8. SOME INTEREST ISSUES CONCERNING EDUCATION

8.1 Transatlantic dialogue

Contribution from "The brave new (and smaller) of Higher Education", ACE (American Council of Education). Centre for Institutional and International Initiatives, EUE written by Madeleine Green, Peter Eckel and Andris Barblan. Market forces, globalisation, internationalization, competition, new providers, the cost efficiency - these descriptors of the brave new world of higher education appear consistently in any discussion of its future. Even when used in the same national context, such terms describe different phenomena and elicit different interpretations; cross-cultural conversations are even more difficult. A shared understanding of the forces that are reshaping higher education within and among nations provides an essential foundation for the development of sound policy and effective institutional strategies to adapt to these new realities. Such challenges were the focus of the seventh Transatlantic Dialogue, cosponsored by the American Council on Education (ACE), the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC), and the European University Association (EUA) and hosted by the University Laval in Quebec.

The purpose of this meeting was to explore the forces shaping change in higher education in the United States, Canada, and Europe; analyse how Institutions and policy makers are responding; also assess the costs and benefits of these responses. This conversation of some 30 presidents, vice chancellors, and rectors (Annex 8.1) assumed the volatility of the current environment and the need for continuous change. However just how much change is necessary and desirable, and what kind of change should occur, were open to question.

The Transatlantic Dialogue explored strategies that Institutions use to be more responsive and relevant, and reflected on the conflicts these strategies can present with respect to historic institutional values and mission. Participants examined the promise and the peril of establishing alliances with partners outside the academy, such as businesses or for-profit educational Institutions, and the complexities of international collaborations that go beyond traditional student and faculty mobility. The new environment and the many strategic choices facing institutional leaders on both sides of the Atlantic provided the framework for a rich conversation.

The issues that participants discussed dramatically differed from the ones considered at the first Transatlantic Dialogue in 1989 in Hartford, Connecticut. At that time, the World Wide Web was virtually unknown to administrators, and e-mail use was in its infancy. The sharp differences among national contexts across the Atlantic and within Europe provided few common bases for discussion. The geopolitical situation was entirely different from the one that would exist half a decade later. The Berlin Wall was still intact; the Eastern Bloc countries were still part of the Soviet system.

The North American Free Trade Agreement was in its early stages, as was the European Union (EU), which was viewed as a zone of economic growth set up against Communism. In higher education, North American Institutions were entrepreneurial and customer-oriented; doing business in a pragmatic world of public relations and money management that was alien to their European counterparts. In continental Europe, the ministries very much controlled Universities' destinies, and the rigidities of centuries-old traditions of teaching and learning were difficult to loosen.

In the United Kingdom, the Polytechnics were not considered Universities, and the national assessment exercises had not yet taken place. The concept of the "European dimension" of higher education was just emerging. The appointed North American presidents saw themselves as leaders, the elected European rectors as first among equals. In brief, a little more than a decade ago, the Atlantic Ocean represented a formidable distance between European and North American higher education, between the old world and the new.
By 2001, and the seventh Transatlantic Dialogue, the picture looked quite different. Technology was a given, and competition - long established in Canada and the United States - was gaining ground in much of Europe. Europe had undergone vast political changes, and the move to harmonize the varying forms of national higher education in the EU by making them more transparent and compatible was intensifying under the auspices of the Bologna Declaration.

By 2001, there was no doubt that higher education was indeed a global enterprise, and although significant differences still exist among nations and continents, the fundamental challenges - especially those created by the new environment of technology, globalisation, and competition - are very much the same. The vision of the future seen by those USA., Canadian, and

European leaders at the 2001 Quebec seminar was more similar than dissimilar - a surprise to most, if not all, of the participants.

In order to secure a snapshot of the varying views, the seminar cosponsors asked each participant to vote on a series of statements about the future of higher education from his or her perspective. The participants indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement regarding the actual future they foresaw (versus the ideal future they desired) in their own country. They also noted the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each assertion.

The high level of consistency among all participants came as a surprise. Of the approximately 20 assertions shown on the next page, the Americans and the Europeans disagreed on only four; and the Americans and Canadians differed on only one. The Canadians and the Europeans agreed on all the assertions. Further, even when disagreement occurred, it was mild. Indeed, the American, Canadian, and European leaders had remarkably similar views of what lay ahead for higher education.

How do American, Canadian, and European higher education leaders see the future?

In an informal opinion poll, the participants indicated their agreement or disagreement with the following assertions about the future.
The U.S., Canadian, and European presidents and rectors largely agreed on the following points:
• Society will place far greater emphasis on higher education's role in workforce preparation than in promoting social development and cultural identity.
• Borderless education will not undermine higher education's capacity to contribute to social development and cultural identity.
• Policy makers will not abandon the concept of higher education as a social investment (public good) in favor of higher education as a personal investment only (private good).
• Partnerships with businesses and other no educational organizations will not increasingly threaten academic integrity.

• Governments will increasingly require outcome-oriented quality assessments as an accountability measures.

• Technology will play a major role in expanding access to higher education around the world because traditional modes of instruction cannot fill the need.

• Competition and the power of the market will not allow "brand-name" institutions to dominate the higher education scene.

• National governments will not lose their influence on higher education and markets, and supranational bodies will not usurp their role.

• The amount of instruction conducted in English around the world will increase.

• The current patterns of governance and decision making in higher education in represent tremendous obstacles to institutions' ability to change.

• Interinstitutional collaboration will increase significantly, allowing institutions to expand their curricular offerings.

The Canadians and the Americans differed only on the following point:

The Americans were more likely than the Canadians to see the lack of executive power as an increasingly significant obstacle to change. (The Europeans were in the middle of these two views.)

Will change just happen, steered periodically by reactive government policies and institutional strategies, or will higher education leaders and policy makers look ahead and be more intentional about creating the kind of higher education system their societies really need?

Technology is also driving organizational change. It has spurred the development of new organizational structures and partnerships, and it requires unprecedented decisions concerning strategy and resource allocation.

On both sides of the Atlantic, technology has facilitated the introduction of new players into tertiary education from the corporate sphere, expanding the marketplace of options for those potential students seeking advanced training and education.

Competition for students, staff, resources, and prestige requires Institutions to be more aggressive and competitive, creating a managerial and

entrepreneurial culture that frequently   classes with the more traditional and collegial academic culture.

Universities worldwide are forming more partnerships - whether with other Institutions in the same country, with Institutions in other countries, or with other kinds of organizations - to enhance their capacity in a variety of areas.

In a rapidly changing and shrinking world in which political boundaries, market economies, and communication modes are shifting at an unprecedented pace, Colleges and Universities are reexamining the knowledge and skills that are required of today's and tomorrow's graduates.

The Europeans and the Americans disagreed on the following points:

- The Europeans were more likely than the Americans to believe that distance learning will not increase access, but rather will enable institutions to reach new markets of affluent students. (The Canadians were in between the Americans and the Europeans on this assertion.)

- The Americans were more likely than the Europeans to perceive that the inability of traditional higher education to adapt quickly enough to meet the needs of the knowledge economy will result in the growth of new providers. (The Canadians leaned more toward agreeing with the Americans on this issue.)

- The Europeans agreed more than the Americans with the idea that higher education must move from traditional content/curriculum-based teaching to competency-based teaching and learning. (The Canadians voted closer to the Americans than to the Europeans.)

- The Europeans were more likely than the Americans to see government policy as a significant force for change. (The Canadians were in the middle of the two views.)

8.2 Unesco

UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, was established on 16th of November 1945 and it currently has 188 Member States.

The main objective of UNESCO is to contribute to peace and security in the world by promoting collaboration among nations through education, science, culture and communication in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion, described by the Charter of the United Nations.

Education for All

In the World Declaration on Education for All (Annex 8.2), adopted in 1998, the world community established an expanded vision of what basic education means, calling for a learning environment in which everyone would have the chance to acquire the basic elements, which serve as a foundation for further learning and enable full participation in society. This vision implied both access to education for everybody, and meeting the diverse learning needs of children, youth and adults. It focused on learning societies, and addressed broader and deeper partnerships at every level as the way forward. (59)
Although education for all is everybody's business (governments, international agencies and society) the main responsibility for achieving education for everybody lies with countries. UNESCO was charged with coordinating the work of the EFA partners and to maintain the global trust.

The mentioned document is not isolated action of the UNESCO on the other hand UNESCO providing solutions to the challenges and setting in motion a process of in-depth reform in higher education and convened a World Conference on Higher Education. Participants in the World Conference recalling the principles of the Charter of the United Nations, the Universal Declaration of Human Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and the Internal Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

Also the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which states in Article 26, paragraph 1, that "Everybody has the right to education" and that "higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit", and endorsing the basic principles of the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), which by Article 4, commits the States Parties to it to "make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity".

All these declare that education is fundamental pillar of human rights, democracy, sustainable development and peace, and shall therefore become accessible to all throughout life and that measures are required to ensure co-ordination and co-operation across and between the various sectors, particularly between general, technical and professional secondary and post-secondary education as well as between universities, colleges and technical institutions.

In this content, the solution of these problems will be determined by the vision of the future society and by the role that is assigned to education in general and to higher education in particular.
Threshold of the new millennium it is the duty of higher education to ensure that the values and ideals of the culture of peace prevail and that the intellectual community should be mobilised to end.

Substantial change and development of higher education require the strong involvement not only of governments and of higher education institutions, but also of all stakeholders, including students and their families, teachers, business and industry, the public and private sectors, of the economy, parliaments, the media, the community, professional associations and society and accountability in the use of public and private, national or international resources.

Higher education systems should enhance their capacity to live with uncertainty, to change and bring about the change, and to address social needs and to promote solidarity and equity.

The system should preserve and exercise scientific rigour and originality, in a spirit of impartiality, as a basic prerequisite for attaining and sustaining level of quality.

96

Should place students at the centre of their concerns, within a lifelong perspective, so as to allow their full integration into the global knowledge society of the coming century.

Last but not a least international co-operation and exchange are major avenues for advancing higher education throughout the world.

All these above mentioned reasons drive Unesco to submit the World declaration of Higher education accompanying from the Framework for Priority Action for Change Development in Higher education and were adopted by World conference on Higher Education in October 1998 in Paris. The declaration contain 17 articles which are divided in 3 parts:

The First part: Mission and function of higher education with two articles:
- Missions to educate, to train and to undertake research
- Ethical role, autonomy, responsibility and anticipatory function

The Second part: Shaping a new vision of higher education with eight articles:
- Equity of access
- Enhancing participation and promoting the role of women
- Advancing knowledge through research in science, the arts and humanities and the dissemination of its results
- Long term orientation based on relevance
- Strengthening co-operation with the world of work and analysing and anticipating societal needs
- Diversification for enhanced equity of opportunity
- Innovate educational approaches: critical thinking and creativity
- Higher education personnel and students as major actors

The Third part: From vision to action with seven articles:
- Qualitative evaluation
- The potential and the challenge of technology
- Strengthening higher education management and financing
- Financing of higher education as a public serve
- Sharing knowledge and know-how across borders and continents
- From "brain drain" to "brain gain"
- Partnership and alliances

The Framework for Priority Actions contains tree parts:

1.Priority actions at national level

2. Priority actions at the level of system and institutions

3. Actions to be taken at international level and, in particular, to be initiated by Unesco

A summary of the WDEFO is given in the annex 8.2 and is official document provided to IAU (International Association of Universities) by Unesco.

The whole document will be find in: www.unesco.org/education/educprog /wche/declaration_eng.htm In other specific topic has to do with higher education and why human capital accumulation is an important determinant of individual's earning capacity and employment prospects, and therefore plays an important role in determining the level and distribution of income in society.

ISCED

The world's education systems differ significantly, not only in respect to their structures but also in respect to their educational contents. As a result, it is often difficult to compare the education systems of one country with those of other countries and to come to useful results from the educational experiences of other countries.

For this reason, UNESCO has been concerned with the design of a standard classification system for education that would make possible such comparisons of education systems of different countries.
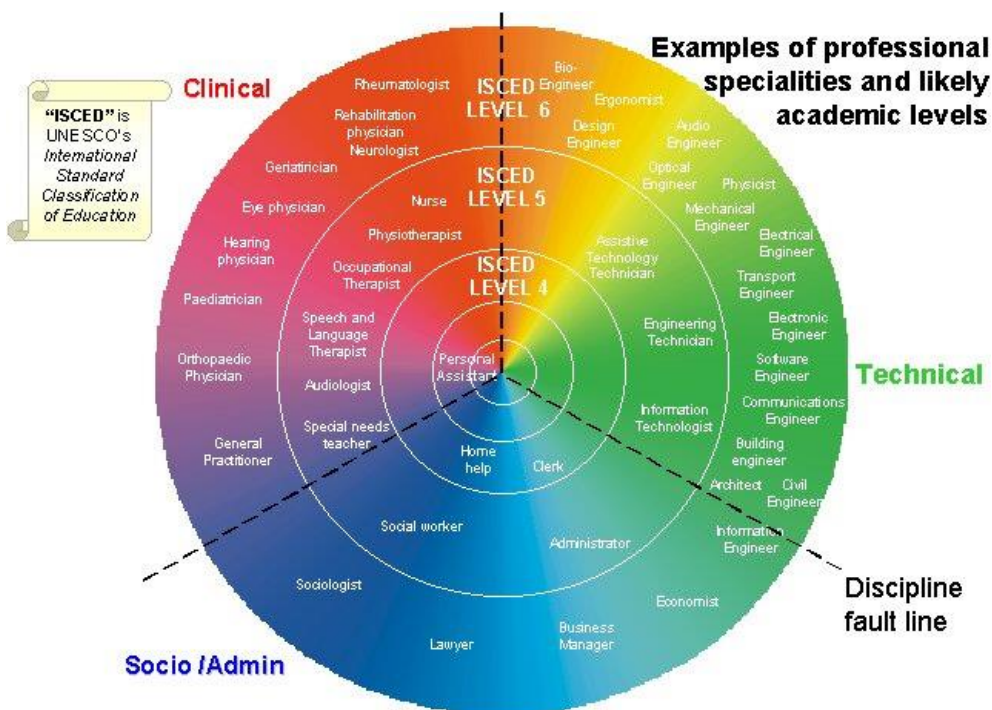
UNESCO developed the first ISCED during the 1970's; the present 'revised' version, known as ISCED-1977.

ISCED-1997 presents standard concepts, definitions and classifications. ISCED is designed to collect and present national and international education statistics allowing the comparison between different education systems and different countries. It covers all organized and continued learning activities for children, youth and adults.

It is important to add that the ISCED is a flexible system, designed for education policy analysis for every structure of the national education systems and for every stage of economic development of a country.

The basic concepts of ISCED have therefore been designed to be universally valid.

Programs of continuing education, special needs education and training outside the formal education system's institutional framework were not sufficiently covered in the past; the new ISCED provides relevant criteria for the classification of such programs. One of the main objectives of UNESCO was to set down the fundamental principles for the reform of higher education systems throughout the world. The core missions of higher education - to educate, to train, to undertake research and to provide services to the community - must be preserved, reinforced and further expanded.

Examples of professional specialities and likely academic levels

"ISCED" is UNESCO's International Standard Classification of Education

Clinical

Rheumatologist
Bio-Engineer
Ergonomist
ISCED LEVEL 6
Rehabilitation physician
Neurologist
Design Engineer
Audio Engineer
Geriatrician
ISCED LEVEL 5
Optical Engineer
Physicist
Eye physician
Nurse
Mechanical Engineer
Electrical Engineer
Hearing physician
Physiotherapist
ISCED LEVEL 4
Assistive Technology Technician
Transport Engineer
Occupational Therapist
Paediatrician
Speech and Language Therapist
Electronic Engineer
Orthopaedic Physician
Personal Assistant
Engineering Technician
Software Engineer
Audiologist
Communications Engineer
Information Technologist
Special needs teacher
General Practitioner
Home help
Clerk
Building engineer
Architect
Civil Engineer
Social worker
Administrator
Information Engineer
Sociologist
Economist
Technical
Lawyer
Business Manager
Discipline fault line
Socio /Admin

100

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED); UNESCO

Proxy criteria for contents		Name of the level	Code	Complementary dimensions
Main criteria	**Subsidiary criteria**			
Educational properties School or centre-based Minimum age Upper age limit	Staff qualification	Pre-primary education	0	None
Beginning of systematic apprenticeship of reading, writing and mathematics	Entry into the nationally designated primary institutions or programmes Start of compulsory education	Primary education First stage of basic education	1	None
Subject presentation Full implementation of basic skills and foundation for lifelong learning	Entry after some 6 years of primary education End of the cycle after 9 years since the beginning of primary education End of compulsory education Several teachers conduct classes in their field of specialization	Lower secondary education Second stage of basic education	2	Type of subsequent education or destination Programme orientation
Typical entrance qualification		(Upper) secondary education	3	Type of subsequent education or

Minimum entrance requirement				destination

Program orientation

Cumulative duration since the beginning of ISCED level 3 |
| Entrance requirement,

Content,

Age,

Duration | | Post-secondary non tertiary education | 4 | Type of subsequent education or destination

Cumulative duration since the beginning of ISCED level 3

Program orientation |
| Minimum entrance requirement,

Type of certification obtained,

Duration | | First stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification) | 5 | Type of programmes

Cumulative theoretical duration at tertiary

National degree and qualification structure |
| Research oriented content,

Submission of thesis or dissertation | Prepare graduates for faculty and research posts | Second stage of tertiary education (leading to an advanced research qualification) | 6 | None |

ISCO

ISCO is the result of a number of investigations in the 12 countries of the EU, and combines the expert knowledge in occupation classification in every country with practical results for coding information about the occupation concluded from various survey techniques.

In order to cumulate occupations into similar categories and at different levels, ISCO introduces the concept of skill, named as the skill level.

ISCO uses four skill levels in order to define the wide structure of the classification. These four skill levels operate in relation to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

How do the countries of EU develop the national occupation classification?

Denmark and Italy have developed a new national occupation classification based on ISCO principles, United Kingdom uses the same structure to ISCO, and Greece and Portugal have adapted ISCO with small variations. There are also countries of the EU such as France and Germany that have developed national occupation classification which do not link to ISCO.

ISCO and ISCED equivalence table

ISCO Skill Level	ISCED Categories
First skill level	ISCED category 1, comprising primary education which generally begins at ages 5-7 years and lasts about 5 years.
Second skill level	ISCED categories 2 and 3, comprising the first and second stages of secondary education. The first stage begins at the age of 11 or 12 and lasts about three years, while the second stage begins at the age of 14 of 15 and also lasts about three years. A period of on-the-job training or experience may be necessary, sometimes formalised in apprenticeships. This period may supplement the formal training or may replace it partly or, in some cases, wholly.
Third skill level	ISCED category 5 (category 4 has been deliberately left without content) comprising education which begins at the age of 17 or 18, last about four year, and leads to an award not equivalent to a first University degree.
Fourth skill level	ISCED categories 6 and 7, comprising education which begins at the age of 17 or 18, lasts about three, four or more years, and lead to a University or postgraduate University degree or the equivalent.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) was created on 1995. One of the youngest international Organizations, the WTO is the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) established at the beginning of the Second World War. The system was developed through a series of trade negotiations, or rounds, held under GATT. The first rounds dealt mainly with tariff reductions but later negotiations included other areas. The latest round – the 1986-1994 - Uruguay Round – led to the World Trade Organization's creation. Today the World Trade Organization has more than 130 members, accounting for over 90% of world trade.

The WTO's prime objective is to held trade flow smoothly, freely, fairly and predictably. This can be achieved by:

- Administering trade agreements
- Acting as a forum for trade negotiations
- Setting trade negotiations
- Reviewing national trade policies
- Assisting developing countries in trade policy issues, through technical assistance and training programmes
- Cooperating with other international organizations

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is a single institutional framework encompassing the GATT and all the agreements and legal instruments negotiated in the Uruguay Round: the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade or GATT 1994 and other agreements such as the General Agreement on Trade in Services or GATS.

Goods
From 1947 to 1994, **GATT** was the forum for negotiating lower customs duty rates and other trade barriers. The Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization states that the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (GATT 1994) is an instrument legally distinct from the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade dated 30 October 1947.

Given the numerous agreements concluded under its support relating to non-tariff measures, the GATT 1994 is the centrepiece for rules on tariffs. Key obligations include non-discrimination through the most-favoured-nation principle; the national treatment of imported products once inside the border, and the protection of domestic industries essentially through tariffs.

Since 1995, the updated GATT has become the WTO's umbrella agreement for trade on goods.

Services

The creation of the **GATS** was one of the landmark achievements of the Uruguay Round, whose results entered into force in January 1995. The GATS was inspired by essentially the same objectives as its counterpart in merchandise trade, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT): creating a credible and reliable system of international trade rules; ensuring fair and equitable treatment of all participants (principle of non-discrimination); stimulating economic activity through guaranteed policy bindings; and promoting trade and development through progressive liberalization.

Principals such as banks, education, telecommunication companies could only be appeared in the new General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS).

The General Agreement on Trade in Services is the first multilateral agreement on trade that has as its objective the progressive liberalization of trade in services. It will provide for secure and more open markets in services in a similar manner as the GATT has done for trade in goods. The Agreement covers trade in all services sectors and the supply of services in all forms (i.e. modes of delivery), including consumption abroad of services, cross-border supply of services, provision of services through a commercial presence and the movement abroad of the person supplying the service.

Although the coverage of the GATS in terms of service sectors is universal, the liberalization commitments follow a positive list approach, whereby each participant in its schedule lists the conditions of market access and national treatment for foreign service suppliers in the sectors and modes of supply for which it has undertaken a commitment.

The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) extends the rules based multilateral trading system to the wide area of services. Similar advantages should accrue to developing countries from the operation of a rules based system in services as has been the case for merchandise trade. While many developing countries are not presently well placed to take advantage of some of the improved market access opportunities which the Agreement will provide, they will be in a position to do so in the future as their domestic supply capacity increases. Further, the GATS is unique in that it permits Member countries, including developing countries, to negotiate the conditions under which foreign services suppliers may establish in their countries.

GATS is designed to help service operators to provide their services around the world. The General Agreement on Trade in Services sets the basic trade rules for 130 countries. Each one of its Member States must make a commitment which clearly indicates which parts, or 'sectors' of its services markets are open to foreign business.

Educational services, including higher education, are one of the 12 broad sectors currently being negotiated under GATS.

In December 2000, the United States presented its first proposal concerning the inclusion of higher education in the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) negotiations (Annex 8.4). In addition to the United States, three countries-Australia, New Zealand and Japan-have presented proposals on higher education (Annex 8.4). In the GATS process, the WTO member nations make commitments to negotiate on a particular area. These negotiations are in process, and the outcomes and consequences for colleges and universities around the world are as yet unclear. The American Council on Education, the Association of Colleges and Universities of Canada, the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (U.S) and the European University Association have expressed their concerns about these negotiations in a joint declaration and in communications with their respective governments.

The declaration appears on the EUA web site at http://www.unige.ch/eua/. The associations expressed concerns over several issues, including what they saw as unclear distinctions between public and private higher education and how each is covered by GATS; institutional autonomy concerning academic matters; state and provincial authority over fiscal policy; and independent

accreditation and quality assurance processes around the world. Because the negotiations are far from complete, it is important for higher education leaders to work with their governments to follow the negotiations as they proceed and shape their course constructively.

8.4 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

The OECD groups 30 member countries sharing a commitment to democratic government and the market economy. With active relationships with some 70 other countries , NGOs and civil society, it has a global reach. Best known for its publications and its statistics , its work covers economic and social issues from macroeconomics, to trade, education, development and science and innovation.

A very important paper concerning investing in human capital was presented by OECD/ Economic department working paper (No 333) and provides many useful information and statistics about benefits of investing in post secondary education.
The introduction of this paper is in Annex 8.3 and gives estimation about net gains due to human capital investment from upper secondary and tertiary education.