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# HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE

In this issue:

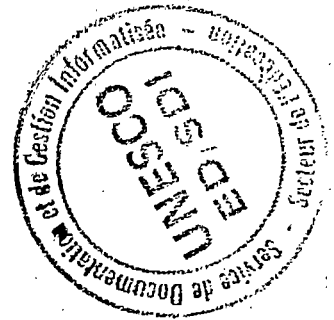
**COUNSELLING and ORIENTATION  
of Students in Higher Education**

Vol. XIX, No. 3, 1994

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**U N E S C O**  
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## FROM THE EDITORS

The choice of topic for this issue of **Higher Education in Europe** reflects the growing importance of student counselling and orientation in higher education. Although both have always been part of the university environment, particularly in the United Kingdom and the United States, they have been moving closer to centre stage in recent years as a result of the massification of higher education, its diversification and growing complexity, and the increasing types and intensity of pressure being placed on students regarding both their studies and the difficulties that very many of them anticipate in finding suitable employment upon graduation. At the very least, academic counsellors will help students deal successfully with these pressures while making the best possible choices regarding their studies and their future careers.

In order to explore this topic, we are publishing a number of papers which were presented at the twenty-fifth International Conference (Bordeaux, 13-16 April 1993) of IRTAC, the International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling, the subject of which was *Student Counselling in Higher Education: A Task of Growing Importance*. Specifically, this conference was the eighth one organized by IRTAC on the subject of education and career counselling.

There are ten articles in all. These include the welcoming address by IRTAC President, *Hans Z. Hoxter*; the report of the rapporteur, *Dimitra Schönegger* of Austria; communications by the representative of the Council of Europe, *Maitland Stobart*, and that of OECD, *Malcolm*

*Skilbeck*; three articles describing various operational aspects of counselling and orientation in higher education, respectively by *Ellen Noonan* of the United Kingdom, *Werner Clement* of Austria, and *Magda Ritook* of Hungary; two case studies, respectively by *Arnold Rothe* of Germany and *Baroness Perry of Southwark* of the United Kingdom; and a summing up by *Andris Barblan*, Secretary-General of the Standing Conference of Rectors, Presidents and Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities (CRE).

IRTAC itself is an international non-governmental association concerned with the interdisciplinary study of counselling and guidance. It grew out of a decision to set up such an organization to encourage the exchange of ideas, research findings, and personal experience in this domain. It found practical expression in the first International Seminar on Counselling held at the University of Neuchatel, Switzerland, in 1966. This seminar brought together people from many different countries who were involved in counselling and guidance, in the training of counsellors and of guidance advisers, and in various related academic fields.

IRTAC has offered advice and information to governmental and non-governmental organizations, both international and national, in industrial and developing countries alike, on the application of counselling in education, health and social services, and in other fields. IRTAC is administered by an Executive Council of around fifteen members drawn from many countries and is governed by its General Assembly of

dues-paying members who meet biennially under the chairmanship of its President. IRTAC is registered in Belgium as an international association with charitable status. It has consultative status with the United Nations, ECOSOC, UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO, and the Council of Europe.

The *Tribune* section of this issue continues the discussion on counselling and orientation of students in higher education.

The first article, one by *Tony Raban* of the United Kingdom, gives an overview of the history and the achievements of FEDORA, the European Forum on Student Guidance of which he was one of the founders and its first Chairman. In his words, FEDORA is the only organization which is specifically both European and devoted to the guidance of students in higher education. FEDORA, we should add, was a co-organizer of the Bordeaux IRTAC Conference.

The second article, by *A. G. Watts* of the United Kingdom, gives a brief history of academic and careers counselling in higher education institutions in the United Kingdom and evokes an ongoing debate as to what counselling services should in fact be and where they should be situated in university organizations.

The third *Tribune* article, by *Ivan P. Nikolov* of Bulgaria and *Jack W. Graham* of the United States, seems, at first glance, to have moved the spotlight from counselling and orientation to the development of student financial aid services specifically in the United States of America. But has the spotlight really moved that far? Many of the preceding

articles, after all, tell us that one of the tasks of an academic counsellor is to help students identify sources of financial aid and generally to cope with the pressures of multiple responsibilities as well as debt and a small income.

The *Information* section consists of reports of four important meetings of which CEPES was either a co-organizer or a major participant. These meetings include the conference, *Romania and Romanians in Contemporary Science* (Sinaia, Romania: 24-26 May 1994); the *Consultative Meeting of Ministers of Education of Central and Eastern European Countries* (Sinaia, Romania: 2-3 June 1994); the *Seventh Session of the Regional Committee for the application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States Belonging to the Europe Region* (Budapest, Hungary: 18 June 1994), and the first *Joint Meeting of the ENIC and NARIC Networks* (Budapest, Hungary: 19-22 June 1994).

In addition to the usual list of new publications received by the CEPES library and documentation centre, the *Bibliographical References* section includes a book review by a member of the CEPES staff, *L. Grünberg*.

The next issue of **Higher Education in Europe**, no. 4, 1994, will feature the proceedings of a conference, *Universities, Colleges, and Others: Diversity of Structures for Higher Education*, which was co-sponsored by the Council of Europe (Legislative Reform Programme for Higher Education) and by CEPES and held in Bucharest, at CEPES, from 23-25 September 1993.

# Counselling and Orientation of Students in Higher Education

## THE NATURE OF COUNSELLING

Hans Z. HOXTER

- The counsellor functions in a broad spectrum verging upon psychotherapy at one boundary and upon advice giving at the other and may also enrich the skills of others in the caring professions. In all cases, receptivity to the

individual's thoughts and feelings is required. This capacity is enlarged by the counsellor's ability to extend his or her own self-understanding and by willingness to learn from the client.

Counselling may be described as a method of relating to and responding to other people with the aim of providing them with opportunities to explore, to clarify, and to work towards living in a more satisfactory and resourceful way. This process may be applied to individuals, couples, families, or groups and may be used in widely differing contexts and settings.

### WHEN COUNSELLING IS NEEDED

Opportunities for counselling are especially likely to be required at times of crisis or change, when people are confronted by circumstances to which they are unable to respond adequately. At such times, people are likely to find themselves in a state of impasse, beset by uncertainty and insecurity to a painful degree which impedes them from making the transitions and adaptations appropriate to the changes in their life circumstances. Such suffering is

particularly likely to arise from severe or traumatic accident, bereavement, physical disablement, life-threatening illness, loss of employment, loss of home, emigration, marital difficulties, broken relationships, and many other situations which disrupt the previous patterns of life.

The sufferers may be partially aware of the strong and sometimes conflicting emotions aroused but may require the aid of the counsellor to clarify and thus to assist their recognition and acceptance of these emotions. They may also need to develop further insight to be able to relinquish some of the assumptions, attitudes, and sources of security upon which they previously relied. The challenges of life-disrupting experiences requires the mobilization of all the psychic resources of the individual so affected, but at this time he or she is likely to experience a diminution of the inner resources required. The intervention of the counsellor may thus be needed to



help the individual regain his or her ability to negotiate life's problems successfully.

### **THE BOUNDARIES BETWEEN COUNSELLING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY**

Psychodynamic counselling deals primarily with the conscious mind, whereas psychoanalysis is concerned with the unconscious. There is an area of confluence at the boundaries of consciousness where what is conscious and what is rooted in the unconscious overlap. The frontier cannot be clearly defined, for there is common territory spanning the area of functioning of both therapeutic disciplines.

The psychoanalytical therapist, however, focuses more specifically upon those unconscious aspects of the mind which are less accessible to the processes of self-understanding and more resistant to change. The individuals who suffer from deeper disturbances may often have experienced difficulties when encountering the more ordinary problems and developmental transitions usually occurring in life and have fewer resources to draw upon at times of crisis. With such people, unconscious factors may be operating too powerfully to enable counselling to be effective so that psychotherapy or psychoanalysis may be desirable.

The psychodynamic counsellor like the psychotherapist needs to respect the right of the client to make decisions in accord with his or her own value system, personal resources, and capacity for self-determination. The counsellor's relationship with the client needs to be based upon insight and tolerance, and for the development of this type of relationship, the counsellor's own self-knowledge is an indispensable quality.

### **COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE**

Although the counselling process may be primarily non-directive and non-advisory, some situations may call for more active intervention, and counselling may be combined with guidance and the provision of information. Such situations frequently occur at normal stages of transition. Examples include guidance concerning the further education or training of both children and adults; vocational and occupational guidance; counselling in programmes of health education and social education; and some aspects of the counselling of immigrants and refugees. In such work, it is valuable to provide information concerning the opportunities available for education, training, employment, social support, etc.

It is also necessary to help the client examine his or her own performances, strengths, weaknesses, and areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Some counsellors extend this work of clarification by the use of psychometric testing and self-revelatory questionnaires to aid the process of assessing the client's abilities and potentialities. The information thus obtained needs to be shared with the client in an understandable form, and the implications explained and related to the choices being considered. The counselling approach differs from a purely advisory service in that no solutions are prescribed and the emphasis of the work is to support the individual in making his or her own decisions in the light of the information obtained.

### **FURTHER APPLICATION OF COUNSELLING**

Many of those in the caring professions are finding an increasing need to develop their counselling skills as a valuable component for the enhanced functioning of

their own areas of professional expertise. The counselling component is highly relevant to diverse professions such as those of teachers, doctors, nurses, occupational therapists, clergy, and lawyers and may be regarded as essential for social workers. The trained professional counsellor has a contribution to make to the further development of many colleagues in allied fields whose work entails contact with people at times of need and anxiety.

\*\*\*\*\*

The European Conference on Student Counselling in Higher Education was organized in association with CRE, the Standing Conference of Rectors, Presidents, and Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities; BAC, the British Association for Counselling; ASC, the As-

sociation for Student Counselling; and FEDORA, Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique (European Forum on Student Guidance). The Conference was held under the auspices of Madame Catherine Lalumière, Secretary-General of the Council of Europe, and with the generous support of the Commission of the European Union.

The Council of IRTAC is grateful to the Ministry of Education of France for its valuable help in this European Conference and to the University of Westminster for the production and printing of the Conference prospectus. The Council of IRTAC also wishes to thank the Presidents of the Universities of Bordeaux for their willingness to host the Conference and acknowledges with deep appreciation the hospitality of the City Authorities of Bordeaux.

## EUROPEAN CONFERENCE: STUDENT COUNSELLING IN HIGHER EDUCATION - A REPORT\*

Dimitra SCHÖNEGGER

- The main themes developed during the Conference are introduced, and the contributors, evoked. What motivated the holding of the Conference and the particular choice of contributors is the very poor economic climate in Europe occurring at a time when university enrollments are undergoing unprecedented expansion. Univer-

sity student counsellors, who are expected to serve as a kind of interface between the outside world and the university, have as their primary task that of helping students, who seek their services, to cope, to develop survival skills, to benefit from the academic side of their studies, all while preparing a niche for themselves on the outside.

The Conference of the International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling (IRTAC) on *Student Counselling in Higher Education*, held at the University of Bordeaux II in April 1993, was in fact the eighth such conference dedicated to the subject of education and career counselling since the organization started this initiative in 1966. What made this Conference different is the totally new global socio-economic and cultural situation in a historical stage of far-reaching changes. The changes, in turn, generate the feeling that the new developments are beyond individual control, thus creating a general atmosphere of insecurity and vulnerability. The high ranking personalities from the European Rectors' Standing Conference, the keynote speakers, the presence of the Representative of the Director of Education of the Council of Europe, the support of the French Ministry of Education, and the genuine interest and support of the Presidents of the host Universities of Bordeaux - all indicated that the subject has become of major importance for students, educational authorities, and governments.

The chief purpose of the conference was to focus attention on the difficulties which students experience and which contribute to their failure or underachievement while in higher education, and to examine ways in which various types of intervention may help.

The participants all drew attention to the present alienation between students and universities as organized venues for the dissemination of knowledge. Mass education, internalization, and mobility are some of the key words (Stobart, Barblan, Skilbeck). Counsellors deal (and prefer to do so) with students on a personal basis, trying to identify each individual's special capacities and needs, in order to help each one adjust to difficult day-to-day situations.

The questions concerning the interactions between students and institutions are the following:

- How are the educational institutions going to respond to this new situation?

\* This version of the *Final Report* has been slightly edited by the CEPES editorial staff.

- What is expected of the human resources?
- How should counsellors meet the new challenges?

In this three-day conference, participants very clearly expressed the need to re-define the goals of all those involved in higher education: students, teachers, counsellors, employers, ministers of education, and politicians.

The current situation points to a growing unemployment rate for a longer period of time (Barblan, Skilbeck, Perry). The economic recession is the result of the transformation of production methods and entails changes in employment patterns (Barblan). Students can no longer afford to simply *study*. That young people must start their university studies with a life plan (*projet de vie*) and must define their wishes and targets within the existing work reality has been emphasized. This understanding means that students must be duly prepared as to what to expect of their fields of study and what opportunities this education will ultimately provide for them.

The democratization of eastern Europe and migration from this region will inevitably bring a new and more human dimension to interaction, cooperation, and competition. The students of the new era will have to be open to mobility, communication, and tolerance (Stobart, Skilbeck, Barblan).

Counsellors function as mediators between the individual students, the universities, and the world *outside*. They encounter their clients in phases of personality crises and accompany them through a period of their lives which is transitory, however important, and is only one of the many stages of a person's "life journey" (Noonan).

Counsellors are the people who draw attention to a multiplicity of problems faced by students in our society, for example,

- the shock and frustration experienced at what is a first major change, that from secondary to higher education entailing a new mode and method of study;
- the help needed for career choice, opportunities to explore, the development of opportunity awareness, while incorporating individual lifestyles;
- the growing numbers of students suffering from emotional and behavioural problems;
- the provision of special support for students with disabilities and special needs;
- ways and means to overcome examination anxiety;
- improvement of student motivation;
- the difficulties experienced by students for whom the language of instruction is their second language;
- the counselling of immigrants in order to facilitate adaptation to a new culture (e.g., Israel);
- how to establish a work force of peer counsellors to guide immigrants in academic and social life;
- the addition of Anorexia and Bulimia Nervosa to the counsellor's list of diseases to which students are particularly prone;
- drop-out rates calling for the intervention of counselling;
- new problems which arise from socio-economic change and which generate additional stress among students in such countries as Poland;
- the need for a different style of counselling for university students of an older generation.

In response to worldwide socio-economic developments, the universities, *traditional* or *open*, will inevitably attempt to produce the quality of education needed for the competitiveness of the world *outside*. They expect that counsellors will follow the new exigencies of student life and will add to their aim of "counselling for students as persons" (Noonan) and the question of "counselling for what purpose" (Clement). For example, the low success rate of freshers in Belgium alarmed the university authorities and led to legal changes in order to provide a more rational and effective distribution of services and financial resources.

The reconciliation of the world of education with the world of enterprise has been sufficiently stressed as a matter of utmost importance for the near future (Rothe, Clement, Barblan). Efforts to this end must be undertaken by all those involved. The example from Heidelberg (Rothe) is encouraging, but at the same time, it shows that we are still at the very beginning of the implementation of long recognized conclusions drawn from both experience and research (Clement). The new and important element in the MiB project is that arts and humanities students are being incorporated into the *business world*, where traditionally they were labelled in the best of cases as mere *scholars*, and in the worst, as *dreamers*.

It is an acknowledged fact that the labour market hesitates to employ arts and social science graduates, especially women (Skilbeck), out of sheer ignorance

of what they have actually learned. The efforts in favour of a better use of human resources have therefore to include the provision of the labour market and governmental bodies with fuller information about the qualifications of university graduates. The mistrust shown by universities of the world of enterprise (Rothe) and vice versa has evidently led to an unnecessary waste of human resources.

The important function of counselling in higher education is not diminished by critical comments or by the re-evaluation of the professional targets. That students will also have to change their view of the university as the place for universal remedies is stressed. "When students enter Higher Education they enter a process requiring them to take greater responsibility for intellectual, practical, and emotional aspects of their lives". This view, however, presupposes a stage of maturity which is also expected from the universities in order for them to function as academic institutions. During the time of the student's affiliation with a university, a "correlation between personal development and achievement ought to be attained. Education is not only the acquisition of skills but also of emotional maturity". Or alternatively in the words of Malcolm Skilbeck, "...students need a broad general education as well as professional skills, and they need to be helped to develop a more open attitude towards what it means to be a graduate and towards the status of the graduate in the contemporary world. These are tasks for guidance as much as for instruction".

## CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Maitland STOBART

- The main concerns of the Council of Europe with regard to education are presented. In particular, the Council calls upon education to promote human rights and fundamental freedoms, to create a sense of the common

European home, and to rise to the major challenges facing European societies. The needs of eastern and central Europe are particular objects of attention as are attempts to deal with cultural diversity and to promote democratic values.

As a result of the dramatic changes which have taken place in central and eastern Europe over the past four years, the Council of Europe has become the widest intergovernmental and interparliamentary forum in Europe. Thirty-nine States, including Albania, the three Baltic States, Belarus, Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, and Slovenia now take part in its education programme. Ukraine will do so in the near future, and contacts are under way with other countries in the region.

The Council of Europe shares the vision of the New Europe, which is proclaimed in *The Charter of Paris for a New Europe*. This Charter was adopted in November 1990 by the Heads of State or Government of the then 34 countries involved in the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (the CSCE). They declared that "ours is a time for fulfilling the hopes and expectations that our peoples have cherished for decades: steadfast commitment to democracy based on human rights and fundamental freedoms; prosperity through economic liberty and social justice; and equal security for all countries".

On the other hand, the Council of Europe is also aware of the considerable problems facing the New Europe. At one

level, there are free elections, co-operation, integration, and solidarity. At another, however, there is disintegration, fragmentation, intolerance, rejection, and even warfare. In Zagreb in mid-1993, there were about 5,000 displaced and refugee students from both Croatia and Bosnia, and many others were in neighbouring countries like Austria, Hungary, and Slovenia. All of them need help to survive and to continue their studies. Many of them have witnessed scenes of horror and need counselling.

Furthermore, in most European countries, economic change and restructuring have been accompanied by unemployment and marginalization, and there are fears that the New Europe could become a two-track society.

In this fluid and challenging situation, the Educational Programme of the Council of Europe is seeking to help its Member States to find answers to three over-arching questions:

- How can education help to promote human rights and fundamental freedoms and to strengthen pluralistic democracy?
- How can education help to bring the peoples of Europe closer together and to create a sense of

"being at home" in the wider community of Europe?

- How can education help the governments and citizens of Europe to meet the major challenges facing their societies and, whenever possible, adopt convergent solutions to them?

### THE EUROPEAN DIMENSION OF EDUCATION

European co-operation and integration are now part of the daily lives of governments, business people, trade unions, professional groups, and private citizens. They are influencing all areas of policy, including education. The European dimension will be an increasingly important factor in educational planning and practice in all European countries in the coming years.

For a long time, the European dimension of education was seen as a simple "education for reconciliation and better understanding", and it concerned only a few idealists and teachers. Recently, there has been a sea-change in thinking about the European dimension because of the new situation in central and eastern Europe and the development of European co-operation and integration, in particular the Single European market, the European Economic Area, and the Treaty of Maastricht. It has evolved into a broader and much more dynamic concept, which has important implications for all sectors of education: school, higher and adult education, as well as educational research.

The political importance of the European dimension is illustrated by the fact that the Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education of the Council of Europe chose it as the main theme of a recent session. The session

was held in Vienna in 1991 and was attended by Ministers and senior officials from 34 European countries.

The Ministers pointed out that work, study, and leisure in Europe are increasingly characterized by mobility, interchange, and communication and that the daily lives of Europeans are taking on "a living European dimension". The Ministers recommended that, in these circumstances, education should:

- increase awareness of the growing unity between the countries and peoples of Europe and of the establishment of their relations on a new basis;
- foster understanding of the fact that, in many spheres of our lives, the European perspective applies and European decisions are necessary.

On the other hand, the Ministers emphasized that young people should not lose sight of their global responsibilities or of their national, regional, and local roots.

For the Council of Europe, the term, *the European dimension of education*, does not imply uniformity of education systems from North Cape to Cyprus or Malta or from Reykjavik to Berlin and Vladivostok. There must be respect both for diversity and for local, regional, and national specificities.

One of the most challenging tasks of European education systems will, therefore, be to prepare young people for life in a democratic, multicultural, multilingual, and more mobile Europe. Through imaginative schemes of guidance and counselling, they must be helped to make use of the increasing possibilities for study, training, work experience, and work in other European countries.

## HIGHER EDUCATION AND EUROPE

In order to encourage the free exchange of ideas and people, the Council of Europe has worked to promote both the equivalence of diplomas and academic mobility. For example, it has drawn up five European conventions or treaties on these subjects. It is now committed to establishing a joint convention on mobility and recognition with UNESCO. It also operates a network of national information centres, soon to be merged with those of UNESCO and the European Union, which can provide authoritative information on formal requirements and the current recognition of particular qualifications to students, research-workers, academics, governmental bodies, higher education institutions, and prospective employers.

This information service is complemented by international scholarship schemes to help university students spend periods of study in other European countries. The most important of these are the ERASMUS Programme of the European Communities and the NORDPLUS Project of the Nordic Council of Ministers.

A year ago, the Council of Europe started a new three-year project on access to higher education. It will deal with the inter-action between secondary and higher education; policies for access to higher education; barriers to access; and the European and international aspects of access. In September 1993, as part of this project, the Council organized a European educational research workshop on guidance in secondary education which was held at the University of Ghent and focused on guidance for higher education.

Recently, there has been a marked increase in indirect co-operation between

European universities - sometimes on a regional and transfrontier basis. For example, the seven universities in Strasbourg, Mulhouse, Basle, Freiburg, and Karlsruhe set up a European Confederation of Universities of the Upper Rhine to develop common courses, joint projects, and exchanges of students, teachers, and researchers.

There have also been significant programmes of European Studies at both undergraduate and postgraduate level.

The past few years have seen the increasing use of distance teaching in Europe and in other parts of the world. Exciting international perspectives are being opened up by telematics and satellite technology. We can now envisage new European forms of Distance Teaching Universities. The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe has called for a European open university network based on co-operation among distance teaching universities in all European countries.

In a world characterized by constant and rapid change, young people should be aware that it is no longer possible, if it ever were, to obtain an initial diploma or qualification and to turn it into a job for the next forty years. The perspectives opened up by such developments as the doubling of scientific and technical information every five years, satellite technology, and electronic data-bases have led to claims that we are living in "an information society".

The European Ministers of Education have reviewed the challenges to education policies of the information society. They have acknowledged that the new information technologies and the mass media offer considerable opportunities for improving the effectiveness of learn-



ing and teaching and for opening up education to the outside world.

The Ministers recommended that in the information society education systems should not try to impart encyclopaedic knowledge. The emphasis has now shifted to selecting information, thinking critically, solving problems, working in teams, communicating, and constantly re-assessing one's knowledge and skills in the light of changing needs.

In other words, Europe is moving towards a system of *life-long, recurrent, or permanent* education which will involve the co-ordination of the various sectors of educational provision: formal and informal, vocational, and nonvocational.

### THE NEEDS OF CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

All the new partner countries in central and eastern Europe are re-building their education systems on democratic lines.

This task involves:

- the preparation of new legislation. In 1992, the Legislative reform project on higher education in central and eastern Europe began to function. Its aim is to help to restore academic autonomy to institutions and to guarantee freedom of learning, teaching, and research to individuals;
- the development of new curricula, textbooks, and teaching resources for all sectors of education, the situation being particularly serious in history, philosophy, politics, law, economics, and business studies, which had a heavy ideological bias before the changes.

All of these reforms and changes have considerable implications for teachers and administrators, and there is an ur-

gent need for large-scale programmes of in-service training.

At the same time, the countries in central and eastern Europe are facing severe economic problems and are finding it difficult, if not impossible, to make the necessary investments in education.

A critical problem is the brain drain of highly qualified staff and researchers from universities in the region to the better paid private sector or to institutions of higher education and research in western Europe and North America. Will these universities survive if they are emptied of their teachers and researchers? The Council of Europe held a high level conference on this problem in Budapest (13-15 October 1993).

The scale and diversity of these needs are so great that they will require a sustained response for several years. They far exceed the capacity of any single European country or institution.

Two subjects are of far-reaching political importance for the stability of the New Europe:

- intercultural education or education for life in a multicultural society;
- education for democratic values or human rights education.

### THE CHALLENGE OF CULTURAL DIVERSITY

The past 40 years have seen the emergence of multicultural societies in many European countries. As a result of migration and immigration, many schools in Western Europe are now, in fact, international schools because they have pupils in their classes of different nationalities, cultures, religions, and races. European education systems are being asked to carry out the double task of helping these young

people to integrate into their host countries and to maintain, if they wish, links with their own languages and cultures.

The justifiable concern about the integration of recent immigrants sometimes leads us to overlook the fact that Europe has always been a multicultural society. Many countries have had minorities or old ethnic groups for centuries, and, as we have seen recently, ethnic and national feelings can be dangerous and explosive.

In the present volatile situation in Europe, there is a strong sensitivity about identity. This concept is complex. It covers shared memory and sense of history, as well as language and religion. Sometimes identity asserts itself in violent and destructive ways at the expense of the identities of others, as can be seen in the tragedy of former Yugoslavia.

The Council of Europe believes that intercultural education is the proper response to the challenges of education in a multicultural society. Such an intercultural education should be based on open-mindedness, mutual understanding, awareness and acceptance of diversity, and respect for other cultures, religions, and languages. It should be experienced by all young people, and training in intercultural sensitivity should be included in the training of all teachers. The intercultural approach should permeate the whole of the life of our schools and institutions of higher education: their ethos and their organization, as well as the content of the formal curriculum.

The Council of Europe has lent its support to the establishment of an International Institute for Intercultural Education in Timioara in Romania. The Institute will organize training seminars and international colloquies on intercultural education in co-operation with

universities and specialized centres in other European countries.

## EDUCATION AND DEMOCRATIC VALUES

At present, a serious reflection is underway throughout Europe about the role of education in overcoming political apathy and combatting such challenges to democratic values as intolerance, xenophobia, racism, anti-semitism, and violence. Furthermore, the countries of central and eastern Europe are preparing new programmes of education for democratic citizenship to replace the old ideological courses which are no longer in force.

The Council of Europe has worked with teachers at all levels, with specialists, and with nongovernmental organizations like Amnesty International to define how education systems can help to promote an active commitment to human rights and the principles of pluralistic democracy.

Schools and universities should help to make young people and adults aware of their common heritage of political ideas and traditions; in particular freedom and the rule of law. They should also equip them with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that they will need if they are to play an active part in the operation and development of our democratic institutions.

The Australian human rights educator, Ralph Pettman, has spoken of human rights education as "an education in moral literacy". It is also an education in civil courage. European societies will need both these qualities - moral literacy and civil courage - if they are to withstand the pressures and the tensions, the intolerance, and the fear generated by economic, social, and political change.

## STUDENT NEEDS IN AN ERA OF MASS HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

Malcolm SKILBECK

- The article gives an overview of higher education in Europe and North America from the student revolts of 1968 to the present, stressing its massification and its diversification. Economic insecurity, the author suggests, has made students forgo the radicalism of the late 1960's; however, the poor conditions in which students must study should serve as a warning

to the public authorities. The growing complexity of the educational process, including the links between education and future employment and employability, are such that the services of student advisors and counsellors are needed at all levels. Their services will become as important as those provided by the teachers themselves.

### INTRODUCTION

May 1994 marked the twenty-sixth anniversary of the uprising of French students. Those days in May 1968 brought the government of the day to the verge of collapse, President de Gaulle in readiness to take flight to Germany, and the attention of the world, not for the first time, on the streets of Paris. These events marked the culmination of a decade of growing alienation of students, especially in the United States, but in many other countries as well. The lessons to be learned from that decade are no less relevant in the changed conditions of the 1990's. Some of these lessons are worth pondering today.

The multitudinous causes of the May, 1968, uprising and of subsequent large-scale student demonstrations and sit-ins have been extensively analyzed. The purpose of this article is not to rake over the coals of history. However, one of the lesser known studies carried out in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was an

attempt to understand and to learn from the student discontent.

The OECD, an inter-governmental agency, directed at its inception at restoring the crippled economies of Europe following the Second World War was, of course, a symbol of the very capitalist regimes the students wished to overthrow. Although the views expressed in OECD papers are perhaps not impartial, they are based on considerable bodies of evidence and hardheaded analysis. What follows, by way of introduction, mentions the causes of the student uprising that the OECD adduced.

The 1960's were, of course, a period of great expansion in public education everywhere. British universities, for instance, were experiencing at first hand the era of growth and relative optimism which was ushered in by the report of the Robbins Committee on Higher Education (OECD, 1993a). As it turned out, educational systems in full expansion in

1 The views expressed in this paper, which are those of the author, do not commit the OECD.

many countries were the targets of vehement and at times violent contestation by their principal clients, namely the students themselves. While education overall expanded throughout the 1960's, the most rapid rate of growth was in higher education. Why then, when the quantitative increase in demand was being so handsomely responded to and financed by governments, did the students seem to bite the hands that fed them: attacking the institutions and then, through them, the apparatus of the state? One set of psycho-social answers to that question fastened on a middle class generation, over-pampered in childhood and in ungrateful revolt against their parents, the elders of the tribe (Morris, 1972; Cauter, 1988; Gitlin, 1988). The OECD explanation, however, grouped the numerous causes of conflict under three headings.

First, there was "uncertainty as to the permanent aims of society beyond material satisfaction, and student desire to participate as adults in shaping the destiny of the university and of a new society".

Second was the "student preoccupation with professional and career prospects after graduation, particularly in the professionally unanchored disciplines".

Third, there was "dissatisfaction with, and in many cases, utter rejection of the existing internal structure, organization, content, and methods of the educational system" (Gitlin, 1988).

The first two of these three clusters of factors bear a remarkable similarity to present conditions. As to the third, attitudes towards existing internal structures, etc.; while there is not much visible evidence of this extreme dissatisfaction, it cannot be assumed that because students are relatively quiet

they are satisfied with their places in institutional life. It would be very strange indeed if in some of our grossly overcrowded and under-equipped institutions and in those in which academic staff rate teaching very low in their order of priorities students were satisfied. But, for the moment at least, the campuses are relatively quiet.

### POST-1968 STUDENTS

Many changes followed May 1968, including a more open and participatory style of governance and decision-making in higher education (for staff as well as for students), increasing diversification of the form and structure of higher education in response to still larger and more varied student numbers, and for reasons that are not confined to the uprising, a growing emphasis on the need for higher education institutions to become more closely related to their communities (Papadopoulos, 1993).

Writing on the basis of more than eighteen years in higher education in England, Northern Ireland, and Australia, the author can observe that a widespread consensus exists that after their burst of radicalism in the 1960's students have generally become quiescent. In several countries, the political right and religious movements seem to have displaced the radical movements of the previous generation. It is widely believed that the upheavals in economic affairs in the wake of the first oil shock of the early 1970's have induced a mood of acceptance of the social status quo and a sober orientation towards the employment market. Students, it has been frequently remarked, are no longer interested in radical politics, or in new age values for that matter. The collapse of the socialist regimes in eastern and central Europe and the emergence of neo-liberal economics and analogous right-wing

movements seem to have left the social ideals which were still very prominent in the 1960's in tatters. The students, it seems, have their heads down, working hard and seriously to equip themselves for well paid jobs upon graduation.

While there is some truth in these observations - and it is a comforting truth for those in authority, whether in government, or in higher education institutions, or in other bastions of the social order - there are factors in the higher education environment which should be giving cause for considerable concern. Not the least among these factors are the conditions governing student life and affairs.

This article does not wish to raise the specter of prospective student alienation or to suggest that the overall social, economic, and cultural conditions of the 1990's are comparable to those of the 1960's even though there are as many differences as similarities; rather the findings of recent OECD and other studies suggest that higher education institutions must address the questions of student characteristics, intentions, needs, and prospects just as closely as they address social and economic goals, finance and resources, efficient management, and, of course, research and scholarship. With regard to the latter point, research and scholarship, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that many universities are more responsive to challenges and opportunities from that quarter than they are to the needs of their students for expert and considerate teaching. Research and scholarship in universities are generally much better rewarded through promotion, freedom of movement, support, and overall status than is teaching. Changes are on the way, including moves to monitor and to assess overall quality in higher education which would include teaching as well as

research and scholarship, but the imbalance remains. While this line is an important one to pursue, it will not be pursued any further in this article; rather, the focus will turn to the changing conditions in which higher education is now operating, in particular the changing employment prospects for graduates.

## GRADUATE EMPLOYMENT PROSPECTS

Widespread recession in the OECD countries and, partly but not wholly, as a consequence of recession, very high levels of unemployment, including graduate unemployment, constitute a very real challenge to higher education. The effects of such economic factors are largely negative for higher education, for they mean highly constrained or reduced budgets in the public sector and increased competition by graduates for jobs. Both are very worrying for staff and students alike. An economic balance sheet, however, would need to include factors that offer more encouragement, such as rapidly increasing globalization, one consequence of which is increased mobility and job opportunities for certain categories of highly qualified people. At the same time, employment opportunities in particular countries are collapsing as certain industries find it in their interests to move to other, lower cost countries. Again, if core budgets are threatened, on the one hand, institutions are showing considerable entrepreneurship in raising funds from diverse sources, and if teaching in some disciplines is suffering, increased investment in research and development is synonymous with growth in certain sectors, for example, information science, materials technology, and bio-technology. Thus it does not make sense to simply draw a gloomy picture of the impact of reduced public budgets on higher education activities. A complex interaction is taking place between higher

education and the economy resulting in difficulties and opportunities which institutions need to address.

For at least the past decade and for longer in some countries, European higher education institutions have been reviewing their missions and developing new strategies to cope with the changed environments in which they are functioning. Student mobility, for example, once confined largely to language students and postgraduates, is becoming much more common for undergraduates who take part of their course programmes in foreign countries. Substantial public funds have been deployed, for instance, through the ERASMUS and COMETT programmes of the European Union. Yet again, in countries in which there has been no tradition of private institutions of higher education, there are signs of significant growth of privately funded universities and colleges which will both provide more variety and diversity and new study opportunities for students. Another significant change in the environment is that throughout the OECD there is a tendency for governments to draw both students and employers into the network of those who must pay for higher education.

These and many other specific changes in the higher education environment are bringing about new institutional orientations. However, the most dramatic of all these changes, one which indeed is a means of relating them one to another, is the transformation of the previously elite and selective system of higher education into a mass or even, in one or two countries, a universal system.

Although there are considerable variations between countries, and fluctuations in trend figures, as shown in the detailed tables in recent OECD studies,

there is, overall, a clear direction. Countries not already at the stage of mass higher education (and some countries reached this stage long ago) are moving towards it. Those at the universal level are maintaining their positions or are increasing enrollments even further (Trow, 1973; Clark, 1987; Rothblatt, 1992; Hunt, 1992).

Just as in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries primary schooling became a mass and then a universal phenomenon, and from about the middle of the twentieth century, secondary education assumed this character; so, in the late twentieth century, higher education is becoming a mass or universal institution in European societies. Thus, in the not too distant future, practically all young people, and large numbers of mature age students as well, will be entering higher education and undertaking studies as a norm and a typical follow-on from secondary schooling, as an alternative to or preparation for changes in employment, or as a leisure pursuit.

This change is one of utmost importance, the ramifications of which will extend far beyond the institutions themselves, and the implications of which are still, in most countries, yet to be worked out in any systematic or coherent way.

One set of implications relates to the labour market for graduates. Up to and including the present, graduates have normally expected to move into the higher levels of public sector employment, the professions, and, to a certain extent, private industry and commerce. In the early 1980's, as many as two-thirds of graduates in any one year sought and found posts in the public sector. Today it is the private sector that, in many countries, recruits that proportion, a major reversal in only a decade (OECD, 1993a).

## STUDENT NEEDS

Despite the overall rise in the volume of employment in OECD countries in the 1980's, unemployment rates, although fluctuating, were also often high. For graduates, there has been, until recently, a substantial demand from employers. But this overall demand has masked considerable disparities in actual job openings according to the type and level of training.

For example, the demand for high level jobs in management and engineering remained generally buoyant, but for graduates the qualifications of whom have traditionally taken them into teaching or other public sector jobs, unemployment rates rose. The picture is a great deal more complex than these comparisons suggest. Job substitutions, for example, occurred as employers, able to pick and choose from an abundant supply of labour, gave preference to graduates over high school leavers. Nevertheless, there is cause for concern and certainly for a thorough going appraisal of higher education institutional missions and strategies in the face of changing - and often worsening - employment prospects for their graduates.

In recent analytical work in the OECD, based on information provided by member countries, two large disciplinary areas and one very large category of students for whom employment openings have become increasingly difficult have been pinpointed. The disciplinary areas comprise the arts or humanities subjects and the social sciences. The category of student most at risk in employment terms is the young female arts or social science graduate (OECD, 1993b).

As a result of the relative decline of public sector employment opportunities, job openings in law, economics, some forms of management, and other studies, which are quite firmly tied to some specific service occupations, are far less available than they were a decade ago. Thus it is

quite misleading to talk about graduates as if they are a homogeneous mass. Indeed, they become more heterogeneous by the year. Not only are there the obvious differences between graduates of different faculties, schools, or departments, such as history or chemistry, architecture, or veterinary science, there is also the growing number of mature age students, already in excess of fifty percent of new enrollees in some countries, faculties, and institutions; of part-time students including those in the expanding distance or open learning programmes; and of students of usually mature age taking specific units of study rather than whole programmes. For such a diversity of students, the structures of traditional and modern universities are becoming increasingly diverse. Moreover, there are now appropriate alternatives to universities, evening and extension courses, credit transfer arrangements, modular courses, and so on. This variability and widening opportunities for study are greater than ever before. But variability has a negative as well as a positive pole. The student receiving a fortnightly personal tutorial in the residential college of one institution has a very different experience from that of one of thousands enrolled in huge, impersonal undergraduate programmes and herded into grossly overcrowded lecture halls. These are, or course, extreme cases, but there is no doubt that the direction being taken through diversity and variety is towards the overcrowded end of the spectrum. Can we really expect students willingly and with good grace to go on accepting these conditions?

### THE LINK BETWEEN STUDENT PLACEMENT AND COUNSELLING

We are now entering a period not only of change in values, expectations, and conditions in higher education, but also of

great uncertainty. Overall, and for the first time in recent years, the absorption of graduate flows will not be eased by a shortage of personnel in the labour market. Graduate placement will need to become more closely aligned with student counselling and with curriculum development, a concept still too little understood in higher education. These are not processes which can be left to the latter part of a student's course programme or even to the judgment of individuals and departments, but must be tackled at the institutional level.

While graduates from many departments and institutions will be snapped up, large numbers of other graduates will not. This situation is not satisfactory either for the individuals concerned or for society since the substantial investment, both human and financial, required for a higher education course programme for most students and for most providers of support implies at least active and fulfilling participation by graduates in the labour market. One conclusion reached by the OECD studies of higher education and employment is that there is need for a substantial rethinking not only by teachers of the arts and social science disciplines, but also by those responsible for any other established academic disciplines which are not very clearly related to the changing job market. This point also applies to higher educational level vocational courses the very specificity of which in times of rapid economic change may prove to be a disadvantage.

No suggestion is being made that employment opportunities constitute the only criterion or worth in curriculum review, evaluation, and development in higher education. There are several purposes to be fulfilled so far as students are concerned, and the overall mission of

universities in particular cannot be satisfied if their programmes are merely subservient to prevailing economic conditions. Yet, throughout the whole history of universities, the goal of professional preparation has always been at the fore, and there are few in higher education who would disclaim any responsibility for the future employment opportunities of their students.

In the past, there has often been a rather comfortable relationship between university departments, on the one hand, and the job market in the public sector, including school teaching, on the other. This relationship cannot be sustained in the changing economic conditions of today in which public sector job opportunities have diminished just as European societies are on the verge of mass or universal higher education.

A further conclusion is that the established institutions will need to be on their mettle since, while a degree or a diploma from a prestigious university or department has in the past often guaranteed a job, many more small, innovative, and very market conscious private institutions as well as firms themselves are providing courses of study which are both sensitive to the changing world of employment and are achieving a high level of quality (OECD, 1991).

A third conclusion, not based so much on the most recent OECD work, but of longer standing interest, is that dropout and failure rates, unduly prolonged durations of study, and other potential inefficiencies need to be most seriously addressed. They are a drag on the performance of higher education institutions, a drain on resources, and in general, poor preparation for mature adult life. Failure rates, however, are sometimes more apparent than real as records of subsequent study and re-enrollment are usually in-



adequate. It is also recognized that prolongation of a course programme in combination with work or family life may bring positive benefits or be an overriding economic or personal necessity. Allowing for such considerations, more attention must be devoted to the responsibility of the institutions for the successful education of all or most of those it is prepared to enroll. The old adage that the onus in higher education is on the student rather than on the teacher was always a little suspect, but is now increasingly inappropriate. Students who are paying considerable sums for their courses of study, employers supporting students, and the public paymasters, will not let matters rest there (OECD, 1987).

It is sometimes suggested that the need for a full range of tutorial, guidance, counselling, placement, and other student support services will be less rather than more needed as an increasing proportion of tertiary students are of a mature age. Leaving aside the point that the numbers of younger students are also increasing, is it not the case that mature age students are in just as great a need of these services as their younger counterparts?

Student advisors and counsellors are the experts in the content and delivery of these services and know how they can be best improved and extended. It is an expertise that is not always well understood or properly valued by all parts of the academic institutions. The coming era of mass higher education will need to see a change in that understanding and in the place of these services.

## CONCLUSION

The theme of this article has been centred on implications and consequences of system-wide growth. Some persons doubt

that a mass system of higher education makes sense (Halsey, 1992). But similar skepticism in the past was first expressed about secondary education for a majority, than about secondary education for everyone. The fact is that mass higher education is already with us, but the conditions under which it is being provided are deteriorating overall. While a repeat of 1968 is not expected, there were lessons then that apply to the very demanding and often frustrating conditions in which today's students find themselves. Their average incomes are low. They face an uncertain future. Their employment prospects have in relative terms worsened. Institutions are becoming larger, often more impersonal and bureaucratic, and opportunities for true dialogue and shared decision-making may be diminishing rather than increasing. It is unlikely that the next quarter century will witness the same kind of "all quiet on the student front" that we have seen in the last twenty-five years. Students need not only the benefits of well prepared, up-to-date, and professionally relevant courses of study; they also need to be prepared for a world of uncertainty, not the least in respect of the matching of qualifications to jobs.

Although focussed on the job or employment dimension of the problem, the conclusion of this article is that more than ever before, students need a broad general education as well as professional skills. They also need to be helped to develop a more open attitude towards what the status of a graduate in the contemporary world means. These are tasks for guidance as much as for instruction.

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## THE STUDENT AS A PERSON

Ellen NOONAN

- This article is a plea that university teachers and administrators never forget that students are also people whose intellectual development is strongly linked to their personal development. Students grow through learning, something which in order to be successful a teacher must understand. Certain disfunctionalities and their remedies are described. Upon completion of his

undergraduate studies, a student should have gained a great deal of personal autonomy and be sure of his identity. The role of the university as a place in which knowledge is pursued for its own sake should be cherished for its value as a means of student personal and psychological development.

### INTRODUCTION

The title of this article may seem a bit strange for a paper to be presented at a conference on student counselling because, of course, students are people. If nothing else, they have legs to get them to classes, bottoms to sit on, and hands with which to write essays and examinations; so, their corporeal existence is essential to their being students. But *STUDENT* also denotes a role: one of the four indispensable to an educational institution if it is to fulfill its primary task in society. Sometimes in the heat and anxiety of their work, counsellors overemphasize the demands of the role, so that the individual gets lost, or the emotional signs of individuality are so disruptive to the work that counsellors sometimes wish that students were simply brains on sticks.

Teachers, administrators, and maintenance staff are the other three essential roles in the education system. This article refers to teachers because one cannot speak about students without speaking of teachers, but it leaves aside the issues surrounding administration and maintenance. Administrators in particular need an occasion in their own right, espe-

cially in these days when the management of education is very much akin to the management of stress.

Students enroll in course programmes in order to learn, but they also do so to continue to grow, to develop, and to reach toward maturity. The higher education experience is a piece of their journey of life. One hopes that it consists of steadily increasing personal power and purpose.

When teachers think about the students they have known (or have been), they may observe that some of them seem to speed along as if on the motorway on a quiet Sunday morning, getting where they want to go quickly and single-mindedly, even if, possibly, at the expense of missing some of the more interesting countryside. Some are easily distracted by points of local interest and meander along, always absorbed and fascinated, but perhaps without a clear destination. Some stop mid-journey because the next stage seems too difficult or simply to dally with pleasure. Some get lost and spend greater or lesser amounts of time getting back to their main roads. Some simply break down temporarily or irretrievably. Some insist on navigating

with the use of maps which they may or may not be able to read. Some eschew maps and rely on instinct. Some are always stopping and asking where to go next. Some have neither maps, nor instincts, nor the sense to ask directions. Some appear to be heroes in need of excitement and adventure. Others are timorous and run for shelter if a storm looms. Some are overly tired and world-weary before they begin. Some have a fresh innocence and a thirst to discover. Some travel hopefully; others because they must. Some travel alone; others in company. Some are equipped with their own mechanical expertise. Others are altogether ill-prepared for the journey and its chances.

The journey metaphor rests on the notion that students are in a process of transition. Whether traditional students in the adolescent phase or mature students resuming education, they are redefining themselves, their values, their goals, and their attitudes. They are trying to find ways of using new, neglected, or denied aspects of themselves; trying to be more mature; and they are obliged to face bewildering or frightening internal and external experiences.

Because students happen to be studying, the university is the setting in which their personal transitional preoccupations and pressures are necessarily worked out. They will involve the institution, its work, and the people in it - and these in turn will help or hamper individuals in their particular journeys. This article picks out some elements of the ordinary and common experiences of students, some of the dilemmas and conflicts they have as people, and explores how these affect their *studenthood*. The fundamental challenge is how students can pursue their autobiographies while at the same time pursuing their academic careers.

## GROWTH THROUGH LEARNING

The University, of course, also has requirements to make of students: that they enroll in the institutions, do course work, take examinations, and leave. The wonderful thing is that personal growth can be achieved through the overlap and interaction of the psychological tasks and the student role because being a *STUDENT* presses the *PERSON* into making the necessary developmental advances by having to confront new or unresolved emotional problems - and can provide a containing structure for overcoming the obstacles.

So the earlier statement should be revised to the effect that the student comes to a university to grow *through* learning. Most students accomplish this task satisfactorily; however, student counsellors encounter those who do not - at least not easily - and so they want to understand how the difficulties arise; how much the difficulties are inherent in the educational process and system; how much they are rooted in the educational relationships; and how much they are the responsibility of students themselves. In this article, the author wishes to make a few comments about the educational environment as she understands it and then go on to consider how student and personal maturational tasks interact with one another. (Because her experience has been in universities, most references are to that form of higher education, but what is said applies equally to other institutions.)

### The Learning Environment

Educational systems are failing, in certain ways, to facilitate environments for growth and development. In the United Kingdom, education is increasingly conducted as an ego activity: it is about performance-quantifiable achievement, about the acquisition and assessment of a narrow

## THE STUDENT

range of knowledge, about preparation for work rather than having an experience in living. In this pressure to achieve, there is very little respect for the idea of emotional growth.

A few years ago, it was accepted that university-bound pupils would take three A-levels, engage in a number of social and sporting activities, and try a variety of jobs during the holidays. Now in the more competitive schools, students are sitting four or five, along with assorted other intermediate and advanced examinations. Whatever personal interests they may have, the school will have pressed them to undertake the most obligatory Duke of Edinburgh and Young Enterprise Schemes, and they will have done the required Camp America or European Inter-

rail. They end up not knowing whether they wanted to do these things, or were anxiously conforming to a norm.<sup>1</sup>

The pressure in favour of achievement within universities, especially in these anxiety-ridden times, also makes it possible for the student to delegate the desire for academic success to the academic staff or to the institution itself and so lose it for himself if there is any competition between personal and academic objectives.<sup>2</sup>

A further way in which the United Kingdom educational system is less than facilitative is in its repetitiveness. The staff has developed blasé attitudes towards the cycle of annual events and so fails to remember their significance for those experiencing them for the first or only time.<sup>3</sup> They thus fail to address the anxieties and

- 1 I recently met a girl of twenty who had completed her Scottish Highers in one year instead of two, competed for and won a year of studying in the United States, had competed to represent Scotland at an international youth festival in Japan during which she danced with the Crown Prince of Japan, had Inter-railed extensively through eastern Europe, had her Duke of Edinburgh Gold, and had earned a place on Operation Raleigh, along with some lesser achievements. She had sufficient achievements for four people, but the sad thing was that she, like many of her peers, was exceedingly dull and empty. Her stories were about having done these things, not having experienced them. I felt that the last thing she could do was to sit quietly and think about who she was. She regretted that her highers were not better, but the death of her grandmother had disrupted her studying.
- 2 This phenomenon is demonstrated by the case of a PhD student who could not get on with his work because of distressing personal difficulties which absorbed all his time and energy. The more his supervisor put pressure on him to complete work, the more the need for achievement seemed to belong to the supervisor and not to the student. The supervisor became a persecutor whom the student wanted to thwart. This student had been a political refugee who had come to the United Kingdom following political imprisonment. He was seeking a kind of asylum in the university to work through this experience intellectually and emotionally. Counselling revealed that the supervisor had come to stand in his mind for both his father and his fatherland who had made unreasonable demands on him to accept a noxious system. The therapeutic-academic task however was to work towards the point at which the student could reclaim for himself the wish and courage to achieve for the sake of his own need to move on beyond being a frustrating child and a frightened and damaged man.
- 3 Let me illustrate this point by telling a story about *freshers'* induction. Students arriving for their first year at the university were required to register with several bodies within the university - the registry, their academic departments, the health centre, the accommodations office, and the Student Union - each in its own place. They had to find their way around the confusing and sprawling urban geography of the university with an outdated map (all the names of the buildings had been altered long ago, but the maps still used the old names). On the first evening, the Student Union put on a big bash which is typically poorly attended, especially by the female students, but which invited excessive drinking and other social indiscretions. The official welcome came the next morning - a thirty minute ceremony in a hall which never had sufficient seats for all the students. The Vice-Chancellor in his business suit welcomed them, recited the illustrious history of the university, admonished them to be good at their studies and to be a credit to the university. He then left the hall. The Student Union and the Heads of the Student Services then each gave a little welcoming speech bombarding the bewildered students with facts about opening times and warnings about glandular fever, nasty landlords, spiritual crises, unemployment after graduation, and psychological stress. The students then rushed off to the departments where their personal tutors might or might not be waiting to have coffee with them before they started classes during the second half of the morning.

excitements of the new students as people. The argument made is that they are big boys and girls now, that they are here to study and not to play childish joining games. What place was there for the things important to those experiencing a major moment in their lives - structures which contained and guided them as they found their way around, a clear place for everyone, a celebration of study through the spectacle of colourful gowns, the standing side by side of academic and non-academic elements, some benign control of suddenly released impulses, some alerting to the excitement as well as to the difficulties ahead?

So while the university is the arena in which students must work out their personal development advances and conflicts, it is not always a sympathetic environment: it may be overly inflexible and anxious about itself. Students are not alone in suffering, for staff too may feel the apparently conflicting demands of the educational process. They also come into education with the belief and hope that it will promote their own development through a meshing of personal needs with role opportunities. Those who love teaching and learning and have pleasure in nurturing and bringing on young people revel in those relationships but may be frustrated and pained by the constraints of the syllabi and timetable and the ultimate need to assess and mark the student. For others, those whose excitement lies in their research relationships with their own subjects, the need to work with people - and especially with faltering beginners - often seems irksome and disruptive. Alas, the fact of belonging to the educational institution potentially presents a dilemma to be managed.

### The Entry Point

Perhaps more than at any other point of the university experience, joining underscores the importance of recognizing the person in the student role because the beginning can affect everything that follows. Entering into an alien environment, just one of many, threatens even the most secure individual, and each student brings a way of reassuring and establishing himself again through a series of protective manoeuvres which may involve anything from complete withdrawal, through careful watching and waiting, bravado, and noise, to overactive joining and having to be noticed. Who knows who is more bothered by the experience: the sad quiet one or the life and soul of the disco?

Becoming attached to the university and the course programme, however, is an academic-personal task of overriding importance. Some particular person needs to become the focus of that process because attachment and commitment are based on a relationship which offers recognition and significance to the individual.

Consider the first meeting of teachers and students in a classroom. The teacher needs to present a reliable and containing situation by outlining the work in terms of what is required and what can be expected, what is acceptable, and what will make it enjoyable. This will help further the task, but there are also people in the room, and their shared vulnerability and uncertainty needs to be recognized. A teacher should want his students to know that he values their relative ignorance and that he is dependent on their desire to know more. He needs this assurance because otherwise he cannot do his job of teaching them and because at that point he may be anxious about whether he has anything to teach

them anyway. He needs his vulnerability to be treated tenderly too. If this initial encounter is stripped of its significance as a beginning, then an opportunity is lost, or worse - the attachment may be aborted or distorted. Rather than finding the security that facilitates learning, the student may find himself bound to a feared or contemptible object or enviously excluded from a mysterious or élitist clique. Those are difficult bases for a learning relationship.<sup>4</sup>

In the experience of the author, those students who arrived in her counselling room within the first days of their course programmes were usually there for one of two reasons. For one, they might have failed to find someone on the academic staff to be their attachment figure and were seeking that in me. I found myself the focus of their wish to find someone or some reason strong enough to overcome the wish to give up and go home to family and the familiar. I was an object in a search, a signpost for the journey.

The other reason for early recourse to the counselling service was that at the point of joining, a crisis had arisen over who the course, the learning, the degree was for - themselves, parents, a family need, for teachers? Was it a healthy or an unhealthy choice to be a student? This situation is tricky, because it is difficult to

say to a student or parents or an institution that have invested some hope in each other that the choice is wrong. But sometimes it is - if studying is someone else's need, or a defensive solution to a personal problem then it is unhealthy and is merely sending someone further along down the wrong road.

Successfully joining the course may well represent a significant step in personal development in so far as it means separation from the family or clearly establishing a personal desire for a route of growth.

### Learning Vehicles

But to move on, what happens when people in the student role are engaged in the learning task? What is the nature of the challenge presented to their emotional maturation? Separation from the family is just one aspect of a much larger task of achieving personal autonomy. The educational institution and process provide vehicles for working on one's tensions as one moves from dependence. These vehicles include a set syllabus and class timetables, residence halls, on-campus libraries, societies, entertainments, and sports facilities, a readily available pool of people with whom to socialize, and all the student services. It suits some people to sink into these gratefully and

4 A few years ago, I enrolled in an evening class in the theory of music as a student myself. As we all drifted in on the first evening, the tutor was fussing around the piano. Suddenly, without marking any boundary, he began to talk to us about something complicated on page 46 of the Workbook which we all were apparently supposed to have but did not. It was all meaningless to me, so I gave up listening and studied my classmates. One had a fixed smile on his face and nodded furiously; one scowled at page 46; one was examining the ceiling; and several seemed to be staring blankly at nothing in particular. I went away, depressed and demoralized, and would not have gone back if I had not needed to please my teacher. Indeed, only three returned on Week 2 - the nodder, the scowler, and myself. The class began much as before, plus the assumption that we had done page 46 in the Workbook, which I of course had not registered as a piece of homework and had not done. Being unable to tolerate this situation any longer, I interrupted to ask if we might say something about why we were there, who we were, and what we were going to do because I was lost and unhappy. The tutor was astonished but grudgingly agreed and even spoke about himself. At the end he muttered that he would have to change his whole teaching plan now that he knew who we were. Later he said that never in his teaching career had anyone expressed interest in him - nor had he ever had a class with consistent attendance before. We had a good time together and managed to learn quite a lot.

passively. Others chafe against these vehicles, being more aware of the limitations and restrictions, rejecting everything that makes them feel like children and frequently getting themselves into trouble with the academic requirements and the university authorities.

Between these two responses is the one to be preferred. It is the more mature response of finding a satisfying balance between work and play, developing responsibility through membership and leadership in the various committees and activities, and being neither the obedient child nor the destructive rebel. We need think only about the relationship between the Student Union and the authorities, on the one hand, and all the students, on the other hand, to realize how fraught this process is, how raw the fight can be, and how maturing the experience really is.

The same conflict is present, perhaps more subtly, in the academic task. Every student is struggling with dependency issues in his or her own way, which means that the different kinds of learning: reading, writing essays, attending lectures, presenting seminars, doing research, thinking, memorizing, sitting examinations, and so on - will challenge them differently, and it will change as they progress through the course programme. Indeed, the need to complete the different forms of work may confront the student with the need to sort out his or her difficulties regarding dependence. This need begins with the paradox that students are expected to be self-starting and to produce some originality of ideas, while their intellectual freedom is quite severely curtailed. The syllabus must be followed; accepted wisdom has to be received; and the correct examination answer has to be produced under highly prescribed conditions.

For those students whose urgent psychological need is to achieve independence from parental figures, it is particularly troublesome for them to acknowledge their intellectual dependency and to trust and allow teachers to give to them. They absent themselves from lectures and are reluctant to take advantage of tutorial provision. Any difficulty in learning makes them feel angry and helpless, and typically they neglect their studies for sports or social activities in which they can feel successful and grown-up. For those, on the other hand, whose need is to remain dependent, learning is a wish to be fed. They limit their work to no more and no less than what the teachers give them. Any kind of independent private study makes them feel frightened and helpless.

Neither position will lead to success, so some emotional development toward a flexible balance is essential. This statement could just as easily be put the other way: as the person comes to find the balance naturally, he will find that he can manage the different academic tasks.

The end result, of course, is the attainment of intellectual authority. The nature of the relationship between the student and the teacher is an important factor in this attainment. Rebellion and challenge to authority are essential to the learning process, just as they are to personal development. Through both, the student can learn about his strengths and his limits, and about the strengths and limits of the material he is learning and creating. In so far as the teacher is the living representation of the taught material, the challenge can appear to be very personal, and the teacher needs to be able to survive this challenge. Several questions can be asked about this relationship:



- Is the student mature enough to engage without undue compliance/resentment?
  - Are the students free enough of their envy of those who have achieved what they wish to achieve to allow them to have something valuable to give?
  - Are the teachers free enough of their envy of the young to allow them to grow and develop?
  - Will the teachers tolerate the mistakes and arrogance of the novice - or will they become impatient, interfere too readily, or reject what is offered?
  - Will they impose their own advanced ideas and interests on the embryonic ideas of the student and spoil the sense of invention?
  - Will they refuse to argue and deprive the student of their sense of creativity, triumph, and reassurance about their own capabilities?
- Will they have the knack of beginning anew with each student, apparently re-experiencing the excitement of discovery alongside them?<sup>5</sup>

So far, this article has dealt with how progress toward personal autonomy and authority can be helped by the demands of learning and living in an educational institution - and conversely how difficulties in this area can inhibit learning. There are three other areas of overlap between personal and academic development. These have to do with aggression, curiosity, and sexuality.

Learning is an active process. One speaks of mastering a subject. In order to do so, students need to be able to be aggressive, competitive, and even possessive about the material they are trying to learn. They have to tackle it and make it their own.<sup>6</sup>

There are other sorts of students who get into difficulty because of their inability to be critical and discriminating. One sort can be referred to as *drainpipes*.

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- 5 One of the most admirable teachers I know was a philosophy lecturer who endured a prolonged withering attack on both the texts and himself by a young man who produced no work yet looked exhausted. He took the trouble to try to understand what lay behind the attack, eventually bringing the person to me. The three of us sat together many times and gradually heard the story. The young man's family had been disrupted during his final year of school. When his father had been moved to another part of the country by his employer, the boy and his mother had stayed behind so that he could finish his examinations. Tragically, the father died while he was away - the how and why remaining a mystery. The cool philosophical arguments about what is real and what you can know about what you cannot see enraged the boy and stirred up a panic which sent him out into the streets at night searching for his dead father. And at another level, being fatherless was a price he did not want to pay for his academic success. One of the least admirable lecturers I know is the one who failed a student's essay and scrawled sarcastic remarks over the paper. She was a first year mature married student who had taken great satisfaction in writing an entirely original essay on patriarchal societies for her sociology class, clearly using it to work out her ideas about male-female relationships. She was stunned by the failure and the scorn, feeling that the lecturer offered no recognition of her attempt to think creatively for herself. The boy was fortunate to find a tutor who provided a learning relationship through which he could repair damage and grow again. The girl was not so fortunate.
- 6 I once saw a young man who put in a fine first year, gaining excellent grades, but had an abysmal second year which he failed with preposterously low marks. He simply had never worked. The work of the first year required no effort, but that of the second year was difficult and very complex. The same pattern was familiar to him in other spheres: he played many individual sports to a standard which did not require practice or effort. Once effort was necessary to go further, he dropped the sport and began something else. A history of being bullied at school and at home had left him so uncomfortable with aggression and competition that he preferred to be branded as lazy than as inadequate or second best.

Knowledge flows in one end and out the other, barely touching the person. These are the crammers who can learn for examinations but not for life. Another consists of *warehouses*. They collect all sorts of bits and pieces of information which they pile up on the shelves of their minds, but the pile is just a jumble. When they need the information later, they know it is in there somewhere, but they cannot find it; or bits of useless information keep interfering with serious thinking. So to learn and to have that learning at their disposal, students need to evaluate it, to digest it; to order, to organize, and to capture it. And because most learning takes place among peers, they all have to struggle with the inevitable competitive feelings about being better than or worse than others. No one, I think, is exempt from these very natural reactions, and how they manage them will depend on how well they feel in control of their aggression and how they have coped with rivalries in the past. Conversely, learning to use their aggression in study can pay off in personal relationships.

One can also speak of bodies of knowledge. For the student, knowledge may be a vast uncharted territory, and launching into it certainly requires wanting to know about it and the security of knowing that he will survive whatever surprises and difficulties he may encounter when he ventures beyond the known. Progress is seldom made without the motivating power of curiosity - the wish to know, to discover, and so to control. Just as intellectual progress relies on someone's asking *why*; so personal development relies on one's wanting to know more about oneself and one's world.

The *desire* to know is the crucial element; it ensures that one retains the initiative and some control over what happens to oneself. One gives oneself the excitement of the search and its rewards. This excitement is the safeguard against complacency and the danger of having knowledge or experience forced upon one.

It is after all mainly through being unprepared for unpredictability that it becomes threatening. Most people are naturally curious, but some are hampered by anxieties about plunging into the unknown - they lack trust in the world as essentially benign and trustworthy, so change and exploration is associated with danger and fear rather than adventure and gain; or they lack an inner security and mistrust their own resources to cope with the eventualities. Usually it is people who have been understimulated or overprotected in the environment or who have been insufficiently protected or overprotected in the environment or who have been insufficiently protected against the vagaries of the world who cannot mobilize their curiosity around the learning task. They may say, "I do not know" or "I am not interested" or "I already know" or "it is not worth knowing".<sup>7</sup>

### The Role of Creativity

Bodies of knowledge and mastering a subject lead in full sexist vocabulary to the subject of sexuality and creativity. The latter is the ability to make the whole greater than the mere sum of its parts, a result that is the hallmark of first class work. It is directly linked to sexuality and to pleasure in the cross-fertilization of ideas, the wish

7 I think of a young woman who could not even imagine what there is to explore and came in need of career guidance. She was the daughter of a policeman who had warned her so much about the violence of the world that she could at best lurk around the gateway of her sheltered home and occasionally take a furtive glance outside.

to make something new, and the excitement of engaging with others in pursuit of shared gratifications. Here, too, the ability of the student to be creative will depend on the confidence and lack of guilt and anxiety surrounding actual sexuality.<sup>8</sup>

Examinations and leaving are the final demands which universities make on students and hence are the final opportunities for persons to use universities for personal development. At this stage, final year students have to feel sufficiently secure and independent to tolerate the immense solitude of the examination desk. There may be no greater loneliness than this, trusting that by themselves they have the resources to deal with the unknown and to turn the encounter with an empty piece of paper into a creative act. They will have to have resolved all their rivalries, envies, and hatreds within the learning relationships sufficiently to offer their final work as gifts of gratitude to those who have taught them. They will have to face the reality of both their shortcomings and their successes and be ready to have both scrutinized by the assessors. If they have done all this, getting hold of the academic material will be no problem for them. If they have not, the last chance is still there.

The final revision is a strange process. Students are asked to be maximally in-

involved with material, people, and processes which they also need to relinquish. So, on the one hand, it is about grieving, but equally it is about gaining a new identity, an adult among adults; no longer becoming but being. One student reported a dream from the night before her last examination. Her name was stolen but she was given a new one. The stolen name was *Student*, and the new one was her own name. She was at once devastated and exhilarated. She was 34, an unmarried mother of two children, the daughter of violent, alcoholic, and impoverished parents. Her university years had been extraordinarily painful and difficult, but through being a Student she had become herself. But she also reminds one of George Bernard Shaw's wistful comment: "Every time I learn something I feel as if I have lost something".

It seems ironic that the culmination of a student's career, the point at which he attempts to put together all he has gained from the experience, is reduced to an examination number. All while being objective and fair, one cannot help but feel the distance which has been travelled and how that distance is a relevant measure of the journey made.<sup>9</sup>

8 Returning to the woman who wrote the sociology essay which failed (Footnote 5). She came for help because she could not write essays at all and, separately, she thought, because the sexual relationship with her husband had ground to a halt. The problem with the essays was that she could read and collect all kinds of ideas, but she floundered when she tried to put them together on paper. She could produce nothing. As she described this situation, she giggled and said it was exactly the same with her knitting. She had a drawer full of arms and fronts and backs or jerseys which she could not bring herself to sew together. She realized sadly that it was exactly the same with her husband: all the ingredients were there, but she could not get it together. In the opposite way was a young man who was blocked in his A-level studies altogether. At first we thought it had to do with rejecting the values of his very successful academic parents, but one day he declared that the trouble with examinations was that they were exactly like contraceptives - you get all excited and nervous, you gather all your goodies and spill them out on the examination paper. Someone takes it away, pronounces on your performance, and throws it away. "What's the use of that", he wailed, "I want to create something, not just perform". For these two, there was no doubt about the link between learning and sexuality; between their personal and academic lives.

9 A student of mine recently handed in her project, hugging it to herself and saying "I've lost my examination number. Anyway, I don't care what the External Examiner thinks of it, but I do care what you think of me - I mean it". I always feel that the examination period is like living in a labour ward.

## CONCLUSION

Finally, one must understand that opportunities for development through learning require places to play in safety. Universities are disparaged as Ivory Towers, and we live in times when the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake is under a most demoralizing attack. But we cannot afford to lose our universities as magic circles where we can play and dream and intellectually squiggle and doodle free from fear of the consequences. As children we made up stories and games and created a world in our own image. This is the beginning of art, and it is also the beginning of learning. Once upon a time we had teddy bears and security blankets to mediate our relationships with the world around us - they allowed us to discover the nature of ourselves and our world. We could be intrepid because they did not bite back or

call us stupid or tell us we were wasting precious time on silly nonsense.

Later we had conceptions which were not yet thoughts until something came to us from the outside and matched that conception and made it a thought. And that was the beginning of thinking. Students have subjects instead of teddy bears to mediate their relationships with the world; and we have educational institutions in which the chance for a conception to become a thought should be jealously guarded. This is the creativity which precedes procreation, and I personally cherish the notion that it is precisely because our academic and personal development go hand in hand that it is still open to each of us to discover something wonderfully new, to invent something which works, and to contribute something significant to whatever we have chosen to study.

## SELECTION FOR UNIVERSITY STUDIES AND ECONOMIC COMPETITIVITY

Werner CLEMENT

- Citing statistics from a recent OECD report on education, the author offers some generalizations with regard to the ways in which increasing economic competition will influence the functioning and the course programmes of higher education. Operations will have to become increasingly efficient, and course programmes, increasingly targeted towards the fulfillment of economic goals. Enrollments will have to expand to respond to the demand for

highly trained manpower, the technical, economics, and management fields being particularly important. Counselling will play an increasingly crucial role in assuring that students make the best choices and withstand the rigours of what will be a tougher university life. Although European universities and course programmes are converging, a certain variety and the retaining of distinct cultural traditions will also be a source of competitiveness.

### INTRODUCTION

According to an OECD report published in 1992, university expansion has, so far, not produced a sufficient number of graduates.\* One of the reasons for this judgment might be the high drop-out rate which could be viewed as proof of inefficiency. One of the remedies would be to follow the American example. In the United States of America, the success rate is great, and the role of orientation and counselling is much more important than, for example, in Europe.

While one might agree with the general conclusion of this report, the reality which it has tried to portray is unfortunately more complex than it is made to seem. Simple recipes often prove to be delusive. Following a number of years, the history of education is once again at a turning point. The question which must now be raised is one of *orientation and counselling in order to do*

*what?* For counselling must always have a goal, an objective in view.

This objective changed dramatically towards the end of the 1980's. The phenomenon of internationalization, even the globalization of economics, has had major repercussions on education. If the different parts of the world are increasingly viewed as a single market (comprising not only Europe but also North America and South-East Asia), it follows that this single market influences not only the free circulation of goods, services, and capital but also modifies structures with a previously national character like education, research-and-development, bureaucracy, etc. The concept of competitiveness (and its development) is leaving its marks on all fields of individual and public life.

In this sense, this article has the following objectives:

\* The full bibliographical entry is *Regards sur l'éducation: les indicateurs de l'OECD* (Paris: OECD, 1992). The statistics presented below are all drawn from this source, each table cited being identified by the number which the OECD authors have given it.

- to point out the constraints triggered by this new international competitiveness on education and training systems;
- to demonstrate how difficult it is to solve the problem of which *systemic model to apply in order to increase competitiveness*;
- to point out the limits of convergence, that is, of the mixing of national systems of education (and consequently of orientation/counselling), as well as
- to demonstrate that a fairly large number of varieties of experience exist which, when drawn upon, could improve the efficiency of education by the application of appropriate counselling.

With regard to the questions raised above, the position taken by the author is that of a professor of economics who may view the situation from a different perspective from that of a sociologist or a psychologist.

The task of an economist is, on the other hand, that of applying the principle of economic efficiency, that is, to achieve optimum objectives from given resources. Normally the economist does not interfere in the establishment of objectives. As this task is left to the politicians, it would be unfair, therefore, to accuse the economist of "imperialism". Nevertheless, the input of an economist is not always welcome because he is called upon to incessantly underline the necessity of making economies.

In order to correctly analyze the question of selection, the article begins with what may seem like a long detour. As is evident, selection is not a process in itself. Its whole justification is to be found in the social and economic environment. Con-

sequently, it is appropriate to describe this environment.

## THE NEW INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVITY AND THE ROLE OF EDUCATION

Political rhetoric is placing great priority on education/training. The reason for doing so at this time is no longer the same as in the 1970's. Twenty years ago, the expansion of education was demanded with a view to increasing equal opportunities and social justice. At present, the arguments of the 1960's seem to have gained the upper hand once again. This period witnessed the discovery of human capital as a key factor in economic growth. That discovery earned a Nobel Prize for R. S. Solow and more recently for G. S. Becker.

Their analyses have not lost any of their importance. It is sufficient to replace the concept of *competitiveness* with that of *economic growth* and thus place oneself in the heart of the present debate. Numbers of publications since the mid-1980's have discussed "the battle for training", "the educational offensive", "education and training for the year 2000", etc.

But when it comes to determining the amount of funds for education to be allocated in the public budgets (or in those of private enterprises), to calculating the number of graduates needed, and to educating sufficient teachers, few analytical benchmarks exist by which politicians can guide themselves.

In spite of the expansion of the economy and the advancement of pedagogy, it would be difficult to give concrete figures in these fields. What intrigues many researchers is the fact that nations reach more or less similar competitive levels but with very different percentages of engineers, expenditures on education, and graduates.

Would it thus be raising a false alarm if we were to ask for more education for the benefit of competitiveness? The truth is that relations are actually more complex than they would seem at first sight and that no simple means of correlation exist. In any case, deficiencies in education/training will be felt only after years and sometimes after decades.

Even if no set scale exists to determine the optimal proportions to be given to education in order to win the battle of competitiveness, other types of measurement may exist. In the absence of reliable analyses, good reasons exist to believe that markets embody a *superior intelligence*. A close watching of the actors, those in the markets and the enterprises, as well as individuals in their dealings with higher education, indicates that they *do* realize the advantages of choosing a suitable educational establishment in order to obtain a good position in the economic competition.

The most efficient enterprises seek locations near those research and training centres having the finest international reputations, institutions with which they can collaborate in the best conditions. This attitude is well understood by the finest higher education institutions which - for their part - try to attract the greatest possible number of talented young people.

In a world in which higher education is accessible to all, the economic battle is increasingly being fought within the circle of competition among universities. A previous Minister of Education of France used to say - in connection with engineers - that "the future of French technology is determined between Paris-Orsay (XI), Cambridge, TU - Munich, and MIT (other institutions could easily have been included).

Thus, nowadays, higher education is being submitted, more than ever, to economic and technological imperatives. If these principles are evident so far as policy-making is concerned, putting them into practice (in terms of specializations, curriculum, quality of education, number and quality of graduates, free access to higher education or competitive selection, etc.) is proving to be difficult.

The question in this context is whether or not the training systems which have developed over a long period of cultural history correspond with the present requirements. If restructuring is foreseeable, what should its guiding principles be? Is the American, the British, the French, the German, or the Japanese model to be adopted? And then, to put it frankly, can one indeed speak of a French, German, or Japanese model, or are we on the eve of a higher education system which is as internationalized as the economy is? Because of this uncertainty, one must often have recourse to figures. Are figures not, after all, a reflection of performance, of efficiency?

#### WHAT DO THE STATISTICAL INDICATORS OF EDUCATION SHOW?

OECD has been working very assiduously on the collection of statistical data on education in its member countries. Does the final result give a credible comparative image? It remains to be seen.

The following figures are cited as an example. Regarding the *educational level of people aged 25 to 64*, the percentage of the population having achieved this level of higher education varies as follows: 23% for the United States; 13% for Japan; 12% for Sweden; 10% for Denmark, Finland, Australia, and Germany; 9% for the United Kingdom, Switzerland, and Spain; 7% for France and Belgium; 6% for Italy and the

Netherlands; 5% for Austria; 4% for Portugal (see OECD, Table C-1).

As for *public and private expenditure on education* as a percentage of GDP, the variation is as follows: 6.9% for Denmark; 6.8% for Finland; 6.6% for the Netherlands; 6.2% for Ireland and Germany; 5.7% for Sweden, the United States, and France; 5.6% for Austria; 4.9% for Japan (OECD, Table P-1).

The *percentage of public expenses devoted to higher education* varies as follows: 34.8% for Canada; 26.8% for the United States; 22.8% for Germany; 19.2% for the United Kingdom; 13.6% for France; and 9.5% for Japan (OECD, Table P-3).

In terms of public expenditure, *a university student costs* the following per year: \$12,000 in Luxembourg; \$10,000 in Switzerland and in Denmark; \$9,500 in the Netherlands; \$8,000 in the United Kingdom; \$7,000 in Norway and Canada; \$6,300 in the United States and Sweden; \$5,000 in Germany; \$3,800 in France; \$2,500 in Japan; and \$2,000 in Spain (Table P-6).

The figures cited above indicate clearly that there is a great difference in the importance of and the efforts devoted to higher education in various countries. There are enormous differences in the yearly allocation for the education of a student in countries like Spain or Japan (\$2,000), on the one hand, and in countries like Switzerland, Denmark,

and the Netherlands, on the other (almost \$10,000). For these observations, further questions arise. For example, can increased efforts achieve increased efficiency in higher education?

Some other figures are presented, *the ratio of public and private education graduates to population at corresponding ages*: 26% (Japan); 25% (USA and Canada); 24% (Norway); 16-18% (Finland, Spain, and the United Kingdom); 11-12% (France, Germany, and Denmark); 7% (Switzerland, Austria, Italy) (OECD, Table 22).

Another indicator, *the survival rate in higher education* (that is, the ratio of higher education graduates to the number who began studying in years before and who obtained a university diploma), the counterpart being the *drop-out ratio*. The success rate is thus as follows: Sweden, 80%; the United Kingdom, 94%; the Netherlands, 87%; Japan, 88%; and Germany, 83%; thus fairly high; then, Italy, 31%; Austria, 45%; Spain, 49%; France, 55%; Switzerland, 66%; thus relatively low (OECD, Table R-3).

In interpreting these figures, one might conclude that there is an inverse relationship between the entry ratio to the university and the survival ratio. The larger the number of young people enrolled in higher education, the lower the survival ratio. The following statistics compare the number of first-year students to the corresponding age group.

#### Entry ratio to higher education

**The highest ratio:**

70% the United States  
52% Finland  
51% Japan  
49% Sweden  
43% Denmark  
37% Spain  
36% France

**The lowest ratio:**

21% the United Kingdom and Austria  
23% Switzerland  
28% Italy  
29% Germany  
30% the Netherlands

(OECD, Table P-13).



## SELECTION FOR STUDIES

The image is mixed: the United Kingdom and the Netherlands have a rather low entry ratio to higher education and a high survival ratio. On the contrary, Japan, the entry ratio of which is very high (51%), also ranks among the countries with a very high success rate (88%). Other countries like Austria, Switzerland, and Italy, characterized by rather low entry ratios, also have low survival ratios.

Even at the risk of an over-simplification, we can reach the following conclusions (based on the statistical data presented:

### *Japan*

- has a high degree of university graduation (13% of the population); second country after the United States;
- spends comparatively small sums of money for this purpose (9.5% of all public expenditure, which is already low compared to GDP, that is, only \$ 2,500 per student);
- has the highest graduation ratio in the world (26% of a given age group) while;
- leaving access to higher education wide open (entry ratio of 51%) and then having a high success rate (survival ratio of about 88%).

### *The United States of America*

- its population has achieved the highest level of university education (23%);
- allocates an average amount per student of about \$6,300;
- open door access policy - about 70% of secondary school leavers;
- probably has a high success rate (the figures were not available).

### *The United Kingdom*

- has only an average amount of university educated people (9% of the population);
- spends comparatively speaking a great deal per student (\$8,000);
- is comparatively closed (entry ratio: 21%); but
- enjoys a very high success rate (94%).

### *France*

- ranks in the bottom third of countries in terms of university graduation (7%);
- spends comparatively little (\$3,800 per student);
- has fairly open access (36%); but has a rather low survival ratio (55%).

### *Germany*

- in a situation comparable to that of France but spends more per student (\$5,000);
- higher education increasingly closed, but success is considerable (83%).

In spite of apparently incongruous, rapidly gathered statistical data, a detailed analysis brings into the open fairly distinct structures (patterns).

At this point, the knowledge of the teacher, the sociologist, the educational historian, and even the educational economist should intervene. For up to this point what has been produced is a statistical X-ray print of education. The next step is to intensify an educational system which might be called *living*. An experienced physician might possibly have a similar reaction when examining the X-ray of a beautiful lady; he might suddenly exclaim, "But this is Gina Lollobrigida!"

What would the interpretation be with full knowledge of the facts? The statistics back up what was already more or less known, namely that higher education in Germany does not involve a large proportion of the population. The dual system is partly responsible because apprenticeships provide complete training (even if not of a higher education type). Because of *numerus clausus*, access to tertiary education is rather limited. But once admitted, most candidates will complete their studies.

Higher education in France is generally open, thanks to the multitude of possible specializations (*Grandes Ecoles*, universities, *IUT*s), but selection procedures are very sophisticated (*baccalauréat*, *classes préparatoires*, *concours*).

The system of the United Kingdom remains élitist. The American system has both a great number of students who are perhaps less proficient than their European counterparts and an élite (graduates of the Ivy League Universities). Finally, the Japanese system is considered to be highly selective. Everything seems to be well planned starting from an early age.

How can this diagnosis of very marked differences among educational systems be brought into line with the requirements of present-day competitiveness? Is the diagnosis reliable enough for actions to be based on it?

#### **THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE NEW COMPETITIVITY AND THE RESPONSE OF EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION AND COUNSELLING**

The general characteristics of the new competitiveness have often been described. Suffice it, therefore, to mention the crucial points:

- With the development of the Southeast Asian countries, very serious competitors have entered the world market. By and large, there is an abundance of good products at very competitive prices.
- To this group are added the central European countries which provide the market with comparatively cheap products, thanks to a very low level of wages.
- Technological progress is so rapid that the life cycle of a series of products is becoming ever shorter.
- Finally, the economic crisis seems to be well entrenched, and therefore the unemployment rate will remain high for some time.

This scenario is very upsetting for the advanced countries which make efforts to maintain their standards of living, while remaining competitive. In order to maintain the upper hand, there is only one possibility: the industrialized countries must produce goods and services of the highest quality based on sophisticated technology into which a maximum of know-how is incorporated. In order to reach this goal, there is only one policy to follow, namely to give top priority to intellectual investment.

Because all countries are attempting to apply this strategy, economic competition is spreading increasingly into the field of education. One need not be a prophet to predict that psychopedagogical objectives will be pushed into the background in favour of increased selectivity. The burden placed on students will therefore be even heavier. Hence, a more difficult task for the orientation and counselling field.

## SELECTION FOR STUDIES

If the task book on counselling were to be rewritten, the following points would have to be mentioned:

The new competitiveness requires, first of all, a much larger number of graduates. This need is a consequence of the fact that production and services have become *intellectualized*. This tendency is far from being materialized. A majority of the employers in the German-speaking countries are going to complain that there is a shortage of future apprentices. Other employers will stress the risks of intellectual unemployment, the insufficient intake capacity and funding for higher education, etc. For the systems of education which formerly had only a slow rate of expansion, doubling or tripling the number of university graduates could lead to a real explosion of structures.

In the case of Germany, one can estimate the size of future expansion. In 1975, about 15% of the normal age cohort enrolled in higher education. Very soon, the percentage will reach 40%. Consequently, the daily difficulties of student life: long lines, unbearable relations between teachers and students, insufficient seats in lecture halls, etc. It goes without saying that these education factories need substantial social assistance.

The intellectualization and formalization of tasks require increased and advanced qualifications. It would be a mistake to think that every graduate is a potential Nobel prize-winner. In spite of the tendency to upgrade, the higher education system will never be an amalgamation or a so-called peoples' university offering tertiary education. The labour market will need very differentiated high level qualifications. Thus, higher education will be made up of short cycles, long

cycles, of IUT's, of *Grandes Ecoles*, of traditional universities, of postgraduate institutions, etc. If there is a certain competitiveness among them, so much the better! But it is self-evident that a freshman needs more information in order to orient himself in what could seem to him to be the jungle of higher education. It is also probable that more advanced qualifications require even more staff than now, but this requirement is difficult to meet in mass universities.

The new competitiveness also requires a new balance of disciplines taught at universities. A preponderance of technology, science, and economics will be dominant for a long time henceforth. The cleavage between individual aspirations and the demands of the labour market is well known and needs no comment. In order to successfully remove this incongruity, it is necessary to start at a very early age. It seems that in South Korea every child older than ten knows how to use a computer. The interrelation with the world of work helps university students become acquainted with practice as soon as possible.

One must underline the damage done by secondary school teachers who know nothing about the realities of given enterprises but still deprecate them. Practical training in enterprises near the end of secondary schooling and throughout higher education would be the best method to familiarize secondary school leavers with what will later be their active lives. As a matter of fact, such a point of view is found both in the curriculum of the *Ecole Polytechnique* and in the Mao-tse-Tung's *Red Book*.

## CONCLUSION

What this article has tried to present is a background picture of the economic difficulties with which a competent educational policy has to cope, particularly in terms of orientation and counselling. The task will be even more difficult, the more so as the national systems of education are going to draw nearer in order to in-

crease their competitiveness. Brussels will probably not be able to formulate a directive bringing about the harmonization of educational systems. At the same time, the richness of the national heritage expresses itself through education. Rapprochement notwithstanding, national diversities can also be very valuable assets in international competition.

## COUNSELLING AT UNIVERSITIES IN HUNGARY

Magda RITOOK

- The article begins by reviewing the main problems facing young people in higher education and the kinds of problems with which they might need help. The approach is psychological and does not include problems of physical health or sociological, socio-political, or strictly educational problems. For people looking at this age group from a distance, admission to a university or another type of institution of higher education can be seen as a process of

arrival. One might think that the uncertainties and stresses from an earlier period of life would have ceased and the oppressive worries of adulthood not yet have begun. In reality, there are many possibilities for crises between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. It is one of the main tasks of the provision of psychological counselling in higher education to help adolescents resolve these problems.

### CRISES SPECIFIC TO THE EIGHTEEN-TO-TWENTY-FIVE-YEAR-OLD AGE GROUP

The majority of these crises are of a transient nature. They are not pathological but are part of the normal developmental process which Erikson has described. The process of growth enables adolescents to find the energy to deal with neurotic crises and, of course, society always provides new and specific possibilities for them to grow and to develop.

Erikson suggests that a tendency to rigidity, fixation, and increased defensiveness is characteristic of neurotic and psychotic crises, while in contrast, normative crises are more readily dealt with by the individual concerned. The excess of energy that young people may have while they are going through this period of development may bring to the surface underlying anxieties and generate new conflicts while also helping to strengthen the ego. Erikson suggests that what might appear to be the beginning of serious neurosis is only the manifestation of the crises the individual is experiencing and that these difficulties will

soon be resolved and in fact may actually contribute to the development of individual identity.

Experience of an identity crisis is typical for people in this age group. Erikson claims that as part of this process adolescents will often suffer a more intense confusion of roles than they have experienced before or will ever experience again. For instance, the separation conflicts with the family are most intense at this age. They are intensified even more in Hungary by the fact that it is not possible for young people to be financially independent of their families while they are in higher education. The stress and ambiguity of the adult-child relationship cause many conflicts.

Erikson characterizes the other major problem of this age group as the duality of intimacy and isolation. By intimacy he means the ability to establish full and satisfying relationships with both sexes, relationships which can end in marriage or lifelong friendship; also, close and *lasting* relationships at work and with other people in one's environment.

When young people are over-protected, these experiences will elude them, with the result that they may become profoundly lonely and detached from their surroundings.

Coming to terms with one's sexuality is another source of crisis for this age group. When young people search for partners, difficulties may arise the resolution of which sometimes requires the help of counselling.

The increasing demands and duties of adult life at this age may also provoke crises. When analyzing this group, Erikson found that young people who are forced to make decisions about their future roles in society may continue to struggle with the problems of finding their identities and get stuck in particular roles, creating problems which may remain with them for the rest of their lives. Adolescents need a period of time in which to develop their identities and to find out how to relate to other people and to discover how they are perceived by them.

The effect of the community on the individual who is gradually growing up is a process which psychoanalysis has so far failed to address in sufficient detail. The need to find one's identity at this age causes young people to seek ways in which they can develop their abilities and enable their personalities to grow.

At the same time, they are afraid of making significant decisions because of the element of finality which they associate with them. At such times, individuals might need to turn to outside help through counselling to enable them to deal with the emotional difficulties and personal problems which they are experiencing.

In 1969, Allport studied one hundred university students living in student ac-

commodations. He considered that the freedom the individual gains when involved in higher education can generate a crisis. It can become unbearable to live one's life according to the expectations of others, including one's own family. Allport believes that at this time the individual needs to separate from the past and become an independently functioning adult.

The crisis can often be a very chaotic state lasting four or five weeks, after which the personality is again stabilized. But quite often the trauma may arrest development for a year or more, and might even last for the rest of the individual's life. Three quarters of students readily reach solutions to their problems, but the remainder are incapable of doing so quickly, and many of these may end up dropping out of higher education. The latter group, a considerable minority, needs help at this time.

The problems outlined by Allport are the ones most likely to engage the psychological counsellor working in higher education. Although Allport was describing the situation in America, similar problems exist in Hungary.

Crises related to preparation for work can be caused by factors such as the following:

- the greater involvement of students entering higher education in tasks of adaptation;
- new educational demands and the associated need to find new methods of study;
- the formation of new relationships with fellow-students and lecturers;
- the loss of the secure roles which students may have had when they were in secondary school;

- the possibility of moving to a different culture from the one to which they are accustomed, and so being unable to *decode* and to *speak* the language of their fellow-students and teachers;
- the loss of privacy that can be associated with living in a student residence hall;
- changes in the macro-environment, by which is meant the specific task of adaptation associated with moving from a small village to a large town, or from a small town to a large city;
- the culture shock specific to foreign students which may cause excessive stress for the individual.

As students move further into their course programmes, they will be required to take decisions regarding specialization - an additional cause of stress.

The continuing search for an identity may cause individuals to reexamine their ideas about their vocations. This process cannot be considered solely from the aspect of vocational development because of the associated development of their conceptions of themselves. At this stage, counselling cannot focus simply on vocational choice. It must also consider the development of the self-concept.

The last one or one-and-a-half years spent in higher education are in our experience a source of crisis for many students. They are facing questions like "how will I be able to live up to the task which I have to face?". These worries affect their studies. At such times, students will probably not be particularly satisfied with their studies.

## NORMATIVE CRISIS

Using Erikson's terminology, the process of detachment from parents and associated problems are regarded as the "normative crisis". The individual must learn to lead an independent life, but at the present time, the conditions created by the outside world in Hungary do not facilitate the process of growing up. It is impossible for some individuals to find flats of their own, to gain employment, and so to detach themselves from their previous patterns of family life.

The other normative crisis has to do with relationships with the opposite sex. Conflicting feelings of intimacy and isolation arise. Young people suffer from the obligations which are associated with relationships but also from loneliness. They must learn to accept the presence of intimacy in their lives and to retain their own identities at the same time. They often need help in finding appropriate answers.

Even if the individual can become financially independent, the process of becoming an adult will take longer now than it did in the past. It would be interesting to review the causes of this phenomenon from an inter-cultural standpoint.

Problems that arise at this stage can be sexual, or they can create psychosomatic symptoms, panic reactions, and depression.

## Protracted Period Prior to the Start of Adulthood

Today in Hungary, the process of moving from adolescence to adulthood is vastly different from what it was previously. The main characteristics of the process are as follows:

- protracted stages of exploration so far as the partner is concerned, and

at the same time, searching for a vocation and forming an actual *Weltanschauung*;

- maintenance of the adolescent relationship with parents and teachers, the need for help running parallel to the critical refusal;
- fear of becoming responsible for others;
- in addition to acceleration at the physical and cognitive levels, infantile traits in the development of emotions and the mobilization of energy;
- decreasing ability to tackle the tasks of life.

These symptoms appear mainly among the children of parents who are themselves graduates of higher education. They appear not only in Hungary but also in several western European countries.

### The Causes

The way the parents of these young people became adult is not an attractive model. It forces the children to become adults too early. The solution to the problem is to postpone the taking on of responsibility. In addition, the economic conditions for the organization of life are lacking. Thus young people find themselves in the anomalous situation that the conditions for becoming an adult are not ensured, while at the same time any continuation of playing the role of a child has become unbearable. The solution is the legalization of the protracted role of the child as well as the protracted stage of transition to adulthood (a year off, stipends, the undertaking of some paid work).

As far as the values of the previous generation are concerned, young people

today consider them to be useless. They prefer to avoid social responsibilities and politics.

### CRISES DUE TO THE DISHARMONIOUS DEVELOPMENT OF THE PERSONALITY

The crises in this category form a third large group of crises that are of a recurring character and are frequently related to the entire way of life, especially to the processes of vocational socialization. These crises are not specifically related to the eighteen-to-twenty-five-year-old age group and to the way of life of university students; however, they are often experienced by such people. The symptoms are similar to those of temporary crises, and only deeper analysis will reveal their recurring nature. Their roots can, as a rule, be traced back to the unresolved problems of primary socialization. Young people facing problems of this type are just as much in need of help as those mentioned earlier or even more so. They usually take up a great deal of the time of counsellors, but the care they need, which is often of a definitely therapeutic nature, is a precondition for their being able to keep up with their tasks and to solve the problems of their existence. (A certain percentage of the members of this group includes gifted, promising young people who are simply unable to cope with everyday life.)

### DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENT COUNSELLING CENTRES

The development of psychological care in Hungarian higher education has basically similar aims and methods regardless of the given university, in particular the Loránd Eötvös University of Science, the Semmelweis University of Medicine, and the University of Economics, all of them in Budapest, and the Lajos Kossuth University of Sciences in Debrecen.



Nevertheless, each care centre has its own specific features.

Regarding the Faculty of Arts of the Loránd Eötvös University of Sciences, the Student Counselling Centre started work in September 1986. Although its activities are focused primarily on the psychological care of the students of the Faculty of Arts, it also helps students in the Faculties of Natural Sciences and of Law.

In past decades, the majority of Hungarian students in higher education finished their studies at the institution in which they had begun them. The drop out rate was low compared to that of other European countries.

A new trend in career development has evolved in recent years due to changes in the political system. In both secondary and higher education, factors like personal interest, positive attitudes towards studies, performance, and talent are considered to be important.

In past decades, advice on career choice was given to the fourteen-to-eighteen year-old age group. Today it has become more important to help with the transition from secondary to tertiary education.

At present, there is an increasing need for professional counselling to help young people with their decision-making, with their adaptation to the school with regard to learning difficulties, and with how to cope with unexpected changes. There is a counsellor training department at the University of Szeged and another in the Teacher Training Institute of Eger.

These are the first steps. The number of training institutions will increase. In addition to training in counselling, teachers are also trained to teach specific subjects in the general curriculum.

Students in higher education now need more help in building their careers, as the scope of required knowledge has broadened and requires more flexibility.

Since the beginning of the 1990's, institutions have been created to respond to these manifold needs. Thus labour exchanges have been converted into employment centres which provide counselling for the new labour market. The training of these counsellors which requires three years was begun in Gödöllő in 1992 and meets general European standards.

These counsellors are trained to undertake vocational and unemployment counselling as well as counselling at institutions of higher education.

The psychology of counselling is being taught at the Loránd Eötvös University as of September 1993. The degree offered is equivalent to an M.A. Postgraduate training will also be made available.

Career counselling is needed more than ever because of the rapid changes which have been occurring in recent years. In the case of Hungary, the past experience of centralized decision-making makes it difficult for young people as well as for adults to take the proper decisions about their futures.

## ORIENTATION OF STUDENTS IN THE HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES TOWARDS INDUSTRY

Arnold ROTHE

- The article highlights the Project, *Magister in den Beruf* (the Master of Arts and the Professions) launched at the University of Heidelberg in 1992. The rationale for the project was that the vacancies in some traditional careers like teaching, journalism, the printing industry, tourism, etc., can no longer absorb the growing number of graduates in the human and the social sciences. Consequently, undergraduates tend to prolong their studies or, on the contrary, to drop out, while graduates end up accepting employment beneath their intellectual levels,

despite the fact that society will, in the future, require a large number of highly trained professionals. The two aims of the project are to familiarize interested students with certain sectors of the business world (e.g., public relations, advertising, personnel management, continuing education, etc.) and to inform the body of employers about the key qualifications of graduates. The means to this end include foundation courses in economics, talks given by employers and trainees, guided visits to enterprises, trade fairs, and internships.

I have seen police officers who held university degrees. Can anyone imagine something more cruel and absurd? Such persons, driven by envy and hatred for anyone superior or happy, will stop short of no conspiracy or crime. Incapable of anything constructive, they are possessed of only enough knowledge to be destructive.

These words, spoken, not by one of our contemporary pessimists, but by Chancellor Bismarck, were in reference not to Germany or France, but to Russia.

In fact, it was not exactly this fear that prompted the University of Heidelberg to launch a programme entitled, *Magister in den Beruf* (i.e., the Master of Arts and the Professions), which this article describes without any pretence of being a scholarly article in the formal sense. The intention of this initiative was to establish a link between the university and the labour market leading to eventual professional employment for graduates. It is aimed

therefore at two different publics: on the one hand, potential employers outside the university, and on the other hand, the university itself with its students, in particular, Master of Arts and Secondary Education State Examination candidates, preferably in the human sciences.

In order to establish such a linkage with the world of work, it was necessary to make contacts with employers, to inform them, and to persuade them to offer students the possibility of exploring a professional sector. With regard to students, the key words were *sensitize*, *inform*, and *test*. Indeed, students must be sensitized to professional prospects, informed about openings on the labour market, and allowed to experiment with them, meaning that they should be given chances to experience professional practice.

### THE NEED FOR THE PROGRAMME

The need for such a connection stems from the realities of mutual ignorance

## ORIENTATION OF STUDENTS

and of being self-contained; even of mutual distrust. On the one hand, the caricatural images of horrible profit-crazed and polluting capitalists; on the other hand, the clichés about enlightened minds devoid of any common sense and of unabashed protesters. Underlying this mutual distrust is the heritage of nineteenth century Germany, the conflict between the so-called two cultures, pure thought *versus* the applied arts and sciences, as well as that of Greek philosophy, *i.e.*, the predominance of theory over practice. Also, it is nonetheless true that the study programmes leading to an M.A. degree fail to offer students clear-cut professional qualifications, and the recently re-introduced M.A. diploma does not represent anything tangible on the labour market in Germany. The result is that increasing numbers of graduates find themselves unemployed, while the economy remains unaware of the existence of these highly trained human resources, potential collaborators, and executives.

During the mid-1980's in the Federal Republic of Germany, thirty percent of graduates had been former human sciences students; at the same time, however, only 4 per cent of graduates were employed in business and production. At a Trade Fair held in Cologne in 1992, only four out of the 150 participating companies showed any interest in the human sciences. With regard to the hiring of a chaplain by a pharmaceutical company, to the question asked, "Catholic or Protestant?", the reply was, "It doesn't matter, so long as he is a chemist."

In 1991, nearly 16,900 social sciences graduates and 31,000 human sciences graduates, of whom 19,000 were seeking employment in secondary education, were registered with the National Agency

for Employment of the old *Länder*. The total figure, almost 50,000, is equal in size to the population of a medium-sized town. And this is only the visible part of the iceberg, for the figures refer only to the graduates officially registered with the National Agency for Employment (ANPE). A poll recently conducted among students of Romance languages and literature at Heidelberg University has shown that thirty-eight percent of them have not the slightest notion of what they are going to do after graduation. And yet, only a mere three percent considered that their uncertain views of their future should be a cause of dissatisfaction, as if such a question were being deliberately avoided.

In fact, at Heidelberg, one candidate in three for the State Examination completes his studies compared with only one in eight for an M.A. degree. One can infer from these details that the high number of drop-outs among M.A. candidates is also a result of the failure of these course programmes to impart definite professional qualifications.

What about those who pass their examinations? At one point, IBM offered eight-month training internships to five hundred human sciences graduates at the end of which an offer of permanent employment was almost certain. Only twelve candidates, *i.e.*, 2.4 per cent, accepted an offer. This statistic is indicative of the fact that some thirty per cent of German Romance language graduates wish to become teachers, while some thirty-two per cent contemplate careers in journalism, in publishing houses, or in the traditionally related fields which, however, cannot absorb them.

Even if the number and the duration of classes were to be reduced, - something highly desirable - the reality remains that the gates of the secondary

schools will only open just a crack to admit newcomers. The situation is even worse with regard to publishing companies. One only needs to compare the number of schools per publishing house and the number of persons in a teachers' common room with the number of editors in a publishing house. In 1991, for each vacancy in a secondary school, there were thirty candidates. For each vacancy in a publishing company, there were seventy candidates. Being a taxi-driver or a typist is no solution; better to be guided by the old slogan, "with Kant and Kafka in the world of commerce".

Different countries, different customs: in Japan, in France, in the United Kingdom, and in the USA, twenty-five per cent of the specialists in literature and linguistics work in fields other than those in which they were trained and are perfectly content. Some Oxbridge graduates in history or in classical studies have become great statesmen, great magnates, or even great spies.

The University of Heidelberg, too, has had its exceptions - and has some remarkable ones today. Thus, a specialist in numismatics is the advertising agent of a machine factory abroad. A former Germanist, a woman, has become a press attaché at the Ministry of Education of Saxony. Another female graduate opened a private German school in Madrid. Overnight she became the right hand person of a Secretary of State in the Spanish Ministry of Cultural Affairs before heading the Centre for the Coordination of exhibits on the German Economy at the Seville Exhibition. These, however, are exceptional cases.

The figures quoted above demonstrate that graduate employment has reached such proportions that it affects society as a whole and calls for drastic, global solutions. German universities, with their or-

ganizational pattern and idealistic, elitist self-image are not prepared for this situation. But what other institution than the university can address this problem? Can the State or the economy do it? The State, which only regulates general conditions is already having trouble introducing the *numerus clausus* principle and modifying the position of the *abitur* as the means for entering higher education. In the world of today, a world of growing complexity and abstractness, the rapid integration of which is obliquely achieved by means of languages, including specialist and artificial languages, there is pressing need for a higher intellectual potential in society. By 2010, this category should reach 40 per cent of a given age group.

It would be going against the principle of the market economy and would impair its success for the state to employ *dirigiste* methods. The National Employment Agencies are doing their best, but they are concerned with graduates, not undergraduates. The undergraduates are precisely those who need attention. If the State cannot solve this problem, can the economy do so? But as observed above, there must first be motivation. Thus, for the time being, the link between the two worlds can only be the university. The latter knows better than any other institution what persons and what qualifications it can offer.

## THE INITIATIVE

There are many models, especially in the Anglo-Saxon world. All universities in the USA have their career counselling and placement services. True, the conditions there are basically different from those of Germany. For example, the majority of American universities are self-financing. But even in Germany things are changing. In May 1990, at the time of the so-called Constance Declara-

tion, representatives of ten university initiatives took the floor to call attention to the professional prejudices that the holders of degrees in human sciences must confront. In 1991, there were already twenty-three initiatives, from Kiel to Munich. In 1992, Heidelberg followed suit, rather tardily, as one might expect of a very old established university.

This initiative, tentatively called *Magister in den Beruf*, has been based from the start on the existing Central Student Orientation Service. The team is composed of a Coordinator, of a professor representing the rector, and of two collaborators, all of whom were made available through the training programme of the National Agency for Employment, the costs to be covered financially as of 1994 by the Baden-Württemberg Land. Moreover, each of the six faculties concerned is represented by a delegate.

As a start, it was necessary to poll the employers. First, contacts were made with some forty representatives of industry, the banks, the insurance companies, the public services, and sundry organizations and associations including the Chamber of Commerce and Industry and the National Agency for Employment with which Heidelberg has always had good working relations. In order to give an appearance of seriousness and to make the greatest possible impact in the future, only the largest companies like IBM, Fiat, Bosch, BASF, ABB, AEG, the Allianz Insurance Company, the Deutsche Bank, the Dresdner Bank, etc., were solicited. Thus we had to look beyond Heidelberg, a town with relatively little industry and trade, to the economic triangle delimited by Frankfurt, Sarrebruck, and Stuttgart.

The questions asked at this first meeting made it plain that first and foremost all parties concerned must be informed

about the disciplines and the different ways possible for German students to combine them, and about the different types of study programmes, examinations, and diplomas.

The broad spectrum of curricula and syllabi is itself an opportunity and a blessing, ranging from the student of archaeology interested in the functional changes of public monuments in Antiquity to the student of modern languages examining the linguistic barriers between eastern and western Germany. There is also a rich variety of methods going from the cat and mouse tactics of an interview in sociology and or in psychology to the analysis of current public expectations with regard to classical texts.

What proved to be of paramount importance when the human sciences were presented was not the competences required in one discipline or another, but the more general kinds of competences implicitly associated with them. The magic word is *key qualifications*. These were best summarized in the Munich initiative, as follows:

- aptitude for written and oral expression;
- new forms of routine-free thinking;
- an innovative mind;
- a systematic approach to problems, based on a given concept;
- systematic thinking;
- autonomy;
- capacity for orientation in an unknown significant system.

The Munich experts are all the more credible as they have included in their overall picture some shadows apt to elicit a not-so-favourable response from

industry, such as criticism without constructive counter-proposals, and priority of method over results.

Our first contact gave rise to an offer of twenty-five paid training internships during the summer vacation of 1992. This offer came as no surprise as the importance of key qualifications for the national economy was just beginning to be recognized. Worth citing is a passage from *The Capital*, not Marx's well-known treatise, but a magazine having the same title:

Shorter innovation cycles, harsher competition, and the internationalization of numerous markets not only cause knowledge to become more rapidly outdated, but also for new demands to be made of managers.

The Director of the Fraunhofer Institute of Stuttgart describes a scene of chaos: starting up and re-organization in the East, recession, the European market, the shortening of the marketing cycles and lives of products, changes in age structures, a raising of ecological consciousness, an information-bound and leisure-prone society. How can enterprises respond to these changes? According to him, managers must learn to think holistically, to perceive complex relationships, and to pass on to their collaborators a sense of the whole.

And everywhere *lean production* is recommended, including the levelling of hierarchies within enterprises, even at the intermediate and lower levels of management, where managers must nevertheless possess a global view and the capacity to communicate.

To the above is added long-term changes in labour market patterns. The estimate has been made that by 2010 the percentage of jobs in the so-called secon-

dary services sector will rise from twenty-three to thirty-five. According to the Munich experts, it is precisely in this secondary sector that key qualifications are in demand, more especially in assistance, counselling, teaching, publication, organization, and management.

A further meeting with the employers took place in January 1993 which resulted, despite recession, in forty paid internships in 1993, five of them in France, and the will to join an association in order to consolidate co-operation and to secure the supplemental funding needed by the programme.

All these efforts, however, would have been futile if they had failed to meet with a favourable response from students. Hence the parallel campaign to interest students. The official presentation of the project, presided by the Rector, took place in the principal lecture hall in May 1992. On that occasion, the speakers, academics as well as employers, attempted to sensitize the students and to bring out an awareness in them that course programmes are not a terminus nor a waiting-room, but merely a stage, however attractive and important. This attitude puts an end to the one-way track which, for more than twenty years, has been running through a well-protected pedagogical territory: kindergarten, primary school, secondary school, university and, worse still, perhaps through one and the same city. In Hermann Hesse's novel, *The Game of Glass Pearls*, Joseph Knecht, who had been a tutor all his life, drowns trying to save a pupil, thus failing the first practical test in his life. However, it was also necessary to explain that this initiative will not and cannot specify what class, in what compartment, and to what destination someone should continue his or her travel.

We can only help students to help themselves. As a matter of fact, the

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prospect of a future job should already have influenced the choice of subjects to be studied. As most beginning students are gifted in many domains, why not choose, out of the two or three compulsory subjects, one which is unusual, even exotic, simply in order to persevere?

In other matters, the two employers who had been invited held opposite views, like many of their colleagues. One of them recommended the study of economics, at least as a minor subject, while for the other, the choice of subjects mattered little so long as the student completed his studies and thereby received intellectual training in a specific domain and gave proof of the required perseverance. On-the-job training, he said, was the only way to acquire the required competences to work in industry, a principle that also applied to holders of diplomas in economics.

Even if it is too late to change course programmes, one can always choose as the subject of one's graduation thesis a topic bearing on a professional field with which one wishes to acquire some familiarity, unless, of course, one has a long-cherished, more appealing, subject. Thus the following topics are suggested for theses in Romance languages and literature: "Spanish Immigrants in France"; "Maupassant and the Press"; "The Father-Son Relationship in the Works of Balzac, Zola, and Cervantes". The quest for a professional perspective is not necessarily detrimental to serious studies.

### THE RESULTS

About 500 students attended the presentation during the summer of 1992, 200 of whom applied for an internship. Thus the twenty-five vacancies were filled with the cream of candidates and so made a good impression on the

employers. During the summer vacation, the trainees worked in banks, insurance companies, car factories, chemical plants, and electronics plants throughout the Rhine-Mainz-Neckar region. One trainee had to set up an in-house continuing education seminar; another had to write a multilingual promotional leaflet; and yet another who happened to be a student of classical languages managed to sell Fiat demonstration cars. As the reports demonstrated, nobody felt useless, even if a few were frankly exploited. The majority of them were seriously supervised and trained. All of them had to learn things that are not taught in universities, *viz.*, punctuality, prompt decision-making, team spirit - in short, they had to do so under the shock of confronting real life situations. Also, they had to apply what they had learned at the university, that is, engage in transfer of training.

There were no complaints from either the students or the employers. On the contrary, a former trainee is continuing to work independently as a collaborator; another one is participating in an enterprise-based highly specialized training programme, while yet another one has been offered a permanent job.

The result for these pioneers in the professionalization of studies is that many of them could visualize themselves as working in similar fields in later life. All of them went through a mental process of clarification; nevertheless, all of them were bent on continuing their studies, but at a faster pace. It therefore seems that the world beyond examinations is becoming more attractive. All those who undertook this training programme gained confidence.

As early as the official presentation of the project, students were invited to cooperate with the programme. The

response was such that several working groups needed to be formed. It became necessary to think of a proper name for the programme and a logo, to draw up statutes for the future association, to print posters, a leaflet, and even a periodical bulletin entitled *Geist und Markt* (Spirit and Market). The perseverance of this hard core of about twenty students, their imagination, humour, and unselfish involvement were for the programme initiators a source of great surprise and satisfaction. It may be that initiatives such as this one offer students an opportunity of freeing themselves from the anonymity associated with a German-type mass university, from the isolation, the emotional vacuum, and the competitive spirit so characteristic of the plethora of courses.

With the help of students, the first real programme was drawn up for the 1992-1993 winter semester, to wit, a general presentation of the Master of Arts and the Professions intended for university students, another programme targeted at managers, a colloquium including all similar initiatives in the Federal Republic of Germany, two evening sessions, of which one was devoted to the experience gained by the first group of trainees, and the other concentrated on the professional routes of two human sciences degree holders turned businessmen, a workshop on how to find a job, and a visit to a radio station. This type of programme will, in the future, be supplemented with successive presentations intended for students of various subjects, and a trade fair where different enterprises will make themselves known. All of these measures will be accompanied by a permanent orientation service and by basic courses in economics and management.

This initiative met with wide acclaim in the student and academic press, in the local and regional newspapers, and in other media. This initial success was due exclusively to the dedicated work of a small number of people, including the Rector of the university, who threw his weight behind the project; to two major businessmen, who, right from the start, gave the project the benefit of their expertise and connections; as well as to the principal collaborator who used her pedagogic flair in relation to students and her diplomatic skills vis-à-vis the business world.

And yet, there are only forty internships per annum for approximately 200 candidates from among the 28,000 undergraduates of Heidelberg University, including 9,000 human sciences students. Given the disparity in numbers, is the effort worth making? Naturally, this is only the beginning. Moreover, experience indicates that invariably in all fields one can only mobilize a minority, but it is this minority which counts.

Not to gloss over the havoc which such an initiative could play with the curriculum: colleagues would feel inclined to offer courses oriented toward practical life, such as computer-assisted linguistics and communication science. Traditional subjects would be able to disprove the slogan that they transmit knowledge not worth knowing. The link between teaching and research, this ideal of the German university system, also requires the testing of research by teaching. As early as 1982, the Conference of German Education Ministers recommended that philologists integrate the following subjects into their curricula:

- applied rhetoric;
- the hermeneutics of non-literary texts;



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- the uses of literature in daily life;
- terminology in specialist languages;
- the uses of the media;
- the methodology of teaching and learning foreign languages.

More importantly, whether university teachers be specialized in literature, linguistics, history, or the social sciences; whether they make a study of dyslexia or of the Gallo-Roman period; they should not become addicted to their routine work but should orient their teaching in terms of the key qualifications imparted and try to bring out the paradigmatic and

transcendental elements of the subjects they teach. To conclude on a rather antiquated note, *Non scholae, sed vitae docemus*.

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## AN INTEGRATED STUDENT SERVICES DEPARTMENT

### Baroness PERRY OF SOUTHWARK

- The article gives a brief description of the integrated student services department at South Bank University (United Kingdom). Its aim is to

show the advantages of placing all student services in a given university under one administrative umbrella.

British higher education has long prided itself on the very personal communication between students and academic staff existing within it. The very low ratio of students to staff, which even today is still lower than that of most other British higher education systems, and an emphasis on seminars and tutorial work, ensure that students have a great deal of personal academic care.

The tradition of the oldest universities in the country, copied by many of the universities founded in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, was for the personal care of students to be dealt with through student colleges and hostels. Social life was very much centred on the community within an individual college or hostel. Staff were available for any emergency help which the students might need in their personal lives.

The rapid expansion of the student population, which has meant that even in the *old* universities large numbers of students no longer live in college halls or residences, has in large part destroyed this model. We can no longer assume that a student will be able to find a member of staff to turn to in the case of personal crisis. Likewise, there are very few universities left in which the assumption can be made that students will be living in any kind of university community in

which their social and personal needs can be identified and met.

Many British universities are therefore working towards a formalization of student counselling and support. The Government scheme for student loans to be administered by the universities has also brought the administration of the universities more directly into face to face contact with the financial difficulties of students, and many have felt the need to provide a more professional financial counselling service.

### THE CASE OF SOUTH BANK UNIVERSITY

South Bank University has attempted to provide a totally integrated service to students, bringing together over ten different activities under one departmental umbrella. The thinking behind this action was very largely the increasing realization that student difficulties do not fall neatly under any single heading, but interlock throughout all aspects of their lives. A student who presents academic difficulties and who is falling behind in his work may be quite able to cope with the academic demands of the course programme but not with the housing, financial, health, or family problems with which he is also wrestling. The feeling was that it was all too possible for an individual student to be

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dealt with by one department, which might try to resolve a single pressing problem, while missing out on the underlying problems which were the real cause of the student's distress.

For this reason, the university began a few years ago to integrate several of the different activities around the campus which relate to students. South Bank now has a large department (over 30 members of staff) which brings together the following services:

- the student housing and placement service;
- the student induction arrangements for freshers;
- the nursery service for students with family responsibilities;
- the chaplaincy (Anglican and Roman Catholic Chaplains; however, Student Services are also responsible for the provision of Muslim prayer facilities);
- the medical and health services;
- financial advice by professionally trained staff;
- personal counselling by trained counsellors;
- staff training for academic and personal tutors;
- careers advice and placement;
- advice and co-administration with the Registry for student loans, fee remission on grounds of hardship, and student hardship grants;
- advice and consultancy to the administration and to students in the case of various forms of disability, together with responsibility for the organization of services to disabled students and formulation of the

University policy on all forms of equal opportunities in student matters;

- student sports and recreation.

The core work of each of these services is a one to one transaction (*e.g.*, careers advice, consultation with the nurse or the doctor, financial advice from an adviser or the counselling service) or a direct service (*e.g.*, a nursery place for the child of a student, an application for a place in a residence hall, or a session in the fitness centre). A broader signal is also sent out to students, through many publications before and after their arrival, through well ordered induction arrangements, a workshop on study skills, and talks by the Student Services staff that "this University cares about you".

The university is very careful not to convey to students the idea that it can solve all their problems, for the philosophy of the Student Services Department is very much to help students to develop the strengths and skills to solve problems for themselves. The university very strongly feels that its duty is to provide a network of services which will help its students make the most of their time at the university.

The university has a strong commitment to international students and a policy towards them which has been refined and developed over the years, particularly with the help of the United Kingdom Committee on Overseas Students (UKCOSA). All overseas students receive a pre-arrival booklet; a three day induction course before the term starts; and an optional language course. They further receive a welcome booklet on arrival, a follow-up meeting a few weeks into the first term, and other events organized throughout

their time at the university such as, for example, visits to the Houses of Parliament or tours of the historic area of Southwark.

South Bank is a university with a very high population of mature students - over 75% are above the age of twenty-one when they begin their courses, and 50% of the total of the student population begin their studies at the age of twenty-five or above. Student Services have therefore developed a very special expertise regarding the issues surrounding mature students.

For a mature student, a handbook has been prepared which attempts to reassure them in advance that their problems are not unique. They are joining a community in which their age group is familiar and welcome and which introduces them to the range of services which are available. During the induction week for all freshers, special meetings are specifically organized for mature students which are conducted in a very open-ended way to enable them to raise any particular problems. They are, of course, the main users of the nursery provision, and although the university can never provide sufficient places to meet demand, efforts are made to provide nursery care for the children of mature students on the days when they must attend classes. The university takes pride in the fact that its nursery provides not only care but an educational experience for young children.

A very special responsibility of the Student Services staff is to provide advice to students with special needs and to formulate policy on this question. In this regard, all students with any form of disability are interviewed by Student Services, in addition to any academic interviews they receive, to give them an

opportunity to discuss their practical needs, for instance, wheelchair access. Student Services make a point of forming links with the staff who will be most closely concerned with any student with disabilities to ensure that his special needs are catered to and understood. A Disabilities Steering Group has been set up within the university. It monitors progress and recommends practical procedures and improvements to the administration.

These are examples of an approach to specifically targeted groups within the overall policy of meeting the differentiated needs of the very disparate groups of students within the total student population of around 18,000.

South Bank University has always tried to work closely with the community provision of facilities, for example nurseries, hospitals, Citizen Advice Bureaux, sports centres, etc. Clearly the university cannot and probably should not provide for all the needs of students in many of these areas, as community provision already exists. Its aim is to ensure that it supplements when necessary and co-operates in all cases with the wide range of community services.

The real challenge to universities in the United Kingdom is to be able to continue to cater effectively to their students as the numbers of the latter grow. The belief held at South Bank is that an integrated approach to Student Services, providing easy referral from one form of advice and help to another, offers the best opportunity of ensuring that this challenge will be met.

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### SUMMARY OFF THE ADVANTAGES OF AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO STUDENT SERVICES

- confidence in cross-referral;
- cross-fertilization of ideas and approaches to *customer care*;
- unified management;
- greater opportunity for policy development and input to senior management;
- greater opportunity for internal staff development;
- less of a threat of being *marginalized*;
- easier to make meaningful links with academic schools and the student union;
- students can seek out different services in the same venue;
- easier communication up and down the line management structure and with the *outside world*.

## CONCLUSION AND SUMMING-UP

Andris BARBLAN

- This concluding article sums up the Conference and the papers presented. The three major themes evoked were the social and political environment of student counselling in higher education institutions, the role and processes of

The 1993 Annual Meeting of IRTAC, the International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling (Bordeaux, 13-16 April 1993) proceeded from student counselling in its socio-political environment, to student counselling in its institutional context, that is, at a university, and student counselling *per se*, as a profession, with its own rights and responsibilities. The various themes evoked are as follows.

### SOCIO-POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

Europe today is in a state of flux characterized by instability, recession, and unemployment. The instability comes from civil war, particularly conflicts in former Yugoslavia opposing representatives of different European cultures in which all Europeans should recognize parts of their own references and values. Instability, because the fall of the Wall in Berlin did not mean the triumph of the West but its destabilization for lack of a sparring partner. Instability, because the West has to adapt to a global economy and to an internationalization of production processes and of ideas. What has happened instead is that the West has priced itself out of the market. What the system needs, in fact, is total restructuring, that is, new investments, in people

career counselling, and arguments for an enhanced role for counsellors in the context of higher education. The reader is reminded that the most effective form of counselling remains the personal encounter.

and equipment, if Europe is to maintain some comparative advantage.

The result is recession, all the more so as in the West instability leads to cut-throat competition between the various economic agents, be they countries, firms, or people. Their key slogan is: do more with less, *i.e.*, be more efficient in the use of resources, a motto which is also applicable to the university. The use of fewer resources means, in particular, that people will be fired. Hence, unemployment is likely to last as long as it corresponds to a changing pattern of production - the gloomy part of the picture.

Signs of hope, however, exist, even if, more often than not, they are based on opportunities to be seized rather than on the enjoyment of past achievements.

As stated by Professor Clement and Professor Skilbeck, the lever of change and adaptation is human resources. Europe needs to invest in people, that is, in reinforcing its educational systems, whether primary, secondary, or tertiary - even if the new investments might lead to a blurring of these categories in order to provide an adequate social response to the challenges of sustainable development.

To name only a few of the changes to which allusion was made:

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- changed patterns of occupation, that is: a new division of labour between males and females, between specialists and jacks-of-all-trades, between persons sharing common time and common responsibilities;
- changed patterns of employment: fewer people employed in the public sector; more in the private sector, for instance; diverse careers with several different employers;
- changed patterns of work: new jobs but also short-lived ones that tend to fill in older functions.

These changes all lead to changed patterns of training: the ability to move from one job to another, to share projects for a fixed period of time, to contribute to innovative production processes in order to withstand competition, and to survive instability and economic uncertainty.

A final consequence is a changed pattern of social collaboration: the university, as an institution, needs to commit itself to a process of change if it is to survive - not to follow blindly the general trend, but to help shape the future of Europe as a whole in a critical and positive way. Commitment implies an opening, particularly to the needs of other partners - be they the authorities, firms, associations - and the servicing of these needs according to institutional competences and specificities.

### CAREER COUNSELLING

Career counselling was the second theme proposed in this meeting. The debate moved from career counselling to wider issues linked to the institutional role of counselling inside the university and to career counselling as a profession, the purpose of which often needs jus-

tification in order to survive in times of financial cuts.

In brief, therefore: career counselling is perceived as one of the key links between the outside and the inside of the university: either within the framework of the educational system, or within that of the economic structure.

Career counselling at the university, however, should be based on work previously accomplished in secondary education. It should use tests, interviews, and group work. It should not put people into boxes, nor label the fate of students - which, in Denmark, for instance, would be considered to be a breach of personal freedom. Rather, it should serve as a tool for self-evaluation and self-understanding. The students should be helped to take advantage of their strong points - in terms of knowledge, skills, and social abilities. In a competitive world of labour, they should learn how to sell their professional and personal *savoir-faire*.

The university should help students leave the *Alma Mater* as soon as possible, thereby making the best use of its scarce resources. Counsellors want their interface role to be recognized not only by academics but also by potential employers, going so far as to recommend the setting up of teaching companies and science parks as an organized way of stepping out into the world of employment. To ease the passage from studies to work, future employers should be brought into discussions about curricula and, if possible, join the boards of the institutions.

### AN ENHANCED ROLE FOR COUNSELLORS

This recommendation leads to the third theme developed at the Conference. Counsellors need to be considered assets

in the development of the pedagogical processes at universities: career counsellors know of the lacunae through their clients, be they employers or students. The linkage with the academic staff should become institutionalized. Indeed, counselling should be seen as a whole. Career counsellors are potential agents for change who can support the central role of the university in teaching and, sometimes, in research. They would like to move from the periphery of service to the centre of knowledge dissemination, as communication specialists and as advisers.

In particular, they could insist on the necessary adaptation of skill understanding to the local circumstances or the regional culture. They could provide some of the practical clues which should be the basis for the critical role of universities and indicate where stereotypes, rigid attitudes, and stiff behaviour place institutions and their credibility at risk in a world of compulsory flexibility.

To help them with their tasks, career counsellors need resources - in terms of training, information - *i.e.*, data bases - and research; research about the tools of their trade and their adequacy in terms of the needs of the students. They need - with their fellow counsellors in other branches - a re-definition of their profession to enable more rapid, sounder, more adequate responses to the needs of students, of society, and of their employers, the universities. This re-definition should take into account the very diverse organization of counselling in the different countries of Europe - ranging from a fully developed student service to nascent teams of lay counsellors, with little or no preparation.

The underlying theme is and remains as follows: beyond the changes in the delivery process and the information systems, the most useful and effective counselling remains the personal encounter, a human dimension of the contact that needs to be preserved.



## Tribune

### FEDORA: THE EUROPEAN FORUM ON STUDENT GUIDANCE, ITS PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

Tony RABAN

- This article describes the origins of FEDORA - the European Forum on Student Guidance - the context in which it operates, its aims and objectives, its current activities, and its future plans. FEDORA is the only organization which is specifically both European and devoted to the guidance of students in higher education. It exists to give a focal point to a very wide range

of members - practitioners and theoreticians - working in a very heterogeneous educational environment with widely differing clientèles. The article is descriptive and does not set out to be an academic analysis or assessment of different theories or models of guidance such as may be found in the different European countries.

#### INTRODUCTION

FEDORA, the European Forum on Student Guidance, or - to give its French title from which the acronym comes, the *Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique*, was founded in 1988. It is unique in being the only organization which is specifically European and also devoted to the guidance of students in higher education. Other associations may include the guidance of university-level students as part of their remit and may include Europe as part of a wider international focus. Various associations exist to deal with other aspects of higher education in Europe but none is specialized in student guidance.

This article describes the origins of FEDORA, the context in which it operates, its aims and objectives, its current activities, and its future plans. It is

purely descriptive and does not set out to be an academic analysis or assessment of different theories or models of guidance such as may be found in the different European countries. FEDORA exists to give a focal point to a very wide range of members - practitioners and theoreticians - working in a very heterogeneous educational environment with widely differing clientèles. It provides a framework within which they can collaborate but not a straitjacket into which they must fit.

#### THE ORIGINS OF FEDORA

Although FEDORA was not founded until 1988, its origins go back to the early 1980's. In 1981, the European Commission decided to investigate the provision

of guidance at university level in the Member States. A contract was given to the RUI Foundation, an Italian organization which existed primarily to provide residential accommodation for university students in certain Italian universities but which had also become involved in providing guidance. As a result of the report that the Foundation produced (RUI Foundation, 1981), a conference was organized to discuss the findings of that Report. Many of the individuals who had provided information were invited to participate.

The conference was held at Castelgandolfo, in October 1981, and the proceedings were subsequently published by the RUI Foundation as a working document entitled **Choice, Success in the Studies, and Transition to the Working Life in Higher Education** (RUI Foundation, 1983). For many of the participants, it was a first experience of working together with colleagues from other European Union Member States. A very strong recommendation emerged at the end of the conference that future opportunities should be provided to enable the group to meet again.

The French Ministry of National Education offered to organize a second conference in about two years' time. In the event it took a little longer, but the second Conference on University Guidance in Europe was held in France in September 1985. It was organized jointly by the RUI Foundation and the Ministry of National Education, with an opening session in Paris, and the remainder of the Conference in Nantes. The Report was again published by the RUI Foundation (RUI Foundation, 1985).

Again the feeling was that the series of conferences should continue. The Greek delegates offered to host the third in the series, which took place in October 1988,

with an opening session in Athens, and the remainder of the Conference at Delphi. However, in the meantime, the RUI Foundation had suggested to a group of the more active participants in the earlier conferences that it might be appropriate to consider the creation of a more permanent organization, and various meetings were held between 1985 and 1988 (with support both from the RUI Foundation and the ERASMUS Bureau), at which proposals were prepared for an association, and the name FEDORA emerged. A constitution was drawn up, and the Association was to be registered in Belgium as a technical, non-profit-making organization. Its working languages were to be English and French.

The formal founding of the Association took place in Athens on the eve of the opening ceremony of the 1988 conference, when 21 founding members (at least one from every European Union member state) signed the Statutes and elected a provisional Executive Committee of 12 (one from each Member State). That Committee then in turn elected its first officers (the author as President, Mr. Jean-Marie Burnet of the Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium, as Vice-President, and Mr. Camille Keiffer of the Luxembourg Guidance Service as Secretary). The launching of the Association was formally announced at the opening ceremony of the Athens/Delphi Conference, and the Association proceeded to recruit new members at that conference.

The support of the European Commission, and especially of the ERASMUS Bureau, was crucial to the founding of the Association in two ways. Not only did the ERASMUS Bureau provide practical help in bringing the group together to carry out some of the preparatory work, but - much more importantly - the

growth of European exchange programmes, particularly ERASMUS but also COMETT, meant that there were specific reasons why those working in the field of university guidance in the European Community needed a forum. The growing co-operation between European Community universities through inter-university co-operation programmes under the ERASMUS programme and the growing mobility of students was a major motivation. Those students needed guidance in preparation for studying abroad and then to help them integrate into unfamiliar academic environments.

There was considerable discussion during the preparatory phase before the foundation of FEDORA about whether it should be a fully European association or a European Community association. In the event, a compromise was reached for practical reasons. Given that the association would have very restricted financial resources (essentially the subscriptions of its members), it was not felt possible to set up a large organization embracing members from a very wide geographical area. It was felt that it would be more realistic to concentrate mainly on the twelve Member States, especially given the particular context of the European Community exchange programmes, which at that moment were limited to the Member States.

However, it was important not to ignore the rest of Europe, and a dual category of membership was therefore established. Full membership is open to those working in the field of university guidance in any of the Member States, and associate membership is open to people from other European countries, or to people from the Member States who are less directly involved in student guidance but nevertheless wish to be as-

sociated with FEDORA. That distinction remains in the Constitution; however, its validity has decreased although it is less valid that the Community programmes (which of course have grown in number as well as in scope) are now in many cases open to non-European Union Member States or, like TEMPUS, are specifically aimed at them.

At the time, however, it seemed to the Founding Members that there was justification for an Association that would concentrate on the specifically European aspect of guidance in higher education as distinct from either its wider international aspects (such as are covered by the IAEVG - International Association for Educational and Vocation Guidance - which also covers guidance at non-university level) or IRTAC (the International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling, which is even broader in that it covers all aspects of guidance and counselling, not only educational guidance and counselling). Equally, it was felt important to have an association which concentrated specifically on the guidance aspects of university life, and for this reason FEDORA remains separate from the European Association for International Education (EAIE), which was founded at almost exactly the same time but the members of which are largely concerned with the organization of exchange programmes and associated topics such as language teaching.

FEDORA and the EAIE do, however, have very friendly relations: FEDORA is a courtesy member of the EAIE, and EAIE representatives are invited to FEDORA conferences. Further proof of the fact that there are some specifically European aspects of guidance and counselling is perhaps given by the more recent foundation of the European Association for Counselling, which brings

together practitioners in a very much wider range of counselling situations, including the educational sphere.

### THE CONTEXT IN WHICH *FEDORA* OPERATES

The systems of higher education in Europe are very varied, a fact that is reflected by the practices of guidance. In many cases, the provision of guidance has grown up naturally around major decision-making points in the lives of students, but it also reflects the nature of the student population and the different cultures of the European countries. For example, in many continental European countries, the majority of students have traditionally tended to study at local institutions of higher education and therefore live with their families, or at least in close touch with them. By contrast, in the United Kingdom and in France, the student population has traditionally been very mobile, and the majority of students choose to study in institutions away from their home areas and thus lack immediate family support. Again, in many continental countries, courses have tended to be much longer than they are in the United Kingdom, Ireland, or in the French universities (as opposed to the *grandes écoles*), where typically they last only three to four years. This difference obviously results in a rather younger student population. The sort of provision and support needed for a young student population, particularly when those students are studying away from home, is somewhat different from the support which may be needed by a student population which has the support of family, and many of whom will be in their mid- or even late twenties. The Anglo-Saxon tradition of providing tutorial support is obviously a result of this need even if the tutorial support has

been provided by teachers rather than by professional advisers.

Another factor which determines the type of provision which may be made for student guidance is the nature of the decisions that students take and the timing of them. In many continental countries, choice of career is largely predetermined by one's choice of course programme at a university. Major vocational decisions are therefore taken at the end of the period of secondary education. Furthermore, if the tradition of higher education is largely a local one, the graduate labour market may also be largely a local one so far as individual students are concerned. Again, by contrast, in the United Kingdom and to a lesser extent in Ireland, a large part of the graduate labour market is open to students regardless of the subject of study, and vocational choices for many students are therefore made during or at the end of higher education rather than being predetermined by the choice of course programme.

Furthermore, in a country like the United Kingdom or France in which students study away from their homes, the graduate labour market is a national rather than a local one. In other countries, like Ireland, mobility may be essential because of lack of local opportunities, and in the case of Ireland in particular, many graduates go abroad to find work. If, therefore, one looks at the provision of student support, one sees that in the United Kingdom and Ireland there is a strong tradition of providing careers advisory services whereas in many continental countries such provision has not been seen to be necessary either because the vocational decisions have been taken before the point of entry to a university or because entry to the labour market is a relatively straightforward transition in

a local job market which is well-known to the students. In many southern European countries, personal contacts are particularly important in this context, and there may even be positive distrust of professional advisers.

In contrast, many continental universities have quite complex academic systems which students need help in negotiating, with choices of options being critical to the acquisition of degrees. Thus a tradition has grown up in many continental countries of providing academic advice to students about choices of course programmes. Such advising may be provided for students contemplating university enrollment in the later years of secondary education as well as to those currently studying in universities. This tradition is often strengthened by the fact that academic staff members themselves have not necessarily played a large part in helping students - at least in their early years when classes can be very large in some of the mass education systems. The work has, therefore, been left to professionals.

By contrast, in the United Kingdom course programmes are relatively short and relatively structured. The sorts of choices which students need to make do not necessarily require the provision of professional guidance, especially if a strong tutorial system is provided by the teaching staff. Traditionally also, much of the guidance regarding entry to universities has been provided from the schools because the links between the latter and their local universities are less strong in a system in which students spread themselves across universities throughout the country.

These differences between systems, which have perhaps determined the nature of the guidance offered, must also be seen against strong differences in cul-

tural background - especially between the north and the south of Europe. In southern Europe generally speaking, guidance services have been less well developed than in the north. It also has to be said that some of these differences are becoming less marked as education systems change and develop. There has been more interest in continental Europe in the tradition of providing vocational guidance and placement as practiced in the English-speaking world. There has also been greater interest in providing professional help for students in making academic choices and in doing academic work as governments have worried about failure rates and expenditure. Furthermore, students themselves often see education as a means to an end rather than something which is intrinsically valued for its own sake and therefore demand help in working their ways through the system.

FEDORA members, therefore, come from a very wide variety of situations and traditions. For this reason, the definition of eligibility was deliberately left extremely broad, and membership is open "to any person who is working in the field of student guidance in institutions of higher education in Member States of the EC. Such work could be in educational guidance, personal counselling, vocational guidance, placement, the training of advisers, or general tutorial care". This definition was deliberately designed to encompass all who were working in student guidance in higher education, and the current membership reflects this definition with psychological counsellors, educational counsellors, career advisers, foreign study advisers, as well as academic teaching staff involved in the training of counsellors and advisers and with the theory of guidance and counselling. Because of the wide differences in context and the very patchy development of guidance across

Europe, there was much that practitioners could learn from one another. Thus cross-fertilization has become one of the functions of FEDORA.

### THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF FEDORA

Within this very varied context, FEDORA set itself a number of objectives:

- to exchange information and experience at European level among those concerned with the guidance of students at university level;
- to improve the quality and effectiveness of university student guidance in each of the member countries of the European Union through joint action and research programmes;
- to collaborate with other bodies so as to convey to them the views of professionals in the field of student guidance and to provide them with the means to consult these experts on particular activities or matters relating to student guidance;
- to provide a network to support European Union programmes (such as COMETT and ERASMUS) and to make these programmes known to universities and institutions of higher education as well as to current and prospective students;
- to promote and carry out studies and research on student guidance, to publish and disseminate the results, and to organize seminars, conferences, and congresses on these matters;
- to collaborate with universities and national and international organizations involved in university and higher education.

### CURRENT ACTIVITIES

FEDORA has deliberately set out to grow slowly and to try to establish a solid base from which to operate rather than to attract a very large membership which would, in many cases, be passive rather than active. Although the Association does have a part-time administrative secretary, essentially all the work is carried out by honorary officers and committee members and by the membership itself. The first committee served for three years, and a new committee was therefore elected at the Annual General Meeting of the Association which took place in Berlin in July 1991 during the Fourth European Congress on Guidance in Higher Education. This Congress continued the earlier series of conferences, started in Castelgandolfo nine years earlier. That committee will in turn end its period of office at the end of 1994, and a new committee, which was elected at the Annual General Meeting of the Association, held in April 1994, during the Fifth European Congress, will take office.

The organization of this triennial series of congresses has now become an important activity for FEDORA. Born at the third congress in Greece, it was involved jointly with the German Hochschulrektorenkonferenz and the Berlin universities in organizing the Fourth Congress entitled *One Year Before: Studying in Europe*. The proceedings were subsequently published (HRK, 1991).

The Fifth Congress, which was organized in Barcelona in April 1994, was the first to be organized solely by FEDORA. It was entitled *New Challenges for Guidance in Europe (the Present and the Future)*.

Apart from taking on the organization of the triennial congresses (which are also open to non-members), FEDORA has initiated a number of other projects.

It has published a **Directory of University Guidance Services in the EC** (FEDORA, 1991), which facilitates direct contacts between advisers and students in the EU Member States. At an internal level, it has also launched a newsletter, which appears four times a year, each issue of which now concentrates on a particular aspect of guidance, as well as having news and information for members. However, perhaps the most important aspect of the work of FEDORA is now carried out through a series of working groups which have been set up by interested members involved in specific aspects of university guidance. There are currently four of these.

The FEDORA Training Group is concerned with the training of people involved in university guidance. Its aim is to offer university counsellors and advisers who are interested in adapting their professional practice to a European guidance perspective the possibility of participating in training and professional updating programmes and in opportunities for exchanges of experience.

The Group organized its first conference in 1992 at Camerino. A report was produced (FEDORA, 1992). Out of this conference came the idea of a Summer School which would become a regular event and possibly even lead to a certificate of completion. The first part was organized at Montpellier in July 1993 with support from the European Commission, the Languedoc-Roussillon Regional Council, the *Generalitat* of Catalonia, the RUI Foundation, and six European universities. It concentrated on the educational and guidance system of four countries: France, Germany, Spain, and the United Kingdom. Further sessions are planned for the future.

One of the earlier groups to be created was the FEDORA Employment Group

set up in 1990 after a conference which FEDORA organized in Cambridge, with the theme of **The Relationships between University Counsellors and Employers**. The objective of the Group is to act as an interface between higher education and the world of work, promoting collaboration between the principal intermediaries in this interface: advisers in higher education and employers, particularly their recruitment managers.

The Group organized a second conference on this same theme at Louvain-la-Neuve in 1992 (FEDORA, 1992), and it is also producing a series of useful guides on employment-related matters. The first of these appeared in 1993 and is entitled **A Guide to ERASMUS and Other EC Programmes in Higher Education for Employers** (FEDORA Employment Group, 1993).

A more recent creation has been the FEDORA Disabled Group. Students with disabilities are entering the university educational system in increasing numbers, but many universities do not provide the necessary services for disabled students. The FEDORA Disabled Group, that is set up to stimulate the development support services for disabled students in European countries, has considerable support from the European Commission. One of its major projects is to evaluate programmes currently in place in European universities so that examples of good practice can be disseminated.

A fourth FEDORA group - FEDORA Psyche - is specifically for members interested in psychological counselling. Its objectives are to develop a European perspective for colleagues working in this field and to emphasize within the process of the developing Europeanization of studies the importance of specific

insights gained from day-to-day work in psychological counselling. The Group organized a conference in Naples in 1992 and produced a report about the different practices of psychological counselling in European universities distributed at the Barcelona Congress in April 1994.

The Fifth European Congress held in Barcelona in April 1994 was organized around the activities of these working groups.

In addition to these formal working groups, FEDORA is keen on encouraging its members to benefit from contacts with counterparts in other countries and to learn from their experiences and from their differences in experience and practice. A recent development has been the setting up of a databank of opportunities for members to spend periods visiting colleagues in other countries. This databank allows members who would like to organize a study visit to identify institutions willing to welcome them and gives practical information, such as availability of accommodations, possibilities for payment of expenses, language requirements, etc.

#### FUTURE PLANS

The future plans of FEDORA are to consolidate its present activities and working groups, but also to respond to changing needs and to the initiatives of individual members or groups of members.

The reorganization and relaunching of many of the European Commission's Educational Programmes (the new SOCRATES and LEONARDO Programmes) may well provide an impetus. FEDORA will certainly want to continue organizing major triennial congresses to bring together members and non-mem-

bers from across Europe. All the working groups have ongoing projects.

There is, also, a growing awareness on the part of university authorities of the importance of guidance. FEDORA is ideally placed both to profit from this interest and to provide professional advice and information to university authorities on how guidance services in higher education should respond to the growing Europeanization of higher education and the increasing interest of students in taking advantage of being citizens of the European Union.

#### CONCLUSION

FEDORA now has about 300 members. As was stated earlier, one of the important criteria for membership is a willingness to make a positive contribution to the Association and its work. FEDORA does not want to exist for its own sake but for the sake of improving the practice of guidance and counselling within the European context. It will certainly welcome the growing involvement of European countries outside the European Union, both the other Member States of the European Economic Area, and also the eastern European countries, the involvement of which through programmes like TEMPUS is also of growing importance. It will also continue to respond to the ideas and needs of its membership - hence the prime importance of looking for individuals who want to contribute positively to its future.

Further information about FEDORA, its activities, membership, and publications, can be obtained from the FEDORA Secretariat, BP55, B-1348, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium.



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## THE CHANGING ROLE OF CAREERS SERVICES IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

A. G. WATTS

- The strength of specialist careers advisory services in United Kingdom universities is linked to the *in loco parentis* tradition and also to the tradition of occupational flexibility on graduation. The evolution of such services from *appointments boards* to *careers services* is traced in terms of three sequential changes: the impact of counselling, the growth of careers education, and the move towards an open-access style of delivery. The overlap of roles between careers services and teaching departments is analyzed in relation to individual guidance and placement, and particularly in relation to careers education. The extent of overlap tends to vary

between vocational, semi-vocational, and non-vocational courses. The emergence of the concept of *personal transferable skills* has encouraged new forms of partnership between careers services and teaching departments. This development raises questions about where careers services should be located organizationally within higher education institutions. Should they, for example, be aligned to other student services, to academic services, or to marketing services? What organizational benefits do institutions seek from such services? Are they part of the core offer made to students, or additional services which are open to review in terms of their specific costs and benefits?

• Institutions of higher education in the United Kingdom have traditionally considered that they have a responsibility to help students with their career choices and transitions. Practice in these respects in the United Kingdom - and indeed in most other industrialized English-speaking countries, including Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the USA - differs markedly from that elsewhere in Europe. In most other European countries, careers help - if it is offered at all - tends to be offered as part of the academic process: in other words, as part of the structure of the course programme. A tutorial system to help students at a personal level rarely exists. Equally, specialist careers services are uncommon (Watts, Guichard, Plant, and Rodriguez, 1994). In the United Kingdom, by contrast, universities normally have both tutorial systems and specialist services.

Two main reasons can be offered for these differences. First, institutions of higher education in the United Kingdom have tended to assume stronger *in loco parentis* functions than in other European countries. This characteristic is linked to their residential tradition, supported by a grants structure which permits students to readily go to institutions away from their homes. Personal contact between teaching staff and students is regarded as important in this respect, and support structures to help students with their educational, personal, and vocational problems have grown naturally out of this tradition. In most other European countries, by contrast, institutions have tended to establish more detached relationships with their students, who are more likely to live at home, with teaching being carried out in large classes (Watts, Guichard, Plant, and Rodriguez, 1994).

Secondly, in the United Kingdom there is much more occupational flexibility on graduation than elsewhere in Europe. Around half of graduate vacancies are for students from any discipline, and this proportion rose during the 1980's (Bee and Dolton, 1990). There is much less rigid *tracking* than in other European countries (where there tends to be a more widespread assumption that university students have already committed themselves to certain occupational areas by the nature of the course programmes that they have chosen). The need for separate help outside course structures is accordingly more acute.

#### FROM APPOINTMENTS BOARDS TO CAREERS SERVICES

The origins of university careers services in the United Kingdom can be traced to the foundation at Oxford, around 1892, of a committee which eventually became the Oxford University Appointments Committee. By 1914, appointments services had been set up at Cambridge and at five other universities; a further nine followed between the two World Wars; and by the mid-1950's, all universities had such services (UGC, 1964).

The activities of university appointments boards were threefold: advisory *interviews*; the provision of *information* about careers, employers, and jobs; and *placement* activities, including notifying vacancies to students, and arranging selection interviews between students and employers. The cornerstone of the service was the interview. Many students considered that job-finding was the only function of the service of any consequence. It included (as it still does) the *milk-round* of selection interviews arranged with employers on the university campus.

Since 1964, the number of universities has expanded considerably, with the foundation of new universities and the elevation to university status of colleges of advanced technology in 1965 and of the polytechnics in 1992. In 1960-1961, there were twenty-three universities and around 104,000 first-degree students in the United Kingdom. By 1991-1992, these figures had risen to eighty-nine and around 600,000 respectively (excluding first-degree students in colleges of further and higher education). Many of the newly elevated universities and colleges had very different cultures from the traditional universities. In particular, many had strong vocational traditions, with guidance being regarded either as unnecessary or as part of teaching responsibilities. Their careers services tended to be of more recent origin and less well provided with resources (Kirkland and Jepson, 1983; Kirkland, 1988).

Partly as a result of the interaction of these traditions and cultures, the old appointments boards have been transformed, both in function and in title, into careers services. This transformation has involved changes in their relationships with teaching departments and in their institutional roles. These will be considered later. First this article will examine the three sequential changes in their core guidance activities which characterized the transformation: the impact of counselling, the growth of careers education, and the move towards an open-access style of delivery.

#### The Impact of Counselling

The rise of the counselling movement in Britain in the 1960's had a major impact on education in general, including higher education (Daws, 1976). The first counselling service to be established in a British university was set up as an "ap-

pointments and counselling service" at Keele in 1963. While most of the university counselling services established subsequently were structured separately from careers services (see Mackintosh, 1974; Breakwell, 1987), the Keele service celebrated the relationship between its two functions. The *appointments* work provided a respectable cover to any students who felt that going to *counselling* implied some personal stigma. At the same time, the *counselling* work meant that vocational decision-making came to be viewed not as a separate entity but as a vital strand in the overall personal development of students. Moreover, the counselling skills of the staff meant that they had more skilled help to offer to students who were confused and uncertain about their futures. The often-heard criticism in other universities that appointments services provided effective assistance to those who had already decided what they wanted to do, but little to those who had not, ceased to be valid (Newsome, Thorne, and Wyld, 1973).

The Keele model was emulated organizationally by only a few polytechnics. It had, however, a considerable influence on the philosophy of careers services. Some staff members in other institutions began to adopt similar approaches. In the mid-1970's, the Keele team began to offer counselling courses for groups of careers staff in other institutions, which changed the style in which their interviews were conducted. These courses also led to the establishment of more professional training structures (Thorne, 1985). While careers staff continued to conduct careers interviews in very different ways, and most remained reluctant to become too involved in counselling related to the deeper personal issues of students, many began to make more use of counselling techniques

in their work. There also emerged a widespread recognition that offering information and advice to the decided was not sufficient: that guidance was an equally and perhaps more important aspect of the service than placement (Kirkland, 1988).

### The Growth of Careers Education

Following hard on the heels of the counselling movement was the emergence in higher education of the concept of careers education (Watts, 1977). The juxtaposition of the two was not accidental. Counselling was concerned with facilitating the process of decision-making and helping students to take responsibility for the decisions that emerged, rather than being passively dependent on the advice of experts. Counselling on its own could however be a very lengthy and hence expensive way of achieving this goal. For students to make decisions wisely (Katz, 1969), they needed a conceptual vocabulary, a range of experiences, and a set of decision-making skills upon which to draw. Developmental theories of career development suggested that such concepts, experiences, and skills developed to some extent in the normal processes of social maturation. Careers education was based on the premise that such development could be facilitated and, perhaps, accelerated by programmes of deliberate intervention, designed on a group basis.

The growth of careers education was thus in part theory-driven and in part resource-driven. It offered a way of working which was closely attuned to the emerging redefinition of the role of careers services, influenced by the counselling movement. It also offered a strategy which recognized the limitations of the services' resources and

sought to use these resources to optimum effect. Working more with groups than with individuals offered possibilities for more student time *on task* for each unit of careers adviser time. There were also potential benefits to be harnessed from the interaction between the students themselves.

The nature of the services developed varied considerably. At the most cynical level, *careers education* could be used as a new label for the careers talks which had been a long-standing element of most careers programmes. Such talks might cover particular occupations or more general themes such as self-presentation. But they were one-off informational events, with no developmental intent.

An analysis of more elaborate careers education programmes in higher education, drawing on American as well as British examples, distinguished three main forms: courses leading to credit; courses not leading to credit; and intensive experiences (Watts, 1977). At the time, a few examples of courses leading to credit were reported, mainly in the (then) polytechnics, as well as more widespread examples of intensive experiences, ranging from short life-planning workshops to five-day courses making heavy use of simulations and business games. No courses leading to credit were recorded, but Ross (1988) later reported the development of such a course within a modular degree scheme.

Careers education programmes within higher education continued to grow into the 1980's. Kirkland and Jepsen (1983) asked heads of careers services whether they knew of any cases in which courses in their institutions included elements of specific careers education: 44% of universities, 75% of polytechnics, and 66% of colleges replied "yes". When asked whether in their view the degree

courses at their institutions should include more careers education, around three-quarters in each sector were in favour. It should be noted that these questions were not confined to courses in which the careers service was actively involved. When individual advisers were asked what proportion of their own time was spent lecturing on careers, only 22% (8% in universities, 39% in polytechnics, and 44% in colleges) gave figures of over 5%.

While careers education programmes *per se* thus remained a relatively limited feature of careers services, they started to wean the services from the heavy focus on formal individual interviewing which had hitherto characterized their work. They thus helped to pave the way for the third aspect of the transition from the old appointments board model, the move to an open-access approach.

### **Toward an Open-Access Approach**

In the 1980's, many careers services reviewed their work patterns. They recognized that the traditional hour-long interview was highly labour-intensive and not always the most effective way of using their professional resources. They realized, in particular, that the information needs of many students might be met more effectively by upgrading the information resources of the services and by making use of computer technology.

The result was, in some services, a radical redesigning both of work patterns and of work spaces. Instead of the one-to-one interview being viewed as the core activity, with a careers library available as a supportive resource, an open-access information room was now viewed as the heart of the service. Students were able to come in when they wished, to browse through a wide range

of information files, video, and other materials, and to have access to personal help not only from upgraded information staff but also from careers advisers who were available on a rota *surgery* basis for brief informal interviews. These were designed partly to respond to *quick queries*, and partly to diagnose the guidance needs of students and to direct them to other services where these needs might be met. Such services might include not only the resources in the information room but also group sessions, work-experience opportunities, and the like. The traditional hour-long interview was then available for those students who needed intensive personal help.

This shift of focus was greatly strengthened by the growing use of computer-aided guidance systems. A number of limited systems had been introduced into higher education as of the 1970's, the most notable of these being GRADSCOPE, a matching system available first on a batch-processing and subsequently on an interactive basis (Wilson, 1980; Hesketh *et al.*, 1987). Then in the 1980's, following a feasibility study by Pierce-Price (1982), a major learning system was developed: PROSPECT (HE). It was designed to be comprehensive, including as many as possible of the main components of the careers guidance process. It was also to be capable of being used on a stand-alone basis, without any need for support, even though it was expected to be more effective when fully integrated with the other facilities offered by careers services (Watts, Kidd, and Knasel, 1991). The active involvement of careers services in its development significantly facilitated the move towards a more open-access approach (Sampson and Watts, 1992). Despite many political obstacles, PROSPECT (HE) was by 1992 being used

extensively in most higher education institutions (Watts, 1993).

The organizational changes in careers services were often reflected in physical changes. Traditionally, many services had comprised a small reception area leading to a number of separate rooms occupied by individual careers advisers, with a further room for the careers library. Now, large open spaces were created, in which a wide range of resources could be attractively presented and work-spaces for individual students provided. There were still rooms for individual one-to-one interviews, but these were less prominent.

The extent of the move towards an open-access approach has varied considerably. In some institutions, progress has been limited by constraints on physical changes. In some cases, the one-to-one interview has remained a strong feature of the service. In others, it is now barely advertised, and is offered only in exceptional circumstances (see *e.g.*, Watts, Kidd, and Knasel, 1989). In general, however, most services have been touched by the change to some extent. The latter is part of a wider European trend in which the concept of an expert guidance specialist working with individual clients in a psychological vacuum is replaced, or at least supplemented, by a more diffuse approach in which a more varied range of interventions is used, with a greater emphasis on the individual as an active agent rather than as a passive recipient within the guidance process (Watts, Dartois, and Plant, 1988).

## RELATIONSHIPS WITH TEACHING DEPARTMENTS

Alongside the work of careers services, teaching departments have always considered that they have some respon-

sibility for the career planning of their students. In part, this responsibility is linked to the *in loco parentis* tradition noted earlier. Most institutions have tutorial systems that are often based in teaching departments. In a large survey of university teachers, Williams, Blackstone, and Metcalf (1974) found that 84% thought it part of their job to give guidance on career choices (p. 490). Moreover, departments offering vocational courses have tended to provide information on related job opportunities and to put students in touch with employers with whom they have ongoing links.

In both of these respects - guidance and placement - there has therefore been some overlapping of roles between careers services and teaching departments. The emergence of careers education, as noted above, has provided a third area of overlap in which the boundaries are even less clear. Although, as we have seen, many careers services have now set up careers education programmes, they have not been given the resources to provide such programmes on any significant scale. Many students have been untouched by them, and few students have had access to more than two or three short sessions. Moreover, the delivery of the mainstream curriculum is the core responsibility of teaching departments. Although the notion of careers education may be less familiar to such departments, their claims on it, and the scale of their potential contribution to it, are in principle much greater (Watts and Hawthorn, 1992).

In practice, the extent of role overlap has tended to vary among different types of course programmes:

- In *vocational* course programmes, like those for medicine and architecture, which are linked to a

specific occupational role, guidance and placement are regarded as essential for that role. The departments tend to regard careers education and individual guidance as being irrelevant, but job placement and more specific professional guidance as being their own responsibility. Only students who decide to change vocational direction - regarded as *deviants* or *drop-outs* - are referred to the careers service.

- In *semi-vocational* courses like chemistry and psychology - in which course programmes lead to a wide range of occupational fields, but with the expectation that they will be regarded as essential or desirable for entry to those fields, and as providing at least a relevant base for occupational training - the departments will be more likely to regard careers education, individual guidance, and job placement as being a shared responsibility with the careers service.
- In *non-vocational* courses like English and history - in which it is common for students to enter a wide range of occupational fields to which the contents of their course programmes are irrelevant, the departments will tend to view careers education, individual guidance, and job placement as being the sole responsibility of the careers service.

In the late 1980's, however, a number of development programmes were set up which had the effect of encouraging some non-vocational courses to view themselves as "semi-vocational" in terms of skills if not of knowledge. The *Pegasus* programme (e.g., Findlay, Martin, and Smith, 1987), the *Education for*

*Capability* programme (Stephenson and Weil, 1992) and the much larger *Enterprise in Higher Education* programme (Macnair, 1990; Watts and Hawthorn, 1992) were all concerned with advancing, under different titles, the concept of *personal transferable skills*: the notion that, alongside their knowledge components, higher education courses can develop generic intellectual, problem-solving, communication, teamwork, inter-personal, and other skills and that it is from the transferability of such skills that the general employment value of degrees largely stems.

Careers services played an important role in the development of the concept of *personal transferable skills*. In particular, they were important *message-bearers* about the importance which employers attached to such skills. They also increasingly incorporated into their guidance programmes elements designed to help students to *identify* their skills and the forms of employment to which they were transferable. A few services also initiated programmes designed to *develop* particular skills. But they were not equipped to do this latter except on a limited residual basis. The EHE and other programmes in effect allocated this task primarily to teaching departments.

The concepts of personal transferable skills and of careers education are by no means coterminous, but they overlap considerably. The decision-making and transition skills which careers education is concerned with developing are themselves personal transferable skills. The other two main areas of careers education - self awareness and opportunity awareness - can help students to identify respectively their skills and the arenas to which they are transferable. The concept of personal transferable skills has accord-

ingly been a powerful vehicle for developing careers education - in practice if not always in name - in teaching departments within higher education. Relevant initiatives have included profiling systems, support for work-experience programmes as vocational exploration, lectures or workshops on particular aspects of careers education, and even - in a few cases - more comprehensive careers education courses (Watts and Hawthorn, 1992).

These initiatives have posed new challenges to careers services in developing closer relationships with teaching departments. Traditionally, such links have tended to be limited. Some services have set up liaison networks with particular individuals in various departments, but these have often been restricted to narrow information tasks. Where however teaching departments have developed a significant role in the delivery of careers education, new possibilities for partnerships have emerged. Possible roles for the careers service have included those of *contributor*, responding to departmental requests for particular contributions; of *consultant*, assisting the department in planning the activities; and/or of *partner*, organizing jointly planned events, possibly including co-tutoring. In some cases, careers services have been invited to be represented on course committees to facilitate such forms of partnership.

### THE INSTITUTIONAL ROLE OF CAREERS SERVICES

The diversity of roles played by careers services raises questions about where they should be located organizationally within higher education institutions. Traditionally, they tended to be separated from mainstream organizational structures, particularly within in-



stitutions with mainly non-vocational (or semi-vocational) course programmes. Their organizational separation enabled them to respond to the career-development needs of individual students without challenging the non-vocational (sometimes, indeed, anti-vocational) culture of the institutions themselves. The curriculum-development programmes based around the concept of *personal transferable skills*, however, have made their own challenge to this culture, and have raised new questions about the role of career services. At the same time, the funding pressure on higher education institutions has meant that the institutional value of all their activities has begun to be scrutinized more closely.

As a result of these and other factors, steps have in some cases been taken to align careers services with other activities within particular institutions. At least three forms of such alignment can be distinguished.

The first is to align the careers service to other student services. In some cases, an alignment of this sort has involved integration, to some extent on the Keele model but also including welfare services, accommodation services, and the like. This model has been followed in a number of former polytechnics (Kirkland, 1988). It tends to identify the careers services as essentially a service to individual students, outside the academic process.

A second option is to align the careers service to other academic services and to view an important part of its role as being to support the work of teaching departments. This may include partnerships in the delivery of careers education. It may also mean involvement in course planning on the basis of feeding back data on the first destination of students and the

perceptions of students and employers of the employment value of the course provision. This option has tended to be less well-developed than the others; however, it has begun to attract growing interest (Watts and Hawthorn, 1992).

The third option is to align the careers service to other marketing services within the institution. The director of the Cambridge University Careers Service (Kirkman, 1982) suggested that the service should be viewed by institutions as their "marketing department": "careers advisers need to keep themselves fully informed about what the market requires, to ensure that the information is fed back to their institutions, and to encourage the students and graduates with whom they are dealing to appreciate these requirements and to fit themselves to fulfill them". In at least one university, the careers service was made part of the University Relations Service, a unit concerned with the university's external relations (Watts, Kidd, and Knasel, 1989). The notion of taking fuller institutional advantage of the employer links of the careers service has been explored elsewhere as well. In some cases, too, the notion of marketing has been extended to align careers services to marketing the institutions to potential students - including schools liaison work, access initiatives for non-traditional students, and overseas recruitment operations.

These options are not mutually exclusive, but they emphasize different aspects of the role of the careers service. They also pose different problems in terms of reconciling the institutional role of the careers service with its guidance role. The marketing option, in particular, can pose difficulties in this respect. In relation to access activities, for example, Wallis (1990) has pointed out that "our professional objectivity and impartiality

can be compromised if our institutions insist ...that intending students are actually encouraged to register for our own courses rather than [for] more suitable ones elsewhere". Marketing roles in relation to employers, too, can raise questions about who is the primary client: the student, the institution, or the employer.

In practice, most careers services view the students as their primary clients. They do so partly because they recognize that unless they provide an effective service to students - which in turn requires them to command the trust and confidence of students - they are unlikely to be able to serve the interests of their other potential clients. At the same time, in order to serve the interests of students, they need to command the support and involvement of employers. In order to do so, they need to regard employers as clients too, and to provide them with an effective service. To a significant extent, the interests of students and employers are sufficiently congruent for this double role to pose no problems. At times, however, tensions may emerge: for example, employers are interested in selecting the *best* students, whereas student interests require services to be concerned with the needs of all their students. At these tension points, services usually affirm that the interests of employers are secondary (Watts, and Sampson, 1989).

The argument becomes more complex if the issue of direct charging is introduced. For example, the restrictions on higher education resources in the 1980's and early 1990's led to increasing pressure to exert charges for services to employers (e.g., Steptoe, 1990). This practice gave rise to concerns that if extended significantly, employers might no longer be content to accept the position of secondary clients. They would expect full value for their money. Their expectations

might pose much greater difficulties to services in reconciling the interests of students and employers, especially if employer charges were used to reduce the core funding provided by the institutions. Some institutions, for example, rejected fee-charging altogether on the grounds that it might discourage employers from visiting them, to the disadvantage of their students (HMI, 1990) (there was indeed evidence that it had this effect in at least one institution (Harris, 1992)). On the other hand, some university administrators went so far as to discuss the possibility of making careers services completely independent of public funding, having them finance themselves by charging employers for the graduates they recruited. This possibility was fiercely resisted by services and employers alike on the grounds that it would mean that careers services would become no more than employment agencies.

If, however, institutions were to continue to fund careers services, there was increasing pressure for the benefits of such services to be argued in terms not only of private benefits to individual students but also of organizational benefits to the institutions themselves. When the goals of the institution include serving the interests of students, including their career interests, no conflict of interest with a student-centred orientation need arise. Indeed, the careers service can be viewed as a crucial support to the institution as a whole in achieving its goals. Some services accordingly seek to become closely involved in strategic planning within institutions to ensure that there is as much congruence as possible between institutional goals and the service's goals (Watts and Sampson, 1989). The use by the Government of first-employment destinations as a "performance indicator" for higher educa-

tion institutions (see Cave *et. al.*, 1988) helped to focus the attention of institutions on employability as a goal.

Interviews with policy-makers in institutions of higher education in the early 1990's indicated two different views of the responsibility of institutions for helping students with their career decisions and transitions. One was that such help was an integral part of the core offer made to students. It helped to sustain a virtuous circle in which the student experience was enhanced by addressing the vocational aspirations which drove or underpinned the motivations of most students for entering higher education, thereby increasing the chances that these aspirations would be met, which in turn provided evidence of enhanced employability that helped with the recruitment of new students. The other was that such help was an additional service which was open to review in terms of its own specific costs and benefits. When this help was regarded as being solely a careers service responsibility, it was more likely to be seen in the latter terms. When, however, it was also regarded as being partly the role of teaching departments, with the careers service available as a support and specialist resource to such departments, it was more likely to be viewed as part of the core offer (Watts and Hawthorn, 1992).

The balance of allegiances which a careers service has to maintain is delicate and intricate. Their sources of *power* within their institutions (Pfeffer, 1981) are based largely on their responsiveness to student demands and their links with employers. In institutions which wish to restrict the links between these perspectives and the teaching process, the careers service can be a means for containing their influence. In such cases, it

will tend to be marginal organizationally and more open to questioning as an additional service. On the other hand, in institutions which are concerned with developing strong interaction between the content of courses, the personal development of students, and their future careers, the careers service is likely to be more central organizationally, with more scope for influence - but also more open to questioning on the grounds that its functions need to be integrated into the institutions as a whole.

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## GOVERNMENT AND STUDENT FINANCIAL AID IN THE USA: CONTEMPORARY PATTERNS OF DEVELOPMENT

Ivan P. NIKOLOV and Jack W. GRAHAM

- This article attempts to provide a comprehensive summary of the existing federal programmes of student financial assistance and a brief summary of the mechanisms involved for the programmes supported by the federal and the state governments in the USA. In addition, the article offers a glimpse of some of the concurrent ideas and trends appearing in the system

Student financial aid is probably one of the best indicators of the economic and social strategy of governments, reflecting their philosophies of development. When discussing the system of government supported student financial aid in the United States of America, one has to be aware of two important characteristics.

The first is the specificity of the higher education system of the country, a product of intensive social, political, and economic relations, the pressures of which are not easily understood from outside. Constitutionally, education is a matter of state rather than of national (federal) responsibility. This fact provides a legislative justification for the lack of formal federal authority functioning as the central administrative body of the system. In fact, in the United States there are fifty systems of public education, with their own specifics, including state student aid programmes. At the same time, during the 1950's the federal involvement in the financing of research and educational programmes with national importance created a strong indirect influence over the Academy. It is quite proper to say that American higher education is a strongly regulated area of

in the early 1990's. The data provided and the sources of further information serve as evidence of the government's involvement in the qualitative and quantitative changes that are currently taking place within the American higher education system and give hints as to the impact of these changes in financial assistance upon the total system.

vested interests in which any kind of change is felt nationwide. This view holds especially true for the public sector, even if more and more private colleges are depending on government financial support.

Related to the specifics of the system is its political environment. Today, the processes of state appropriations and fund allocations are giving rise to intensive political battles in which higher education must compete with other programmes representing broader social issues such as medical assistance, crime prevention and protection, social services to the handicapped, and similar highly critical programmes. The legislator must consider all the interests of the electoral mosaic, especially the interests of the most vocal and influential groups. Most public colleges and universities depend for up to eighty percent of their revenues on the state. This dependence makes them quite different as administrative units from what is traditionally perceived as collegiate government. In reality, they have to comply with all state and federal restrictions and requirements, including accountability, effectiveness, and programme quality. The process has in-

creased the role of the state boards of higher education that have attempted to provide coordination for all public higher education programmes within the state. According to the specifics of the state administrative regulations and politics, these boards serve as moderators, as filters, or even as chief representatives of state-wide public higher education systems in the processes of budget negotiations, both with the legislative and the administrative branches of the state governments.

One has to remember that American higher education is a huge intellectual as well as financial enterprise. According to recent data drawn from the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (26 August 1992), in 1990-1992 in the USA there were 3,559 colleges and universities with 13.7 million students. Among them, 595 were public (state) and 1,546 were private four-year colleges and universities respectively with 5.8 million, and 2.7 million students. The rest of the 5.2 million students were enrolled at the 972 public and 446 private two-year colleges. The amount of annual expenditures was \$134.7 billion (\$85.8 billion in the public sector and \$48.9 billion in the private sector).

The second characteristic related to the discussion of student financial aid is the size, wealth, and traditions of the institutions themselves. Today, due to their financial potential as a result of well-invested endowments, political connections, or simply thriftiness (or the lack thereof), different colleges and universities have substantially varying abilities to provide financial aid to their students. Very few institutions have the resources available to develop a significant student aid system on their own. For these institutions, student tuition fees remain one of their main sources of funding. According to Frances (1990), tuition increases between 1980 and 1990 outpaced inflation by 2:1. Students

therefore have had to pay higher tuition fees, and increasing numbers of them have required financial aid.

Some authors, like the former Secretary of Education, William Bennett, or the former Chairperson of the National Endowment for the Humanities, Lynn Cheney, are quite critical of such practices, accusing higher education of using tuition increases as a form of institutional chase after the federal dollar, since federal student aid matches the increased tuition. The existing research evidence points to quite a different picture. According to McPherson and Schapiro (1991), Leslie and Brinkman (1988), St. John and Noel (1988), student aid is an important element in enrollment decisions as well as a substantial help for instructional and research excellence. In addition to being an important factor in institutional strategy development, financial aid is closely related to long-term planning, enrollment policies, student retention, faculty salaries and benefits, and programme development. The availability of student financial aid also assists in the development of positive relationships between students and the community, both on and off campus.

The discussions over the limitations of federal support, especially for student aid programmes such as the Pell Grant scheme and their substitution with regional lending initiatives, created new social pressures for higher education. The cuts in support both by the federal and the state governments for higher education, arising from the decline in general economic development in the United States, have resulted in two fundamental reactions. In the late 1980's and early 1990's, public higher education in most states provided only steady or reduced appropriations for higher education. This situation provoked increases in tuition to meet increasing costs, thus, in turn, increasing pressure on

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the federal and state governments to increase financial aid for students from families with low to moderate incomes. The federal government tended to shift financial aid from grants to guaranteed student loans.

Since federal and state aid were not always sufficient, many higher education institutions followed the second approach, in basically copying the corporate philosophy: implementing aggressive marketing strategies and policies to maintain or to slightly increase enrollments, in-

creasing tuition and fees even more, and re-organizing institutions with some reduction of programmes and elimination of marginal university services. An active programme of increasing endowments through private sources was put in place, often in co-operation with private companies. Active lobbying was conducted to increase operational funds from any and all sources. Applications for training and research grants were increased at both the federal and the state levels.

**Table 1. Student Financial Aid by Source, Selected Academic Years, 1963-1990 (millions of 1989-1990 dollars)**

Source	1963-64	1970-71	1975-76	1979-80	1981-82	1983-84	1985-86	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90
<b>Federal programmes</b>										
Generally available aid										
Pell Grants	0	0	2,154	4,108	3,114	3,491	4,176	4,103	4,679	4,915
SEOG	0	429	463	546	490	451	480	460	412	439
State student incentive grants	0	0	46	125	104	75	89	82	77	59
College Work-Study	0	727	670	976	845	854	768	697	741	823
Perkins loans	469	768	1,059	1,059	786	853	823	883	901	860
Stafford loans (GSL), PLUS, and SLS										
- total	0	3,249	2,915	6,438	9,782	9,472	10,438	12,500	12,461	12,416
including GLS	—	1,015	1,276	6200a	—	—	8,328	—	9,477	9,844
SLS	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,630
PLUS	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	942
Income contingent loans	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
<b>Subtotal federal aid</b>	<b>469</b>	<b>5,173</b>	<b>7,315</b>	<b>13,251</b>	<b>15,121</b>	<b>15,196</b>	<b>16,684</b>	<b>18,726</b>	<b>19,270</b>	<b>19,517</b>
<b>Specially directed aid</b>										
Social security	0	1,597	2,515	2,602	2,703	275	0	0	0	0
Veterans	276	3,588	9,619	2,925	1,830	1,435	994	837	779	701
Other grants (incl. Military)	37	51	147	189	462	454	484	476	474	497
Other loans	0	134	104	69	148	329	436	322	315	349
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>313</b>	<b>5,371</b>	<b>12,384</b>	<b>5,785</b>	<b>5,143</b>	<b>2,493</b>	<b>1,913</b>	<b>1,635</b>	<b>1,568</b>	<b>1,547</b>
<b>Total federal aid</b>	<b>782</b>	<b>10,544</b>	<b>19,700</b>	<b>19,037</b>	<b>20,264</b>	<b>17,690</b>	<b>18,597</b>	<b>20,361</b>	<b>20,839</b>	<b>21,065</b>
State grant programmes	230	755	1,128	1,292	1,247	1,383	1,535	1,649	1,723	1,870
Institutional and other grants	1,234	3,089	3,302	3,096	3,043	3,602	4,301	5,006	5,409	4,915
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,247</b>	<b>14,389</b>	<b>24,129</b>	<b>23,425</b>	<b>24,555</b>	<b>22,675</b>	<b>24,433</b>	<b>27,016</b>	<b>27,970</b>	<b>27,850</b>

Sources: McPherson and Schapiro (1991), p. 26; Mumper and Vander Ark (1991), p. 69; "Almanac", The Chronicle of Higher Education (26 August 1992);

a. data for 1980-1981;

\* State student incentive grants are federal funds, matching state programmes of student need-based aid;

GSL - Guaranteed Student Loan or Stafford loan; PLUS - Parent Loan for Undergraduate Students; SLS - Supplemental Loan for Students.

Table 2. Recipients of Student Financial Aid in the USA for 1990- 1991

Programme	Number of recipients (in thousands of \$)	Amount of aid per person (\$)
Pell Grants	3,300	1,489
SEOG	678	648
College Work - Study	876	940
Perkins loans	804	1,070
Stafford Student Loans	3,633	2,709
Supplemental Loans for Students	576	2,829
PLUS	293	3,213
State Grants and State Student Incentive Grants	1,681	1,148

Source: "Almanac", The Chronicle of Higher Education (26 August 1992), p. 6.

Table 3. Case Study: Southern Illinois University at Carbondale: Enrollment and Student Financial Aid Patterns during 1987- 1992

Year	Total SIUC Enrollment	International Students*	Students Receiving Financial Aid	Total Amount of Student Aid (thous. \$)
1987-88	24,227	2,148	19,391	67,776
1988-89	24,596	2,627	19,463	73,162
1989-90	—	—	19,972	82,800
1990-91	24,869	2,718	20,618	92,641
1991-92	24,766	2,760	21,618	99,227

\* International students are not eligible for domestic state and federal student aid programmes.

Source: SIUC Financial Aid Office and International Programmes and Services.

The system for student financial aid itself is an additional cause of discussion. First of all, it consists of a variety of grant and lending programmes, very often combined as sources of support by the same person (from this point of view, the data presented in Table 2 and Table 3 are to a great extent misleading). But there is no doubt that student aid is a major financial enterprise with national dimensions, one which integrates federal, state, and local administrations and legislators, banking and insurance institutions, communities, and colleges, not to mention students. The amount of stu-

dent aid from federal and state sources in 1990-1991 was \$ 27.85 billion (Table 1). But this sum is only the tip of the iceberg, considering that for student loans the given amounts represent the federal subsidies for payment of the interest, not the loan itself, objects of individual contracts between the student and the bank.

One secondly has to understand the highly sensitive character of college education as a political issue. The student aid system touches such basic principles of American higher education as open access, social roots, mission, academic excellence, and the recruit-



ment and retention of women and minority students. The dynamics of trends, characterizing the 1990's, includes financial recession, cultural and ethnic diversity, the increased enrollment of women and minorities, growing pressure from different interest groups regarding political decision-making, and a growing number of non-traditional students, who made up nearly 50 percent of all the students in the early 1990's. The system of student financial aid has to respond to the changes. A short systematic review of existing programmes for government financial assistance to students is the first step for the further development of ideas on this issue.

### FEDERAL PROGRAMMES FOR STUDENT FINANCIAL AID

After the Land Grant Acts of 1862 and 1889, the first massive involvement of the federal government in matters pertaining to higher education was the Servicemen Readjustment Act of 1944, known as the G.I. Bill. Basically, the G.I. Bill set a precedent for the responsibility of the federal government for young people returning from war by creating a system of financial aid for college education as a way of providing for the readjustment of these individuals to a normal, civilian life. The system of financial support was provided directly to the student who could then select the college or university of his or her choice, pending his or her individual ability to be admitted. This arrangement rather than subsidies given directly to institutions also helped to avoid the problem of supporting church related institutions, by law separated from the state. It served as a form of indirect financial assistance to both private and public colleges and universities, including church related institutions. As a result, the student be-

comes an active participant in the process of educational development, changing the very philosophy of American academia. This act expanded the system of post-secondary institutions, creating the need for a new institution - the community or junior college.

Further steps taken by the federal government in its involvement in student aid programmes resulted from the political climate of the cold war period. The *Sputnik shock* initiated broad government intervention in education, based on the defense needs of the country. As a result, the National Defense Education Act was introduced in 1958. It provided for government grant and loan programmes for undergraduate and graduate students in mathematics, the sciences, and in languages. Next the civil rights movement of the 1960's led to special assistance for minority students. Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 provided a legal framework for federal financial assistance which has not been changed radically. It includes grants for the poor, loans for students from middle-income families, and support for colleges and universities to provide work-study programmes for students from low and moderate income families. During the same year, an amendment to the Social Security Act provided for tax benefits for families with college attending dependents supported by Social Security (Finn, 1978).

### FEDERAL GRANT PROGRAMMES

From 1958 until 1972, the grant programme functioned under the auspices of the National Defense Education Act as the Educational Opportunity Grant Programme (EOGP). In 1972, the grant system changed with the introduction of the Pell Grants as the main federal student aid programme and the transfor-

mation of EOGP into the Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant Programme (SEOGP). The difference is in the source of aid (the SEOG programmes are funded by the Department of Defense). The student aid administration includes all post-secondary institutions which participate in Title IV programmes (Pell Grants, College Work-Study, Guaranteed Student Loans [Stafford Loan], and Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students [PLUS]).

An additional group of grants is related to the exchange of public service for financial assistance. They include: a) grants for already provided services, typical examples being the G.I. Bill and its follow-up - the Veteran assistance programmes; b) grants for varying periods of public service to follow the grants: programmes such as the Reserve Officers Training Corps programme (ROTC), the National Health Service Corps Scholarship programme (NHSCS), the Congressional Teacher Scholarship (CTS) programmes (after graduation, students, participating in the programme will offer their professional services for a certain period of time as low-income community workers); c) loan deferment and cancelation in exchange for public service. This programme offers financial assistance for services rendered to the Peace Corps, Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), and similar activities (for example, teaching the handicapped cancels fifteen percent of the loan for the first and second year, twenty percent during the third and fourth, and thirty percent during the fifth year).

### **Federal Loan Programmes**

Introduced in 1958 as part of the National Defense Education Act, the first loan programme (the National Defense Stu-

dent Loan Programme - today the Perkins Loan Programme) was aimed at middle-income students, not eligible for grants. The concept was developed later as one of the main sources of federal and state assistance. In 1965, the Guaranteed Student Loan Programme (GSL), later called the Stafford Loan Programme, was introduced in Title IV of the Higher Education Act. Each loan, arranged with private lenders for all eligible buyers, is guaranteed by the federal government in two ways: an insurance and interest subsidy (the government covering the difference between the market rate of interest for the loan and the guaranteed low interest rate for the student - originally 7 percent). By the end of the 1970's, Congress was permitting all private banks to participate in the programme and allowing the interest rate to float with the rate of the annual Treasury bill interest, thus providing favourable financial conditions for such investments.

Students must repay their loans. The repayment period differs with the individual contract. For the Stafford Loan Programme, for example, repayment generally begins a year after graduation, with possibilities for payment extension of up to twenty years. The number of borrowers, as one of the indicators of the appeal of this type of loan, increased from 1 million in 1977 to 3.6 million in 1989, and the volume of borrowed money increased from 1.3 billion in 1975-76 to 9.5 billion in 1988-89 (Mumper and Ark, 1991). Among the causes of these increases was the jump in the number of women attending college in the 1980's (Frances, 1990). Because students combine different forms of financial aid (grants, loans) in order to cover their expenses, the numbers become quite fuzzy, but Table 2 gives a general idea.

## STUDENT FINANCIAL AID

Three additional loan programmes were introduced in the 1980's by the federal government: the Parents Loan for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) in 1981, the Supplemental Loan for Students (SLS) in 1982, and the Income Contingent Loan (ICL), which began to function in 1987 as a pilot project.

The first two programmes offer simple loans of up to \$4,000 a year per student with a total limit of \$20,000. These loans have a variable rate of interest reflecting the fluctuations of Treasury bills for the year in question. Their repayment begins sixty days after the loan is made; so in fact these programmes simply provide a possibility to buy a loan (Fenske *et al.*, 1983; Hartle, 1991).

The ICL programme was an idea that was based on the 1986 reauthorization of the Higher Education Act. This project provides for repayment according to a scale, depending on the borrower's income, with a maximum rate of twelve percent for high income students and five percent for low income students. There is no interest rate subsidy by the federal government for these loans. In addition, all participants must submit annual income information for eligibility. In principle, the student borrows for his or her education and repays the government from his/her annual income over a number of years.

### THE COLLEGE WORK-STUDY PROGRAMME

The College Work-Study programme is a concept embedded in the American tradition according to which "students work their way through college". In most general terms, a salary is provided for services rendered by undergraduate students to college institutions who employ them. These services include a variety of

jobs, from secretarial to maintenance, both on or off campus. The maximum amount of labour is limited to 20 hours per week. The programme is subsidized by the federal government as a form of both institutional and personal financial aid (for students with a proven need).

In 1986, a change introduced into the Higher Education Act provided federal financial support to colleges which involve eligible students in community related programmes for the disabled, for educationally deprived families, for drug and alcohol abuse programmes, and so forth. The federal government provides up to 90 percent of the salaries of students plus 10 percent of the total cost (up to \$20,000) as a reimbursement for administrative support.

### STATE PROGRAMMES FOR STUDENT FINANCIAL AID

One of the specific features of the early American colleges (which were private institutions) was their wide public support. Often the state granted to the college such additional revenue privileges as the right to collect road taxes, profits from state lotteries, and other activities (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976). In most cases, the tradition to help able-but-poor students was left to the colleges, which developed amazing flexibility in this matter.

In 1919, the State of New York created its first student aid programme. Probably due to the low cost of college tuition (averaging \$238 in 1930) and low public interest, this programme did not have much of a following (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976).

As of 1946, state government became increasingly active in public higher education. With the direct funding of these institutions came an increase in administrative and political control by the

state. As a form of assistance to primarily low income students, the State Student Incentive Grants programme was introduced in all states. This form of in-state student aid ranges from one to two million dollars per state.

Several states have established special plans to encourage parents to save for their children's future education. Such plans involve the purchase of savings bonds and guarantees as to maximums for tuition rates.

### NEW INITIATIVES

During 1991, Congress discussed over 20 initiatives related to educational issues. From the viewpoint of student financial aid, these initiatives could be grouped into four categories: federal and state savings bond related programmes, tuition prepayment plans, public and community service oriented initiatives, and guaranteed access initiatives.

#### Federal Saving Bonds Initiatives

In 1988, Congress supported Senator Edward Kennedy (Massachusetts) in his idea for exemption from one's total taxable income of the amount earned through redemption of federal (US) saving bonds, if spent for higher education. In this way, the cost of issuing new special bonds was eliminated, and some additional legislative barriers were circumvented. The bill was passed as a technical amendment to the 1986 Tax Reform Act. According to this bill, taxpayers with incomes of up to \$40,000 are fully tax excluded, and prorated benefits are available for incomes between \$40,000 and \$60,000. Since only newly purchased United States (Series EE) Savings Bonds will offer such provisions, the Joint Tax Committee estimated the cost of the programme in lost tax revenue

for the first five years at \$281 million, with a predicted increase in the sale of bonds of up to \$17.5 billion (Hartle, 1991; Lewis, 1988).

#### State Saving Bonds Initiatives

Among the pioneers of the idea is the Baccalaureate Savings Act of Illinois, signed in December 1987. It is based on nationwide marketing of obligation bonds with denominations of \$1,120 to \$3,695 and a maturity period of five to twenty years. The basic idea includes the sale of state zero-coupon college saving bonds intended to match the tuition level in the future (usually at the year of maturity). The interest on these bonds is exempted from both federal and state taxes, with mutual benefits for the investors and the parents at least in theory (for example, who can guarantee the tuition level in the future?). The lure for the investor is the tax exempt status of the coupon for the parent, which amounts to up to \$25,000 for these bonds plus interest, based on need-analysis calculations (it also holds up the concept of a guaranteed college tuition rate). According to J. Merisotis (1991), the state of Illinois sold \$265 million worth of educational saving bonds in 1988 (for all participating states the amount was \$380 million). Similar approaches were introduced in Kentucky, Virginia, and Rhode Island.

#### Tuition-Guarantee Plan

Originally this plan was implemented at Duquesne University for the development of a statewide tuition-guarantee plan. The idea was simple. Tuition at today's rate for a four-year period would be guaranteed valid in 15 years for one's child, if accepted by the university. This plan proved to be ineffective for one institution because of the required critical level of accumulated

## STUDENT FINANCIAL AID

funds for strategic investments (Duquesne cancelled its plan in 1988).

In 1986, the state of Michigan began to use the model named the Michigan Education Trust (MET). The Michigan plan provided a choice of two variants. Variant "A" offers a possibility for reimbursement of the principal minus administrative costs. Plan "B" offers, for a slightly higher price, the possibility of reimbursement of the principal, interest, and administrative costs. In both cases, the tuition guarantee is valid for all state colleges up to the baccalaureate level of education.

Today nine states have similar initiatives. In fact, MET is considered to be a model for a similar federal tuition-guarantee plan proposed by Senators Claiborn Pell and Pat Williams as a national savings trust fund. This idea is being discussed widely as a strategic initiative.

### DISCUSSION

Attempts to find the best solution to the need to provide equitable financial aid for college students have tended to overlook the wide social spectrum, institutional traditions, and political issues, that are very characteristic of American higher education. All efforts in terms of loans and bonds are illusory for those students with family income below \$18,000. They can only count on grant programme expansion. Attempts like the one made by the Secretary of Education, Lamar Alexander, to increase the size of the individual Pell Grant by limiting the number of recipients to 400,000 were immediately criticized (de Loughry, 1991). Such reactions are justified. Today's inflationary tendencies push the poverty line up, thus including many families of the low-middle income group in the endangered zone. The issue

of efficient and widely available grants for increasing number of *have-not* students is an especially volatile problem. Programmes enhancing campus diversity, minority and international education, women, and other underrepresented groups within society are put in competition for funds which were very limited in 1992. Without fundamental changes in state and federal organizations concerned with grants and the limited amounts and sources of funds, there is not much to be done in order to avoid such conflicts.

Another issue is the decrease in the volume of available financial aid. The growth of the total volume of student aid during 1981-1989 was only ten percent according to the College Board. According to Carol Frances (1990), this limited growth is due to the fact that the increase was based mainly on loan programmes, not on grants.

The very idea of developing a national loan trust association as a non-profit organization was appealing but in practice proved to be a quite heavy burden. After the crash of the National Educational Trust Association with its \$30 million debt that was assumed by the Department of Education, similar plans will cease for the time being. One of the reasons for such a prediction is the conflict of interests among different institutions of higher education. For example, such an initiative would provide a financial shield for small colleges, but in order to be successful, the programme would need the support of the large universities. These, in turn, are rather reluctant to join restrictive programmes aimed at redistributing resources and limiting their initiatives. The fact is that at the moment the large universities very much dictate tuition rates as well as define their own financial policies.

The savings strategies approach is a complicated issue from a social and economic standpoint. Such programmes appeal to affluent parents, who can afford to pay for college anyway. Savings plans seem to be an important element of the future financial stability for many colleges, yet such saving oriented plans have limited social consequences for most students. The danger is that any change in the rate of return in combination with the rate of inflation will affect such projects immediately. Middle-income families will prefer the GSL programme as the best possible solution. Of course, there is need for improvement, such as the introduction of default protection measures, improved lending agencies screening, and other measures, but the programme itself is quite efficient.

Many additional noble initiatives have been taken by individuals, organizations, and communities, enriching the variety of actions in support of better student aid programmes. The problem is that they are too narrowly based to create significant changes. Probably the most supportive message from their effort is the growing public awareness. In times of scarce resources and retrenchment policies, there is a need for new levels of commitment, initiative, and responsibility.

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## Information

### CEPES NEWS:

#### **1. A Major Conference, *Romania and Romanians in Contemporary Science*, Was Held in Sinaia, Romania, from 24 to 26 May 1994**

This Conference was intended to bring together Romanian intellectuals and scientists from the Romanian diaspora with those living and working in the country. It was organized by CEPES, the UNESCO Regional Office on Science and Technology (ROSTE), the Science Sector of UNESCO, the Romanian National Commission for UNESCO, the Romanian Academy, and the Romanian Cultural Foundation. The idea was launched by professor V.N. Constantinescu, former rector (1990-1992) of the Polytechnic University of Bucharest, who early this year was elected president of the Romanian Academy. Professor G. Palade, Nobel prize winner from San Diego, California, was president of the Organizing Committee with professor Constantinescu acting as an executive president.

The aim of the conference was to bring together the members of the Romanian academic diaspora so that they might meet with former and new colleagues, and through them, establish links of co-operation between Romanian institutions and those abroad.

CEPES launched the first announcement in its electronic networks a year ago, and there was an immediate response from several hundred scientists and academics. CEPES also participated in the drafting of the agenda, and the practical preparations, such as providing a camera-ready copy for the programme, a data-base for the management of the arrivals and departures of the participants, etc.

Over 600 participants registered, half of whom were Romanian scientists living abroad, and the remaining 300, Romanian academics from universities and research institutions, either under the Academy or under the Ministry of Research and Technology. A few foreign experts were also invited.

From the official Romanian side, there was high-level attendance: both the Minister of Education, Mr. Liviu Maior, and the Minister of Research and Technology, Mr. D. Palade, took part. The President of Romania, Mr. Ion Iliescu, offered a reception the last evening.

The conference consisted of four plenary sessions, a forum, and a great number of parallel topical sessions in eight academic and scientific fields: Humanities, Education, Science and Technology, the Exact Sciences, the Medical Sciences, Economics, the Agricultural Sciences including Forestry and the Earth Sciences, and the Engineering Sciences, all with numerous sub-divisions.

The topical sessions were co-chaired by a Romanian from abroad and a *local* Romanian. To keep deliberations within an acceptable time frame, they were each introduced by a scientist from the Romanian Academy who gave an overview of the present state of the art in Romania in the particular field. This procedure seems to have functioned well and gave space for a good input from the scientists coming from abroad. The papers will be published by the Academy.

During the *Forum*, presentations were made by invited speakers from international organizations, followed by comments and suggestions from the participants. The contribution of the French Cultural Counsellor of the French Embassy in Bucharest was most interesting. He enumerated a number of factors in the French-Romanian bilateral

programme which, according to him, had not contributed to change to the desirable extent. He began by mentioning the fact that Romanian higher education and research institutions are completely isolated from each other, even if they work in the same field, and thus do not benefit from one another's experience of input from abroad. Secondly he mentioned the tendency in bilateral programmes to support "the individual adventure" rather than to favour the entry of individual grants into a strategic framework.

This conference was very special. It contained a mixture of scientific communications and emotions in which friends and colleagues met again for the first time in many years. Concrete projects are already being elaborated, some put forward for the consideration of UNESCO.

One of the observers insisted that this conference was the most important event for Romanian higher education and research since 1990. Others were convinced that the conference would be followed by a real boost in international university co-operation in Romania.

(Source: C. Berg, Director of CEPES, as adapted for publication by the CEPES editorial staff, June 1994)

## **2. A Consultative Meeting of Ministers of Education from Central and Eastern European Countries was held in Sinaia, Romania, from 2 to 3 June 1994**

The Consultative Meeting was organized on the initiative of the Romanian Minister of Education, Mr. Liviu Maior. The proposal to convene the meeting was submitted to the Eighteenth Session of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education (Madrid, March 1994) and received a positive response on behalf

of the Council of Europe. In fact, the Council of Europe provided extensive technical support (3 staff members, 3 consultants) and considered the meeting as one of its approved activities.

UNESCO provided a financial contribution of \$10,000 under the Participation Programme, as well as technical



support through CEPES and the Romanian National Commission for UNESCO. The new Secretary General of the Commission, Professor Mircea Ifrim, organized a cultural programme and a reception and assisted the Minister's organizing team in many ways.

The participation of UNESCO in the Conference was highly appreciated and necessary, in particular because relations with the other Organizations are still fragile. In the programme prepared by the Romanian Ministry of Education, UNESCO was presented as the co-organizer of the Conference. The seating arrangements gave high visibility to the various UNESCO institutions represented. It is evident that in this subregion UNESCO is considered as the traditional partner in the field of education, while other agencies are still considered to be "new".

### The Debate

The reports presented by the Ministers demonstrate, in spite of the diversity of national situations, a great commonality of problems. Almost all countries are in what was called "the second phase of the reform process".

After the political changes of 1989-1990, a number of immediate decisions were taken, including the revision of educational content and the abolition of certain institutions. Also, in most countries, new laws were prepared and adopted. The second phase aims mainly at refining and implementing the targets formulated and, in some cases, at revising earlier decisions. The last issue is particularly true for Poland, where, for instance, the decentralization policy adopted a few years ago has been completely revised.

Among the problems raised by the Ministers are the following:

- Education is not yet seen as a major instrument for social change and consequently has not been given the same priority as, for instance, the renewal of political institutions, economic development, and security questions. The Ministers expect help from international organizations in advocating the need for educational reform (meaning more funds for education);
- The Ministers are faced with rapid and far-reaching developments outside the education system, which have an important impact on it, such as the introduction of private business firms, the dramatic decline of salaries leading to an exodus of educational personnel towards the private sector, politicization of public life, etc. They are often overwhelmed by these developments;
- An extensive debate is going on in almost all the countries concerned as to whether or not and how far the existing system needs to be changed and renewed. To strike a balance between conservatism (meaning returning to the pre-war situation) and the need for renewal and modernization is one of the major challenges;
- Similarly, it has not always been possible to strike a balance between a patriotic approach and a more European approach, between liberalism and state responsibility, between centralization and decentralization. The process of redistributing power and influence is still in full swing.

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Most Ministers confirmed that their main task is to keep the system going on a day-to-day basis and to avoid a collapse.

Higher education, although not specifically mentioned on the agenda, was referred to in many interventions. The main concern of the Ministers was the establishment of new accreditation systems and new examinations and degrees recognized by western universities. The new Romanian law on university accreditation was noted with great interest as well as the Russian new "multi-level training system". The Russian proposal to conceive a subregional co-operation project on state-defined standards for university examinations was received with reservations.

An interesting and fascinating part of the debate concerned future co-operation among the Ministers. No consensus was reached as to the question of whether or not the group should become a kind of permanent consultative mechanism (as proposed by Russia). The Council of Europe felt that a more formal system of subregional co-operation would duplicate the existing pan-European mechanisms of ministerial conferences. Others felt that even the subgroup would be too big a group and preferred frameworks such as Nordic/Baltic co-operation, Balkan/South-East European co-operation, and Central European co-operation. Russia, on the other hand, by its size and history, is a very dominant partner in the group. Decision was finally reached that con-

sultation should be continued within existing frameworks of UNESCO and the Council of Europe.

Among the proposals recommended for consideration by the international organizations, the following were of particular interest:

- organization of an expert *cum* orientation seminar on educational financing and budgeting, a proposal to be discussed with IIEP (International Institute for Educational Planning);
- a European symposium on the reform of technical schools;
- a working group on standards of higher education and quality assessment (the proposal will be followed by the existing European Group on Academic Assessment - EGAA);
- continuation of the work on recognition of diplomas and degrees;
- use of the International Year of Tolerance (1995) to prevent extremism and dogmatic attitudes.

More than concrete proposals, it was important for the Ministers to feel that they share common concerns and have common problems and to establish an open atmosphere for discussions and exchanges. In this respect, the meeting fully achieved its objectives.

(Source: H. W. Rissom of UNESCO, as adapted for publication by the CEPES editorial staff, June 1994)

### 3. The Seventh Session of the Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees Concerning Higher Education in the States Belonging to the Europe Region was held in Budapest, Hungary, on 18 June 1994

The meeting was attended by the following Contracting States: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, the Holy See, Hungary, Italy, Israel, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, and the United Kingdom; as well as by the following non-Contracting States of the Europe Region: Azerbaijan, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, and the United States of America.

Representatives of the following international organizations were also present: the Council of Europe, the Task Force Human Resources, Education, Training, and Youth of the Commission of the European Union, the International Association of Universities (IAU), and the International Baccalaureate Organization.

Following election of its Bureau, the meeting turned to its first item of business, consideration of a report on CEPES activities since the last meeting of the Regional Committee.

#### Report of the Secretariat

The CEPES Secretariat stressed that one of the priorities of CEPES in the forthcoming period certainly represents the elaboration of a new joint convention with the Council of Europe. It expressed satisfaction with the progress made towards achieving this objective.

The CEPES Secretariat then presented the European Group on Academic Assessment (EGAA). Given the close links between the establishment of quality assurance procedures and accreditation, on the one hand, and the recognition of studies and diplomas, on the other hand, EGAA was created under the auspices of CEPES as a follow-up to a recommendation of the Sixth Session of the Regional Committee. It represents one of the priority areas in the present CEPES Programme.

Mention was made of the progress achieved in the study on the *Doctorate in the Europe Region* as well as the activities initiated towards the elaboration of the second volume of the *Multilingual Lexicon of Higher Education* which will cover the countries of central and eastern Europe.

The role of CEPES in monitoring the UNESCO Chairs and the UNITWIN project in Europe was stressed. The two activities constitute the overriding project of UNESCO in higher education in the current biennium designed as they are to promote the transfer of knowledge, the promotion of staff mobility, and the alleviation of the brain-drain.

The CEPES Secretariat gave information on the regular publications of CEPES: *Higher Education in Europe*, the *Country Monograph* series, the *CEPES Papers on Higher Education*, as well as the CEPES contribution to the production of the latest edition of the *World Guide to Higher Education*; assistance to African students in Romania; and, in particular,

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the development of a clearinghouse on higher education aided by the HEED, EURBIB, and TRACE databases.

The CEPES Secretariat informed the participants that eight additional countries had acceded to the Convention by act of succession to the former countries to which they had belonged, namely, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Georgia, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Tajikistan.

### Inter-Regional Co-operation

After the Director of CEPES, Ms. Carin Berg, had given a detailed presentation of the stipulations of the Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education as adopted by the UNESCO General Conference at its Twenty-Seventh Session (Paris, November 1993) and an in-depth overview of the activities presented in the Joint Work Plan of the Six Regional Committees, adopted by the International Congress on the Recognition of Studies and Academic Mobility (Paris, November 1992), both items were discussed together. Ms. Berg cited the Mediterranean Convention as one linking Europe to another region of the world, as a possible co-operation partner, but left the floor open for comments and suggestions.

The members of the Regional Committee expressed an eager interest in collaborating with other regions of the world. Different interests were voiced, covering, on the one hand, different sub-regions of Europe itself which should not be conceived as a monolithic bloc (eastern Europe, the states of former Yugoslavia, and Canada), as well as the regions covered by other regional UNESCO Conventions, thus, the Arab countries,

Latin America, but also Asia and the Pacific. The delegation of the Holy See offered to be associated with these activities taking into account its experience of collaboration with all the continents of the world through a network of 130 universities and academic centres.

As a matter of principle, the co-operation of the rich countries in the Europe Region of UNESCO with the poor countries in the other UNESCO regions was underlined as a necessity. However, it was left to the CEPES Secretariat to define where and how such co-operation could be most beneficial by identifying the problems existing and the regions most interested in promoting co-operation. It was understood that the CEPES Secretariat would inform the Member States of the results of this enquiry. The representative of the German Federal Ministry of Education and Science expressed the interest of his country in contributing to this activity.

### Assisting the Reconstruction of Higher Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina

Dr. Kemal Bakarsic, Vice-Minister for Science in the Ministry of Education, Science, and Sports of Bosnia and Herzegovina, gave an introductory presentation on the state of destruction of education at all levels in Bosnia and Herzegovina, citing alarming figures relative to the resources needed simply to provide for essential needs in education. Thanking UNESCO for his invitation to participate in the meeting, he underlined the role already being played by this organization in Bosnia and Herzegovina and expressed enthusiasm on behalf of his Government concerning the opening of a UNESCO Permanent Office in Sarajevo. He appealed to the international community at large for help by all

types of activities, multilateral and bilateral, in order to reinforce Bosnia and Herzegovina as a multiethnic society as it has always been throughout centuries. He asked for help in reintegrating Sarajevo into Europe.

Dr. Bakarsic further referred to the total communication blockade with which Bosnia and Herzegovina is faced, the information "ghetto" Sarajevo has been enduring for the last two years, and called for assistance in promoting an exchange of information with Sarajevo itself.

He requested assistance in obtaining books, pencils, equipment, paper, computers for all levels of education in Bosnia and Herzegovina which has, in spite of the war, persevered in shelters. He appealed to all Member States present to accept Bosnian refugee professors and students at their respective universities in their respective countries and to promote bilateral and multilateral agreements to recognize their diplomas.

In the discussions that ensued, several delegations took the floor (Italy, CEPES, Norway, the United Kingdom, and Denmark) and informed the participants that the existing bilateral agreements with former Yugoslavia were still valid, including the availability of scholarships. They proposed to launch an appeal via the Liaison Officers network of CEPES and especially to draw attention to the need to coordinate the different activities of assistance. CEPES offered to promote this coordination by assuming the clearinghouse function in co-operation with the other organizations active in this field such as the Council of Europe, the European Rectors Conference - CRE, the Soros Foundation, the World University Service - WUS, and others.

## Co-operation with the Council of Europe

The CEPES Secretariat began this part of the discussions by describing the procedure followed by UNESCO in initiating and adopting the *Feasibility Study for a Joint Council of Europe - UNESCO Convention on Academic Recognition*.<sup>1</sup> The Secretariat expressed satisfaction that a joint Convention of pan-European coverage, that had always been a UNESCO objective in this Region, will soon become a reality. Adding a few words, Mr. Sjur Bergan, the representative of the Council of Europe, presented the procedure followed by his organization, mentioning that the Committee of Ministers still needed to adopt the Feasibility Study by the end of August. He gave a brief overview of the future activities related to the elaboration of a joint Convention.

In the ensuing discussions, it was made clear that a small group of experts will be engaged in drafting the text of the joint Convention. This text will be presented to a large group of potential signatories of the Convention. Finally, a diplomatic conference of states will be the final instance that will adopt the Convention, following its adoption by the governing bodies of UNESCO and the Council of Europe. All contracting or signatory states either of the Council of Europe or of the UNESCO Convention will be invited to this diplomatic conference. A clarification of the terminology used by the Council of Europe and UNESCO, defining such terms as *accession, contracting, ratifying, signing, etc.*, was considered necessary.

After examining the *Draft Terms of Reference for a Joint Council of Europe/ UNESCO European Network of National*

1 An edited version of the *Feasibility Study* has been published in *Higher Education in Europe* 19 2 (1994): 27-51.

*Information Centres*, the members of the Regional Committee adopted its terms of reference. An issue was raised by the observer delegation of the United States: whether only ratifying states could create a centre in the network? The CEPES Secretariat explained that the NIB network was an informal network linked to the UNESCO Convention, a network in which participation was open and welcome. It was agreed that the Report would reflect that the term "ratifying" countries would be taken to mean "ratifying and signatory" countries of the UNESCO Convention.

### **New Adherences to the European Convention**

In the framework of this session, the Regional Committee met as an *ad hoc* committee to discuss the accessions of Azerbaijan, Lithuania, and Equatorial Guinea. The *ad hoc* committee approved the accessions of Azerbaijan and Lithuania. At the same time, it recommended that Equatorial Guinea accede to the Convention of African States and collaborate with other regions in the framework of the UNESCO Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education.

### **Report of the Working Group Europe-USA: Mutual Recognition of Qualifications**

The participants examined the Report of the Working Group, *Europe-USA: Mutual Recognition of Qualifications*<sup>2</sup>, the general guidelines and recommendations of which were presented by the Chairperson of the Group, Ms. Solange de Serre. In the discussion that followed, the Report was commended as a significant step in the

further promotion of the mutual recognition of qualifications between European countries and the U.S.A.

### **European Group on Academic Assessment (EGAA)**

The European Group on Academic Assessment, EGAA, was established under the auspices of CEPES as a follow-up to a decision of the sixth session of the Regional Committee. It is conceived as a framework for the exchange of information and international co-operation. The Director of CEPES presented the main accomplishments of EGAA as one of the priority areas in the CEPES programme, describing the *International High Level Consultation on Policy Issues of Quality Assessment and Institutional Accreditation in Higher Education* (Oradea, Romania, 5-7 May 1993); the pilot projects on academic evaluation procedures and accreditation instruments in the Romanian system of higher education, financed by a Japanese grant administered by the World Bank, and the results of the Second EGAA Conference devoted to *Quality Assurance and Institutional Accreditation in Eastern and Central European Higher Education Systems: Procedures and Operational Aspects*, organized in Bucharest (5-7 May 1994). Taking into account the close links between quality assurance and accreditation in higher education and recognition issues, especially in the context of the joint Convention, Ms. Berg invited the Regional Committee to nominate a representative to the Steering Committee of EGAA.

In the discussion that followed, the question of co-ordination with similar initiatives, particularly with the one being initiated by the European Com-

<sup>2</sup> An edited version of the Report has been published in *Higher Education in Europe* 19 2 (1994): 59-70.

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mission, was raised. It was made clear that the two groups collaborate very closely. The Regional Committee authorized the CEPES Secretariat to nominate a representative to the Steering Committee of EGAA in order to assure functional links between these two bodies. The Danish representative expressed the interest of his country in the participation of Mr. Christian Thune of the Danish Evaluation Centre in the EGAA Steering Committee.

### Decisions

The Regional Committee adopted the following decisions:

#### *Inter-Regional Co-operation*

Having been informed of the Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO (Paris, November 1993) and having reviewed the Joint Plan of Action of the six regional committees of UNESCO in charge of the application of the regional conventions adopted at the International Congress on Recognition and Mobility (Paris, November 1992), the Regional Committee decided:

- to support the development of more enhanced forms of collaboration with other regions of the world;
- to ask CEPES to identify the existing recognition problems to the resolution of which the European Regional Committee could offer its contribution before deciding on the forms this co-operation should take; to ask CEPES to identify the regions/sub-regions/groups of countries from the other Regional Committees that are most interested in promoting this co-operation with Europe;

- to request CEPES to inform the Regional Committee by the end of 1994 of the results of the above-mentioned enquiries and to propose the establishment of a Working Group on lines similar to those of the Europe-USA Working Group. Germany expressed the wish to be part of this Working Group.

#### *Feasibility Study on a Joint Convention on Academic Recognition in the Europe Region*

Having taken note of the feasibility study on a possible joint Council of Europe-UNESCO Convention on academic recognition in the Europe Region, which has been adopted by the governing bodies of UNESCO and the Council of Europe, the Regional Committee urged the two Secretariats to continue the work with a view to the drafting of the joint Convention.

#### *Draft Terms of Reference for a Joint UNESCO-Council of Europe European Network of National Information Centres*

Having examined the conditions of the draft terms of reference for a joint European Network of National Information Centres on Academic Recognition in the Europe Region, the Regional Committee adopted its terms of reference. It was agreed that the minutes of the meeting will reflect that "ratifying countries" of the UNESCO Convention also include "signatory countries".

#### *Assistance to Higher Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina*

Taking into account the manifold needs for the restructuring of higher education in Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as the need to help Bosnian refugee students and staff outside this state; acknow-

ledging the different assistance programmes initiated by international organizations such as UNESCO, the Council of Europe, the European Union, and initiatives by NGO's and organizations such as the European Rectors Conference (CRE), the World University Service (WUS), the Soros Foundation, etc; the Regional Committee:

- appealed to all Member States present to examine the possibilities for assisting Bosnia and Herzegovina in higher education;
- invited CEPES to collect information on forms of assistance available, using its communication facilities with a view to providing a means to coordinate these activities.

*Report of the Working Group:  
Europe-USA*

Having examined the Recommendations of the Working Group, the Regional Committee

- adopted the Report, commending the work accomplished as a significant step in promoting mutual recognition issues between the European countries and the USA;
- charged the Working Group:
  - to introduce minor corrections and amendments into the text;

- to undertake, with the help of the ENIC network, the dissemination and implementation of the Recommendations at national level and to report on the measures taken to the following session of the Regional Committee.

*European Group on Academic Assessment*

Having been informed of the different activities of the European Group on Academic Assessment (EGAA) that has been established in the framework of CEPES, the Regional Committee:

- took note of the activities developed under EGAA;
- authorized the Secretariat of CEPES to nominate a representative of the Regional Committee to the Steering Committee of EGAA.

**Reporting System on the Implementation of the Convention**

Having discussed the shortcomings of the reporting system currently adopted, the Regional Committee endorsed the proposals made to improve this system.

(Source: S. Uvalic-Trumbic of CEPES, as adapted for publication by the CEPES editorial staff, July 1994)

**4. The First Joint Meeting of the ENIC and NARIC Networks Was Held in Budapest, from 19 to 22 June 1994**

This meeting, which followed the Seventh Session of the Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees Concerning Higher Education in the States Belonging to the Europe

Region, was the inaugural meeting of the European Network of National Information Centres on Academic Recognition and Mobility (ENIC). It was organized as a follow-up to decisions taken by both UNESCO and the Council of Europe to



merge their respective networks, the National Information Bodies on Academic Recognition and Mobility in the Europe Region (NIB) and the National Equivalence Information Centres (NEIC) into a joint network (ENIC).

At the same time, agreement was reached that this network will maintain close collaboration links with the regulated network of the European Commission, the National Academic Recognition Information Centres (NARIC), as had been decided at the first joint meeting of the three networks in Lisbon in 1992. For this reason, the meeting was co-organized with the Task Force Human Resources of the European Commission.

### The Agenda

The meeting adopted a joint agenda and at the end made provisions for a joint Final Report. Some of the highlights of the meeting are presented below.

Of the items presented by the European Commission, the one that provoked the liveliest discussion was the *Interim Report on the Interaction between Academic and Professional Recognition*, which had been elaborated by a group of experts and was presented by Jacques Pertek of France. The report presents the state of the art of academic and professional recognition, giving in conclusion a set of proposals for promoting better recognition, both professional and academic, among the European Union Member States. These proposals include the following: the carrying out of surveys according to individual disciplines, the establishment of directories of regulated professions, the elaboration of a handbook on the general systems of recognition; the encouragement of the development of joint study programmes, the setting up of jointly offered "identical

courses"; the encouragement of education in modular form and the use of systems of credits; and the establishment of a European Qualifications Passport.

Special attention is devoted to doctoral studies. Thus a study of the recognition of the doctorate and of doctoral studies in general is proposed as is also a subject by subject study on access to doctoral studies. The development of joint Ph.D. programmes is also encouraged.

Regarding these projects, the collaboration of CEPES, especially through projects such as the Diploma Supplement (very close to the European Qualifications Passport) and the currently ongoing Study on the Doctorate, appear to be most welcome.

The second item of interest was the information given on the establishment of the *European Data-Base on Higher Education (ORTELIUS)*. The task of creating this database was entrusted to an Italian Consortium composed of two public institutions (the Università degli Studi di Firenze and the Biblioteca di Documentazione Pedagogica) and two private companies (Olivetti and the Giunti Multimedia publishing house).

This data-base on higher education, oriented in its first stage only on gathering data on higher education in the twelve European Union countries, calls for all institutions that can do so to complement the data that they are collecting. Thus, co-operation links have already been established between the TRACE Consortium and ORTELIUS.

As for the Council of Europe, the elaboration of the joint UNESCO-Council of Europe Convention on the recognition of diplomas and studies is to be given highest priority in the forthcoming period. This priority is reflected in the theme of the 1994 *Forum Conference*

## INFORMATION

(Malta 1994) which is academic recognition and the fact that the Conference is organized to offer a major input for the joint Convention. CEPES has been invited to serve as a partner in the organization of this conference.

In addition, three working groups will be established to deal respectively with i) the recognition of the qualifications of Bosnian refugee students; ii) non-accredited institutions of higher education; iii) regional mobility programmes. CEPES will assist the first two of the three groups by the provision of information and documentation services.

Ms. Monica Cucoane, a CEPES computer specialist, made a presentation of the services provided by the electronic network of the Centre and an on-line demonstration of access to information through a *gopher*. The participants found this demonstration of special interest as the information presented relates to this network. Many questions were asked as to how to gain access to e-mail, to the CEPES data-bases, etc.

The Israeli representative also made a presentation on video of the computerized programme which the Ministry of Education of Israel has developed for the assessment of qualifications acquired in foreign countries.

The item of the Agenda relating to assistance to Bosnia and Herzegovina, especially to the recognition of qualifications of Bosnian refugee students abroad, was the object of rapt attention. The Bosnian representative called for a comprehensive rather than a complicated plan of assistance, and CEPES

reiterated its readiness to contribute to the clearinghouse function of this assistance.

The Report of the *Working Group Europe-USA: Mutual Recognition of Qualifications* received praise as a valuable contribution to the promotion of exchanges between the United States and Europe. Several follow-up activities were proposed, including a final meeting aimed at concentrating on an efficient follow-up to the recommendations and the guidelines of the Report.

The ENIC Network elected its Bureau, as follows:

- Mr. Tibor Gyula Nagy (Hungary),  
Chairman;
- Ms. Birute Mockiene (Lithuania),  
Vice-President;
- Mr. John Hagen (the Netherlands),  
Vice-President;

and the following Secretariat:

- Ms. Stamenka Uvalic-Trumbic, Co-Secretary (CEPES-UNESCO);
- Mr. Sjur Bergan, Co-Secretary (Council of Europe).

### Next Meetings of the ENIC Network

Announcement was made that the 1995 meeting of ENIC will most likely be hosted by Slovenia. The delegation of Italy offered to host the 1996 meeting in Rome.

(Source: Ms. S. Uvalic-Trumbic of CEPES, as adapted for publication by the CEPES editorial staff, July 1994)

## Bibliographical References

### Book Review

#### The Gender Gap in Higher Education

Edited by *Suzanne Stiver Lie, Lynda Malik, and Duncan Harris*

World Yearbook of Education, 1994. London and Philadelphia, Kogan Page, 1994, x-250 p. ISBN 0-7494-1079-5.

We often forget how recent an event the admission of women to higher education really is. Although there now appears to be more equality in terms of co-education and equal access, in practice women are still underrepresented in the academic world. The academic hierarchy remains firmly masculine. Marital status hinders publication. There is less mobility through career advancement for women than for men, women acting as buffer zones against the downward mobility of men. With few exceptions, although the percentage of women enrolled in higher education has increased, the female proportions of those who receive higher degrees drop sharply, even if in many countries there is a shift away from conventional "women's fields". The overall tendency in most countries is for women to predominate in the fields of the humanities and education.

This volume represents the efforts of twenty-four scholars from seventeen countries and of the editorial team composed of Suzanne Stiver Lie,

professor at the Institute of Education Research at the University of Oslo, author of *Storming the Tower: Women in the Academic World*, Lynda Malik, Assistant Professor in the Department of Sociology at Villanova University, Pennsylvania, who publishes on current issues in the Islamic world; and Duncan Harris, professor at the University of West London, who has twenty years of experience in research in evaluation and education technology, who has written and edited numerous articles and books on the subject.

The book documents and analyses the gender gap in higher education among students and faculty/administration in seventeen countries, describing the gap as having both a vertical dimension (rank; salary, power differentials among faculty members and administrators) and a horizontal dimension (the field of study) and launching, as landmarks for investigation, the following set of questions:

## BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

- Is there a gender gap in higher education in these countries?
- Is it increasing or diminishing and under what conditions?
- How is the gender gap linked to economic, legislative, political, and religious conditions?
- Are current trends best explained by particular combinations of cultural, societal, or individual characteristics?
- Are there national or university policies which aim at gender equality, and what have been their effects?
- Is there any relationship between the changing size of the gender gap and the development of women's studies and the women's movement?

In order to formulate answers to these questions, the editors decided to combine a comparative and an integrative approach. In so doing, they have tried to find a framework sufficiently broad to encompass situations in a wide range of countries (seventeen) and yet provide sufficient standardization to make comparisons possible. The ambitious final aim is to develop a picture of the dimensions of the gender gap and "to identify similarities and differences between countries in an attempt to arrive at low-level theoretical propositions which can be tested in the future" (p.5).

But how does one compare countries in which higher education has different meanings, academic degrees and ranks have different orderings and requirements, etc? How does one compare countries like France, the United States, the Netherlands, Norway, the United Kingdom, countries in which a wealth of information regarding issues of educa-

tion is to be found, with countries from the former Communist bloc, like Poland, Russia, or Uzbekistan, in which for years information was not aggregated by gender because problems of gender discrimination were considered officially to have been solved? How does one compare Botswana, where for the majority, university education is a rare opportunity (the only university campus having been set up in 1971 and having gained full university status only in 1982) with the Netherlands, where the first university was founded in 1575? What common trends does Pakistan, where the Islamization programme initiated in the 1970's has had far reaching effects on the social and legal status of women in the country, have in common with countries like the United Kingdom, France, and Australia, with long democratic traditions? As the editors must confess, in some cases, in which information was not available on a nationwide basis, they asked the authors to describe the vertical and horizontal aspects of gender stratification in a typical university. Thus, how does one formulate theoretically common propositions subject to empirical verification when national statistics are compared with local statistics?

Many trends outlined by the articles, and the conclusions of the editors, are not new. Although there is a gap between description and interpretation, on the whole, the updated evidence of the gender gap in higher education which still exists in different countries, confirms the impression of a remarkable resemblance of biased attitudes towards women all over the world, as well as the strong consensus and companionship of women as they consider the imperfections of the education systems and come up with proposals to improve their status.

## BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

The somehow deceptive conclusion of the book, that "there is no universal solution" and that "each country operates within its own historical and cultural context and must work out its own unique solutions" (p. 213), means neither that the problem is not a universal one nor that no solutions can be found. Proper human resources management is undoubtedly a key factor in promoting development and progress in modern society. And if by saying "human" we refer to women too, then each step made to better map their

problems and to integrate them into this joint battle for "better" is worthwhile.

If schools are reflections of society, then the overt message retained after reading this book may be that in spite of the progress made regarding both equal opportunities in education and the improvement of women's lives, things are moving slowly. As summed up by Margaret Sutherland, "for women it was always one step backwards for each two steps forward". Let us make sure that the direction continues to be forward!

Laura Grünberg

## NEW PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY CEPES

**Admission to higher education in Israel: current dilemmas and proposed solutions.** Michal Beller. Jerusalem, National Institute for Testing and Evaluation, 1993. 25 pp.

**An overview of the educational system of Albania.** Ann M. Koenig. Milwaukee, WI, Educational Credential Evaluators, Inc., 1993. 46 pp. (ECE Presents, v. 93A)

**Ausseruniversitäre Forschungseinrichtungen in den neuen Bundesländern; zu den Empfehlungen de Wissenschaftsrates** [Research management outside universities in the new Länder: on the recommendations of the Scientific Council]. Albert Over, Christian Tkocz. Kassel, Wissenschaftliche Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung der Universität Gesamthochschule, 1994. 139 pp. Incl. bibl. (Werkstattberichte, no. 43) ISBN 3-928172-66-2

**EAIE membership directory.** European Association for International Education. Amsterdam, EAIE, 1994. 213 + IV pp. ISBN 90-74721-02-8

**The educational system of Turkey.** James S. Frey. Milwaukee, WI, Educational Credential Evaluators, Inc., 1992. 108 pp. (ECE Presents, v. 92B)

**Equating and validating translated scholastic aptitude tests: the Israeli case.** Michal beller, Naomi Gafni. Jerusalem, National Institute for Testing and Evaluation, 1993. 25 pp.

**Evaluation zur Verbesserung der Qualität de Lehre und weitere Massnahmen.** Brigitte Berendt, Joachim Stary (eds.). Weinheim, Deutscher Studien Verlag, 1993. 352 pp. (Blickpunkt Hochschuldidaktik, no. 95) ISBN 3-89271-447-9

**Libertatea în educație: culegere de texte din declarații și convenții inter-**

## BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

**naționale** [Freedom in education; Collection of texts from international declarations and conventions]. Monica Ciucureanu, Ioana Herseni, Viorel Nicolesco (Coords.). Institutul de Științe ale Educației; Grupul Român al Forumului European pentru Libertate în Educație (Eds.) București, ISE, 1993. 77 pp.

**Niedersächsisches Hochschulgesetz** [Higher Education Law of Niedersachsen, Germany]. Hannover, NMWK, 1994. 235 pp.

**Organisation und Effizienz von Forschungsinstituten: Fallstudien zu technikkwissenschaftlicher Forschung an westdeutschen Hochschulen** [Organisation and efficiency of research institutes: case studies of technical and scientific research at western German higher education institutions]. Marek Fuchs, Christoph Oehler. Kassel, Wissenschaftliche Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung der Universität Gesamthochschule, 1994. 189 pp. Incl. bibl. (Werkstattberichte, no. 44) ISBN 3-928172-67-0

**Profile of post secondary education in Canada // Profil de l'enseignement postsecondaire au Canada.** 1993 Edition. [Ottawa-Hull], Education Support

Branch, Human Resources Development Canada, 1994. 50+50 pp. ISBN 0-662-60299-4

**Psychometric and social issues in admission to Israeli Universities.** Michal Beller. Jerusalem, National Institute for Testing and Evaluation, 1993. 25+[2] pp.

**Qualität der Hochschulausbildung: Verlauf und Ergebnisse eines Kolloquiums an der Gesamthochschule Kassel** [Quality of higher education: proceedings of a colloquy at Gesamthochschule Kassel]. Helmut Winkler (ed.). Kassel, Wissenschaftliche Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung der Universität Gesamthochschule, 1993. 137 pp. Incl. bibl. (Werkstattberichte, no. 40) ISBN 3-928172-61-1

**Quality in higher education: from pilot-projects to academic assessment and accreditation.** Bucharest, CEPES, 1994. 122 pp.

**The Swedish way towards a learning society: a review.** Stockholm, MES, 1993. 169 pp. ISBN 91-38-1375-0

**Zbirnik zakonodavchih ta normativnih aktiv pro osviti** [Collection of legislative and normative acts on education] 1st ed. Kiev, MEU, 1994. 336 pp.

## Calendar of Events

### MEETINGS ORGANIZED BY CEPES

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1994

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#### October

17th Session of the CEPES Advisory Board.  
For further information, please contact:

Mr. Lazăr Vlăsceanu, CEPES, 39 Știrbei  
Vodă St., R-70732 Bucharest, Romania.

National developments of quality assurance and institutional accreditation mechanisms, and international cooperation in the field. For further information, please contact:

Mr. Lazăr Vlăsceanu, CEPES, 39 Știrbei  
Vodă St., R-70732 Bucharest, Romania.

#### October

EGAA Steering Committee Meeting:  
Planning of further activities of EGAA.

### OTHER MEETINGS

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1994

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#### 12-14 August

Biennial Congress of the International Association of the Third Age Universities organized by the International Association of the Third Age Universities (Jyväskylä, Finland). For further information, please contact:

Jyväskylä Congresses, University of  
Jyväskylä, P.O. Box 35, SF-40351,  
Finland.

#### 18-19 August

"Cross-national Studies in Higher Education. Annual Meeting of CHER: the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (Enschede, The Netherlands). For further information, please contact:

CHER Secretariat, Franz van Vught,  
University of Twente, P.O. Box 217,  
NL-7500 AE Enschede, The Netherlands.

**21-24 August**

"Less Administration, More Governance: Professional Leadership for Academic Professionals". 16<sup>th</sup> Annual EAIR Forum (Amsterdam, The Netherlands). For further information, please contact:

drs Tineke Jong, Conference Office,  
Universiteit van Amsterdam, P.O.  
Box 19268, 1000 GG Amsterdam, The  
Netherlands.

**31 August-3 September**

"The Politics and Strategies for Globalizing Knowledge". 10<sup>th</sup> General Assembly of CRE: the Standing Conference of University Rectors, Presidents and Vice-Chancellors of the European Universities (Budapest, Hungary). For further information, please contact:

CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-  
1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

**4-6 September**

Working Party on East-West Cooperation in Europe, LC/CRE/Task Force (Budapest, Hungary). For further information, please contact:

CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-  
1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

**4-9 September**

"The Teacher in a Changing Europe". 19th Annual Conference of ATEE: the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (Prague, Czech Republic). For further information, please contact:

Mr Jiri Kotasek, Dean of Faculty of  
Education or Marie Cerna, Vice-dean  
of the Faculty of Education, M.D.  
Rettigová 4, 116 39 Praha 1, Czech  
Republic.

**5-7 September**

IMHE General Conference (Paris, France). For further information, please contact:

OECD-IMHE, 2 rue André Pascal,  
75775 Paris Cedex 16, France.

**9-11 September**

"Managing the Autonomous University". 8th ICHE International Conference (Marseille, France). For further information, please contact:

Laurence Denfoux, Finance Rector,  
University Aix-Marseille II, 58  
boulevard Charles Livon 13007, Mar-  
seille, France.

**15-16 September**

"De l'image papier à l'image numérisée: conception et exploitation dans l'enseignement supérieur". ADMES Colloque international (Montpellier, France). For further information, please contact:

Ms Jacqueline Guibal or Ms Françoise  
Castex, Faculté de Pharmacie, 15,  
Avenue Charles Flahault, 34 060  
Montpellier Cedex 1, France.

**21-23 September**

"Visions and Strategies for Europe: An Examination of the First Five Years of the New East-West Partnership in Engineering Education". Joint SEFI Annual Conference and IGIP Annual Conference (Prague, Czech Republic). For further information, please contact:

Jan Pozar, Dept. of International Relations,  
Czech Technical University,  
Zikova 4, 166 35 Praha 6, Czech  
Republic.

**26-30 September**

5th Session of the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century (Santiago, Chile). For further information, please contact:



## CALENDAR OF EVENTS

Ms A. Draxler, UNESCO, ED/EDC, 7,  
place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP,  
France.

### 28 September - 1 October

"8th Annual Conference and General Assembly". Network for the Development of European Programmes in Higher Education (Madrid, Spain). For further information, please contact:

Mr. S. Jones, St Charles College, Calle  
Tambre 3, E-28002, Madrid, Spain.

### 29 September-2 October

Colloque international sur "Les transferts de connaissances en formation initiale et continue" (Lyon, France). For further information, please contact:

Mr. Philippe Meirieu, Université  
Lumière Lyon 2, 16, quai Claude Ber-  
nard, 69007 Lyon, France.

### 3-8 October

"Appraisal and Perspectives of Education for International Understanding". 44<sup>th</sup> Session of the International Conference on Education organized by the International Bureau of Education (Geneva, Switzerland). For further information, please contact:

Mr. Juan Carlos Tedesco, Director, In-  
ternational Bureau of Education, P.O.  
Box 199, 1211 Geneva, Switzerland.

### 10-13 October

CRE Project on Quality Audit (Utrecht, The Netherlands). For further information, please contact:

CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-  
1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

### 30 October-3 November

CRE Project on Quality Audit (Göteborg, Sweden). For further information, please contact:

CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-  
1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

### 31 October-4 November

"Intercultural Conflicts in Peace Research and Education". 15th General Conference of IPRA: the International Peace Research Association (Malta). For further information, please contact:

Ake Bjerstedt, Peace Education Com-  
mission, School of Education, Box  
23501, S-200 45 Malmö, Sweden.

### 2-4 November

"Higher Education: Capacity-building for the 21st Century". 4th UNESCO-NGO Collective Consultation on Higher Education (Paris, France). For further information, please contact:

Ms L. Kearney, UNESCO,  
ED/HEP/HE, 7 place de Fontenoy,  
75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

### 10-12 November

"Social Science Information Needs and Provision in a Changing Europe. European Conference. (Berlin, Germany). For further information, please contact:

Ms Ulrike Becker or Ms Erika  
Schwefel, Informationszentrum  
Sozialwissenschaften, Abteilung Ber-  
lin in der Aussenstelle der  
Gesellschaft Sozialwissenschaftlicher  
Infrastruktureinrichtungen (GESIS),  
Schiffbauerdamm 19, D-10117 Berlin,  
Germany.

### 13-17 November

CRE Project on Quality Audit (Oporto, Portugal). For further information, please contact:

CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-  
1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

**24-26 November**

"Quality in International Education". 6th Annual Conference of EAIE: the European Association for International Education (London, UK). For further information, please contact:

EAIE, Van Diemenstraat 344, NL-1-013  
CR Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

**19-21 December**

"The Student Experience". Annual Conference of the Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) and the University of York (London, UK). For further information, please contact:

SRHE, 344-354 Gray's Inn Road, London WC1X 8BP, UK.

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**1995**

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Follow-up Meeting of MINEDEUROPE IV in conjunction with CORDEE. (Paris, France). For further information, please contact:

Mr. H. Rissom & Mr. P. Herold,  
UNESCO, ED/UCE, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

"6th European Conference for Research on Learning and Instruction". European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction (EARLI) (Nijmegen, The Netherlands). For further information, please contact:

Robert-Jan Simons, Department of Educational Sciences, Nijmegen University, P.O. Box 9103, 6500 HD Nijmegen, The Netherlands.

"6th World Conference on Continuing Engineering Education". International Association for Continuing Engineering Education (Rio de Janeiro, Brazil). For further information, please contact:

F. R. Landi, Escola Politecnica, University of Sao Paulo, POB 1145, Sao Paulo, CEP 05499, Brazil.

"9th World Conference". World Association for Cooperative Education (WACE) (Jamaica). For further information, please contact:

Cal Haddad, International Secretariat, WACE, c/o Mohawk College, P.O. Box 2034, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada L8N 3T2.

**January**

6th Session of the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century (Beijing, China). For further information, please contact:

Ms A. Draxler, UNESCO, ED/EDC, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

**February**

Meeting of Governmental Experts to Examine the Draft Recommendation on the Status of Teachers in Higher Education (Paris, France). For further information, please contact:

Mr. D. Beridze, UNESCO, ED/HEP/HE, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

**April**

7th Session of the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century (Amman, Jordan). For further information, please contact:

Ms A. Draxler, UNESCO, ED/EDC, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

5th Session of the International Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in the Arab and European

## CALENDAR OF EVENTS

States bordering the Mediterranean (Paris, France). For further information, please contact:

Mr. D. Beridze, UNESCO, ED/HEP/HE, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

### June/July

Final Session (8th) of the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century (Paris, France). For further information, please contact:

Ms A. Draxler, UNESCO, ED/EDC, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France.

### 26-30 June

"One World Many Voices - Quality in Open and Distance Learning". 17th World Conference for Distance Education (Birmingham, United Kingdom). For further information, please contact:

ICDE Conference Office, The Open University, West Midlands region, 66-68 High Street, Harborne, Birmingham B 17 9NB, UK.

### July

"Improving University Teaching" (IUT). 20th International Conference. For further information, please contact:

Improving University Teaching, University of Maryland, University College, University Boulevard at Adelphi Road, College Park, Maryland 20742-1659, USA.

International Conference on Distance Education organized by the Association for International Education and the

State Committee for Higher Education of the Russian Federation (Moscow, Russian Federation). For further information, please contact:

Mr. Alexander Prokopchuk, Deputy Director of International Cooperation, State Committee for Higher Education, 33, Ul. Shabolovka, Moscow, Russian Federation.

### 2-7 July

"State and University in the New Europe: a Liberal Future?" International conference (Usti nad Labem, Czech Republic). For further information, please contact:

Dr. Bob Brecher, School of Historical & Critical Studies, University of Brighton, 10-11 Pavilion Parade, Brighton BN2 1RA, Sussex, UK.

### 5-12 September

"20th Annual Conference". Association for Teacher Education in Europe (Oslo, Norway). For further information, please contact:

ATEE, rue de la Concorde 60, B-1050 Bruxelles, Belgium or Bislet Hoegskolesenter, Pilestredet 52, N-0167 Oslo, Norway

### December

"The Changing University". Annual Conference, Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE), (Edinburgh, Scotland, UK). For further information, please contact:

The Conference Organiser, SRHE, 344/345 Gray's Inn Road, London WC1X 8BP, UK.

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# CEPES PUBLICATIONS

## HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE

Quarterly review, in English, French, Russian

## STUDIES AND PAPERS

CEPES publishes studies and shorter papers on specific issues of higher education, follow-up studies to meetings, and periodic statistical surveys. Their topics range from general problems of planning and management to the specific teaching, training, research and service functions of higher education, and its new roles for the advancement of modern society.

## CEPES STUDIES

- HANDBOOK OF HIGHER EDUCATION DIPLOMAS IN EUROPE (K.G. Saur, 1992, 304 p. ISBN 3-598-11073-1)

To order: K. G. SAUR VERLAG & CO., Postfach 7016, D-8000 München 70, Germany.

- MULTILINGUAL LEXICON OF HIGHER EDUCATION, Vol. 1: Western Europe and North America (K.G. Saur, 1993, 346 p. ISBN 3-598-11058-8)

To order: K. G. SAUR VERLAG & CO., Postfach 7016, D-8000 München 70, Germany.

- ▣ GAINS AND LOSSES: WOMEN AND TRANSITION IN EASTERN AND CENTRAL EUROPE (English, 1994, 115 p. ISBN: 92-9069-125-5)

## PAPERS ON HIGHER EDUCATION

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