarded the degree a student must complete six taught modules and a cognate dissertation of 15,000 words (over a period of two-and-a-half to five years). For the award of the Postgraduate Diploma a student must complete six taught modules. For the award of the Postgraduate Certificate a student must complete three modules.

Taught modules within the programme are as follows and will be available either in the Autumn or Spring Semester:

I. Lifelong Learning, Concepts, Understandings & Implications (Malta):

This module will provide a framework for the analysis of the development of policy and provision in lifelong learning (LLL) at a regional level in Europe in the context of economic and social change, through developing an understanding of the forces that have shaped these changes.

II. Equality, Diversity and Inclusion in the Lifelong Learning Region (Queens, Belfast): This module will examine issues of equality, diversity and inclusion in developing the learning region. In particular, it will examine the meaning of equality in a context of European policy and practice in lifelong learning and the need to reach out to diverse groups of adults.

III. ICT and Flexible Teaching and Learning in Innovative Regions (Tartu): This module will examine the impact of ICT and flexible learning infrastructure on regional development. Four main themes will be covered: ICT in teaching and learning, the meaning and possibilities of ICT in regional development, ICT based models of operation in regions and e-governance.

IV. Knowledge and Technology Transfer in the Region (Kaunas): This module will examine issues in creation, acquisition, application as well as dissemination of knowledge. The latter process could be interpreted as the main condition for technology transfer. The impact of the innovation to the changes in community, and the concept, evolution and development of research and technology will be examined globally.

V. The Learning Region – Clusters, Stakeholders and Modes of Knowledge Creation in the Regional Context (Lund): This module provides an overall framework for life-long (continuous further education), life-wide (daily in the context of everyday life) and also life-deep learning (personal plans for life) in the regional context. The synergetic effects of collaboration among academia, industry and civic associations will be highlighted in different ways and related to the concept of Triple-Helix alliances in the learning region.

VI. Organisations and Networks in Trans-Regional Development (Lapland): This module will examine issues, organisations and networks in trans-regional development at both national and international levels. The starting point is that successful regional development requires close co-operation and integrated action between regional authorities, education and research institutions, and business. These issues will be analysed from the perspectives of network management, learning, governance, and social capital.

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VII.Dissertation (Stirling): A cognate dissertation will be focused around a small-scale research topic within the domain of the programme, and will be supervised at any one of the partner institutions.

All modules will be delivered through distance learning using the WebCT platform, and there will be a summer or winter school each year for face-to-face teaching.

The curriculum development on each of the six modules has been completed and the approval process was carried out at the end of January 2007 in Stirling (Scotland). A Memorandum of Agreement between the partner universities was signed in February 2007 and the modules of participating universities have been approved. Lund and Lapland University will be franchised from Stirling University, as they are legally unable to charge fees. The marketing plan and marketing will be implemented with TTGB (National LLL Networks) and other relevant bodies.

THE WELL—WEB-BASED EXCHANGE OF LIFELONG LEARNING

WELL is a modern information exchange portal on lifelong learning (LLL) for learners, teachers and other LLL stakeholders. It is an innovative tool responding to the emerging need to improve and facilitate the exchange of information and experiences and to enhance the development of LLL among countries. This is a place where the users can easily access the information, products and various means related to LLL.

WELL is the outcome of two Erasmus/Socrates projects, EULLearN (European University Lifelong Learning Network) and EULLearNDis (European University Lifelong Learning Network Dissemination). It encompasses the useful exchange of experience and good practices as well as the products of both projects such as the Manager's Handbook, the book on APEL "Recognising Experiential Learning: Practices in European Universities", Multidisciplinary Master Programme "Lifelong Learning for Regional Development", which are available on-line.

WELL is an excellent instrument for observation, analysis and innovation in compiling, analysing and self-testing the database on LLL. It is a portal with the elements of both a traditional encyclopaedia (created and maintained by experts) and a public—driven website (developed and updated by any visitor). The website is a convenient aid for dissemination of products on LLL and a one-stop place for the information related to LLL.

WELL can be characterised by three main features:

- Its target market segments are wide ranging and cover all areas of LLL society;
- The diverse constituencies have different information needs that are met by the dynamic nature of the portal;
- It uses a wide range of formats for the information it conveys.

WELL could be of great help and use for all involved and interested in LLL activities and products as well as a perfect place to share expertise and news on LLL.

TTG B OUTPUTS

EULLearN, through its Targeted Thematic Network TTG B, is contributing to the initiation, setting up, development and operation of National LLL Networks:

One of the contributions has been the implementation of an International Lifelong Learning Network Survey about the Lifelong Learning Networks of 16 European Partner Institutions, started in 2004 and published in 2007.

EULLearN also considers important the co-operation between higher education institutions and non-university bodies, as identification of coherent strategies and practical measures to foster university lifelong learning cannot be implemented in isolation.

Efforts to make lifelong learning a reality must be supported at the European level by sharing ideas, experiences, good practices and actions to establish a European area of lifelong learning for all stakeholders. The EULLearN TTG B has undertaken, with the assistance of local partners, the organisation of seminars to identify means and ways of enhancing this co-operation, and to find means and practices that will improve co-operation between universities and social and economic partners in the field of LLL and human resources management and development.

TTG C OUTPUTS

Diversity and change are the keywords that describe what universities face nowadays. We find different provisions of education within and outside of universities, diverse student bodies and a variety of teaching methods which are the result of widening participation and internationalisation of higher education across the whole of Europe. The Bologna process, discussed in greater detail in several other studies in this book, has brought along tremendous changes, mainly via curricula reform but also through alterations in quality assurance procedures and through the need to ensure

transparency. Recognising what is different from before, and translating it into new and understandable frameworks is of utmost importance in this context.

One key aspect of these changes is lifelong learning. As described in the project of the European University Lifelong Learning Network (EULLearN), lifelong learning is seen, on the one hand, as an opportunity to meet the needs of individuals, employers and institutions and on the other hand as a challenge to find ways of meeting those needs. "Most of the changes will require a move towards increased lifelong learning provided by universities. Making these changes while maintaining the best of the present university tradition (teaching based on high quality scholarship and research, and high levels of academic integrity, for example) will present a major challenge to Europe's universities." Under the slogan for 2004-2007 "From knowing to doing", EULLearN has undertaken several initiatives to support universities in increasing the diversity of what they have to offer in education, but also to deal with diversity and changes. Its thematic group on APEL (accreditation of prior experiential learning) has tried to put knowledge into practice by conducting a number of national seminars on APEL in eight European countries. To support that programme this book sets out to summarise some of the practices of APEL in European Universities, in the hope that by sharing good practices and a common understanding of APEL, more universities will be encouraged to develop provisions of their own.

APEL, the recognition and accreditation of prior experiential learning—what men and women have learned in non formal settings prior to university access—has been widely presented by European authorities, at least in the last 7-8 years, as an important educational principle and also as a tool that can help to deal with some of the problems which inevitably arise out of increasing diversity. The principle states that knowledge gained through experience can be considered equivalent to knowledge acquired in a classroom.

In some European universities, theoretical discussion on APEL has gone a long way and in parallel with practices. In others, some practices are burgeoning as a result of open-minded academics, frequently working in departments of lifelong learning or in touch with them, but there is a lack of discussion and a need for basic principles of action. In other universities, we can find some discussion, but no action. Recognising this, the book is an attempt to give a well-organised overview of what looks like a patchwork more than a single and consistent picture: a rich, varied, highly promising and often incomparable patchwork of experiences, provisions and regulations.

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The book is divided into three parts. Part I puts APEL in a wider context: it gives an account of how the practices of recognising experiential knowledge came about in countries like the USA, the United Kingdom, France and Canada, where it is widely used; it presents the connections between APEL—and, more widely, lifelong learning—and current trends in higher education as a consequence of the Bologna process; it analyses pedagogical aspects of recognition and tackles one central problem of diversity—terminology, the present use of different words to mean the same thing, or the opposite, the use of the same word to mean different things, which make APEL provisions so difficult to compare one with the other.

Part II shows very clearly that not only can APEL be used in different ways, but institutional procedures and policies, differ so that formal methods of assessment contrast sharply with the delicate approaches required to assess what has been learned from a personal biography.

APEL is a rich phenomenon which opens up a wide range of opportunities for extending the services offered by education. Part II is the second and largest section of the book. It gives down to earth, practical examples of how APEL is used in 8 countries for different purposes. Starting with the unique example from France, where APEL can be used for the awarding of a whole degree, the section moves through different cases, and single case studies or national overviews in Estonia, Italy, The Netherlands, Finland, the UK, Norway and Ireland. The aim of Part II is to show how wide is the range of opportunities for deploying schemes of APEL that can be put into practice. For example, it is far too narrow to think that the aim should always be to strive for a full degree, or solely for academic studies. Local communities or communities of practice, foreign students, academic staff, students affected, or even blocked, by regulation or curricula reforms, are some of the target groups to whom APEL has been oriented. In case of a highly regulated job market with clearly defined qualification requirements and strong trade unions, ideally everyone needs a qualification and APEL can help some to obtain one. Where the labour market is flexible and less regulated, it is mainly the motivation of individuals which is the prime reason for undertaking an APEL programme and then APEL is useful but in much smaller scale.

Part III considers some of the components which go to make up APEL as a powerful educational tool; by and large these components can be divided between tools for creating systems, tools for assessment of prior and experiential learning, and tools for supporting the learner. In doing so it offers a rudimentary map on which

the wide variety of case studies in Part II can be plotted to underline the differences between countries. Chapter 15 gives an overview of regulations which set the playing ground for the recognition of experiential learning; Chapter 16 discusses at length the steps of guidance and counselling in the process of recognition; Chapter 17 analyses assessment, the heart, as it were, of APEL, which is a necessary action before any recognition can take place; and finally Chapter 18 summarises how APEL can contribute to lifelong learning.

Thus, the third part of the book seeks to integrate best up-to-date knowledge on three interrelated practical issues as well as referring to examples of applying these in different countries. It summarises all key issues regarding APEL for those who really want to move "from knowing to doing".

The tools with which to do this (recognition) are largely in place. We only need to face up to the opportunities presented by this new educational world.

The cross-cultural psychologist John Berry wrote elegantly about facing diversity as opportunity diversity is a fact of life; whether it is the "spice" or the "irritant" to people is the fundamental psychological, social, cultural and political issue of our times (Berry, 1997, p. 138).

APEL can be either a spice or an irritant. It is a way of trying to understand and value both the problems and opportunities created by increasing practices of lifelong learning. Knowledge but also experience of practice is a prerequisite for valuing something. APEL is a one way of seeking a better understanding of one aspect of lifelong learning. It points to the value of the lifelong learning which takes place outside the traditional educational practice of universities. The hope is that this book may lead people across Europe to know more about APEL, to value it and encourage many more institutions to practice it in a way that fits best their own circumstances.

CONCLUSION

Throughout this brief review of the place of higher education in lifelong learning, the underlying theme has been one of more co-operation. There is a need for greater co-operation between university staff and the new learners, co-operation with their employers in some cases, and with their professional bodies. There is also a greater need for more co-operation between the national university bodies and national governments and between European organisations and the European Parliament and Commission. In order to ensure as far as possible a complete and seamless service,

collaboration between continuing education providers and providers of initial education are needed, not only with the full-time higher education providers (which are generally easy to maintain) but with the junior colleges and the schools as well.

The need for co-operation at all levels and among all the higher education stakeholders may seem obvious. The strength of the huge body of higher education providers in Europe working together must be greater than the combined strengths of the individual institutions. This collaborative model, however, is not one which is widely found at present. Working as an individual provider, the natural reaction of a university is to compete with those nearby. In this world, only the fittest will survive. The universities cannot abandon the ideas of the market: we must listen to our students, and potential students, and react to them; we must promote the courses we offer. The task for all of us, the representatives of European higher education institutions, European and national politicians, civil servants, the social partners and the professions is to find a collaborative way to make the necessary changes. The challenge to us is to find how this can be achieved over the coming years. A multilevel activity is needed that will connect most of the sectors, studies and actions in this huge and essentially horizontal area.

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LIFELONG LEARNING AND REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN HUNGARY: A NEW ROLE FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

BALÁZS NÉMETH

INTRODUCTION

European Universities must recognise the growing impact and constraint of educational and training partnerships in local and regional environment as a significant economic and public claim for generating knowledge and activating learning in new constructions called learning or knowledge regions, cities and organisations. This paper will consider some of the major drives causing Hungarian higher education to take lifelong learning and regional development to be a good reason to orientate towards new learning needs and new social and economic roles. Also, in the case of Pécs and its urban and regional setting, I will take the examples of the Pole-Development Project and the Pécs 2010 Cultural Capital Programme as frameworks within which higher education can promote economic change and social, intellectual exploration and growth.

By doing so, this study starts by briefly elaborating upon the necessity of functional changes of universities, taking into consideration European and national structural changes in higher education and reflections on the roles of universities tied to knowledge region modelling.

Finally, the study will make two conclusions regarding the chances of creating learning cities and learning regions in Hungary by accelerating co-operative efforts of higher education institutions in the subject area.

FUNCTIONAL CHANGES IN UNIVERSITIES

The European Commission (EC) referred, in a rather obvious way, to the key role of higher education in the realisation of lifelong learning in its communication Education & Training 2010 (EC 2003). This document reflected a very critical response to the status of the Lisbon process, having been adopted in 2000 and modified in 2005 (European Commission, 2000, 2005), and it connected its success

and the achievement of its goals to the inevitable development of education and training for a knowledge-based society development.

The Commission commented on the fact that only very few European Union (EU) member and candidate countries have taken seriously the initiative of lifelong learning and, moreover, only few countries have constructed coherent strategies on lifelong learning (EC, 2003.). The Communication underlined the importance of the working groups, established in 2001, researching relevant tools and the best practices be used to reach the concrete future objectives of education and training systems, as they put a clear and strong emphasis on the support and co-operation for national strategies on lifelong learning.

In the same report, there was a reference suggesting that the working groups connected the achievement of Europe of knowledge to the strenghtening role of higher education, referring, at the same time, to the Bologna declaration that aims at the creation of an European higher education area (Bologna declaration 1999.). They recognised and articulated the need for a central role of higher education in certification and assessment, promoting educational and training reforms, the application of quality assurance and the mutual recognition of diplomas, together with the development of a European monitoring system to modernise higher education in the member states of the EU.

The development of the training of adult educators within the frameworks of higher education must be understood as part of process to achieve a single European higher education area. It is also obvious that the Lisbon goals are far more broad and imply more complex roles for higher education than the objectives of the Bologna declaration, by putting innovation, social and economic partnership into the forefront for universities and other higher education institutions. Therefore, it is essential to raise the quality of continuing education and training of lecturers and researchers and to urge them into participating and managing relevant educational, training and research mobility programmes in and over Europe (van der Hijden, 2006: 2-3).

According to these requirements, peculiar issues must be clarified, such as financing higher education, institutional and functional reconstruction, career development and employment-oriented networking. The European Commission has, for four years, been representing a clear opinion that higher education must take on a tough role in achieving lifelong learning in order to imply the development of quality of education, training and research, based on co-operation and innovative approach.

The other essential source for the development of university lifelong learning is Trends 2003 of the European University Association (EUA), in which higher education institutions can explore elements of strategic shift according to roles of higher education in the execution of lifelong learning (EUA, 2003.).

The document refers to the following:

- Higher education institutions have a key role that through the implementation of the concept and strategy of lifelong learning discourses on functional reconstruction of continuing education and adult education could be formed towards directions incorporating focal points such as the quality development of adult education and training, competence development of adult educators and learner-centred assessment;

- Higher education institutions must be involved in the construction of strategies on lifelong learning;

- According to most European and national tendencies, higher education institutions are rather left out of the execution of lifelong learning and their innovative values and experience are not well used in practice;

- In the strategies of most universities in Central Europe lifelong learning is not embedded as a concept or an important objective;

- The issue of lifelong learning has accelerated the co-operative role of higher education towards market-oriented actors; however, some forms and contents of market positions of higher education have been rejected and opposed by some significant parts of academic groups with severe critics on not well-established roles;

- Even in countries like the United Kingdom, France and Finland, where issues like continuing education and lifelong learning have become important part of modern higher education activity, continuing education, adult education and further education are, again, sometimes not regarded as important academic activities with the same qualites as research in other faculties (EUA, 2003: 99).

Peter Jarvis has emphasied that, according to new roles and objectives for higher education, "diversified higher education has no alternative, but searching for and finding effective solution for the challenges affecting education and training. In countries where state roles are exaggerated and exceed a convenient status together with the existence of a reduced or non-functioning autonomy of higher education

institutions, a quite artificial and not really self-sustained higher education will not, consequently, be able to harmonise its functions and services to the expectations of the knowledge market. The question is, for how long the state can continue its traditional role, while universities representing a flexible training policy and innovation can maintain and involve significant groups of students in their educational and training programmes and challenging all rigidly operating higher education institutions. Universities, which recognise and represent the concept and strategic approach of lifelong learning, establish a contentful partnership with their local environment through the support and development of effective forms of learning" (Jarvis, 2001.).

These thoughts are worth elaborating on in the context of Hungarian higher education relations. The real strategic thinking on lifelong learning has not neglected the importance of connecting to social objectives, such as active citizenship, individual fulfillment and social inclusion, and economic employment priorities, like employability and adaptability. It has, at the same time, urged and pointed out the making of valuable and coherent national strategies in which there is a significant role given to higher education institutions.

On the other hand, current surveys on university lifelong learning indicate that even the term is misleading, for many universities and might reflect conceptual misunderstandings by mixing up continuing education activities with part-time initial education for disadvantaged groups (EUA, 2007: 62). And still, lifelong learning has not become a core issue of the instutional reforms of many universities. Moreover, lifelong learning, such as adult education, has had to develop from the margins and move slowly to the centres of processes. It is clear that as observed in the *Trends V. Report* it is mainly because of economic imperatives that universities have come closer to lifelong learning and attached the theme to bringing a more educated and skilled workforce to the labour market (EUA, 2007: 62).

According to major social and demographic trends, main issues in adult education and learning reflect the same scenario (EAEA, 2006.). Today, widening access is the key agenda and it has also become evident that universities must work closely with local and regional stakeholders in case they want to successfully achieve a better and more settled social and economic status for the near future. Therefore, the strategic development of lifelong learning is combined today with possibilities in regional development and co-operation (EUA, 2007: 65).

A variety of stakeholders have become interested in updating skills and knowledge of staff and other workforces in order to either compete on the market with better products or to develop better services for the public. The latter is more than clear for local and regional authorities, some of whom apply strong and complex procedures in order to become learning organisations, and relevant surveys also point out that process (www.lilaraproject.com).

Today most higher education institutions of the EU member states have already met the term lifelong learning and have given high priority to it amongst other goals. While many of the universities offer a variety of educational constructionss and refer to their roles in regional developent either through distance education or through networking with local and regional stakeholders (EUA, 2007:65), very little attention has yet been paid to the need to critically analyse national lifelong learning strategies at a European level.

The EUA *Trends IV Report* on the implementation of the Bologna structure in 2005 already underlined the topic of recognition of non-formal/non-academic qualifications by indicating that "the wider theme of lifelong learning that has been very much neglected so far in the Bologna-discussions" in spite of many factors claiming APEL (Accreditation of Prior Experimantal Learning) and APL (Accreditaion of Prior Learning) have become more visible because of the Lisbon agenda, the European ageing population trend or the European Quality Framework (EQF) framework for higher education and vocational training. Yet prior learning is another issue that has been mostly underestimated by higher education institutions, apart form ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) development, even if local and regional circumstances reflect that issue as one of the most important factors to stimulate learning in adult and later life (EUA, 2005: 25; van der Hijden, 2007: 5-7).

Again in 2005, the European University Association announced the Glasgow declaration which, by striving for strong universities with a strong Europe, clearly attached the role of universities in networking so as to promote innovation and transfer at regional level by taking all necessary financial tools to research and research-based teaching (EUA, 2005: 4). But a problem with such declarations is that it hardly influences politicians or ministries at a national level to understand the roles of lifelong learning in a more coherent and holistic spectrum and to demostrate the understanding of a strictly Bologna-related reconstruction of higher education when talking of lifelong learning. The narrow understanding of lifelong learning is still,

therefore, a problem for both policy makers, stakeholders and for many traditional academics within higher education, especially in the former socialist countries.

One reason for this is the mere shift from a monolitic political and economic structure into the hegemonistic and ever-changing world of market economy, where the former critical thinking and active citizenship is closed into narrow understanding and grounds or simply marginalised as an intellectual approach.

LIFELONG LEARNING IN HUNGARY

In Hungary, lifelong learning mainly refers to widening participation and the acceleration of part-time and distance/e-education, and learning strongly attached to labour market needs and economic preferences. This approach and understanding is clearly reflected in the main components of the Hungarian government's lifelong learning strategy and in the slowly emerging forum of national university lifelong learning since the turn of the millenium.

Seven years ago, there were at the most five universities interested in endorsing the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning dealing with Employability and Active Citizenship, but today, lifelong learning has become one of the bells calling attention for European initiatives in education, training and learning (Hungarian Folk High School Society, 2001.).

In 2003, fifteen Hungarian state universities, making use of the network advice on continuing education from relevant European universities established the Hungarian Universities' Lifelong Learning Network (MELLearN) in order to strenghten the role of universities in the understanding and development of lifelong learning in and outside higher education (www.mellearn.hu).

This organisation has taken the role of acting as an outstanding academic forum to initiate discussion on certain issues related to lifelong learning in Europe and mainly in Hungary, and to start scrutinizing relevant topics in the theory and practice of lifelong learning in working groups. This networking of Hungarian universities has become very succesful and the organisation has so far held three annual national and international conferences on lifelong learning related to current themes and matters, lastly on the issue of lifelong learning networking co-operation of higher education institutions as regional knowledge centres.

Figure 1. Hungarian University Lifelong Learning Network

Source: www.mellearn.hu

This notwithstanding, I share the view of Jarvis, who mentions lifelong learning and the learning society in his new book on globalisation, that it would probably be true to say that initiators of learning cities and regions are educators although support for the movement needs to come from a wider spread of sources" (Jarvis, 2007:117).

This is the same with promoting a holistic lifelong learning strategy and its implication in a national context. Maybe educators, most of whom come from an adult education background, consider wrongly that policy makers would also advocate a holistic understanding and implication of lifelong learning in national strategy making. I think there are more rational and straightforward constraints which make politicians and policy makers recognise the role and advances of the lifelong learning paradigm.

I agree with the recognition that policy makers, business representatives and some university leaders and even researchers emphasise that additional, wider and more modern channels are needed to promote an advanced flow of knowledge to practice and commercialisation, and, also, that the relevance of university education and research development should be a central issue of university reforms (Reichert, 2006: 16).

In the case of Hungary, as I demonstrate in a further section of this study, the concept of the Pole-Development will clearly demonstrate such a need from the outside public, such as economic claims, changes in social demands and articulation of a need for flexible higher education services. Even university representatives turn away from considering higher education as the only pure source of knowledge and openly respond to the knowledge and innovation from economy reflecting practice by

helping them in reconstructing problems and identifying core matters of research in order to orientate to new comptence needs. Local and regional alliances could be used for implementing strategies by taking universities, regional public agencies/authorities and companies together in a new relationship of mutual actions and benefits.

The knowledge economy and knowledge production have become important issues in many countries, regions and cities, with active citizens wanting to influence their lives, chances and their own and their community's future. I share the view of Reichert, who underlines the importance of incorporating the public into framing alliances at the local and regional level to foster knowledge by making use of its concerns and ideas very seriously (Reichert, 2006: 17).

Hungarian universities could move to the centre of more innovative economic and cultural modelling since, at least in principle, they are the holders and actors of innovation capacity and could play a role as as an interface to promote research and development in a more applicability-centred approach. Some Hungarian universities have resisted those changes and it is generally clear that universities as institutions have been playing a rather reactive and not necessarily active role when responding to new demands. It is clearly reflected in the low level in the use of ICT, distance education or e-learning, blended learning models in general, however, significant application of distance learning models appear through the use of media, web-based lecturing in some of the Hungarian universities (e.g. UNIV TV at the University of Pécs, www.pte.hu).

And yet, the legacy of the Hungarian Universities' Lifelong Learning Network (MELLEARN) is partially to focus on new areas of institutional development discussions and decision making, and to enhance new and adaptable professional competences of academic staff and of administration. New demands on universities occur in the planning and outlining partnership and co-operation models in the region, resulting in projects and esperiments in new co-operation imnstruments and methodology (Reichert, 2006:21).

According to the classification of Hungarian univerisities involved in the development of lifelong learning, it must be noted that the four models of roles of universities Reichert identifies can be found in all universities immediately, however, each university may represent a rather individual and stronger appearance in one of the four views generally (Reichert, 2006: 23).

The four views—models classified by Reicher are:

- *The sober view*—In this model, the university is a pure knowledge-based institution, and differs from other knowledge-based businesses in having more experts.

Role: Exchanging knowledge and knowledge workers with other institutions in the region;

- *The social view* of the university sees the institution as an important critical actor and balancing factor to governing forces and attitudes. It focuses on the public role of the university to widen access to knowledge.

Role: Dialogue with regional actors so as to cover needs and react to them;

- *The creative view* of the university reflects an institution focusing on creative potential of individuals and of teams, it reserves resources, carries out dialogue with relevant partners.

Role: The university acts in relation with mutual stimuli and support of regional actors to benefit from creative environments;

- *The purist view* of the university is a traditional one, in which the university keeps critical distance from its social, political, and economic environment in order to preserve its innovative potential.

Role: Unidirectional knowledge transfer (Reichert, 2006: 23).

I think each of these views currently appears in each Hungarian university management culture, education and training philosophy and practice, and, also, in research and development practice. One must stay critical and indicate that the Hungarian lifelong learning strategy indicates the dominance of first, second and fourth views and roles, and the quick emergence of the third since the turn of the millenium with more innovative and co-operative management and policy-development activity occuring such as the ones to be explored as follows.

**Why is the current strategy on lifelong learning a reductionist one?**

Reductionist or closed co-ordination is a label describing a kind of strategy-making which does not invole enough experts and researchers to represent relevant higher education based research groups, units, etc. dealing with lifelong learning that would enable avoiding the appearance and influence of another reductionist model as a strategy, namely, to compose a strategy completely and exclusively subordinated

to employment policy, human resources development operative programmes and its educational and training approaches, frames.

The planning and discussion of the Hungarian strategy on lifelong learning have not yet formally incorporated higher education institutions to legitimate the process and the content of the strategy itself.

However, there are some useful and appropriate changes that could be initiated in the lifelong learning strategy for Hungary. The strategy should clearly refer to major EU documents which have influenced the discussion on the role and elements of lifelong learning, such as the famous white papers from 1993 and 1995 (White Paper on Growth, Employability and Competitiveness, 1993; White Paper on Teaching and Learning. Towards the Learning Society, 1995, European Commission, Brussels-Europ, 1994, 1995.) and which underline the impact of education and training and a modern understanding of continuous learning as keys to develop Europe.

Table 1. Overall improvement of the quality of life
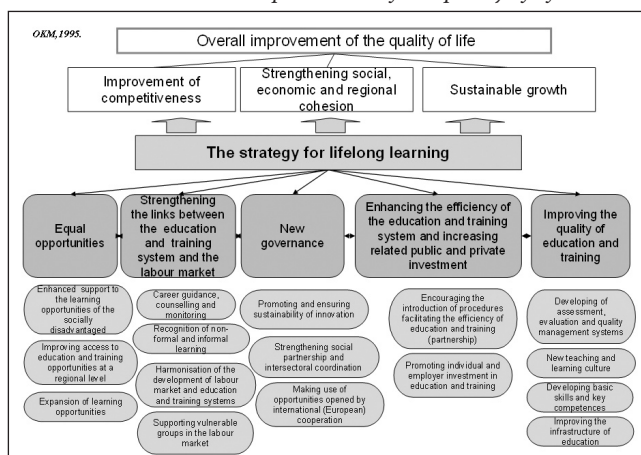
Source: Hungarian Ministry of Education, 2005.
http://www.okm.gov.hu/doc/upload/200602/kiadvany_hungarian_strategy.pdf

However, a European strategy or strategy-making on lifelong learning can be identified through the publication of the important working paper, the *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning*, in the fall of 2000. That signified the end of an internal period that started with 1996, designated as an European year of lifelong learning, and the start of another period through the so-called *Memorandum debate* to openly connect

employability and active citizenship as objectives of lifelong learning through six key messages, to be modified into six priorities of action a year later.

Table 1, which indicates the structure of the *Hungarian lifelong learning strategy*, shows six main issues as main actions of priorities; however, they are rather a mixture of European strategic points of lifelong learning driven by the dominance of such economic attributes as competitiveness and growth. Critical approaches would underline the missing link towards active citizenship and the slow speed of development programmes on social cohesion through regional partnership and new governance since the launch of the strategy with the participation of higher education and the lack of appearance of adult/second chance schooling.

When identifying the main structural problems of the strategy, one must clearly indicate that the strategy should openly respond to the three objectives of the *Open Method of Co-ordination (OMC)*. These are the following: quality development of education and training systems; development of access to education and training; the development of co-operation and partnership inside and especially outside the education and training system, in vertical and horizontal dimensions, focusing on close relations with the economic, civic, political sectors and, finally, towards the individual (Szilágyi, 2005.).

Unfortunately, relevant ministries have not yet emphasized the application of co-operation amongst governmental branches to support the implementation of such an essential public policy, and so the Hungarian strategy on lifelong learning may only result in a partial paradigm-shift, reflected in education and training and employment policy, but not at all relevant to the inclusion of youth policy, cultural, environmental, or health policies. This is to be changed and balanced in the policy development for 2008 and beyond.

Table 2: Regional development poles and axes
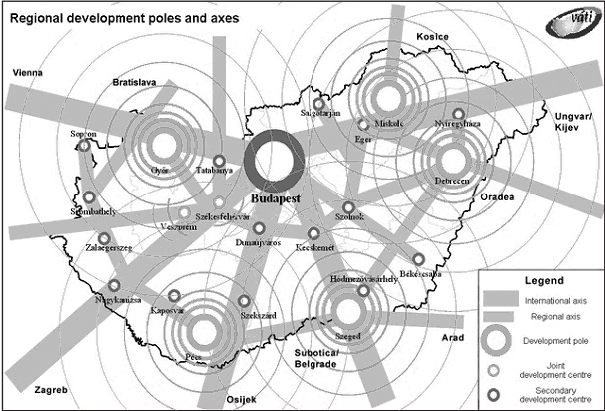
Source: *VÁTI PBC Budapest, 2006.*
(VÁTI Hungarian Public Nonprofit Company for Regional Development and Town Planning)

POLE STRATEGY FOR COMPETITIVENESS AND THE ROLE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Between 2007 and 2013, in the second phase of the National Development Plan, the government—using resources provided by the European Union—plans to invest approximately one hundred billion Hungarian forints in each regional centre across the country, so that they can counterbalance the Budapest-centred national economy as poles of growth/competitiveness, and generate development in their particular regions (Please find the national chart for the *Regional Development Poles and Axes* in previous table!).

The Pole Strategy of competitiveness designed by Pécs is called "the pole of quality of life" and is built on the development of three industries: health care, environment and culture. This service-like pole of competitiveness is aimed at establishing a network of service in the city and the region involving a broader sense of human health (including physical, mental and social well-being) with a strong input from the economy and of higher education. The main goal is to launch information technological development projects and training programmes through which Pécs can become a more habitable city and its region a more habitable region, while at the same time setting its economy on a new course.

As a result of the implementation of this Pole Strategy, the newly established infrastructure will, according to output plans, attract more people from the country and abroad to settle in Pécs, in particular elderly generations and young adults. The former group may be attracted by a high-quality health-care infrastructure that serves the needs of elderly people suffering from chronic diseases and locomotive problems requiring hospice services and care, as well as by the natural endowments of the city and the region (and the low price of real estate); while the latter may be drawn by the University and the high-quality cultural services which Pécs can offer.

The implementation of the Pole Strategy will most likely also serve tourism in the region, primarily through the expansion of health-care, heritage, cultural and 'gastronomic' tourism. This strategic view is based partly on principles of sustainable growth, ecological awareness, social integration of people with disabilities, social solidarity and lifelong education, and partly on the evaluation of the social and economic consequences of a European demographic trend: lifespan is prolonged and the ratio of elderly age groups in society is increasing.

In accordance with these trends, the Pole Strategy marks a trajectory of development such as development of health rehabilitation centres and para-sporting facilities, the establishment of residential parks for elderly people or the development of food products offering healthy nutrition. Furthermore, it implies the establishment of an environmental research centre, the development of technology of land rehabilitation and the introduction of a regional system of ecological economy, together with the design of environmental protection technologies and development of urban rehabilitation, cultural tourism and digital television broadcasting.

The section of the pole strategy dealing with cultural industry directly refers primarily to the European Capital of Culture application among its "most important strategic elements". (Please find detailed chart in the table under on: Pécs, the Pole of Quality of Life!).

Table 3: Pécs, the Pole of Quality Life
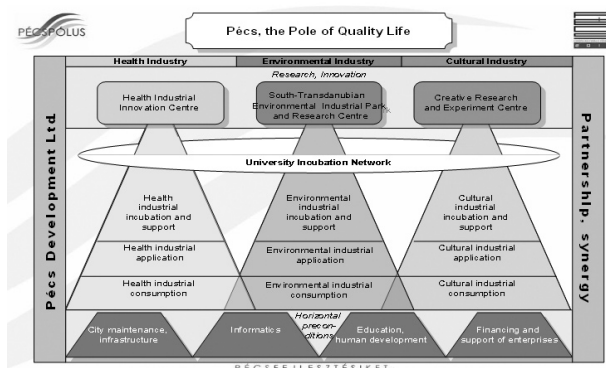
Source: Pécs Development Ltd., 2006.
www.pecspolus.hu

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF THE EUROPEAN CULTURAL CAPITAL—PÉCS, 2010

The Pécs application for the 2010 Cultural Capital of Europe was written and edited on the basis of the following: the development projects should be able to ensure that Pécs has cultural and artistic spaces which are sufficient in number; size and quality for the programmes of the European Capital of Culture year, and which promote the utilisation of the city's economic potential and the development of the creative industry and (cultural) tourism.

It was clearly indicated in the official application that cultural institutions in Pécs are made compatible with those of the European Union so that they can fulfil international functions. The development plans, according to the goals of the city, had to meet fundamental cultural tedencies and aim to revive the urban character of distinguished city quarters by making the city attractive for young people and result in an international regional radiating impact. Having won the European Cultural Capital title, the project was closely connected to the mid-term development concepts of the city, which has currently been represented by the pole strategy.

DEVELOPMENT MODELS IN THE PÉCS 2010 EUROPEAN CULTURAL CAPITAL APPLICATION

The development package of the application comprises three urban development models

1) Some are characteristically propelling projects: large-scale investment projects intended to revive underdeveloped, run-down city quarters with heterogeneous architectural elements. These projects are expected to raise the value of their environment, attract private investors and prepare the ground for a large-scale transformation in the given area.

2) The largest component of the development package involves the establishment of a cultural quarter in a former large industrial site, the historic buildings of the Zsolnay Porcelain Factory. The primary goal of the establishment of this cultural district is not so much to exert a stimulating influence on the immediate environment, but rather to create a dense, internal creative medium by making the district at once a scene of production and consumption, a mixture of different creative, entertaining and educational functions.

3) The third model is a catalyst-like intervention through the development of public spaces: the revival of individual city quarters can be accomplished not only by means of large-scale construction work but also by the renewal and transformation of public spaces. The renewal of a park, square or street may be a catalyst for development in a given neighbourhood; it may attract new residents, shops and investors (Takáts, 2005.)

EDUCATION AND LEARNING—AN IDENTICAL PREPARATORY YEAR FOR 2007 AS PART OF THE PÉCS2010 CULTURAL CAPITAL PROGRAMME

The reason why the City of Pécs gave priority to education and learning in 2007 was that 2007 is the 100th anniversary of the National Congress of Free Education, held in Pécs in 1907, where the Hungarian intellectual elite discussed the role and tasks of—and programme for— intellectuals and of intelligentsia in the 20th century. This anniversary provides a task to compare and evaluate challenges that European and Hungarian intellectuals and intelligentsia (the social elite with the power of knowledge and information) face in the 21st century, as well as the interconnections of globalisation and locality and the effects and consequences of the newly established

information technology society. In addition, there will also be a chance to put challenges, education and a learning face into a local and regional environment, namely, to consider the roles of local and regional stakeholders in education, training, culture and sciences by creating a challenging model for the city and establish Pécs as a learning city for September, 2007 with discussions organised to analyse the crisis in the role of the university, and how this role can be changed in the future; the revival of art after the "death of art history"; and the role of tradition in the age of digital databases and digital media. The 1907 congress was one of the programmes of the National Exhibition and Fair of Pécs which lasted for a half-year, and which according to the contemporary press attracted one million visitors. One hundred years ago a separate city quarter was erected by setting up pavilions to display industrial, mining, artistic and wine products. The main organiser of the event, Miklós Zsolnay, wished to open the doors towards the Balkans by means of this exhibition, and complement the system of relations between industry and trade in Southern Transdanubia. The series of events in 2007 may be complemented by an exhibition and fair which displays the newest technology for culture and education.

However, 2007 is not centred only on teaching—that is, on knowledge and the mediation of culture—but also on problems of learning and the reception of knowledge. The EU document entitled "Education and Training 2010" has as its main goal the establishment of co-operative relations between culture, education, science and economy, ensuring the necessary conditions for lifelong education and learning, and giving priority to the role of the university in its endeavour to create a Europe of Knowledge in local and regional partnership models.

The programmes organised in the "preparatory years" could be devoted to discussing how these goals have been achieved in the country, while for 2010Pécs the city could host an international conference to review the European lessons of the programme. The 2007 "preparatory year" places primary emphasis on the University of Pécs. For the University, the year 2007 and subsequently the year 2010 may involve a year of conferences where it can establish co-operation with various partners through which its innovative power can be channelled into the local economy.

CONCLUSIONS

I do believe that higher education institutions will rapidly change and try to meet the needs of the outside worlds. They will—as Jarvis points it out—involve

many forms of higher learning but in different organisational structures and with different educational methodology and content, and therefore they will reflect the fragmentation of society (Jarvis, 2001: 35).

At the same time, universities must recognise new local and regional roles in the following aspects: they have to join in economic development through educational and research partnership and innovation by co-operating with stakeholders such as local councils, chambers of commerce and industry, trade unions, companies from big to small and medium size, etc.

However, they have to realise that whilst many of the models for searching new roles, such as learning region, knowledge region, pole strategy/development or the learning city, seem rather optimistic, the world of work, as Jarvis indicates, is rather realistically tied to interest and is less visionary (Jarvis, 2007: 117).

It is important to state, on the other hand, that a very significant role of the university in local and regional context is to promote critical thinking and active citizenship. That is why UNESCO connected lifelong learning and active citizenship to higher education. I believe that the learning city and region model that universities participate in or even co-ordinate should underline that necessity of that social mission, for apart from the social role of disseminating knowledge for lifelong learners, universities must be open and scrutinise current social needs of learning and to safeguard scientific value whereever and whenever it is endangered (UNESCO, 2001.). Moreover, the rediscovered geographical limits and divisions are more than important for universities. Duke refers to the community service of universities as "the third leg", I believe the "fourth leg" might be the co-operative manner in a local and regional revival (Duke, 2002.).

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"A STARTING POINT"
THE CONTRIBUTION OF A SECONDARY GRAMMAR SCHOOL OF THE ROMANY ETHNIC MINORITY TO LIFELONG LEARNING[1]

RENÁTA ANNA DEZSŐ

INTRODUCTION

Today the most essential requirement of lifelong learning in Hungary is to graduate from high-school, obviously attainable during secondary education. The present study investigates the results of the Second Chance Department of Gandhi Secondary Grammar School, Pécs. The uniqueness of this institution is unquestionable, considering that it was founded as the very first Romany ethnic minority nationality secondary grammar school in Europe. Myself, the author of this study have been working there as a teacher of English for nearly ten years.

This paper attempts to study some basic questions concerning the educational challenges of the Romany living in Hungary. First I provide a brief historical review of the nationality status and the basic characteristics of this sector of the population, and I point out the specifics of the Southern Transdanubian Region of Hungary. Then I study the educational index of the Romany at the beginning of the 1990s, underlining the importance of secondary education. Next I outline the institutions of secondary education that focus on the social integration of the Romany ethnic minority in the Southern Transdanubian Region of Hungary. Finally I summarise the results of a questionnaire that was filled in by students graduating in 2007 from the Second Chance Department of Gandhi Secondary Grammar School and I point out the findings of a series of interviews that I carried out between November, 2006 and March, 2007 with teachers and graduated students of the institution. We see the ways the school reacts to the real needs of its target group by giving them a chance to integrate socially and a starting point for lifelong learning.

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[1] This paper introduces the basic findings of the M.Ph. thesis of the author, see Dezső (2007).

CONSIDERABLE ISSUES

Romany in Hungary

There are several debates on when exactly the Romany first settled in Hungary[2] but the fact that we have been living together for hundreds of years is unquestionable. The date July 7th, 1993 is a milestone in the history of the Romany in our country as this was the day when the Hungarian Parliament passed the Law on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities including the Romany people. A legislative solution itself only probably remains a piece of paper if relevant actions do not follow it. Prejudice or fear of the unknown cannot be stopped by means of law. This is why emphasising the extreme importance of education is undoubtedly significant. From the date July 7th, 1993, in a very spectacular effort, Hungary's Gypsies started to prove that besides other national minorities (e. g. German, Croat) the Romany are able to establish their own educational institutions.

It is extremely dangerous to generalise the characteristics of a national ethnic minority—still, referring to a recent study (Babusik, 2007) the following criteria are overrepresented in the case of the majority of Romany living in Hungary. In spite of high fertility rates, due to extremely high mortality rates of the Romany their average expected lifetime is 10 years less than that of the majority of the population. Poor markers of health and poverty factors, together with the significant rate of unemployment, exclude the Romany from our society. Specifics of regional disadvantages and lack of quality education also add to the challenges relevant policy makers have to face.

The Southern Transdanubian Region of Hungary

This region has been one of the most backward parts of Hungary for almost two decades now. (Cserti 2003: 97) summarises the effects of the most significant negative processes, the economical crises after the political changes in Hungary in the early 1990s.

The collapse of coal mining of Mecsek Hills and the mouldering of timber companies transfigured the everyday life of people living in the region. Economical challenges had their effects on the education of this part of the country as well. Vocational schools, the "first step institutions" of Romany social mobility remained with occupations that no longer had a real economy market value. The special structure

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[2] Crowe, D. M. (1994).

of settlements in Southern Transdanubia (i.e. very small, remote villages with high representation of Romany inhabitants) also intensified the process of exclusion.

A foreign political issue, the war in Yugoslavia and its negative economical consequences added to the regional challenge. Consuming and trading Croats disappeared from both legal and illegal markets of this part of the country.

Those who had a slight chance for a change in the labour market moved away from the region—the ones that stayed are those who are marginalised: most of them Romany without any perspective of conforming to the EU. The flow of the labour force for these people without relevant skills, occupation and the lack of information remains nothing but a distant image.

Educational Index of the Romany in Hungary in 1993
There is research outcome evidence (Table 1) that proves what an urgent issue the education of the Romany was right after the political changes of the 1990s—and the challenge is still there.

Table 1. Educational Index of the Romany Living in Hungary in 1993 (%)

Age	No school	Unfinished primary	Completed primary	Vocational secondary	Secondary w/ GCSE	College
14- 19	1,5	32,4	55,3	10,4	0,4	0,0
20- 29	1,7	22,4	59,7	14,5	1,7	0,0
30- 39	4,6	32,5	47,4	12,5	2,5	0,3
40- 49	10,1	39,7	40,8	7,4	1,4	0,6
50- 59	32,0	42,3	20,5	3,7	1,4	0,2
60- 69	39,6	51,2	6,4	2,1	0,4	0,4
70-	50,9	40,2	7,8	1,0	0,0	0,0

Source: Kemény – Havas – Kertesi (1997).

In the year of the research, of the studied population the age group below 30 did not participate in higher education at all. The highest percentage of Romany with a college or university degree was 0.6% among the 40-49 age range. The most typical education was the eight completed primary classes among the age group 14-49. Completed vocational training was highest (14.5%) among 20-29 year olds, whereas those who graduated from school were almost not represented at all. Romany aged 30-39 had the most significant representation amongst those who completed secondary grammar education—still the highest rank in their case means 2.5%.

Why Secondary Grammar Schools?

It is fashionable and always modern to talk about lifelong learning and equal chances. In Hungary if one cannot complete a secondary school that gives him or her GSCE —most vocational schools do not give the chance of that—than the person is almost a hundred per cent lost in the labour market. As a well known Hungarian economist suggests (Kertesi, 2005), secondary education offering a graduation ("A levels") is a cut off point between those—both Romany and non-Romany (!)—who will always be left behind and those who get a chance to integrate as useful members of our society.

Adult Education

The challenge of teaching the mature has several specific features. The learning disabilities of most adults derive from the failures they have been through during their learning experience. In most cases they simply have not been taught how to study, they have not enjoyed success and therefore they lack motivation. Absence of time adds to the condition in that a significant number of adult learners drop out.

Though education itself cannot solve the problems of social deprivation, discrimination or poverty it can contribute to alleviate them. Belonging to the disadvantaged is basically a heredity condition (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990); however, positive learning patterns also become models of the second generation of those who learn as adults. Reproduction of this kind is a considerably significant issue, especially concerning the groups living on the periphery of our societies.

Three Model Institutions of Secondary Education that Focus on the Social Integration of the Romany Ethnic National Minority in the Southern Transdanubian Region of Hungary

In spite of regional challenges, today this part of the country has become the platform of the most significant educational centres for the Romany people. Table 2 introduces these institutions from certain significant perspectives.[3]

The first cocoon, still the only Romany ethnic minority secondary grammar school both in Hungary and throughout Europe, is the Gandhi[4] Secondary Grammar and Boarding School, located in Pécs. This school started its work in February 1994,

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[3] A possible explanation of the connection among these institutions is the next step of the author's project.
[4] The school received its name from Mahatma Gandhi, who is a symbol of passive disobedience. The connection with India is due to the common belief according to which the Romany migrated to Europe from there.

offering a six and a half year long education with boarding facilities for students aged 12. Some years' experience confirmed that at such an early age it is difficult for both the children and their families to stay away from one another, so the leadership of the school introduced a new structure. Today teenagers of 14 or 15 start a four or five year long secondary education at Gandhi. In the early days the school was run by a private foundation compiled by mostly liberal individuals, but after a few years the government recognised the importance of the institution and became its supporter. In 1995 the private foundation became a public one.

Not that much later, two years after Gandhi had been operating, in 1996, a new educational centre was established in the romantic settlement of Mánfa. Collegium Martineum offers boarding facilities to Romany students who are completing their secondary education—either grammar or vocational—at different non-minority schools of the region, mostly in Komló and Pécs. This institution started with the help of the Soros foundation and annually gives boarding facilities to around 50 students.

Table 2. Pioneer Educational Institutions of the Romany of the Southern Transdanubian Region in Hungary

Name of the institution/ department	Gandhi Secondary Grammar and Boarding School	Second Chance Department of Gandhi Secondary Grammar School	Collegium Martineum	Small Tiger Vocational and Secondary Grammar School
Target group	12/14+	18+	14+	14+/18+
Type of institution	"First Chance", education and boarding	Second Chance, education mostly, boarding possible	"First chance", boarding	Second chance education "at the scene"
Number of students (approx/average)	220	200	50	120
Classes started in	February, 1994	September, 2002	September, 1996	September, 2004
Ran/supported by	Public Foundation (background institution of the HMEC*)	Public Foundation (background institution of the HMEC)	Soros Foundation	"The Gate of the Doctrine" Buddhist Church

Sources: www.gimn-gandhi.hu, www.kistigris.hu, *www.collegiummartineum.hu*
Hungarian Ministry of Education and Culture

Considering the marginalised educational situation of the Romany (Table 2) five years ago, in September 2002 Gandhi launched a department for adults, the Second Chance Department of the Gandhi Secondary Grammar School. The number of students graduating from this department is growing year by year (Table 3), in the first year of graduation (2004) being 22, whereas at the latest exam (2007) 59 people passed their school-leaving exams. The department is open to non Romany candidates as well, the rate of Romany and non Romany students is approximately 50%-50%, meaning about 200 people altogether at different grades.

Table 3. Adult Students Who Obtained GCSE at Gandhi Secondary Grammar School

School year	2003/2004	2005/2006	2006/2007
Number of Students	22	34	59

Source: Dezső (2007).

The Small Tiger (Kistigris) Vocational and Secondary Grammar School is also a unique educational experiment. Run by the Hungarian Buddhist Church, The Gate of the Doctrine (Tan Kapuja), the institution can be found at several locations. Its original idea was to educate Romany "in situ", in the small villages where they live. Today, besides Pettend, Alsószentmárton, Sellye and Gilvánfa students can also attend classes in larger settlements, such as Komló and Pécs. The number of the students is constantly growing, the target group of the institution is the Romany population both under and above 18[5], who previously have faced failures at school.

The three patterns are models that do not compete in the relevant educational field but complement one another. The existence of similar institutions in other regions, especially in the North East of Hungary, is more than desirable and is an urging challenge for Hungarian policy makers.

RECENT RESEARCH RESULTS AT THE SECOND CHANCE DEPARTMENT OF GANDHI SECONDARY GRAMMAR SCHOOL, PÉCS

The Goal of the Research

The Second Chance Department of the school started only five years ago. Between November, 2006 and April, 2007 I carried out research on the integrative role of and the innovative educational methods applied at the Second Chance Department of

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[5] Official age of entry into majority in Hungary.

Gandhi Secondary Grammar School. My supposition was that there is connection between the innovative educational methods that are being used during the teaching-learning process and the integration being realised at the department. Additionally, my goal was to demonstrate that it was well worth challenging the traditionally widespread, mainly frontal teaching techniques in Hungary during the process of the education of disadvantaged target groups of learners.

In order to underpin my premise I applied two basic methods. I constructed a questionnaire of 27 questions that was answered by the graduating students of the department, and carried out seven in-depth interviews—two of which were pair interviewsn—among the teachers and students who had already graduated in earlier school years.

The Questionnaire Survey

96% of the graduating evening and correspondence classes of the department filled out the questionnaire after having completed their autumn semester exams in January, 2007. They answered questions about their sex, age, etnicity, primary studies, financial circumstances, occupation and habitation. I also required information on their recent studies: their motivation, the reason they chose this particular school, their information source on the existence of the institution, the type of classes (evening or correspondence) they attend, their future plans concerning possible further studies and likely acceptance on positive changes regarding their position in the labour market. One third of the questions investigated the informants' prejudices and personal contribution to social integration and inclusion. While processing data I compared the results I had compiled with those of a nationwide survey (Mayer, 2007).

Roughly half of the contributors were aged 20-30, one third of them 30-40 and nearly 15% above 40, more than two thirds of the students being women. These rates correspond with the nationwide data (Mayer, 2007: 77-78). Although generally in Hungary "the secondary education of adults essentially takes place in the schools of people living in towns and cities" (Mayer, 2007: 76), at the studied department the percentage of villagers is over 40%. Of the Romany students, 100% live in villages, meaning that those who come from the furthest distances are Romany, sacrificing the greatest amount of money and time for the sake of their secondary education.

Among those who graduated in 2007, 40.68% of the students identified themselves as Romany. The indicators of occupation are not ethno-specific. The schooling of the

informants' parents is according to data discussed above, and the Romany are more disadvantaged in this respect. Also, considering their financial circumstances the Romany are somewhat poorer than the others. Bearing these differences in mind the social status of the informants does not differ as regards their etnicity to an extent that would enable them to participate in personal interactions.

As for the motivation of education, the findings of the survey harmonise with one of the basic messages of this paper. Most of the informants know that they do not have a chance either to continue their studies or occupy reasonable places in the labour market—this is why they have decided to complete their secondary grammar education. 45.8% of the students chose this particular school because they had heard about its student-friendly education.

80% of the contributors declared that they had become friends with their fellow students of different ethnic origin. There was only one informant who clearly mentioned her previously existing prejudice about the Romany ("being aggressive, dirty and loud"). I concluded from some control questions that other forms of prejudice had been present before starting the classes, such as "they do not fight to getting any further", "there is not a decent one among them", "they are not able to study", "they do not have goals", "they are not diligent", "they do not help one another or others", "it is just not good to be among them", "intolerance against them is not without reason"—"they" and "them" meaning the Romany.

As the Second Chance Department of the Gandhi Secondary Grammar School is a unique scenario of educating together the members of the majority of the society (Hungarians) with the Romany it is a potential bridge institution of social inclusion and cohesion. It is a place to create mutual understanding and acceptance (see Summary of Results for examples) through creating a setting of common personal interaction during the process of education and offering opportunities for shared experience outside the building of the institution as well. Examining the results of the interviews, we are to see fabulous examples of how these cross-nationality relationships can remain after achieving the most important joint goal: passing the school-leaving exam.

Interviews

Methodologically the interviews I applied were semi-structured individual or paired in-depth interviews. While processing them I intended to clarify the social

background and the attitudes towards teaching or learning of my informants, and discover the issues concerning my supposition (see Research Goal).

I asked ten persons related to the institution to talk to me, nine of whom did contribute to my survey (Table 4). It is well worth mentioning that among the colleagues interviewed one woman has more than ten years of adult education experience in other institutions as well, whereas two young teachers were among the pioneers who first graduated in 2000 at Gandhi Secondary Grammar and Boarding School .

Table 4. Interviews

Interviewee	Sex	Age	Status	Etnicity
1.	Female	48	ex student	Hungarian
2.	Female	33	teacher	Hungarian
3.	Female	48	teacher	Hungarian
4.	Female	28	ex student	Romany/Gypsy
5.	Female	46	ex student	Hungarian
6.	Female	34	ex student	Romany/Gypsy
7.	Male	32	ex student	Romany/Gypsy
8.	Male	26	teacher	Romany/Gypsy
9.	Male	25	teacher	Romany/Gypsy

Source: Dezső (2007).

The information I attained from the interviews reinforced the data I had obtained from the questionnaires. I required similar information from the teachers and the students so that I could control one with the other but I have not found any significant contradiction among the replies. Irrespective of the status of the informant I achieved similar information on various subjects that interested me.

Teachers' views

Each of my interviewees agreed that the work being done at the department can be carried out only and only if one is "stout-hearted", free of prejudice, open-minded both professionally and in terms of social sensitivity, hard working and devoted to the educational goals of the department. The staff is described as a group of enthusiastic teachers who "go after the students" in the case of permanent truancy or lack of presence at exams occurs. They talk to these clients and also to their families to encourage and persuade them of the importance of their studies. The presence of Romany teachers of languages and culture is also significant.

Compared to similar programmes at other educational institutions, the students at the department are older than elsewhere. Whereas at other institutions students are below or around twenty years of age, whose studies are paid by their parents, at the department in question at Gandhi students start school after having arrived at a mature individual decision, realising the importance of having the school-leaving qualification. Neither can the age group of students over 40 be considered "hobby learners", as many of those have gone on to study at a variety of university faculties. Regardless of their ethnicity, students' social background is more disadvantageous than at other second chance secondary grammar schools. The enthnicity of students in several cases remains uncertain for various reasons, and so the idea of altering learning techniques related to diverse ethnic groups does not even become aired.

Real educational practice underpins the basic institutional concept, that is, what is typical is not the hope to achieve a sophisticated, knowledge based information transfer, but a skill-centred, practical schooling (see Summary of Results for examples). According to my colleagues, the most significant achievements of the department are the relatively low rate of drop-out students, a significant number of students who continue their studies in higher education and last but not least mutual understanding, social integration and inclusion among the participants of the programme.

Ex-students' opinions

Most students who started their studies in the first year of the department chose the school for quite practical reasons. Exclusively for them, a two-year course was available if they took evening classes—this opportunity never occurred afterwards. Most students of the following school years applied to the department because the first inmates were spreading its good reputation all over the region.

Interestingly enough, some of my interviewees, all of whom are Romany, came to study with an acquaintance or relative. As they said, sharing the experience of learning eased the process of their education. Later, after graduation, it was these people who tended to continue their studies in higher education together with their ex-classmates. As they said they simply felt more secure this way.

Two of my interviewees told me that they had attained second chance education previously elsewhere, but at those institutions they faced failures due to the traditional subject-structured education, teaching techniques and evaluation methods. They also

noticed that their schoolmates at other institutions were "younger and frivolous who were more interested in partying and fashion than in their studies".

In most cases, the immediate environment of my Romany informants had a hostile attitude towards their educational intentions. "A secondary grammar school for you? What for?" "You won't become anything, anyway…" "You won't get any further for sure…" This is how these socially disadvantaged students were "encouraged" by their relatives and fellow countrymen. And this is only some of the price the individual has to pay when he or she tries to make efforts towards social mobility. The positive example however infected the neighbourhood in some cases: some relatives and friends applied either to the department or to different locations of the Small Tiger Vocational and Secondary Grammar School.

Those who came to the department from the majority (Hungarian part) of society also experienced negative attitudes of their acquaintance,most of it criticism of the Romany ethnic minority characteristics of the school, probably due to their prejudices. One of the biggest achievements of the department concerning social inclusion is that several of those who had had these negative preconceptions in their minds, later, after having heard positive experiences regarding the atmosphere and everyday life of the school became students of it themselves. All of my interviewees said that they had made friends with schoolmates belonging to other etnicity.

Summary of Results

Both integration and innovation have significant indicators at the studied institution. From the interviews and the questionnaires I have processed I found evidence, described in the previous chapters, that I had been correct in my supposition, i.e. that there is connection between the innovative educational methods that are being used during the teaching-learning process and the integration being realised at the Second Chance Department of Gandhi Secondary Grammar School.

Concerning integration I found the indicators below the most significant:

- Equal representation of Romany and non-Romany students;
- Establishing close personal relationships between different etnicities—each of the followings done together (!):
  - free time activities;
  - self-organised study circles after school;
  - planning and achieving enrolment in higher education;

- helping each other in taking up positions in the labour market;
- Altering prejudice among students;
- Modifying prejudice of students' micro-economies (family members, friends, etc);
- Changing negative attitudes towards different etnicities;
- Involving members of students' micro-economies in the teaching-learning process of the department—in this way spreading successful integration.

Besides integrative indicators the most innovative factors of the school can be summarised, too. The most important ones are:
- innovation of subjects and methods;
- introducing new modules, blocks of subjects (e.g. social science versus history),
- a locally developed subject: Romany studies;
- trainings on methodology of learning each term;
- study help developed by teachers (e. g. guides on how to use books);
- requirements during the terms (versus end of term evaluation only);
- methods of student requirements (projects, net-surfing);
- using ICT in education;
- pair and group work of students;
- inbuilt extracurricular activities (Romany festival, visiting museums, film appreciation);
- personal qualities of teachers (empathy, openness, energy, patience);
- presence of highly qualified Romany teachers;
- co-operation in innovative nationwide projects.

My results concerning innovation support Halász, who points out that educational institutions dealing with challenging target groups tend to be the most successful ones as their motivation is driven by their own failures and experience (Order and Disorder, 2003).

The outcomes of my study also justify Balázs's findings (2003: 46), which suggest that geographic structures of innovativeness of schools do not follow the social-economic development of a region. Though Gandhi Secondary Grammar School is located in one of the most backward areas of Hungary, its educational instruments are still considerably innovative.

FINAL REMARKS

2007 is proclaimed to be Europeran Union's Year of Equal Opportunities, while the decade between 2005 and 2015 is devoted to Romany integration. This is the time to carry out research on relevant issues, such as the integration and lifelong learning of the Romany. There is lack of reliable, well-constructed studies that would enable decision makers of education policy to focus more closely on one particular model institution. Action in this field for and with Romany people is essential in today's Hungary. I believe that the research I have carried out can be interpreted as an information base through which relevant education policies will prove to be justifiable.

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LIFELONG LEARNING IN THE SOUTHERN TRANSDANUBIAN REGION

PÉTER FODOR

INTRODUCTION: LIFELONG LEARNING AS A CONCEPT

Numerous challenges and opportunities are facing the societies of the 21st century. Rapid changes have appeared recently both for individuals and for society. Lifelong learning has an important role both in the policies of the European Union, and in Hungarian national strategies. Since the settling of the Lisbon Strategy (The Lisbon European Council, 2000), this process has become even more enhanced. The European Union is willing to use the concept of lifelong learning to reach a higher level of competitiveness in the common economy. In my opinion this system, the main idea of lifelong learning, is economy-driven.

lifelong learning has three different levels in the economic view (1st figure):

1. The National/regional level.
2. Corporate level.
3. Individual level.

Figure 1: The system of Lifelong Learning
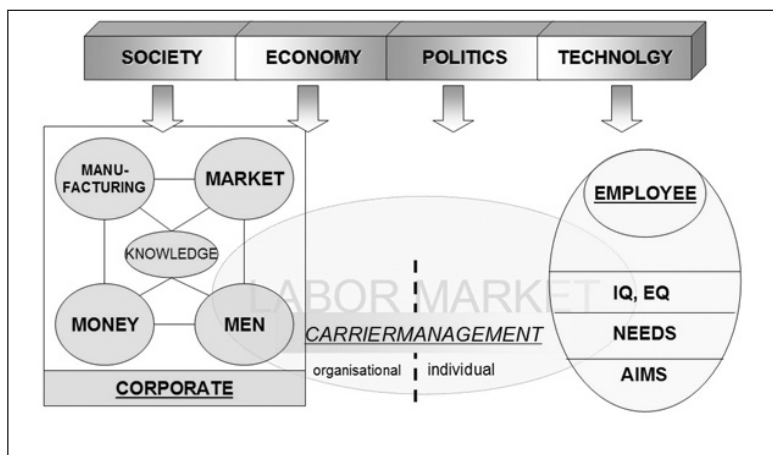
Source: edited by the Author

Each level has its own stakeholders and motivations. Each category places a different focus on the whole system, but the system is not complete without all components, the elements influencing each other and working together. Now the focus is on the national and regional level as this is the most interesting regarding the topic of the Southern Transdanubian Region. At this level we find economical, political, technological and social factors that constantly correlate with each other. Since the 1990s the development of science and technology has placed a demand for the constant and fast improvement of human capital. As in our globalised world information is flowing and spread through the latest information technology equipment, and as huge research and development sources have been spent on the improvement of manufacturing technologies, the obsolescence period of human profession-related knowledge is shortened. Due to that, the work-related knowledge of employees remains adequate for increasingly shorter periods. They are forced to renew it, enlarge the scope of it, or change it totally. Technological progress causes realignment in the national work-structure, which means that some professions are disappearing while new ones are appearing. Thus the employees have to train themselves constantly. This process is more than a single change. As the Kondratyev theory points out, the economy operates in long cycles, but for instance the Moore law[1] (1965) depicts that in relevant technologies and thus in technology-related knowledge the cycles are getting thinner and the periods change faster, and an acceleration process is under way.

In our democratic societies there is a need for fair living conditions and good wages. The population expects good economical conditions and sufficient workplaces. On the one hand the government has to influence the economical processes, to form an investor-friendly atmosphere that stimulates growth and thus indirectly stabilises workplaces, while on the other it has to shape the educational system that provides a competent workforce for businesses. The balance of the labour market, unemployment and participation rates are the indicators of success. If politics is able to supply an appropriate proper answer to the economical challenges influenced by rapid technological changes, if the educational system provides opportunities for the improvement of relevant vocational knowledge and if the members of the society are willing to study then a relative balance in the local and national labour market will be achieved.

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[1] Moore's Law describes an important trend in the history of computer hardware: that the number of transistors that can be inexpensively placed on an integrated circuit is increasing exponentially, doubling approximately every two years.

Changing economical trends in the world are the basic factors behind the need for lifelong learning (LLL). For instance, the growth of the service sector raises training needs for the employees and for the national economic systems.

In conclusion we might say that LLL is:

- A response to economical demands.
- An intention of the government.
- An elementary need of the populace.

This means that society and the economy require employees who are able to work in groups, to solve problems, to adapt to rapidly changing requirements and who have basic skills.

The national level consists of four elements, as we have seen. All trends show that both the state and individuals have to place an emphasis on renewing present knowledge and competences. lifelong learning is a framework for that. On the national level the aim of lifelong learning is to provide an appropriate input for the national and regional labour market to answer demands. The role of politics is to create long term educational policies and strategies that offer opportunities for the members of society to acquire basic skills, and later to be provided with permanent learning opportunities. This statement is true for both the national and for the subnational (regional) level. Numerous studies concern themselves with the regional differences which exist beneath the macro-or national level. For instance, we know that a huge gap exists between the Northern and Southern Italian regions, but the same is true for Hungary, too.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN HUNGARY AND THE SOUTHERN TRANSDANUBIAN REGION

In Hungary, both a north-south and a south-west difference can be seen. (HVG-Top 500, 2007). The figures show that the performance of the capital and the north-western parts of the country are significantly higher than that of the other parts of the country. While the northern part shows a rising trend, the southern parts are falling below the national average. Progress raises a need for a quality workforce on the labour market, but parallel with it there exists an oversupply, consisting of the population with lower levels of professional knowledge. These people are uneducated and thus disadvantaged, and yet the economy increasingly requires highly skilled workers.

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There are numerous theories concerning the reasons for the growing differences. These include average infrastructural differences, the construction of highways, geofigureical determining factors, the structure and the role of higher education and the number of researchers, but the solution is not always clear. These growing regional gaps have recently been the cause of internal migrations, as can be witnessed in today's Southern Transdanubia.

With its 14169 km² South Transdanubia is the 3rd largest region of Hungary. However, the density of the population is the lowest in the country. There are 645 settlements with their own local government, but 51,4% of the settlements number less than 500 inhabitants (Southern Transdanubia Operational Programme, 2007). The accessibility of many of these villages is unsatisfactory. Several villages can be approached in only one direction, and do not have satisfactory public transportation. The spatial structure of the villages and the towns of the region is very unfavourable. The local government and agriculture are the largest employers in this area, which means that potential for economic sustenance is low. Both the subscribed capital and the contribution to the GDP of the Southern Transdanubian Region shows that our area is lagging behind and still shows downward tendencies (2nd figure).

Figure 2: Per capita GDP in the regions 1994-2003
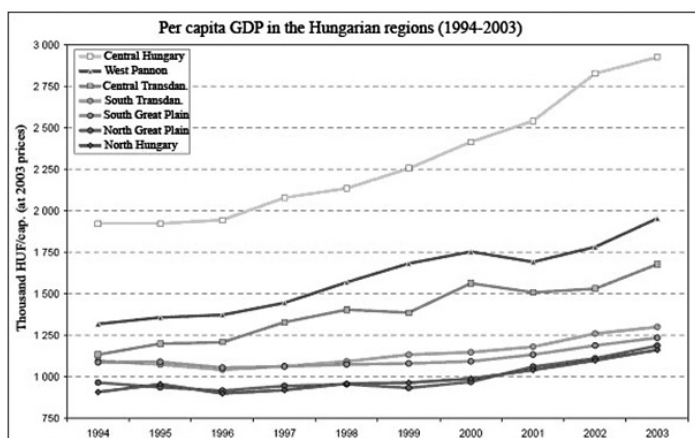
The activity rate of the population is 50,1% (Table 1). Compared with the national average, the negative difference is more than 4,7%, and we know that the Hungarian average falls significantly behind the EU average.

The unemployment rate reflects the above situation. The figures for Southern Transdanubia are almost the worst among the seven regions, and show a downward trend. The data for the small settlements rank the highest. The biggest employer is the state sector, followed by industry, primarily the processing industries.

Summarising up the situation, it could be said that, compared with Hungarian and European figures, the Southern Transdanubian Region is underdeveloped. As Polónyi (2001) points out, the educational figures are unfavourable in Hungary and the data relating to inhabitants living in small villages even more so. In those villages where the rate of the Gypsy population is high, the percentage of those who have not completed their 8th or lower grades of the primary school is 55% among those aged between 45-49 and more than 70% among those above the age of 50. These figures demonstrate the fact that the current, average educational level of the Hungarian people is inadequate, especially if we focus on the needs of the developing Hungarian economy.

The Southern Transdanubian Region shows similarities with national data (2nd table):

- The number of those with only 8 or fewer primary years is very high.
- The number of people who have graduated in vocational schools is approximately 30-35%, but the structure of the output professions does not match the demand of the labour market and thus the needs of the economy.
- The practical knowledge provided by the school system cannot be used in real economical situations.
- The level of education in the population, combined with the geofigureical and regional disadvantages, strengthen each other and cause a negative acceleration effect.

Figure 3 figure clearly depicts the problem of the Hungarian vocational school system, which arises from structural problems. The former and current opposition party claims that more young graduates than ever have no job, which is true, but as the majority of the unemployed people are blue collar workers the main problem- is that the vocational school system is badly constructed. The formal educational system produces approximately 140,000 graduates per year, but 77% of those emerging from grammar schools are without a profession.

Figure 3: Number of registered unemployed persons by gender and profession in the Southern Transdanubian Region in 2005
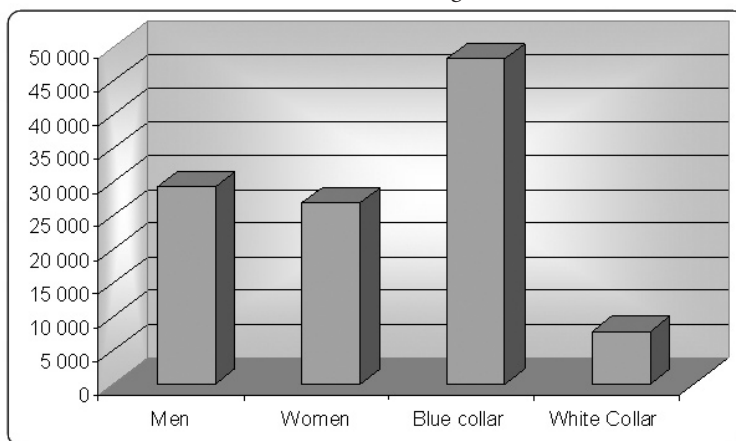
Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office Headquaters of Pécs: The main figures of the unemployed people in the Southern Transdanubian Region: 12 / 2006.

The number of students at the universities has been showing an increasing tendency. Higher education is teaching 2,5 times more students then in 1995. One-third of the formal education system is preparing the students for physical jobs, two-thirds for white collar jobs, but the demands of the labour market lie in the opposite direction. The vocational system in Hungary and in the Southern Transdanubian Region does not adapt to the labour market situation.

When analysing the overall lifelong learning activity of Hungary and the regions, the Southern Transdanubian region remains in the middle, as the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (2004) points out. (4th figure). The role of Central Hungary is again overemphasized, but fortunately here the situation is adequate for Southern Transdanubia.

CHALLENGES IN THE HUNGARIAN ADULT TRAINING SYSTEM

The previous section provided a number of facts and figures supporting the idea that the Hungarian adult educational system has to be reconstructed to solve the above problems. Otherwise, the gap between the labour market demands, and the output of the educational system will be ever wider and deeper. As the facts listed above prove, rapid and adequate answers are needed:

- The needs of the economy and personnel demands should be harmonized, in order to satisfy the self developmental needs both of the economy and of individuals.

- Access opportunities should be improved for the disadvantaged persons and special target groups, thereby closing the gap among the regions, the various social groups, genders and ages.

- Flexibility of training should be ensured, in order to match the needs of the above mentioned target groups both in time and space; heterogeneous training forms should be used (typical and atypical forms, distance learning, e-learning).

- The government has an important role and responsibility in this process: Priorities have to be settled, systems and networks have to be made, and training should be motivated with financial means. Persistent support work is necessary to reach the aims and challenges of adult training.

Figure 4: Participation of LLL by regions
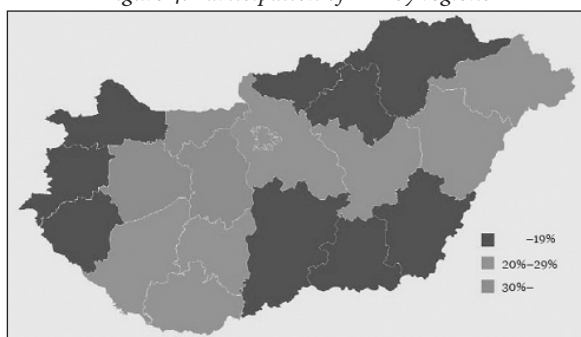
Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office, 2004: Lifelong learning. Budapest 2004. p. 12

When outlining the range of duties related to adult training, we might say that the goals of training schemes are to provide an adequate workforce for employers, to eliminate the inequalities of the disadvantaged and to provide "willing-to-work and workable" workforces to the labour market.

The functions of adult training in this context are:

- To reduce the competence-gap of employees.
- To support the evolution of an identity consciousness, ability, and interest validation.
- To have permanent studying accepted as a program.
- To increase to feeling of security.
- To shape the vision of the future.

In order to execute the above-mentioned tasks in Hungary in general and in the Southern Transdanubian region specifically, national sources and the European Structural Fund provide money. The First National Development Plan (FNDP) has used 750 million euros to improve human resources between 2004-2006. Among the priorities of the FNDP were an elevation of employment levels and competitiveness within the workforce by ensuring adequate education. Training was a highlighted chapter of the national employment strategy.

During this period the legal and the financial conditions were formed: the Adult Education Act, a system of normative supports, the allowance of income tasks; the separation of the Vocational Fund from the Fund of Labour Market; and various programs. Along these steps the Human Resource Operative Program provided 66.7 million euros to assist in achieving the main goals.

Significantly greater resources will be used for similar goals between 2007-2013 in the New Hungary Development Plan (5th figure). This huge amount of money raises hopes of a solution to the current problems. However, we must point out that this resource is only a necessary condition; without well-formed strategies or hard operational work it will not be, cannot be successful.

Figure 5: Possible sources of NHDP for LLL
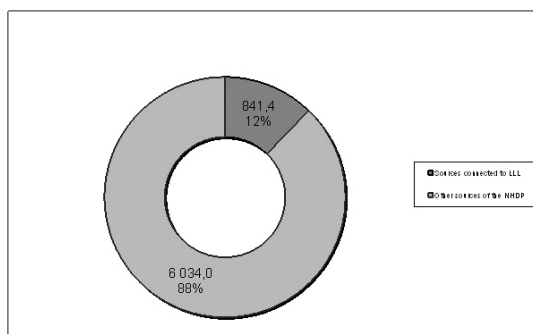
Source: Based on the NHDP, calculated by the Author.

CONCLUSION

The path of lifelong learning and the influencing factors of the national conditions were outlined in the first part. This necessary strategy has to be formed and carried out in Hungary, and Southern Transdanubia. In the second step, we examined the current relevant factors, figures and situations of the focus area. Defects were pointed out and opportunities were highlighted. In order to achieve a successful lifelong

learning concept, the Southern Transdanubian Region has to develop both formal and non-formal vocational school systems. It is a determining factor regarding economical development. For the global challenges, local answers are needed.

Our tasks are:

- Creation of a regional, vocational concept. This concept must be equal to answering demands of the labour market, and has to be matched with regional employment strategy.

- The establishment of a persistent and consultative forum. On this forum, through the discussions of the training market's stakeholders, parallel developments would be avoided, the best practices could be shared, and tenders could be conciliated.

- Social negotiations have to be organised and continuous, tight co-operation with the employers is needed.

- Regional vocational networks and knowledge centres should be set up. The role of these are to provide information and services belonging to adult education, to spread atypical training methods and ensure the training of experts working in adult education. Through this network regional, territorial, social and birth disadvantages should be turned transformed into equality.

- The regional and local aims of the vocational systems have to be pointed out, in order to effectively use local and European funds.

Table 1: Unemployment and participation rates in Hungary

	Unemployment rate	Participation rate
Central Hungary	4,3	59,1
Central Transdanubia	4,8	57,6
Western Transdanubia	5,1	58,5
Southern Transdanubia	9,2	50,1
Northern Hungary	12	50,9
Northern Great Plain	10,3	51,1
Southern Great Plain	7,7	52,5
Total population Aged 15–74	7,3	54,8

Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office, Labour Force Survey Quater II, 2007 Budapest, 2007 Published by the Hungarian Central Statistical Office p. 45.

http://portal.ksh.hu/pls/ksh/docs/hun/xftp/idoszaki/munkero/munkero072.pdf 2007-10-01

Table 2: Rate of different educational levels in the population aged above 15

	Total	Less than 8th primary grades	8th primary grades	vocational school	technical school/ grammar school	university
Baranya County	342 239	37 288	122 120	68 794	81 457	32 580
Somony County	281 140	37 985	103 423	57 600	59 176	22 956
Tolna County	209 059	29 358	76 398	44 822	41 803	16 678
Southern Transdanubia	832 438	104 631	301 941	171 216	182 436	72 214
Rate in %		12,56	35,27	20,56	21,91	8,67
Hungary total	8 508 301	951 137	2 870 666	1 584 055	2 166 355	936 088
Rate in %		11,17	33,73	18,6	25,46	11

Source: edited by the Author

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CHAPTER 5

PROGRAMME – SPONSORS – AUTHORS