



A TEMPUS STUDY

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Human Resource Management in Public Higher Education in the Tempus Partner Countries

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This report is the result of two studies carried out in 2011 by two independent experts:

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This report consists of two separate documents:

- this document which provides the main data and outcomes of the studies carried out
- an additional annex which is available only on the website of the Tempus programme (http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/tempus/tools/publications_en.php) and provides detailed statistical information on the results of the on-line survey addressed to individuals involved in Tempus projects.

PREFACE

Whereas reforms in higher education in countries in transition mainly concentrate on structures and procedures, the behaviour and attitudes of staff working in higher education institutions often appear to be a major obstacle to reform. Indeed, experience proves that conservatism and reluctance to change are priority topics that need to be addressed when implementing reform policies and programmes.

This makes human resource management a key challenge when it comes to designing, implementing and monitoring policies, in particular, in the public sector, where legal frameworks and administrative rules often lack flexibility and adaptability.

In this context, I am proud to present this study which was launched in 2011 by the Tempus programme and carried out by two external experts, with the support of the unit in charge of the management of the Tempus programme in the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.

The study is innovative from a content and methodological point of view. First of all, it addresses a topic which has never been directly tackled before within the framework of the 22 year-old Tempus programme. Secondly, it covers the different categories of staff working in higher education institutions, not limiting its scope only to academics and thus emphasises the prominent role of other categories of staff. Moreover, it is based on a combination of sources of information, ranging from data collected at national level, to data collected from individuals currently experiencing reform processes within ongoing Tempus projects.

It complements previous studies, by demonstrating once again the potential of the Tempus programme to support innovative activities in higher education. The conclusions of this survey will be exploited in 2012 / 2013 through a series of regional seminars to be organised in the Tempus Partner Countries, in order to stimulate debates and exchange experiences on the topics at stake.

I have no doubt that this survey will be welcomed by the various stakeholders in charge of higher education in the countries concerned and beyond, including the international community of donors in search of analyses and evidence.

Gilbert Gascard
Director

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An additional annex is available only on the website of the Tempus programme (http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/tempus/tools/publications_en.php) and provides detailed statistical information on the results of the on-line survey addressed to individuals involved in Tempus projects.

1 – Introduction

For more than 20 years, the Tempus programme (see Annex 1) provides a unique platform for the exchange of best practices in the modernisation of higher education systems between the European Union and the Partner Countries involved in the programme. The Tempus programme is also the gateway to EU best practice in higher education modernisation and makes it possible, via the publication of studies, to raise awareness among stakeholders of priority issues in higher education. In addition, these studies also provide material which can be further exploited via Tempus projects.

Developing the management of human resources is becoming a key challenge in higher education institutions worldwide. Complex academic communities need appropriate career management procedures, as well as national policies, which support the institutions in recruiting, motivating and keeping qualified staff.

In the Tempus Partner Countries, higher education systems are facing numerous challenges linked to the economic transition process and globalisation. These challenges are linked to quality, level of state spending in education, adequacy to the needs of the labour market and society, the need for appropriate governance mechanisms and structures and the access to higher education in particular for the disadvantaged sectors of the population.

As experienced in many countries, modernisation of higher education is not only a matter of policies and strategies, organisations and structures but also a question of behaviour and the attitudes of individuals. Ongoing reflections and analyses by experts and practitioners about university modernisation highlight among many other obstacles, the human constraints and the difficulty to make people change their attitudes and adhere to new approaches and methods. Structural reforms often fail because of the lack of commitment and motivation of individual actors.

In many Tempus Partner Countries, higher education institutions are confronted with a shortage of staff (academic and support staff) in quantitative and qualitative terms. Institutions are lacking the appropriate human resources to properly address the challenges at stake. Unsatisfactory working conditions have an impact on the attitudes and behaviour of staff and create an obstacle to the modernisation of higher education. Tempus projects in particular are confronted with this kind of challenges when trying to make modernisation a reality.

Developing the proper management of human resources is therefore becoming a key challenge within institutions and also at national level. New approaches to human resource management are currently being introduced in many countries to support the modernisation of governance of higher education systems and institutions.

The study "Human Resource Management in Public Higher Education in the Tempus Partner Countries" provides an overview of the challenges, conditions and limitations which may be considered as obstacles to the modernisation of higher education. In particular, the purpose is to investigate to what extent some unfavourable conditions, such as inadequate recruitment procedures and lack of career progression schemes may be hindering the development of proper human resources in higher education. The study concentrates exclusively on the public higher education sector and regularly employed staff. It was launched in 2011 and consisted of two parts: an on-line survey addressed to Tempus project participants to collect their individual perceptions (later referred to as "the on-line survey / questionnaire") and a questionnaire addressed through National Tempus Offices to National Authorities and other relevant stakeholders to gather

information on national policies and practices (later referred to as "the national survey / questionnaire).

This study aims not only to give an overview of the state of play in the Tempus Partner Countries¹ but also to collect good practices and to provide examples on how countries or institutions have addressed the challenges that they are currently facing in managing human resources.

Most importantly, the study also aims to raise the awareness of institutions and policy makers by helping them to identify central areas of development in their countries and take advantage of the experience of others to move forward.

The report focuses on the policy measures and strategies which are being taken at macro (government and ministries) and micro levels (institutions) and highlights the variety of approaches currently implemented in the Tempus countries.

The report covers a wide range of topics, including:

- Policy context in the different Partner Countries
- Recruitment processes and practices
- Career management
- Working conditions
- Brain-drain
- Demographics
- Attractiveness of jobs
- Skills and attitudes

When interpreting the result of the study it must be kept in mind that some terms may have been understood in different ways by the respondents / countries, in spite of the efforts made to clarify them in the questionnaires.

Moreover, many topics addressed in the study (such as questions related to attractiveness and skills, current challenges, etc.) are not based on hard facts or statistics, but on individual respondents' perceptions of the situation.

¹ Partner countries covered by the study: Albania, Algeria, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia (only in the on-line survey), Egypt, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia, Israel, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, Moldova, Montenegro, Morocco, Russian Federation, Serbia, Syria, Tajikistan, the occupied Palestinian territory, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan and Kosovo (this designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with UNSCR 1244 and the ICJ Opinion on the Kosovo declaration of independence).

2 – Executive Summary

The aim of this study is to give an overview of the ways in which human resources are managed in public higher education institutions in the Tempus Partner Countries. It is based on a survey addressed to individuals involved in Tempus projects and on information gathered at the level of the national authorities.

In all the countries covered by the study, human resource management and staff development are becoming issues which require more and more attention on the part of individual institutions as well as from the national authorities. There is a need to recruit and retain highly skilled and motivated staff in order to make modernisation of higher education a reality. While more attention is often being paid to the working conditions of academic staff, it is slowly becoming obvious that administrative and technical staff also needs to be taken better into consideration, in order to ensure their commitment and contribution to the development of higher education institutions.

In general, it can be noted that the importance of human resource management is recognised in the Tempus Partner Countries, but only a few of them have developed national strategies which would concretely support higher education institutions and give them guidelines. However, some successful national schemes are presented in the study and can serve as examples of good practice in managing human resource issues. The conclusions at the end of the report also include recommendations for the development of human resources in the countries concerned.

Academic staff – motivated but underpaid

Transparent recruitment procedures, good contractual conditions and concrete possibilities for staff development and career advancement are important factors in attracting and maintaining qualified academic staff at public institutions. Such measures also ensure that staff members are not only retained, but that their skills and capacities are constantly up-graded to meet the changing requirement set on the higher education sector.

The following types of problem areas are identified in the study in relation to academic staff:

- 1) **Recruitment processes:** high frequency of internal recruitment and lack of transparency of procedures used, corruption and nepotism, use of selection methods and criteria that do not support the recruitment of the best-suited candidates for the jobs, restrictive legal frameworks.
- 2) **Career progression and training:** lack of progression prospects, prolonged time spent within one institution, inadequate performance evaluation procedures, limited training opportunities, insufficient motivation and incentives.
- 3) **Working conditions:** limited research opportunities, political pressure and lack of autonomy, excessive working hours, varying contract durations, low salaries, the necessity to take up multiple positions.

These problems affect the Tempus Partner Countries to varying degrees and are being tackled through different measures. The study shows some positive tendencies towards more open and transparent selection procedures, a stronger focus on staff training and the introduction of financial incentives and reward schemes. It can also be noted that, while salaries are usually considered to be lower than in equivalent positions outside public higher education, other advantages such as employment stability, interesting work and a well-regarded social status continue to be seen as important advantages of academic posts in public higher education. It should also be mentioned that, in many countries covered by the study, academic staff values the possibility to work in the university environment and considers teaching as a vocation.

As far as recruitment procedures are concerned, it can be noted that academic staff in Tempus Partner Countries is most typically recruited via open competitions. However, also the tradition of internal recruitments continues to be widely spread while, in a small number of countries, the recruitment falls under the responsibility of the national authorities. In most of the Tempus countries, academic staff at public higher education institutions is directly employed by the institutions or their sub-units. Contracts are usually concluded for a determined period, while contract duration may vary (most typically 5 years).

In terms of challenges, many Tempus countries are faced with problems linked to the aging of staff and the need to recruit a new generation of staff members. Brain-drain is also becoming a serious issue in some countries and in certain disciplines, not only in terms of international brain-drain but even more typically as a result of competition from the private sector to employ academic staff.

Administrative and technical staff – satisfied but undervalued

Administrative staff and their commitment and skills can be crucial to the successful modernisation of institutions and it is therefore necessary to pay careful attention to their recruitment, career management and working conditions. However, in the countries investigated, their role does not always seem to be considered of primary importance to the development of the higher education sector.

Overall, there is less control by the national authorities over the recruitment of administrative and technical staff and open competitions are less common than for academic positions. Recruitment decisions are usually taken by the institutions. In terms of work contracts, there is a clear trend that administrative and technical staff contracts are longer in duration than those of academic staff. It can also be noted that salaries of administrative and technical staff are more in line with salaries offered for jobs outside public higher education. In addition, the relatively good additional benefits, the employment stability and the reasonable working hours make administrative and technical positions relatively attractive in most countries.

The study shows that one of the challenges in respect to this category of staff is the lack of appropriate skills, in particular language and IT skills. However, the development of training schemes for administrative and technical staff does not seem to be a high priority in most of the countries investigated.

Management staff – political pressure and lack of relevant training

Management staff (Rectors and Deans) naturally holds a key role in the development, strategic positioning and modernisation of higher education institutions. Therefore, the management of this particularly central human resource is of high importance to the success of institutions and indeed for the modernisation of the higher education systems as a whole.

The study identifies some problematic issues in relation to the lack of open competition for positions in senior management, their often politicised selection or appointment, the lack of adequate and transparent selection criteria, the lack of relevant training opportunities and the different kinds of political pressures that management staff may be subject to. However, also some interesting examples of good practice can be found, underlining the increased will to achieve transparency and to select the effectively best candidates able to support the strategic goals of the institutions and their modernisation.

Regional features

It is difficult to summarise comprehensively the specific features of each region, but some main aspects that are typical, particularly problematic or well addressed can be identified for each of the six regions covered by this study.

In most **Central Asian** countries, unattractiveness of jobs in higher education is considered a significant problem. Low salaries, a high number of contact-hours with students and relatively weak side benefits contribute to this situation. Moreover, low salaries often lead to the need to hold multiple positions. Institutions are independent to decide on promotions and have relative freedom in staff appointments. However, the Rectors of institutions are appointed by national authorities. The gender balance of staff is relatively good, with some variations across the region.

The level of PhD attainment among senior teaching staff is among the lowest among the Tempus regions and language and IT skills are reported to be an area that needs to be addressed. On the other hand, systematic training of staff is available for academic staff across the region.

Many countries in the region face a negative demographic trend of the overall population and need to reduce numbers of teaching staff in the next five years.

In **Eastern European** countries, jobs in public higher education are also not considered particularly attractive: low salaries and relatively weak benefits packages make the positions less attractive than possible alternatives in the private sector. The situation is especially worrying for academic positions, while for administrative and technical staff, the conditions are considered more attractive in relative terms. Multiple positions are also an issue in this region.

In several Eastern European countries the recruitment requirements are set by the national authorities, which mean that institutions have little freedom to steer the selection. Similarly, institutions have little autonomy for decisions regarding salaries and the implementation of rewards. On the other hand, institutional bodies may often directly select the Rector and other management level staff.

There are currently a relatively low proportion of PhD candidates among senior academic staff in the region and the lack of foreign language skills creates a problem for the modernisation of the sector. There is very little systematic staff training available. In fact, European projects are seen as one of the most important training tools available at higher education institutions. International brain-drain is less of a concern than competition from the private sector. At the same time, institutions are faced with a need to reduce numbers of teaching staff in the next decade.

As in the other ex-Soviet countries, also in **Russia**, jobs in higher education are not considered very attractive, due to the high number of contact-hours with students, the lack of opportunities for research and low salaries. Russia tries to find new ways to attract highly qualified staff into the sector for example by the creation of new types of higher education institutions with a special status, special funds and extended academic freedom. Institutions enjoy a relatively high degree of autonomy for the recruitment and the promotion of staff.

Staff training concentrates on institutional initiatives and it appears that European projects are seen as one of the main training tools. The main skills shortage is in the area of foreign language skills, while IT skills are widespread. International brain-drain does not seem to be a serious cause for concern. Rather, the actual competition comes from the private sector at national level.

Positions in higher education in the **Maghreb** countries are considered more attractive than in any other region: all staff has civil servant status and relatively high salaries and in some cases very good benefits packages. As all staff members are civil servants, recruitment requirements, salaries and promotions are decided upon mainly by the national authorities. Promotions are based mainly on formal criteria, such as years of service. Due to the favourable conditions and overall attractiveness of positions in higher education institutions, there is little competition for the best candidates at the national level from private companies for example. Most countries in the region have high numbers of PhDs in academia and a good level of skills of staff. In general, there is little staff training available. One of the problem areas in the region seems to be the resistance of staff to change. Furthermore, the countries of the region will need to recruit additional staff in the coming years in order to cope with the increasing number of students.

Ageing does not seem to pose a serious problem to the sector. Gender balance has not yet been reached however and the figures are low especially in academic positions.

In the **Middle East**, some of the main attractions of jobs in higher education institutions are the job stability and good additional benefits. At the same time, salaries are not considered attractive, which leads to the need to hold multiple positions. The study shows that this is actually the only region in which most countries report a *de facto* decrease of salaries in the past 10 years due to inflation growing faster than salaries. For administrative staff, the attraction of jobs in higher education institutions seems higher in comparison to other alternatives than for academic staff.

Recruitment requirements are relatively stringent and often more detailed and comprehensive than in other Tempus regions. There are a very high percentage of PhD holders among senior academic staff. Lack of skills is not considered a serious problem, but rather the attitude of staff to change. There is a good awareness of the importance of staff training across the region. Training is usually organised by institutions and is often taken into consideration in promotion decisions.

Some of the countries in the region suffer from severe international brain-drain, especially to the richer neighbouring countries and the imbalance in gender distribution is a problem especially in academic positions.

In the region of the **Western Balkans**, higher education jobs are considered relatively attractive. The salaries are considered relatively good in most of the countries of the region and contact-hours with students are among the lowest across Tempus countries.

In most cases, institutions are independent in deciding about promotions and recruitment and they may also put in place financial incentives. The lack of integration of the universities in several countries is an obstacle to reforming and harmonising human resource management practices within the institutions. Selection processes are now most typically open to all qualified candidates and important changes to increase transparency have been implemented in the recent years. The Rectors are elected by the institutions, sometimes involving all staff and students in the process.

There is very little systematic training available for staff in public higher education institutions. While there is scope for the improvement of language skills, the main issue in the region seems to be the lack of flexibility of staff and their lack of adaptability to new requirements.

Staff in Western Balkan institutions is relatively young. As brain-drain is a cause for concern for many countries of the region, some national schemes have been established to deal with this phenomenon.

3 – Methodology

This reports draws on three main sources of information:

- 1) a questionnaire to the National Tempus Offices in 27 Partner Countries participating in the programme (later referred to as the national survey / questionnaire)
- 2) Site visits to nine of the Tempus Partner Countries.
- 3) an on-line survey carried out in May June 2011 targeting approximately 3000 people involved in Tempus IV projects in the Tempus Partner Countries and EU member states (later referred to as the on-line survey / questionnaire)

Terminology used

Terms have been used with the meaning stated below:

Academic staff: professors, lecturers, researchers

Administrative and technical staff: staff in academic or administrative departments performing administrative and technical tasks

Management staff: Deans and Rectors

Senior and junior staff: judgement was left to the respondents according to the division that made most sense in each context. Usually the former refers to professorial positions (assistant professors, full professors, etc.) and the latter to non-professorial level staff (lecturers, teaching assistants, etc.)

Civil servant: term indicating staff employed typically by public authorities (e.g. the state) as permanent staff and who often enjoy specific benefits related to the position

Higher education institution (HEI): all types of state-recognised, post-secondary educational and vocational establishments which offer qualifications or diplomas at ISCED level 5 and/or 6, regardless of what such establishments are called (University, Polytechnic, Institute, College, etc).

National authorities: entities having legal decision-making powers on institutional issues, such as Ministries, the Government/Council of Ministries, the Head of State and so on.

Regions covered by the study

Central Asia: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan

Eastern Europe: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Ukraine

Russia

Maghreb: Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco

Middle East: Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, the occupied Palestinian territory, Syria

Western Balkans: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia (only on-line survey), Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Kosovo², Montenegro, Serbia

1) The questionnaire addressed to the National Tempus Offices (NTOs)³

A comprehensive questionnaire on human resource management in higher education was sent to coordinators of National Tempus Offices in 27 Partner Countries. The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information to analyse the extent to which human resource issues in higher education institutions are a driver of or a challenge to higher education reforms.

The aim of the questionnaire was to collect detailed information on issues related to human resource management at the national level, including national-level regulations, laws, initiatives, policies and activities related to the theme. The questions referred to the employment conditions of regularly employed staff (excluding staff on project-related contracts) in public higher education institutions. The questionnaire (Annex 2) was divided into two main parts, addressing 1) concrete procedures in human resource management and 2) human resource policies.

The National Tempus Offices were requested to consult the National Authorities as well as the local EU Delegation in filling in the questionnaire. In addition, some of them organised consultation meetings with higher education institutions, Tempus Higher Education Reform Experts (« HEREs »), or other relevant entities. Other NTOs even surveyed all public institutions in their countries, the final questionnaire being the result of the aggregation of the institutional replies. The final questionnaire was endorsed by the national Ministry in charge of higher education.

2) The site visits

To complement, verify and enrich the information collected through the questionnaires, to obtain a more in-depth vision of the circumstances, to better interpret the information collected and to identify examples of good practice, a number of site-visits were organised between May and July 2011. The visits were conducted by the external experts in charge of carrying out the study. A total of nine countries were selected for the site-visits, maintaining a regional balance and a spread between smaller and larger higher education systems. The countries visited were:

- Western Balkans: Albania, Serbia
- Eastern Europe: Armenia, Ukraine
- Maghreb: Morocco
- Middle East: Jordan
- Central Asia: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan
- Russia

² This designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with UNSCR 1244 and the ICJ Opinion on the Kosovo declaration of independence.

³ The National Tempus Offices are responsible for the local management of the Programme and monitoring of the projects in each Partner Country. They act as contact point for the overall Programme in each partner country and are funded under the accompanying measures.

The site visits lasted typically 2-3 days and included a number of interviews with relevant individuals from the following groups:

- Ministry level (persons dealing with human resources at policy level and persons responsible for practical matters in human resource management)
- At least 2 higher education institutions currently involved in Tempus projects (persons from the central administration / management level and academic and administrative staff)
- Representatives of the Tempus Higher Education Reform Experts (HEREs)
- The National Tempus Office
- The EU Delegation
- Other stakeholders, if relevant.

The interviews addressed questions both at the macro and micro level, i.e. national-level policies, strategies and regulations, as well as institutional practice and individual perceptions.

The information collected through the site-visits has been instrumental in gaining a better understanding of the mechanisms in place in different regions and countries and has made it possible to better interpret data collected through the questionnaires. The case examples and good practices included in this report have been mainly collected through the site-visits and consequently concentrate on the 9 countries visited. This is naturally without prejudice to the number of good practice examples or advanced systems of human resource management potentially available in the other countries.

3) The on-line survey

Between 19 May and 29 June 2011, approximately 3000 contact persons involved in Tempus IV ongoing projects were invited by e-mail to fill in a questionnaire published on-line.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information from stakeholders directly involved in projects and activities related to the reform of higher education in the countries concerned, namely on-going Tempus projects. It was targeted at 3 different categories of respondents in order to provide a complementary picture of the situation seen from three different angles, including from an EU point of view:

- persons involved in Tempus projects and working in a public higher education institution in one of the Tempus Partner Countries (CAT1);
- persons involved in Tempus projects and working in other institutions / organisations in a Tempus Partner Country which is not a public higher education institution, such as private higher education institutions, companies, ministries (CAT2); and
- persons involved in Tempus projects and working in a higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union (CAT3).

Knowing that the reality may differ widely from the theory and legal / administrative frameworks, the aim of the on-line questionnaire was to provide additional information and evidence from the ground in order to complete, nuance and confirm the information collected through the national questionnaires and reflecting thus a more micro-level analysis.

Structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire (Annex 3) was divided in five different sections:

- The first section focusing on the identification of respondents, with questions allowing their classification into three target categories (CAT 1, 2 and 3), defining their staff profile (e.g. academic staff / administrative and technical staff / management staff (Dean/Rector) and the country of origin (where their institution / organisation is located).

Respondents from the EU member States were requested to select one Tempus Partner Country which they are most familiar with, in order to provide their perceptions of the situation of human resources in that particular country.

- The second section, with questions addressed to all respondents covering the different topics of the study;
- The third section, with questions addressed only to respondents working in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country (CAT1), aimed at gathering more precise information about human resource management at their own institution, such as career management practices, evaluation of staff, workload, demography;
- The fourth section, with questions addressed only to respondents working in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country (CAT1), aimed at gathering information on their personal situation, such as status and contact, workload and activities outside their institution, salary and other benefits and rewards;
- The fifth and concluding section.

Responses and representativity of the survey

A total of 550 questionnaires were submitted, of which more than one third were filled by academic staff working in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country (table 1).

These 550 answers cover all 28 Tempus Partner Countries. It should however be underlined that 60 replies were given for Russia and 69 for Serbia, meaning that 24% of all answers concern these two countries (table 2).

It is also worth noting that out of the 173 respondents from the European Union (CAT3), 36% chose one of the Western Balkan countries on which to answer, 19% chose one of the Eastern European countries and 18% chose one of the Middle Eastern countries.

Furthermore, it should be noted that 17 of the Tempus Partner Countries were assessed by less than 19 persons each, namely Albania, Algeria, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Egypt, Israel, Kosovo, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, Montenegro, Morocco, Syria, Tajikistan, the occupied Palestinian territory, Tunisia, Turkmenistan.

Due to the lack of a relevant number of answers concerning these countries, the decision was taken to analyse their data at regional level only.

Table 1 - Profiles of the respondents to the on-line survey

		Nr of responses	% of the grand total
Public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country (CAT 1)	<i>Academic staff</i>	200	36,3%
	<i>Administrative staff</i>	67	12,1%
	<i>Management staff</i>	37	6,7%
	Total	304	55,2%
Other institution / organisation in a Tempus Partner Country(including private higher education institutions) (CAT 2)	<i>Private HEI</i>	25	4,5%
	<i>Ministry / public body</i>	18	3,2%
	<i>Research organisation</i>	6	1,0%
	<i>Private/public enterprise</i>	10	1,8%
	<i>Other</i>	14	2,5%
	Total	73	13,2%
Higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union (CAT 3)	<i>HEI</i>	154	28,0%
	<i>Ministry / public body</i>	3	0,5%
	<i>Research organisation</i>	3	0,5%
	<i>Private/public enterprise</i>	7	1,2%
	<i>Other</i>	6	1,0%
	Total	173	31,4%
Grand total		550	100,0%

Table 2 – Breakdown of the replies to the on-line survey per country and type of respondents

Respondents	Persons working in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country				Persons working in		Total
	Academic staff	Adm. and technical staff	Mgt staff	Total	a Tempus Partner Country (not in a public HEI)	the EU	
Central Asia	25	13	9	47	13	16	76
Kazakhstan	12	9	3	24	7	3	34
Kyrgyzstan	4	3	1	8	1	4	13
Tajikistan	0	0	1	1	0	1	2
Turkmenistan	1	0	0	1	0	3	4
Uzbekistan	8	1	4	13	5	5	23
Eastern Europe	44	21	12	77	12	32	121
Armenia	7	3	1	11	3	4	18
Azerbaijan	0	0	2	2	2	2	6
Belarus	2	5	2	9	0	3	12
Georgia	11	3	0	14	2	5	21
Moldova	7	4	4	15	1	3	19
Ukraine	17	6	3	26	4	15	45
Russian Federation	16	9	5	30	5	25	60
Maghreb	12	7	3	22	1	7	30
Algeria	3	3	2	8	0	3	11
Morocco	6	2	1	9	0	3	12
Tunisia	3	2	0	5	1	1	7
Middle East	24	3	4	31	15	31	77
Egypt	3	0	2	5	3	8	16
Israel	3	1	0	4	1	5	10
Jordan	11	1	0	12	3	6	21
Lebanon	0	0	0	0	7	4	11
Syria	6	0	0	6	0	6	12
the occupied Palestinian territory	1	1	2	4	1	2	7
Western Balkans	79	14	4	97	27	62	186
Albania	10	1	0	11	2	3	16
Bosnia and Herzegovina	7	0	0	7	7	9	23
Croatia	9	3	0	12	2	6	20
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	14	2	1	17	2	16	35
Kosovo	0	1	0	1	2	4	7
Montenegro	9	1	0	10	4	2	16
Serbia	30	6	3	39	8	22	69
Total	200	67	37	304	73	173	550

Regional and country aggregates

For the purpose of the analysis, the data collected was aggregated by region as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3 - Breakdown of the replies to the on-line survey per region

- Central Asia: 13.8% of all responses received concern the following countries:

○ Kazakhstan	44.7%	of the responses provided for this region
○ Kyrgyzstan	17.1%	
○ Tajikistan	2.6%	
○ Turkmenistan	5.3%	
○ Uzbekistan	30.3%	
Total	100.0%	
- Eastern Europe: 22% of all responses received concern the following countries:

○ Armenia	14.9%	of the responses provided for this region
○ Azerbaijan	5.0%	
○ Belarus	9.9%	
○ Georgia	17.4%	
○ Moldova	15.7%	
○ Ukraine	37.2%	
Total	100.0%	
- Russian Federation: 10.9% of all responses received
- Middle East: 14% of all responses received concern the following countries:

○ Egypt	20.8%	of the responses provided for this region
○ Israel	13.0%	
○ Jordan	27.3%	
○ Lebanon	14.3%	
○ Syria	15.6%	
○ the occupied Palestinian territory	9.1%	
Total	100.0%	
- Maghreb: 5.5% of all responses received concern the following countries:

○ Algeria	36.7%	of the responses provided for this region
○ Morocco	40.0%	
○ Tunisia	23.3%	
Total	100.0%	
- Western Balkan: 33.8% of all responses received concern the following countries:

○ Albania	8.6%	of the responses provided for this region
○ Bosnia and Herzegovina	12.4%	
○ Croatia	10.8%	
○ former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	18.8%	
○ Kosovo	3.8%	
○ Montenegro	8.6%	
○ Serbia	37.1%	
Total	100.0%	

Remark: The statistical document in annex (available only on the Tempus website) dedicated to the detailed results of the on-line survey also contains data by country. Since not all countries gathered enough replies, the statistics cover only a limited number of them (table 4).

Table 4 – Percentage of replies to the on-line survey for countries with more than 19 replies

Country	Code	% of total responses
o Bosnia and Herzegovina	BA	4.2%
o Croatia	HR	3.6%
o former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	MK	6.4%
o Georgia	GE	3.8%
o Jordan	JO	3.8%
o Kazakhstan	KZ	6.2%
o Moldova	MD	3.5%
o Russian Federation	RF	10.9%
o Serbia	RS	12.5%
o Ukraine	UA	8.2%
o Uzbekistan	UZ	4.2%

Disclaimer

As the intent of the on-line survey was to gather impressions and perceptions of individuals, the answers have to be interpreted with caution in the light of the complementary information provided in the national questionnaires.

When looking at aggregated figures (by region but also by category of staff) the data has to be interpreted bearing in mind the overall number of answers received and the profile of the respondents. As a matter of fact:

- Out of the 304 responses given by individuals working in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country (CAT1), only 12% were given by administrative and technical staff and 7% by management staff (Rectors and Deans).
- 50% or more of the answers concerning Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Egypt, Israel, Syria and Kosovo were provided by staff working in a higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union.
- The breakdown of answers per country does not reflect the size of the higher education sector in each Partner Country.
- Some countries seem to be under-represented, namely Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan, Tunisia, Israel, the occupied Palestinian territory and Kosovo. The answers concerning these countries represent less than 2% of all 550 responses while other countries such as Ukraine, Russia and Serbia are covered by more than 8% of all 550 responses.
- The same remark applies at regional level. The Maghreb is significantly underrepresented in the sample and gathered only 6% of all 550 responses, in contrast to the Western Balkans which represent 34% of all responses.

- Within one region, some countries are less represented than others. This means that regional data may be biased by the uneven distribution of answers between countries. For instance:
- Tajikistan and Turkmenistan were covered by only 3% and 5% (respectively) of the responses provided for Central Asia, whereas Kazakhstan represents 45% of the regional sample;
- Azerbaijan and Belarus were covered by respectively 5% and 10% of the responses provided for Eastern Europe whereas Ukraine represents 37% of the regional sample.

4 – National policies and frameworks in human resource management

4.1 Approaches to human resource management

The term “human resource management” has been used in this study in the broadest sense. In this report, human resource management is considered as something wider than the technical management of recruitment procedures, contracts and salaries and including also a strong developmental and strategic approach. Issues such as training schemes, incentives and rewards, evaluation and staff development support and systematic planning of future staffing needs are all part of what is considered “human resource management”.

At the same time, most of the countries investigated in the framework of this study have a slightly more restricted understanding of the concept of human resource management and concentrate often on technical aspects related to hiring and management of staff. While institutions within countries may have taken more proactive roles in developing more comprehensive strategies to human resource management, countries with national strategies aiming explicitly at the development and reinforcement of staff are very few.

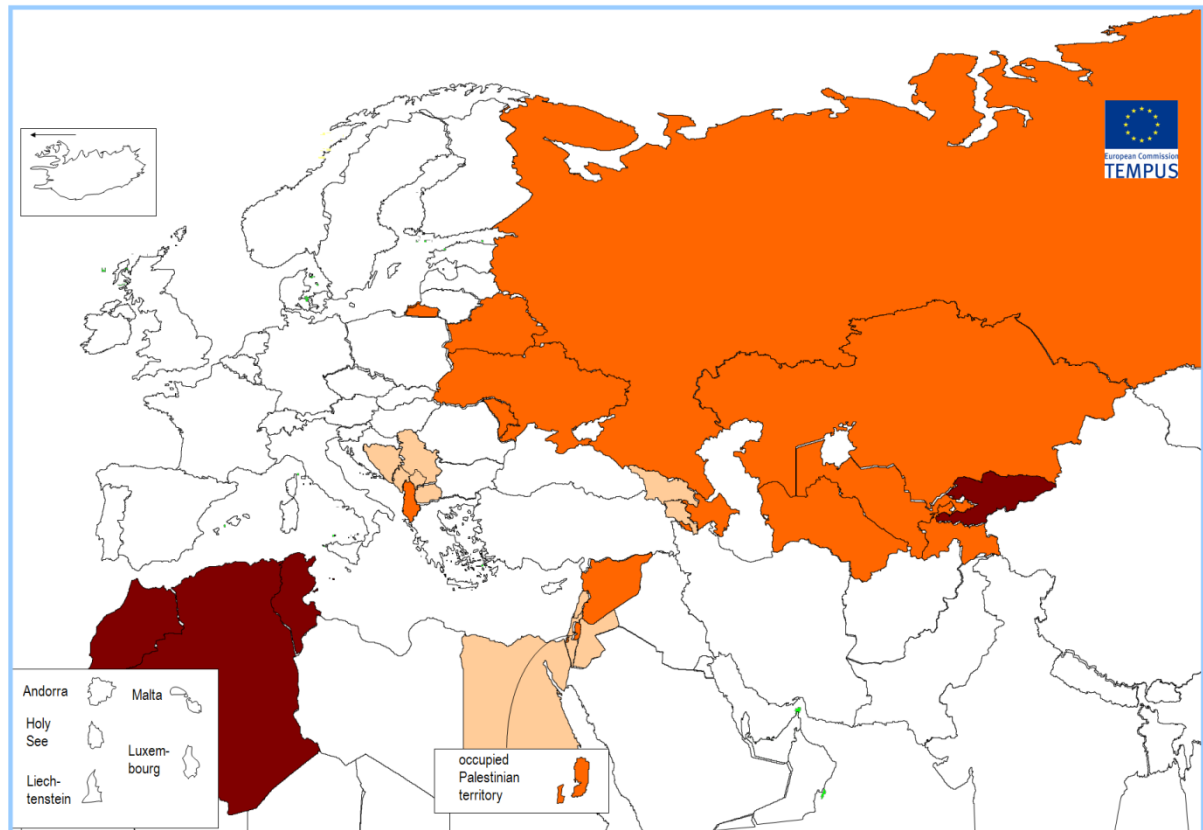
4.1.1 Sharing of responsibilities in human resource management

According to the national questionnaires, human resource management is, in most cases, considered the joint responsibility of the national authorities and public higher education institutions. However, in almost equally many cases, human resource management is considered mainly the task of the institutions. In some cases, the fact of institutions being solely responsible is a result of a lack of national strategies in human resource management, as is the case in several Western Balkan countries, partly due to the heritage of the self-management culture of former Yugoslavia. In other countries, such as Egypt and Georgia, human resource management is considered an important area of institutional autonomy and as such, not interfered with by national authorities. However, as human resource management is often understood in a rather restricted sense, the fact that in most countries, national authorities set the framework for contracts, salaries and recruitment, may have led countries to opt for ‘shared responsibility’, even in cases where human resource development is not part of the tasks of one or both levels.

In a small number of countries - mainly those where staff at higher education institutions are civil servants and employed by the state - human resource management is considered mainly or entirely the responsibility of the national authorities.

Based on the information provided in the national questionnaires, Map 1 shows clearly that in Central Asia and Eastern Europe, the responsibility is usually considered shared between the two levels, while in most Western Balkan and Middle Eastern countries, it is principally the task of the higher education institutions. In Maghreb countries, where the system of higher education is highly centralised, the main responsibility for human resource management lies logically at national level.

Map 1 – Sharing of responsibilities for Human Resource Management in the national context



Source: National questionnaires

- Primarily responsibility of the national authorities
- Shared responsibility/collaboration between institutions and national authorities
- Primarily responsibility of the education institutions

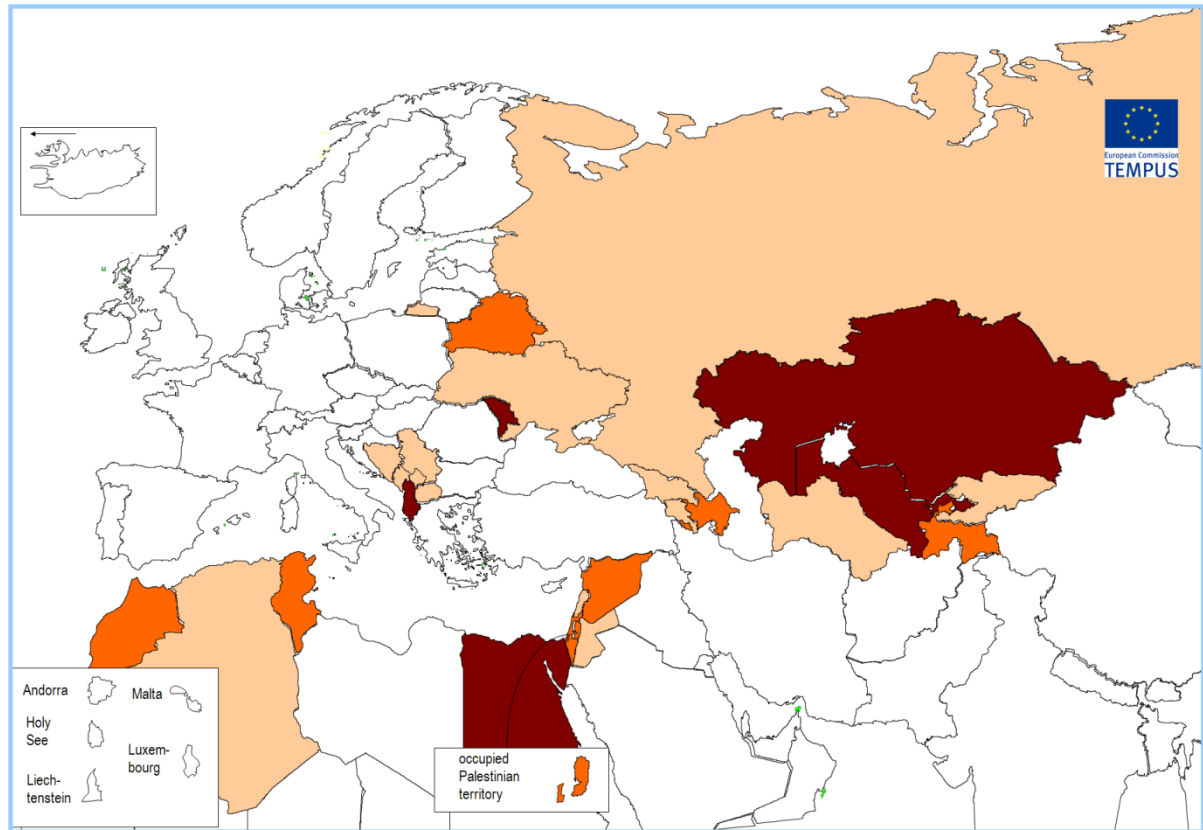
4.1.2 National strategies and schemes

While, according to the national questionnaires, the importance of human resource management is recognised in many countries and regions included in this study, very few countries have set up national level strategies that deal with staff issues (Map 2). Most countries in the Western Balkan region, as well as a number of countries across the other regions, have not provided any indication of national strategies on human resource management. In some other countries – namely Azerbaijan, the occupied Palestinian territory, Israel, Syria, Belarus, Tajikistan and Morocco – it seems that some elements related to human resource management have been integrated into overall national strategies on education. Only five countries reported on specific human resource-related strategies. These countries are Moldova, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Egypt and Albania.

Integrating human resource-related objectives into the overall national higher education strategies is a step in the right direction, as it shows that the importance of the issue has been recognised, to some degree, by the national authorities. However, in most of these cases concrete action and national level schemes supporting the realisation of the set goals and objectives are not well developed. Nevertheless, in some countries where specific strategies on human resources in public

higher education have been elaborated, some financial support and specific schemes to support the achievement of the aims have also been set up. Some examples of these can be found in this report.

Map 2 – Countries with national strategies for human resource management in public higher education



Source: National questionnaires

- Specific human resource related strategies exist
- Some human resource related elements are integrated in overall national strategies, or the country has started the first phases of strategic approaches to human resource management
- No indication of a national strategy on human resource management in higher education

National strategies are considered very important by institutional actors and they are needed to support and give direction to institutional initiatives. Furthermore, the budgets linked to the implementation of human resource development strategies may be fundamental in supporting institutional activities in this area. National level recognition of the importance of human resource management and development, backed up by concrete policies and schemes, provide institutions with a fertile environment in which to develop their own schemes and strategies.

4.2 Legal frameworks and institutional autonomy

Institutions do not operate in a vacuum, even where no national strategies on human resource management exist. Several different legal and regulatory aspects influence the way in which institutions are able to manage their own human resources. Indeed, the degree to which institutions may determine the number of posts, contracts, recruitment requirements, promotions, salaries and

the teaching load, depends on the national frameworks and consequently varies between countries and regions. Table 5 gives an overview of the issues in which institutions enjoy autonomy and in which, on the other hand, decisions are taken or highly influenced by the national authorities or legal frameworks. In many cases the two levels interact, collaborate or jointly influence the final outcome.

Legal frameworks at national level are often important to maintain minimum standards across institutions, to protect the employees and to make sure that public funds are used efficiently. At the same time, institutional autonomy in issues related to staff recruitment, promotion and implementation of financial and other incentives may be an important way to ensure the competitiveness of institutions and to motivate their leadership to develop institutional strategies and schemes to support the institutional, as well as national objectives, in terms of human resource management.

The number of posts in public higher education institutions is often determined by institutional needs on the one hand and national requirements (e.g. on student-staff ratio) and available state budget, on the other. In some cases institutions propose the number of staff they expect to need and seek then approval from the national authorities for the number of posts that can be filled. In the majority of countries, the decision regarding the number of posts is in fact influenced by both national authorities and institutions.

Decisions regarding contractual conditions and promotions are usually left to the institutions, apart from the most highly centralised systems, such as the Maghreb countries, Egypt and Syria. However, promotion criteria are somewhat more often influenced or determined by the national authorities.

In most cases, individual salaries depend on both the national and institutional level. Often the national authorities determine the basic salaries, while institutions may use part of their own budget to integrate the salaries of one part or all of their staff. In some cases, the salaries are de facto determined by the national level, as institutions do not have the financial resources necessary to implement additional financial incentives.

Table 5 – Division of responsibilities and autonomy of higher education institutions in human resource management issues

NA= national authorities, including national laws

HEI= higher education institutions

Both= joint decision making, or influences from both institutional and national level

	Number of posts in HEI			Recruitment requirements			Contractual conditions			Individual salaries			Annual student contact-hours			Promotion decisions academic staff			Promotion decision administrative staff			Promotion requirements		
	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both
Kazakhstan	x			x			x			x			x						x					x
Kyrgyzstan	x			x			x					x	x						x					x
Tajikistan			x	x			x			x			x						x					x
Turkmenistan			x			x			x										x					x
Uzbekistan			x			x	x						x						x					x
Armenia	x					x	x			x			x						x					x ⁴
Azerbaijan			x	x			x						x						x					x
Belarus			x	x			x					x									x			x
Georgia	x					x	x						x						x					x
Moldova			x	x			x			x									x					x
Ukraine			x			x ⁵	x					x	x						x					x
Russia			x			x	x						x						x					x

Source: National questionnaires

⁴ National authorities for academic staff and higher education institutions for administrative staff⁵ Higher education institutions alone for administrative staff

	Number of posts in HEI			Recruitment requirements			Contractual conditions			Individual salaries			Annual student contact-hours			Promotion decisions academic staff			Promotion decision administrative staff			Promotion requirements		
	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both
Algeria	x			x			x			x			x			x			x			x		
Morocco			x			x	x			x			x					x				x		
Tunisia	x			x			x			x			x					x				x		
Egypt			x			x	x			x			x					x				x		
Israel		x				x		x			x							x					x	
Jordan		x				x		x			x							x					x	
Lebanon		x				x		x			x							x					x ⁶	
oPt ⁷			x			x				x														x
Syria			x			x	x			x												x		
Albania	x					x		x		x														
Bosnia and Herzegovina			x			x ⁸																		
Kosovo						x																		
Montenegro		x				x		x																
Serbia																								
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia			x			x																		
																								x

⁶ National authorities for administrative staff

⁷ Occupied Palestinian territory

⁸ Recruitment requirements for academic staff are set by national authorities

⁹ Higher education institutions alone for administrative and technical staff

4.3 Regional contexts and specificities

The analysis of the national questionnaires made it possible to distinguish different regional patterns.

In **Central Asia**, important differences exist between countries within the region. While Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan have taken significant steps forward in establishing national strategies and schemes to support the development of human resources in higher education, institutions in other countries in the region receive less support in this area from the national level. In Kyrgyzstan one of the short term priorities in higher education is to improve career development opportunities for higher education staff and to improve the quality of teaching staff and career development tools. However, these plans have not yet been translated into concrete action plans and schemes at national level.

Countries in **Eastern Europe** do not have concrete national strategies on human resource management for the moment. Indeed, only Moldova has set up a comprehensive national strategy on higher education which also includes aspects of human resource development. While concrete action plans have not yet been set up, there is recognition in many countries of the region of the fact that the inadequate salaries paid to staff in public higher education weaken the sector's development. In a similar way, while brain-drain is a significant issue for the region, no systematic schemes to combat the phenomenon exist at the national level in the countries investigated. In Georgia, significant changes have taken place in the recent years to improve the recruitment and promotion mechanisms into public institutions to make them more transparent and better able to select the best candidates. However, as human resource management is seen as the sole responsibility of institutions themselves, there is no national strategy or initiatives in this area.

In **Russia**, there also appears not to be any substantial national strategy on human resources in public higher education and no national schemes on human resource management have been identified. Consequently there seems not to be any specific funding of human resource management related initiatives, such as training or reward schemes at the national level. There is a need to enhance skills and retain qualified staff in public institutions, but creating systems to achieve these aims is mainly left to the institutions. In fact, competition for well qualified individuals has led many institutions to invest their own resources in training schemes, additional financial incentive funds and mobility and research opportunities.

In the **Maghreb** countries, the higher education system is highly centralised and issues related to the recruitment, promotion, contracts and salaries of staff at public institutions, are mainly managed at the national level. As student numbers have risen rapidly, there is a need to recruit more staff across the region. While jobs in higher education are considered attractive thanks to good salary levels and the civil servant status of employees, there is a lack of availability of the right profiles that meet the requirements of the higher education system. No specific training, development, or staff management schemes have been identified. Human resource management is rather understood in relatively technical terms, as something related to recruitment and contractual procedures of civil servants.

In the **Middle East**, systems are considered relatively decentralised and institutions, autonomous in terms of human resource management. Exceptions in this respect are Syria and the occupied Palestinian territory, where human resource management is still highly centralised. The importance of human resource management is rising across the region, but changes are left to the initiative of institutions. Only Egypt has a substantial national strategy with a strong focus on re-training and up-grading of skills levels, including those of the management level staff. Most countries in the region have seen significant increases in student numbers in the past 10 years and many of them need to recruit more teaching staff, with higher qualification requirements. As salaries are not always considered attractive, in particular in comparison to salaries paid by the private institutions, or by institutions in richer neighbouring countries, retention, motivation and incentive schemes have become very important. Higher education institutions in many of

the countries of the region lament the lack of national strategies and initiatives in this area. An important exception is the occupied Palestinian territory, with a specific national scheme to attract highly qualified expatriates back from abroad, into the public higher education institutions.

In the Western **Balkan region**, higher education is highly decentralised, sometimes also at the institutional level (with highly autonomous faculties) and human resource management is considered the responsibility of institutions or – as in the case of Serbia, for example, of their sub-units. Institutions enjoy high autonomy in setting up recruitment systems, in determining the number of posts and salaries, even if in certain countries the national authorities are also involved to a certain extent. In general, there is a lack of national level support and initiatives, in terms of human resource management, with the exception of Albania, where the importance of human resource development has been taken on board also by the national level authorities and the strategic priorities are pushed forward by collaborative action from the national and institutional level. There is an increasing awareness in the country that something needs to be done in terms of staff training, better conditions of work and increasing attractiveness. However, in all other countries, initiative is left principally to the institutions. One typical feature of this region is that, as distinguished from the others, the trend is towards an overall younger staff than 10 years earlier.

5 – Academic staff – Recruitment, career management and working conditions

5.1 Introduction

The recruitment procedures and criteria, as well as contractual conditions and possibilities for staff development and career advancement, are important factors in attracting and maintaining qualified staff at public institutions. In addition, these tools are important in ensuring that the staff skills and capacities are constantly up-graded to meet the changing requirements, set on the higher education systems. Some problematic issues related to the subject of this chapter, as identified through the national questionnaires, the on-line survey and the site visit interviews concern the following:

- 1) Recruitment processes: high frequency of internal recruitment and lack of transparency of procedures used; corruption and nepotism; use of selection methods and criteria that do not support the recruitment of the best-suited candidates for the job; restrictive legal frameworks.
- 2) Career progression and training: lack of possibilities for career progression; prolonged time spent within one institution; lack or inadequacy of performance evaluations; lack of training; lack of sufficient motivation and incentives.
- 3) Working conditions: lack of research opportunities; political pressure and lack of autonomy; excessive working hours; permanent/short contracts; low salaries; the necessity to take up multiple positions.

Each of the items listed, does not present the same challenge in each region, country, or institution to the same extent. A feature that can be considered negative in one context could be considered as positive in another. For example, a permanent contract is sometimes considered as the main attraction of jobs in higher education and thus one of its main competitive advantages in attracting staff. In other contexts, this is considered negative, since staff may not be motivated to improve and develop further, when there is no risk of losing their jobs.

There are also a number of positive examples of how institutions or countries have tackled some of the problematic issues listed above. There is, for example, a general trend and some specific examples of how selection procedures are becoming more transparent and fair. In terms of career management, institutions across the regions are starting to understand the importance of staff training. Training, together with financial incentives and reward schemes, are used to motivate staff to develop their skills and capacities further. Concerning contractual conditions, salaries limit the attractiveness of jobs in public higher education. While some countries have been able to implement improved contractual conditions, inadequate salaries are still in many countries a significant issue. Longer than average holidays and good benefits packages are important ways to partially compensate for the uncompetitive salaries offered by public institutions.

5.2 Recruitment of academic staff to higher education institutions

Recruitment of staff is one of the most crucial aspects in ensuring that an institution has good quality staff with appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for the needs of the institutions. Appropriate recruitment procedures, that are transparent, fair and open, are likely to enable institutions to better select the best candidates from the available pool and the ability of institutions to set their own recruitment requirements, according to their specific needs, supports the institutional level management of human resources.

As the level of awareness of their importance rises, many innovative solutions have also been found. Some of these are described towards the end of this section. At the same time, several problems related to staff recruitment persist in many of the countries investigated. For example, the high frequency of internal recruitments; lack of transparency of recruitment procedures and criteria; persisting corruption and political or personal appointments; as well as in some cases, the rigidity of the legal frameworks, may prevent institutions from recruiting the best candidates available.

It is nevertheless interesting to note that these matters are not necessarily perceived as an issue by all the individuals concerned. For instance, 61% of the on-line survey respondents indicate that the high frequency of internal recruitment of academic staff is not considered as a problem in their country.

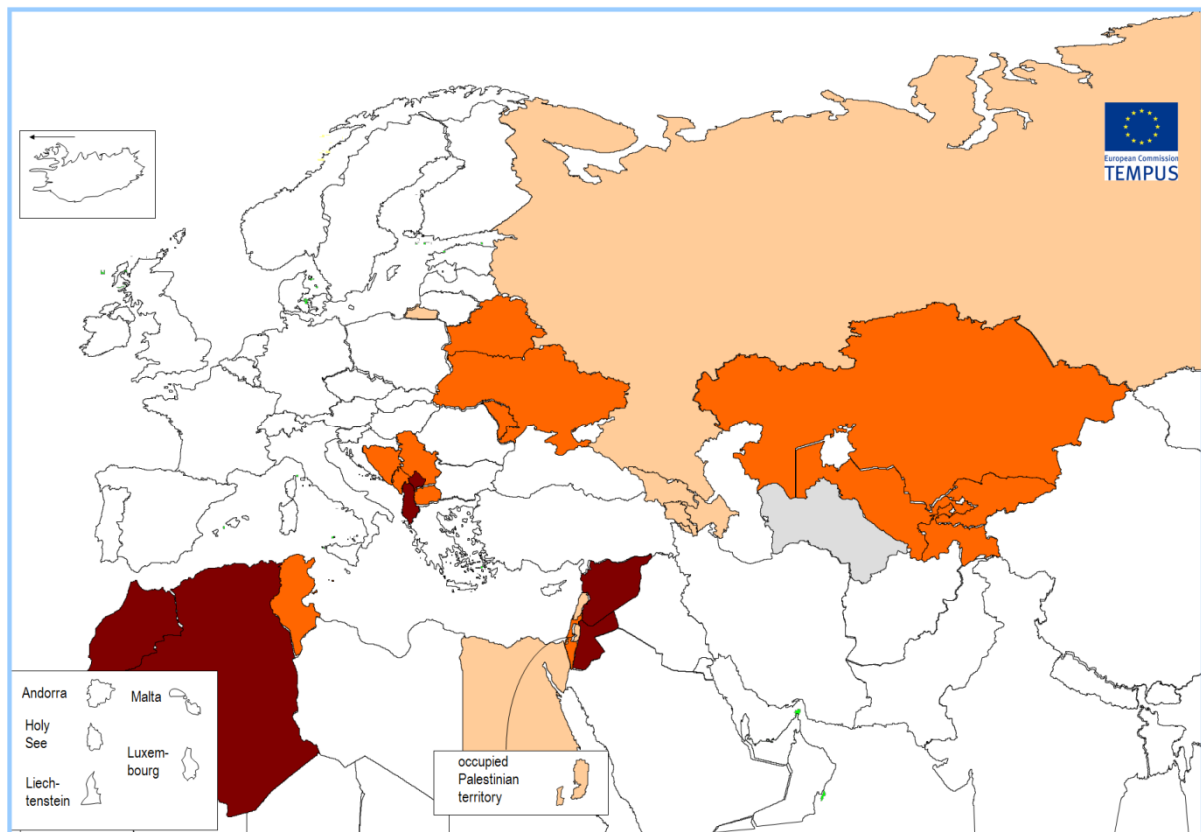
In general terms, institutions across the Tempus countries are becoming more autonomous in the recruitment of staff. In most cases, however, a formal approval and monitoring of the procedures or setting the (minimum) recruitment criteria remain tasks for the national authorities. In countries where staff is civil servants, the procedures and criteria are determined by the national authorities to a greater degree, or entirely. In all cases, national guidelines or legal frameworks need to be respected. Regardless of persisting challenges, the tendency is towards a more professionalised selection of staff, with more open and transparent selection mechanisms. These procedures support efforts to combat recruitment based on personal connections – a practice which still seems to be a problem in some of the countries investigated.

5.2.1 Student numbers and need for staff

The developments in student numbers have had an impact on the need and quantity of staff for higher education institutions. Map 3 shows the trends in student numbers in the countries investigated.

According to the national questionnaires, most countries in the Western Balkans, Middle East and the Maghreb have witnessed important increases in student numbers and have reported a need to increase the total number of staff in higher education, in the next five years. Some of these countries already started to increase staffing levels some years ago. In some countries, rather than numbers, the problem concerns the quality of candidates, the constant development of already recruited staff and the development of procedures that enable the best-suited candidates to be selected.

Many Central Asian and Eastern European countries need to maintain current levels or reduce staffing levels, due to negative demographic developments. Indeed, Uzbekistan and Georgia have already reduced staffing significantly and Armenia, Moldova, Ukraine and Kyrgyzstan need to do so in the coming five years. An exception in the region is Turkmenistan, which is facing an increase in the demand for study places and thus needs to increase the numbers of staff in public institutions. Also Russian institutions report on the need to reduce staff. This is however not so much due to changes in student numbers, as reforms in teaching style.

Map 3 - Evolution of student numbers between 2000 and 2010

Source: National questionnaires

- Increase of over 100%
- Increase of between 30 and 100%:
- Increase of up to 30% between 2000 and 2010
- No comparable data provided

5.2.2 Recruitment procedures

The number of posts available at higher education institutions is often related to financial possibilities on the one hand and national level or accreditation requirements concerning the staff-student ratio on the other. In most cases the available state budget has a significant impact on the institutions' staff planning. The minimum number of staff at an institution, when determined by the national authorities, is usually based on the number of students and has to correspond to a nationally approved ratio. This is the case for most of Central Asian and Eastern European countries. In the Middle Eastern countries, institutions express their staff needs to the Ministry, which approves the figures in consideration of the available budget. In the Western Balkans, institutions may decide themselves on the numbers of staff, but in practice, the available state budget determines, to a high degree, the number of staff that the institutions are actually able to employ. In many countries, institutions may decide to employ other staff at their own expense, e.g. with funds deriving from tuition fees or services. However, this is not always an option in practice, due to insufficient additional resources.

Three main models of recruitment procedures for academic staff in public higher education emerge from the national questionnaires:

- 1) open selection or competition organised by the institutions
- 2) internal selection within the institutions
- 3) open selection of competition organised by the national authorities

The first is the most common selection method. This model aims at guaranteeing transparency and fair treatment of all candidates, leaving institutions the autonomy to decide on (additional) recruitment criteria, processes to be used and the individuals and entities to be involved in the selection processes. This is indeed the most wide-spread model, though officially open procedures are not always actually open in practice. The second option is wide-spread, especially for some of the positions available at higher education institutions. Internal recruitment may create problems of fairness and transparency, as well as quality, as an internal recruitment or direct appointment may not always be the best way to identify the most qualified candidates for the available position. However, for several positions, recruitment is organised internally in order to offer staff at lower positions, a privileged possibility to advance in their careers. Such internal recruitment may also be used as retention measures for well qualified staff. The third model – an open competition organised at the national level - is applied only in a limited number of countries.

Interestingly, only in very few countries (for example in Albania) have there been changes in the recruitment procedures in the past ten years. The situation can mainly be considered stable. However, as will be described in section 5.2.2, important changes have often taken place in respect to the requirements for recruitment into different positions, rather than in the procedures applied.

- 1) open procedures within institutions

In all Eastern European countries and in Russia the recruitment of academic staff into public higher education institutions follows an open competition after a public announcement of available positions.

The selection processes are also open in most Western Balkan countries, such as Serbia, Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina. In spite of the recent efforts to introduce more transparent and open selection procedures, some staff interviewed or surveyed reported that while the procedures may seem perfect on paper, they are not always implemented perfectly in practice. Indeed, personal connections sometimes continue to play an important role in appointments. For example in Montenegro, the selection of senior academics is officially external and open, but in practice the appointments take place through an internal faculty-led selection. The consequent high frequency of internal recruitments is considered a significant problem for the development of higher education.

In Jordan and the occupied Palestinian territory, recruitment takes place through an open public competition. In Lebanon, where senior academics are most typically recruited internally on the decision of the institution, junior academics are also usually recruited through an open competition. However, as in some other regions, criteria for selection may be clear and objective, but the assignment of posts does not always follow an objective classification of candidates.

In Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, selection procedures of academic staff involve other teachers of the institution and the favourite candidate is selected through a vote. In Turkmenistan and Kyrgyzstan, a wide range of actors at the institutional level are also involved in selection procedures.

2) Internal selection or appointment without public announcement of positions

Internal recruitment is less frequent for academic positions than for administrative positions, but may persist – even in countries with officially open and transparent selection procedures. In some Middle Eastern countries, institutions recruit at least part of their staff through internal means and in Egypt, for example, the recruitment to senior academic posts is rather a question of promotion or a change of title, than of appointment. Consequently, posts are only rarely advertised publicly. In a similar manner, junior academic posts are often filled by nominating some of the best students of the institution. In Syria, internal promotions or appointments are also the main method of ‘recruitment’, though positions may also be publicly announced, when needed.

3) open selection by national authorities

The recruitment of staff to higher education institutions in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia is carried out entirely by the national authorities through an open competition. The institutions play no role in the recruitment processes.

5.2.3 Recruitment requirements

Recruitment of academic staff usually follows nationally set minimum qualification requirements, while additional criteria may be set by the institutions in countries where recruitment is organised, at the institutional level. Criteria used by institutions are often set in the institutions’ statutes or regulations, in an attempt to increase transparency of recruitment procedures. In Algeria, Azerbaijan, Moldova and Belarus, the national authorities set the recruitment requirements entirely. At the other end of the spectrum, in Jordan and Israel, institutions decide on recruitment criteria independently.

In terms of qualifications levels, in most cases a Master degree is required for junior teaching positions and increasingly, a PhD for senior academic posts. Additional recruitment requirements may include international publications, other international activities, teaching experience and in some cases voluntary service to the university community¹⁰. The requirements are particularly detailed and developed in some Middle Eastern countries, namely in Israel, Jordan and to a certain extent, Egypt.

While overall recruitment requirements seem to have become more stringent in the past ten years, great variations can be observed depending on the overall attractiveness of the sector, the need to recruit more staff and the available financial resources. Also at the regional level, larger and richer countries tend to have the highest recruitment requirements.

However, while there is an attempt to up-grade the qualifications level of staff through higher recruitment requirements, it is not always possible to fill posts with candidates meeting the formal requirements. In Kyrgyzstan, for example, a Master level degree is needed to become a lecturer and a PhD for professors. However, in practice, staff with lower qualifications is often recruited and as a result, less than 40% of all teaching staff have a degree at the required level. In the occupied Palestinian territory and some institutions in the Western Balkans, positions may remain unfilled if appropriate candidates cannot be found. The teaching load is covered by staff in post or staff beyond retirement age still teaching at the institution.

A PhD is becoming a standard requirement for all or at least senior academic positions in many countries. However, at the moment, there are still great variations in the proportion of PhD holders among senior

¹⁰ Voluntary services to the university community may include e.g. responsibility for collective activities such as coordination of working groups, animation of teams, etc.

academic staff, both between and within regions. On average, the proportion of senior staff with a PhD is the highest in the Middle Eastern and Maghreb countries, though in both Middle East and Maghreb some variations can be observed.

According to data submitted in the national questionnaires, in Jordan, Egypt and Syria all teaching staff – apart from teaching assistants or other junior teaching staff - have a PhD. In Israel, the figure stands at 95% and in Lebanon, at around 85%. An exception is the occupied Palestinian territory, where only 65% of senior academics hold a PhD. However, as there are very few PhDs produced in the country each year, most recruited PhD holders have been trained abroad. Across the region, the share of PhDs has remained relatively unchanged since 2000. In Russia, a PhD is now required for all academic posts and 100% of senior academics have a PhD, which represents an increase since 2000.

In Algeria and Tunisia, 100% of senior academics have a PhD. For Algeria, this represents an increase, compared to 80% of PhD holders in 2000. In Morocco currently only about 40% of teaching staff have a PhD, but as a PhD is now required for academic staff at all levels, the figure is set to increase in the coming years. Compared to the rest of the Eastern European region, only Ukraine and Georgia have 100% PhD attainment among senior academic staff.

The countries of the Western Balkans have high qualifications levels and a large number of PhD holders among academic staff. The number of PhD holders is 100% in Serbia (in universities but not yet in colleges), Montenegro and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and nearly 100% in Bosnia and Herzegovina (professors in the field of arts are excluded from this requirement). In Albania, around 60% of senior staff currently has a PhD, but the figure is rising.

The lowest proportion of PhD holders can be found in Eastern Europe (with the exception of Ukraine and Georgia) and Central Asia. In Eastern Europe, the percentage varies between 43% in Belarus and 60% in Azerbaijan. In Central Asia, Tajikistan and Turkmenistan witness lowering percentages of PhD holders in their academic staff, while the figures are relatively stable in Uzbekistan and stand at around 42%. In Kyrgyzstan, while a PhD is required for senior academic positions, in practice staff with lower qualifications is recruited.

Overall there seems to be a trend towards a larger and better qualified pool of candidates for jobs in higher education than before. This depends however, on the subject area, with higher education institutions struggling to compete with private businesses in the recruitment of engineering and technology professionals, for example. In addition, the older universities, usually situated in the capital cities, are better able to attract high quality candidates, than institutions in more remote areas.

5.3 Career management: evaluation, training and motivation

Some of the main problems related to the career management of academic staff at higher education institutions relate often to the static nature of the job (little mobility between positions and institutions); lack of training possibilities, as opposed to an awareness of the importance of training; insufficient evaluation schemes and consequent lack of incentives and schemes to motivate staff to improve their skill levels and to develop further.

Some examples of good practice are available and cover issues as varied as an increased awareness of the importance of continuous training and new kinds of skills for academic staff (from mere subject specific expertise, to the use of IT, teaching skills and management of international projects, for example) to highly developed evaluation and reward systems.

Three different areas related to career management will be considered below: regular staff evaluations, training schemes and how these two and other criteria and procedures are used for promotions.

5.3.1 Evaluating academic staff: students and peers

At many institutions, academic staff is evaluated at more or less regular intervals. According to the on-line survey, it seems to be the norm, as 72% of respondents declared that their institution carries out periodic performance evaluations. In spite of a limited number of answers, it seems that the Maghreb countries are an exception, with the majority of respondents declaring that there are no such evaluations carried out in their institutions. Moreover, it is interesting to note that ministries and government bodies play only a marginal role in the evaluation process, in comparison with actors within the institutions (heads of department, Deans and Rectors).

Performance evaluations typically look at the achievements of members of staff but the types of activities that are taken into consideration vary between institutions and countries. These may include, for example, the number of publications, student assessments of teaching performance or peer evaluation of research performance.

According to the national questionnaires, performance evaluations of academic staff tend to be more widespread and more frequent than evaluations of administrative and technical staff. The frequency of evaluations is often linked to the length of the contract and is also used for the purposes of renewal decisions. However, also in the case of staff with permanent contracts, like in Algeria or in Egypt, evaluations are carried out at regular intervals. The evaluation interval varies from country to country, but is rarely longer than five years. According to the on-line survey, evaluations are carried out on a yearly basis for 66% of the respondents.

In addition to contract renewal decisions, evaluations are used also for promotions, financial rewards, identification of training needs or transfers to other positions (as in Azerbaijan). Ideally, evaluations should provide staff with positive and constructive ideas on how they could improve in their job. Most countries use student questionnaires in the evaluation of teaching staff (more than 80% of the on-line respondents consider that student feedback / evaluations are taken into account) and in some cases, this is essentially the only method of evaluation available. However, self-evaluations (Georgia), peer evaluations (Russia) and other achievements, such as international publications, research grants or participation in international projects, may also be considered in the evaluation processes.

While evaluations are becoming common practice, the systems are not very comprehensive and tend to concentrate on formal criteria such as e.g. the number of publications. In Armenia, for example, teaching staff is subject to regular student feedback, but it only counts for 1% of the totality of the award criteria. In several countries, full professors are exempt from regular evaluations, as professorship often corresponds to a permanent contract. However, the fact that professors are no longer subject to regular evaluations is often considered a significant problem to ensure a continuous drive for good quality in teaching and research. Indeed, some interviewees spoke about falling levels of motivation after reaching full professorship. However, in Morocco, some institutions have taken initiatives towards a system which facilitates evaluations at all levels.

University of Tanger, Morocco – Experimenting with job descriptions for evaluations

The University of Tanger has engaged in the development of “fiches de poste individuelle”, i.e. individual job descriptions which include the mission of the person, his or her place in the functional organisational chart, as well as the individual’s main (regular) and secondary (ad hoc) duties. This document is drafted by the job holder, checked and discussed with the hierarchy, and approved by the President of the institution. It can be revised and it is also used on an experimental basis for the performance evaluations, among volunteers. However, there is strong resistance by staff and the trade unions to regular evaluations in Morocco, as these are seen as tools for blame and punishment, rather than positive development. The success of the experimental programmes may have a positive impact on the development of evaluation schemes in the future.

5.3.2 Training

General features

Training schemes are as varied as the countries and institutions included in this study but it seems that staff training is becoming more and more common. Indeed, according to the on-line survey, a majority of respondents (62%) indicate that their institution offers training opportunities for academic staff.

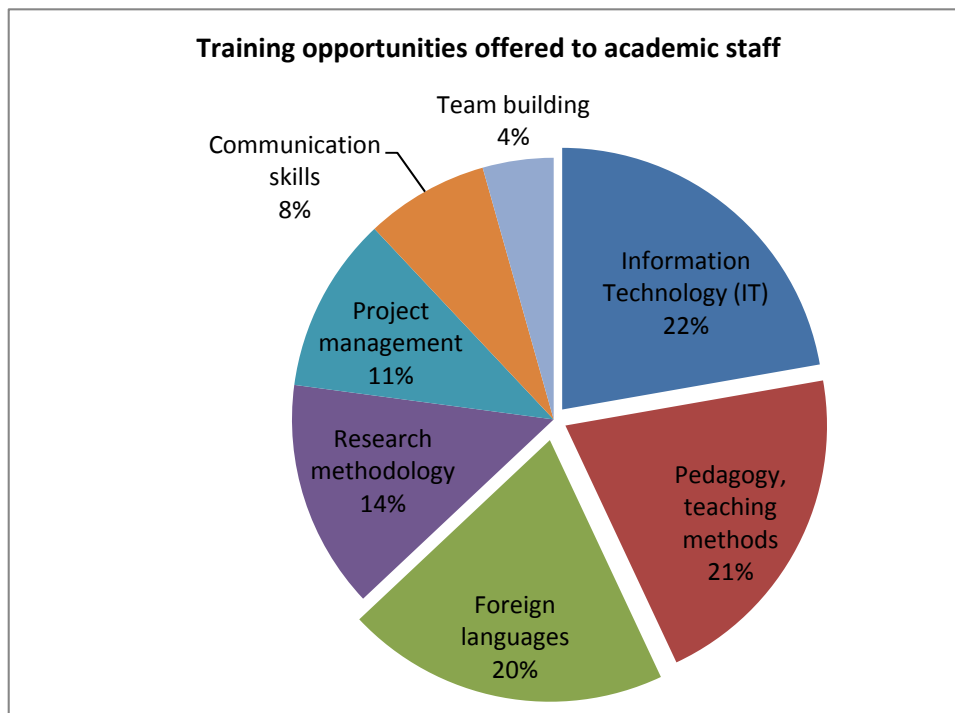
According to the national questionnaires, models employed vary from nationally organised obligatory schemes, to voluntary participation in institutionally organised courses. European projects and programmes are also considered in some countries as the main staff development and training tools. Training organised by national authorities or institutions is often free of charge to the relevant staff categories. This study has not looked into the availability of commercial training for individual staff members by external training providers.

The need for new skills, such as use of IT, pedagogy and teaching methods, English and other foreign languages and project management skills, has led most countries to seriously think about the training needs of their staff and to invest in new systems and incentives for their effective implementation. In addition to IT and language skills, teaching and project management skills are gaining ground as training subjects and some training is also made available on new legal frameworks and procedures at the national level.

These trends are confirmed in the on-line survey. Indeed, according to the respondents, the most commonly offered types of training are (Chart 1):

- Information Technology (except in Russia, where pedagogy and teaching methods appear as the most commonly proposed training);
- Foreign languages (notably in Eastern Europe, Russia and the Western Balkans);
- Pedagogy and teaching methods (Central Asia, the Middle East and Russia);
- Research methodology (in particular in the Maghreb).

Chart 1 – Training opportunities offered to academic staff as a percentage of the total number of replies



Source: On-line survey (question B3a. What type of training opportunities does your institution offer for academic staff?)

In the national questionnaires, limited reference is made to academic training and acquisition of academic competencies. A possible way to interpret this fact is that further academic training and skills acquisition is considered an integral part of the academic profession and an individual duty of all academics, fulfilled naturally through research activity and exchanges with peers. While there may indeed, not be a problem with the subject-specific skills of academic staff, care should be taken, not to disregard this important aspect of academic staff development at the institutional and national level, in particular in countries where possibilities for research activities are limited.

While the importance of continuous staff training is increasingly being accepted, it is also met with resistance by academic staff members, who do not always see the need for or benefits of training – especially in areas not directly related to their subject area (project management, academic writing, teaching methods and so on). There is consequently a clear need to demonstrate the benefits of training to staff. Financial incentives, rewards and consideration of training as a criterion for promotions may have a positive short term impact on training attendance. However, in the longer term it is necessary to achieve a “training culture”, where such initiatives are not seen as a “necessary nuisance”, but as a fundamentally positive opportunity for self development. In many cases, training organised with goodwill, but without a clear understanding of the actual needs, has led to staff being frustrated and increased the negative response to training, as something only wasting people’s time, rather than supporting their development. If on the other hand, training takes into account the current skill levels and development needs of all staff through a personalised approach, staff is more likely to see the relevance of training to their actual positions as academics and lead to a wider acceptance, appreciation and impact of the training programmes.

Central Asia– systematic national schemes

In **Central Asia**, systematic mandatory training schemes are common practice and have existed for several decades. This is reflected in the on-line survey, where 82% of the respondents in the region declared that their institution offered training opportunities for academic staff. However, the training schemes may not always be adapted to the actual needs of the institutions in relation to the requirements of the modernisation agendas.

Training is, in many cases, organised by national-level entities, such as institutes for professional training (Tajikistan), institutions for qualifications up-grading (Uzbekistan) or entities in charge of the training of civil servants of the country. Training, which is often obligatory, is used for career promotion and advancement. Training in these countries is mostly financed through the state budget. Training often takes place at intervals, corresponding to the duration of the contractual period, i.e. all staff is expected to take up training once during their contract period. In Kazakhstan and Russia, such training has to be attended at least once in a five-year period, in Uzbekistan every three years. In Kyrgyzstan, no substantial national training schemes are available and individuals rely, depending on their own interest and initiative, mainly on European programmes and international or foreign organisations for training. Some institutions have taken initiatives to fill the training gap, as can be seen in the example from Kyrgyzstan below.

Uzbekistan - state training schemes

The “State requirements for retraining and professional development of pedagogical staff” were adopted by the government in February 2006. The resolution has led to re-training being offered by 28 institutions for qualifications upgrading throughout the country. Every year, over 6 000 teachers are retrained through this scheme. Training is organised by the Ministry and is compulsory for all full-time academic staff, at least once every three years. To create a “healthy competitive environment” within teams and to encourage staff to continuously develop their skills, there is an on-going effort to improve the re-training system and to organise differentiated advanced training for every teaching staff member, taking into account his or her professional level and skills. In 2011, a study was carried out analysing the current system of re-training, with the objective of further developing the system.

Secondly, the “Istedod” Foundation of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan offers programmes to support young teachers and researchers in receiving education and advanced training in universities abroad. The same foundation also organises training seminars for vice-rectors and deans, with particular emphasis on developing their leadership, administration and professional skills.

Kyrgyzstan – institutional schemes filling the gap

In Kyrgyzstan, the main opportunities for training of academic staff are provided by international mobility and participation in training, organised through European programmes, such as Tempus. In addition, some foreign organisations, such as the German DAAD, organise training. It is usually up to the individual staff members to look for training opportunities and to engage in different schemes and programmes available.

However, some institutions have also set up their own training schemes. The Kyrgyz State University of Construction, Transportation and Architecture (KSUCTA) has established a Quality Improvement Center, which offers training for the improvement of qualifications of teaching staff. It is obligatory for all teaching staff to pass a course organised by the center. The main training subject is determined by the individual’s professional profile. For example, staff involved in distance education need to pass a programme on distance education and IT, while some others are trained on interactive teaching methods. Language training is also offered at the center by an Australian volunteer. Younger staff demonstrates interest in the programmes and are pleased by the opportunity to develop their skills. It is more difficult to motivate and attract the interest of the older generation of staff.

Middle East and Russia –institutional approaches to staff training

In several **Middle Eastern** countries, staff training has also gained significant focus in the past 20 years and according to the on-line survey, 61% of the respondents declared that their institution offered training opportunities for academic staff. However, in this region, training is mostly organised by the institutions, not national level entities and as such tends also to vary from institution to institution (e.g. in Israel great variations between institutions may be observed). In most Middle Eastern countries, including for example Jordan, Syria and Egypt, training is compulsory for all junior academics (while more experienced staff or full professors may be exempt altogether). In all these countries, training is an obligatory element for staff promotions. In Lebanon, some optional training is organised by donors for academic staff from time to time. The main subjects covered in the training concern teaching skills, IT, languages, curriculum development and in some rare cases, entrepreneurial skills (the occupied Palestinian territory). In **Russia**, while national schemes and support exists for training, the actual implementation of training is often decentralised to the institutions. This was confirmed by the on-line survey, where 93% of the respondents stated that their institution offered training opportunities for academic staff. European projects are also seen as an important training opportunity for staff.

Russia – national schemes complemented by institutional support

A part of the universities' state budget is earmarked for up-skilling, but many additional training schemes are paid for from the universities' own budgets. For example, many teachers get a chance to go abroad, sent by their university (especially if it is a large and "modern" university) to be trained. Institutions are ready to invest in such training, to respond to the challenges posed by national modernisation objectives. Each university can decide how many teachers to send and where, but in order to get financial support from the State budget, the scheme needs to be part of a strategy and the funds need to be won competitively through a tender procedure. In Russia, management is also involved in continuous training and for example, in one university, all vice-rectors attend short training several times a year.

Jordan – meeting institutional needs through training

The University of Jordan has a vision to become a leading research university in Jordan. To achieve this objective, the university has put together a strategic plan, which focuses on capacity building in research and training of staff, with the relevant skills. There is a strong belief at the institutional level, that all staff on campus need to be trained. A Center for Human Resource Development and Training has been set up with the task of creating programmes on writing grant applications and research papers and other issues related to academic research. One of the main problems however, is that it is difficult to attract newly appointed academics to attend training and that academics are generally not very open to the idea of being trained.

Other universities in Jordan are also currently launching similar initiatives.

Eastern Europe and Western Balkans – from European projects to institutional awareness

In the **Western Balkans** and **Eastern Europe**, there is limited systematic training for academic staff and where training is made available, it is the responsibility of the institutions, with earmarked funds from the state budget. This is clearly confirmed by the Western Balkans in the on-line survey, as 54% of the respondents from the region declared that their institution did not offer training opportunities. Where

some training is made available by the institutions, it often concentrates on the improvement of language and IT skills. In these regions, international projects and participation in European programmes are considered an important tool for staff development and often, the only effective development tool available. This is particularly mentioned as an important element by Moldova and Armenia. In Russia, European projects are also seen as an important training opportunity for academic staff.

In Eastern Europe, an exception is presented by Ukraine, where, since 1999, all academic staff must take part in training every five years. In Belarus, some training is available for all staff on IT and professional skills. A more typical example is provided by Armenia where, since 2005, a few larger institutions organise training for tenured professors every three years, unless the person has participated in international seminars and conferences, which is considered as training. Interesting differences can be noted with some Middle Eastern countries for example, where tenured professors are not obliged to take part in training.

In the Western Balkans, there is also little systematic training available for academic staff at national level and as a consequence, training initiatives are left to the discretion of the individual institutions. However, in some countries, like Bosnia and Herzegovina, institutions have a duty to adopt a professional development policy for their teaching staff and to allocate resources for professional and scientific development and progress. In Kosovo, one institution has, on a voluntary basis, dedicated a part of its own budget, to fund 4-month stays for staff development, in European institutions. Twenty academic staff members have, so far, benefitted from the scheme. In Albania, several institutions organise training programmes for academic staff in foreign languages, use of IT in teaching and academic writing skills. Trainings are usually compulsory for all staff members and used as a criterion for promotions. This shows that while the importance of training for higher education staff may not have been fully understood at the national level in the Balkan region (or this understanding has not led to the creation of appropriate training schemes or allocation of funding by the national authorities) some institutions recognise the centrality of human resources for institutional development and attractiveness and are ready to invest in training from their own funds.

Maghreb – lack of staff training programmes

In Maghreb, according to the national questionnaires, it seems that no actual training programmes are available for academic staff, though some possibilities for internships or placements abroad exist in Morocco. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that this perception is not necessarily shared by the limited number of respondents to the on-line questionnaire. Indeed, many of them declared that their institution did offer training opportunities for academic staff.

Serbia – relying on international projects for staff development

Through the site visit interviews, it became clear that staff training is mainly associated with training received in the framework of international projects. Most interviewees seemed to consider that it was the role of these programmes and projects to offer professional training. Indeed, the idea that the national authorities or institutions would need to take responsibility for training is not acknowledged in the country. The lack of funds is the main explanation given for the lack of training organised at the national or institutional level.

Ukraine - Institutional initiatives

By way of an example, the Borys Grinchenko Kyiv University (a municipal institution) has developed a structured approach to staff training, included in the responsibilities of the “personnel department”. The department organises internships for staff in Ukraine or abroad, as well as training in the field of ICT, pedagogy, communication, assessment of educational processes and English language, in collaboration with the British Council. In order to motivate its staff to attend training, the institution has decided to make IT training compulsory, by adding staff attendance to the regular staff evaluation criteria. The National Technical University of Ukraine “Kyiv Polytechnic Institute” also offers free training to its staff at its Post Doctoral Institute in foreign languages, IT and higher education management. In most cases, regional universities have to send their staff to Kiev for training, as no schemes are available locally.

Armenia – compulsory training measured by credits

Training of academic staff has been made compulsory by law in Armenia. E.g. the Yerevan State University has developed a programme which includes training on the different disciplines, languages, IT as well as pedagogical and psychological skills. Academic staff members get 30 credits per lecture or conference which they attend in Armenia or abroad and they have to get 30 credits every five-year period. For the moment there is no data available on the extent to which academic staff attains the required credits in the set timeframe.

5.3.3 Promotions and motivation

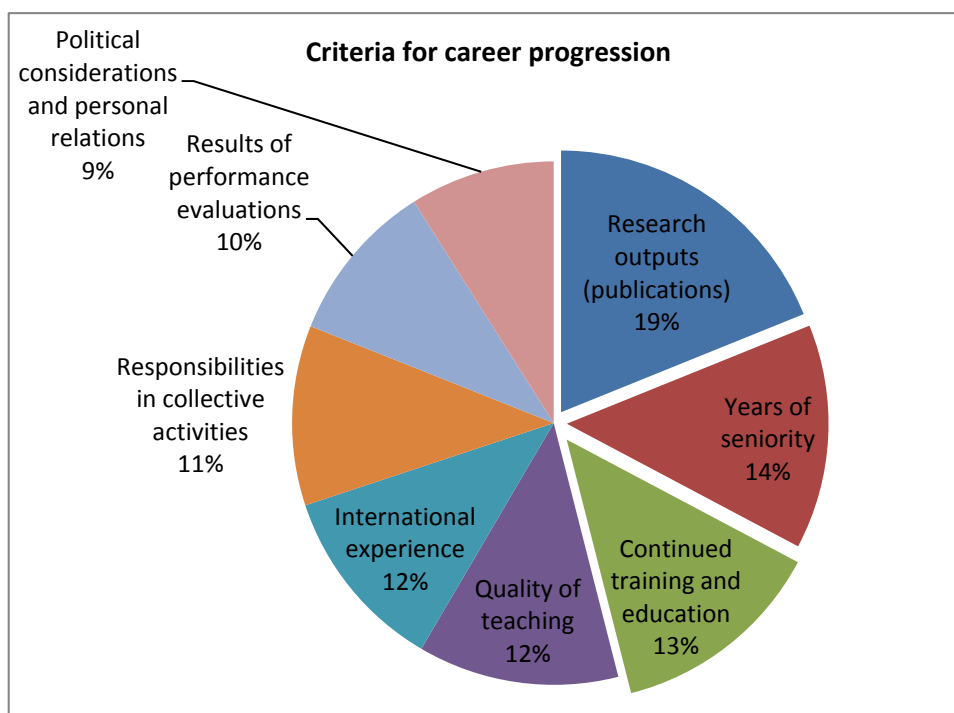
In most Central Asian countries as well as in Russia, the Western Balkans and most Middle Eastern countries, institutions are independent in deciding on the promotion of staff. The exception is presented by countries which carry out recruitment through public open calls, such as Georgia, where promotions also take place only through open competitions.

In Maghreb, the national authorities decide on promotions entirely, while in Syria and the occupied Palestinian territory, national authorities collaborate with institutions on promotion decisions and setting promotion criteria. In most countries, minimum criteria, both for recruitment and promotion are attached to certain positions, e.g. professors and institutions may not promote a person who does not fulfil the national basic criteria for the position.

On what basis are people promoted?

While years of service or performance and publications may be used as a basis for promotions, evaluations and training are also used for promotion purposes in several cases.

The results of the on-line survey (Chart 2) suggest that career progression of academic staff is mostly based on research outputs (except in Central Asia). Continued training and education appears to be an important criterion for only two regions (Central Asia and Eastern Europe). Other criteria such as the quality of teaching or responsibilities in collective activities are mentioned as important criteria, only in one region each, respectively Central Asia and the Maghreb. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that years of seniority are mentioned as one of the main criteria on which career progression is based in the Middle East, Russia and the Western Balkans.

Chart 2 – Criteria for career progression of academic staff

Source: On-line survey, question B1: "To what extent is the career progression (promotion from one category to the next) of academic staff in your institution based on the following criteria"? The percentages represent the breakdown of grades 4 (important) and 5 (very important).

In the Maghreb and Eastern European countries, mainly formal criteria, such as years of services, are taken into account. As the system of staff training is not developed in these countries, it is understandable that attendance to training is not part of the promotion criteria. In some countries with a system of open competitions, promotion only takes place through participation in competitions. An example of this is provided by Georgia. In several Middle Eastern and Western Balkan countries, as well as in Russia, promotions may also take into account years of service, but performance and training (with the exception of Russia and some Western Balkan countries), are important factors in promotion decisions. The fact that continuous training is a promotion requirement motivates staff to take part in training, made available at the institutional level. In addition, in Jordan, for example, a very complex set of factors is considered for staff promotions and also include service to the wider community and participation in supplementary activities.

While in most countries, the promotion requirements are set by the institutions, in some cases, certain basic requirements and rules need to be followed – especially in cases where staff is civil servants.

Armenia – student feedback for career progression

In most universities in Armenia, student feedback is taken into account when decisions are made about career progression and salary increases of academic staff. At Yerevan State University, students provide feedback on teaching staff each semester and graduates are asked to evaluate their whole educational programme.

Motivation

All countries face the challenge to find ways to incentivise and motivate their academic staff to improve skills and performance. Performance evaluations, short term contracts and availability of mandatory training are all ways to ensure consistently good quality and relevance of skills to the changing requirements. Some countries have, in addition, implemented different reward schemes, competitions and prizes to motivate excellence and innovation.

Kazakhstan – “Best teachers of the year”

In Kazakhstan, there are a number of monetary incentives implemented, both by the national authorities, as well as by the higher education institutions from their own funds. The State award of “Best teacher of the year” is delivered every year on a competitive basis to a number of teachers in different subject areas, who have excelled in their work. This scheme was established in 2005 in order to encourage and support academic staff in their professional growth, further development of science-pedagogic qualifications and conduct of science studies, including training abroad. The competition is open to all members of the teaching staff and the award consists of an honorary title, as well as a financial reward.

Russia – motivating staff through opportunities, benefits and rewards

At some institutions in Russia, young qualified academics are given structured support to participate in experimental projects and publications, in order to make the jobs more attractive to them. At some institutions, each employee has bi-annual objectives related to the different aspects of his or her work and monetary awards are linked to reaching these objectives. Indeed, according to interviewees, staff are motivated to improve their skills in certain areas such as IT, because of financial rewards to those who can create e-learning materials and because if skills are not sufficient, contracts will not be renewed after the five year period. In addition, some institutions have implemented good social benefits, such as housing support, which are an important attraction and retention measure.

Albania – financial incentives to young academics

To motivate young qualified academics to stay and wait for a professorship to become available at a department, institutions may decide to give young academics an extra financial incentive in the form of 50% of a professor’s salary, in addition to their own salary (e.g. as a lecturer). It is considered important to invest in retaining young staff, in order to ensure a provision for the near future, when a large number of highly trained academics will retire. If a laboratory, for example, remains without qualified professors for three years, it has to be closed. This makes it very important to avoid gaps in staffing levels.

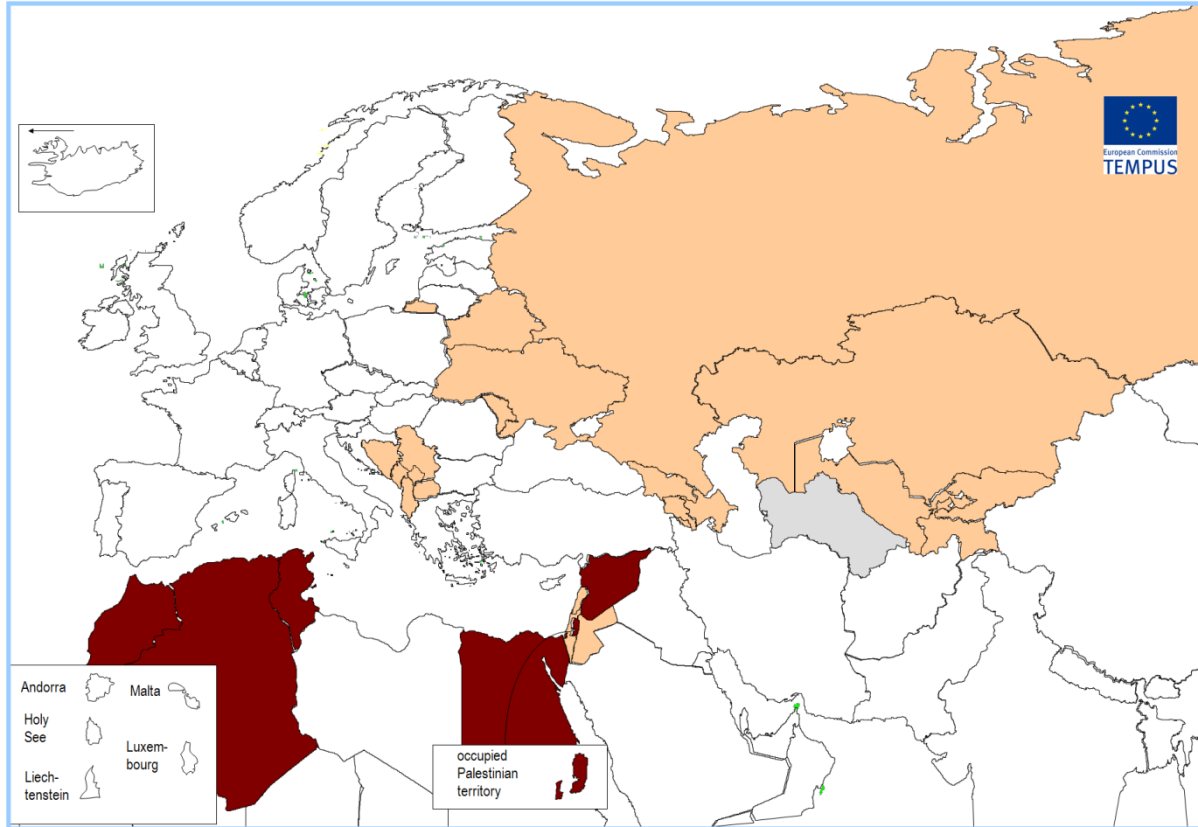
5.4 Working conditions

5.4.1 Contractual conditions for academic staff

Map 4 below demonstrates the range of different contractual practices in the countries included in this study. The categories differentiate between permanent contracts and contracts of temporary or definite duration. It also distinguishes contracts by the formal employer i.e. whether staff working at public higher

education institutions is employed by the State or directly by the institution or one of its sub-units. The Map describes the most typical situation in each of the countries. It draws on data presented in a table in Annex 4.1.

Map 4 – Contracts and formal employer of academic staff at public higher education institutions



Source: National questionnaires

- Permanent contract issued by the national authorities
- Determined duration contract by institution/sub-units of institutions¹¹
- No data available

Permanent employment by national authorities

In a minority of countries, namely in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, occupied Palestinian territory, Tunisia and Syria, academic staff is employed directly by the national authorities. Employment contracts are permanent, the selection is usually carried out at the national level and staff is considered as 'civil servants' (however, in Algeria, the call for recruitment is published at national level but the selection is carried out by the institution). Civil servant status is considered attractive for the employees because of the related benefits and job stability. Often the status of civil servants is also attached to a higher social status and prestige. However, even in several countries where staff at higher education institutions do not have civil servant status, i.e. are not directly employed by the State on permanent contracts, the jobs are part of the public sector and thus attract many of the same benefits as those given to civil servants. An exception to

¹¹ At one institution in Israel institutional contracts for academic staff are permanent. In Serbia, Montenegro, Jordan and Bosnia and Herzegovina senior academics/full professors may have permanent contracts.

the typical civil servant status is provided by the occupied Palestinian territory, where academic staff may be also employed directly by the institutions on short-term contracts. In Lebanon about 27% of academic staff is employed directly by the national authorities. In Morocco, there was a recent attempt to change the status of HEI staff to employees (the form preferred by the Ministry), but this met with strong resistance from the trade unions and was thus abandoned for the moment.

Institutions as employers

By far the most common model of employment of academic staff at public higher education institutions is the direct employment by the institutions or their sub-units. While the contract duration may vary, as can be observed in Map 5 below, in most cases the duration is determined for all academic staff. In some countries, however, such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Israel and Jordan, senior academics or full professors may have permanent contracts.

Contract duration

While permanent contracts for academic staff are relatively rare in the Tempus Partner Countries (map 5), in practice renewals are considered rather the rule than an exception in most institutions. As a consequence, jobs in higher education are considered to be *de facto* stable, even by staff on short-term contracts. As has been mentioned above, it is not uncommon for temporary contracts to become permanent e.g. after reaching the status of full professor. Longer contracts provide more stability, which is considered a great advantage for jobs in public institutions. On the other hand, some countries have observed reduced levels of motivation and development among staff on permanent contracts as compared to those on short-term contracts.

Five years emerges clearly as the standard contract duration for academic staff in **Central Asia** (three years in Kyrgyzstan), **Russia, Eastern Europe** and in the **Western Balkans**, though in the latter with a slightly higher degree of variation. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, institutions use four to six-year contracts, renewable an unlimited number of times, as long as a PhD has been obtained and in Kosovo, renewable contracts for academic staff are concluded for three to four years.

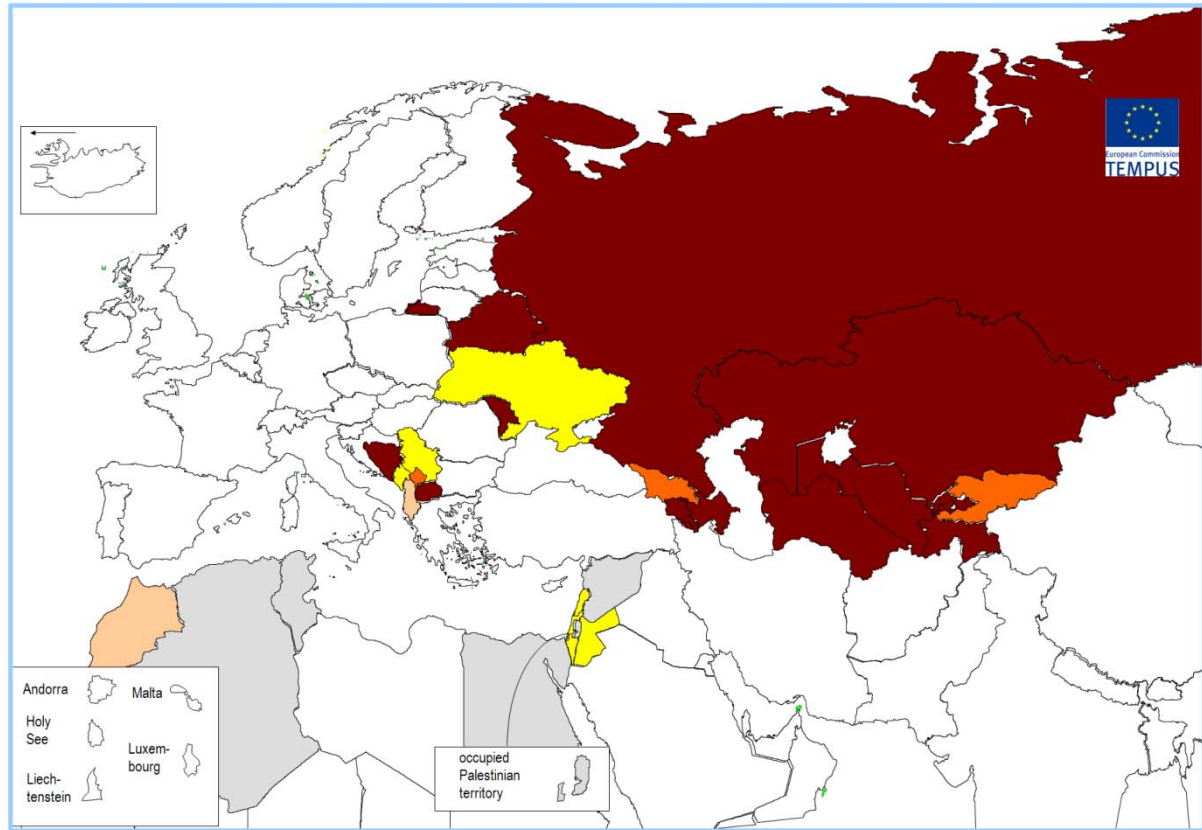
In **Eastern Europe**, in Azerbaijan, Belarus, Armenia and Moldova contracts of academic staff are concluded for five years and can be renewed indefinitely. In Ukraine, contracts for academic staff are one, five or seven years long, after which, staff has to take part in a new competition. In Georgia, where permanent contracts are no longer allowed, all staff members have three-year contracts.

There are important differences in contractual conditions in **the Middle Eastern** countries. The duration of the contract and conditions for renewal may vary significantly, both between countries and depending on the academic title of the staff member in question. In Jordan, academic staff starts with one or two-year contracts after which they move to a normal appointment until they are promoted to the rank of associate professor. After one year, they can apply for a permanent tenure. In Egypt and the occupied Palestinian territory, academic staff members are civil servants on permanent contracts from the start of their career. Until recently, it has been possible for institutions in the occupied Palestinian territory to recruit additional contractual staff on one to four-year contracts. In Syria, contracts are permanent for all staff, which is one of the main attractions of the job. In Israel, contractual conditions vary greatly between institutions from one-year contracts, to permanent positions.

In Serbia, contracts of academic staff vary according to the position, with full professorship being a permanent position. In Albania the length of a contract depends on the institution and usually starts with a one-year contract for senior academic staff and six-months for junior academic staff. This is, however, considered rather as a trial period and there is a *de facto* automatic renewal and continuation of the contract. Indeed, regardless of the short contract duration, the stability of the jobs in higher education is

considered as one of their main advantages. Previously contracts were longer, but new short contracts are intended to enable institutions to always recruit the best staff and to motivate staff to perform.

Map 5 - Contract duration of staff in public higher education



Source: National questionnaires

- Permanent contracts
- Five-year contracts
- Three-year contracts
- One-year contracts
- Varied durations

Determining contracts

Overall, a trend can be observed where institutions have increasing influence on the contract type and duration of their staff. This influence is clearly exercised in the framework of national laws and regulations on employment and labour. In countries where the civil servant status is still predominant, institutions are gaining some autonomy, in many places, to recruit shorter-term staff on different conditions, should their own funds permit. For example, in Morocco and the occupied Palestinian territory, the institutions can also employ some short-term contract staff and in this case there is more flexibility at the institutional level, in terms of recruitment and contractual conditions. In Belarus, on the other hand, there is an intention to move from contracts decided upon by the institutions themselves, to a national system of open

competitions for recruitment and to employ a new contractual system which harmonises practices between individual institutions.

5.4.2 Side benefit packages

According to the national questionnaires, there is no common approach in the Tempus Partner Countries to additional benefits such as health insurance, child care, subsidised housing or transport. However, the replies to the on-line survey indicate that social protection is indeed included in the remuneration scheme of staff in public higher education: 63% of the respondents declared that they benefited from such schemes, whereas 27% of them stated that they did not exist and 11% did not know.

Table 6 indicates the benefits that are most common in each region, according to the national questionnaires.

Table 6 - The most significant non-salary benefits of public higher education institution employees, by staff category and region¹²

(Numbers indicate the number of countries that have selected each of the items)

	Academic staff		Administrative staff	
Central Asia Total countries: 5	5	Pensions/retirement funds	5	Pensions/retirement funds
	5	Child allowance	5	Child allowance
	3	Free or subsidised child care	3	Free or subsidised child care
	5	Holiday allowance	5	Holiday allowance
	1	Free or subsidised housing	1	Free or subsidised housing
	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	1	Health insurance	1	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave	5	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?
Eastern Europe Total countries: 6	4	Pensions/retirement funds	4	Pensions/retirement funds
	3	Child allowance	3	Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	3	Holiday allowance	3	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
		Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	1	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	1	Health insurance	1	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave	5	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?

¹²

Information in this table is based entirely on the national questionnaires. As each country could indicate in the questionnaire the benefits enjoyed by staff, it is difficult to evaluate whether, in some cases, certain benefits were not selected, as they were not considered specific to the higher education sector or because such benefits do not exist at all.

Maghreb Total countries: 3	2	Pensions/retirement funds	2	Pensions/retirement funds
	2	Child allowance	2	Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	1	Holiday allowance	1	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
	1	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	1	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
Middle East Total countries: 6	2	Health insurance	2	Health insurance
	2	Maternity leave	2	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?
	5	Pensions/retirement funds	5	Pensions/retirement funds
	5	Child allowance	5	Child allowance
	1	Free or subsidised child care	1	Free or subsidised child care
	3	Holiday allowance	3	Holiday allowance
Russia		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
	3	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	3	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	5	Health insurance	4	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave	5	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?
Western Balkans Total countries: 6	1	Pensions/retirement funds	1	Pensions/retirement funds
		Child allowance		Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	1	Holiday allowance	1	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
		Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses		Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
Western Balkans Total countries: 6	1	Health insurance	1	Health insurance
	1	Maternity leave	1	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?
	6	Pensions/retirement funds	6	Pensions/retirement funds
		Child allowance		Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	4	Holiday allowance	4	Holiday allowance
Western Balkans Total countries: 6		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	2	Health insurance	2	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave	5	Maternity leave
	6	Other allowances. Which?	6	Other allowances. Which?

The most frequently mentioned benefits include pension schemes, maternity, holiday allowances and child allowances. In addition, in the Middle East and the Western Balkans, health insurance coverage is mentioned frequently.

In **Eastern Europe**, the replies given in the national questionnaires show that the side benefits vary between countries and it is hard to give one overall tendency for the entire region. This is also reflected in the on-line survey, with equal numbers of answers from those who declared to be benefiting from social protection schemes, included in their remuneration and those who did not. In Azerbaijan and Georgia, staff seems to have very few side benefits, whereas in Ukraine and Armenia they are considered relatively good. According to the on-line survey, holiday allowances appear to be a rather common practice.

In the **Maghreb** countries, the on-line survey reveals that the large majority of respondents benefit from social protection, included in their remuneration scheme and child allowance is also frequently mentioned. This situation is probably linked to the status of civil servant. According to the national questionnaires, staff enjoys good side benefits, particularly in Algeria and Tunisia.

Overall, the benefits packages in **Middle Eastern** countries are comprehensive and highly valued by staff. 79% of the respondents of the on-line survey declared they benefited from social protection, included in their remuneration scheme. A typical extra benefit for academic staff is a paid sabbatical leave every 5 or 6 years. In Israel, academic staff members have also a personal fund for participation in international conferences and subscriptions to professional journals. In Jordan, staff members also acquire health insurance for life for themselves and their families, after 10 years of service. According to staff interviewed at Jordanian institutions, one of the most interesting benefits however, is that employees have a number of places reserved for their children at that same university. In a country where higher education is highly valued, especially in good public universities, having a de facto guaranteed place for one's children is considered a significant benefit. In Syria, on the other hand, the benefits are not equally as comprehensive as in other countries in the region. In the case of the occupied Palestinian territory, a note was made that while the benefits are good, they cannot compensate entirely for the low salaries. According to the on-line survey, it also seems that the respondents in this region quite often benefit from free / subsidised / reimbursed transport expenses.

In **the Western Balkans**, the benefits packages are considered satisfactory (79% of the respondents to the on-line questionnaire mentioned social protection included in the remuneration scheme), but it seems they are not among the main reasons to be attracted to positions in higher education institutions. As in Middle East, the on-line survey also reveals that free / subsidised / reimbursed transport expenses are a rather common practice in the region.

The situation in **Central Asia** and **Russia**, as revealed by the on-line survey, looks quite similar to Eastern Europe, with a mix of answers and common practice for holiday allowances. The data collected at national level reveals some particular schemes, some of which stem from historical traditions. For example, the role of trade unions is strong in some of the ex-Soviet countries and they maintain a role in providing support (e.g. hardship funds for staff in difficulty or holiday possibilities in trade union resorts). In Kazakhstan, for example, there is also a housing support scheme, through which staff can obtain highly subsidised housing.

5.4.3 Retirement

The main differences in the retirement age of staff in higher education institutions are due to the following: 1) a lower retirement age often applied to female employees and 2) the possibility for academic staff to continue employment beyond retirement age.

For academic staff, the official retirement ages vary from 55 to 70 years, according to national questionnaires. Regions with a relatively early retirement age include Central Asia, Russia and Eastern Europe (55/60/65). On the other hand, the retirement age is relatively high in the Middle Eastern region, where it varies between 67 and 70 years for academic staff. An exception is the occupied Palestinian territory, where all staff on civil servant contracts may retire at the age of 60. There have been recent plans, however, to raise the retirement age of civil servants to 65. In Morocco, the retirement age is 65 for all academic and management staff and in the Western Balkans, it varies from 60 to 65 years.

In most regions and countries, academic staff members are allowed to continue to work for their institutions beyond the official retirement age. However, some restrictions often apply, e.g. contracts are only concluded for one year at a time, a maximum extension may be fixed (e.g. at 70 years, as in many Western Balkan countries) or managerial positions cannot be held by staff beyond the official retirement age. In Algeria, there is no fixed retirement age for academics at all.

In general, early retirement is not considered a problem in the countries investigated. While early retirement is possible in some cases, on health-related grounds, the numbers actually taking early retirement are very limited. On the other hand, the fact is that in many countries, it is common for academics to continue to teach after the official retirement age. This phenomenon is considered both a problem and a solution, depending on the national context. Indeed, in some countries, delayed retirement hinders the entry of new, younger staff into the sector. On the other hand, in countries where there is a significant deficit of highly qualified teaching staff, delayed retirement eases short term pressure on the system.

5.4.4 Salaries

Basic and additional salary components

The most common model in the countries investigated, is that national authorities set the basic framework for salaries of staff at public higher education institutions, while leaving institutions the freedom to implement reward schemes and additional payments or benefits, according to their own policies and available funds (Table 7). According to the on-line survey, it seems that such reward mechanisms are rather common in Russia, Eastern Europe and Central Asia (50% of the respondents in these regions mentioned that their institutions offer such mechanisms) whereas on average 60% of the respondents in the Maghreb, the Middle East and the Western Balkans indicated that no reward mechanisms were in place.

These extra reward schemes may however be regulated by the national authorities and differentiation between individuals is only possible in some cases. Sometimes, restrictions or regulations in the implementation of financial awards are introduced to increase transparency and predictability and to ensure that all staff fulfilling the same conditions have access to additional pay. In Israeli higher education institutions, there are collective contract agreements of all staff, which set limits to financial awards and determine the objective criteria that need to be used for such awards. The rules and limits are the same for all public institutions in the country. Basic salaries are usually calculated based on years of experience and the academic title obtained. The part that differs may be concerning additional responsibilities, above average performance (whether scientific, teaching, or international projects), or simply extra hours worked.

In Kyrgyzstan, the salary is composed of a state basic salary and an additional part, subject to a separate contract between the staff member and the HEI for specific tasks or for the achievement of specific goals. However, this differentiated part is relatively insignificant compared with the total cost/salary. The standard contracts do not allow for rewarding or sanctioning by the institutions, which can create a problem of motivation and performance standards. In several Eastern European countries, such as Azerbaijan, Belarus and Ukraine, salaries are determined by the national authorities, which also set the conditions for extra payments to be given by the institutions from their own sources. In Russia, minimum

salaries are also determined by the national authorities, but institutions may and do pay from their own budgets in addition.

Table 7 – The role of national authorities in salary decisions

	<i>Central Asia</i>	<i>Eastern Europe</i>	<i>Maghreb</i>	<i>Middle East</i>	<i>Russia</i>	<i>Western Balkans</i>
Deciding on total spent on staff costs	Tajikistan	Moldova Belarus Ukraine		Egypt		Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina Montenegro
Setting minimum/maximum limits by staff category	Uzbekistan Kyrgyzstan Tajikistan	Moldova Azerbaijan Armenia Ukraine		Jordan Israel	Russia	Serbia
Determining pay-scales within staff categories	Uzbekistan Turkmenistan Kazakhstan	Moldova Azerbaijan Ukraine	Algeria	Jordan Lebanon Israel	Russia	the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina
Determining individual salaries	Uzbekistan	Azerbaijan	Morocco, Tunisia	Syria, the occupied Palestinian territory, Israel		
Not involved in decisions about staff costs		Georgia				

Source: National questionnaires

In Egypt, salaries are determined and paid by the national authorities. However, as in the other Middle Eastern countries, institutions may implement rewards and provide financial incentives from their own funds. These are usually the same for all staff in the same category and in practice, do not distinguish between individuals. In Syria, salaries are also set at the national level. Institutions may give some rewards, but in a highly restricted way, controlled by the Ministry of Finance. In Jordan, basic salaries can be enhanced upon performance, at the discretion of the higher education institutions, while respecting the limits set in the law and by-laws. In Lebanon, the only public university, the Lebanese University, can implement financial rewards, in addition to basic salaries, but may not make any differentiation within the same staff category.

The Western Balkans follows the main pattern. In Montenegro, institutions decide on salaries following the national framework. In the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, salaries are composed of two parts: base salary from state funds, which is the same for all and additional payments by the institutions. This is similar to most other countries, where additional financial rewards can be implemented by the institutions from their own funds and can thus differentiate between salaries within the same staff category. In Serbia, there are big differences in contracts and salary scales between faculties, because of decentralisation, but planned integration of universities should lead to more uniform treatment of all employees, with the same status within an institution. Normally, institutions can pay top-ups of up to 30%, if they can afford it.

However, the official limits are not always fully respected. For example also in Serbia, the additional salary provided by institutions should not represent more than 30% of the basic salary. However, in most cases, ways around this limitation are found, allowing huge differences in salaries (for the same staff category and between faculties). A number of interviewees also underlined that the allocation of these funds is not always proportional to the quantity of teaching hours or work performed. In practical terms, basic salaries are paid by national authorities and additional amounts by the institutions. In Albania, basic salaries are established in the decisions of the council of ministers. However, financial rewards based on performance, participation in international conferences, overtime, etc may be implemented but must follow national regulations. It is usually possible to integrate the state budget-based salaries with additional institutional contributions, as long as the funds come from an allocation other than the state budget.

In some countries, institutions enjoy an even greater freedom to decide on the salaries of their staff. In Armenia, institutions may differentiate salaries between staff within categories, as long as nationally set minimums are respected. In Georgia, institutions can decide on the salaries entirely and they may vary, even between faculties. In Israel, the national authorities set the maximum ceiling on salaries for senior staff, but otherwise have no role in determining individual salaries.

On the other hand, differentiations are not always allowed. Indeed, for example in Turkmenistan, salaries are set by the national authorities and no differentiation by the higher education institutions is allowed. In fact, salaries are paid directly by the national authorities. The situation is the same in Maghreb where the national authorities usually set and pay all salaries and no extras or differentiations are allowed. In the occupied Palestinian territory, salary levels are decided by the Ministry for all civil servants and no differentiation or financial rewards are allowed.

Comparative attractiveness of salaries

In order to evaluate the attractiveness of the higher education sector as an employer and to get to the sources of potential problems related to unattractiveness, it was deemed necessary to achieve an estimate of the comparative value of the salaries provided by public institutions, in respect to other salaries available for similarly qualified individuals in the public sector (ministries), private higher education institutions and the private sector (businesses in the home country). While it is impossible to compare accurately salaries between different categories in these broad terms (no exact comparison point was expected), the responses from both surveys (national level and on-line survey) provide at least an indication of the perceptions that prevail in the countries in question.

As expected, salaries of academic staff when compared to other public higher institutions, are generally considered similar (the reply given by 60% of the respondents to the on-line questionnaire) reflecting probably the existence of national schemes (see above). This is less true in Eastern Europe, the Middle East and the Western Balkans, due to the increasing diversity of remuneration schemes in these regions.

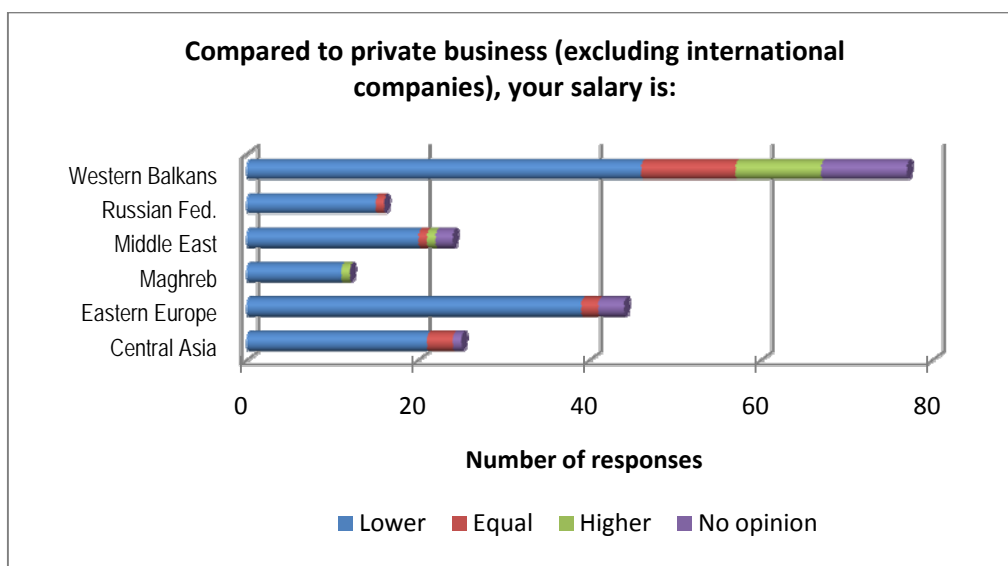
In contrast, the salaries of academic staff, as paid by public higher education institutions, can never compete with the salaries in the private sector. Only in some rare cases, was management-level staff of institutions considered on an equal or better footing than similarly qualified individuals in companies. The trend indicated at national level is fully confirmed by the on-line questionnaire (Chart 3), since more than 77% of the respondents considered that their salaries were lower than in business (9% declared it was equal). In contrast with the other regions, in the Western Balkans, the situation is perceived more favourably, with only 60% of the respondents sharing this opinion, whereas 14% considered their salary to be equal and 13%, even higher.

However, the comparison gets more complicated when considering private higher education institutions or jobs in the ministries.

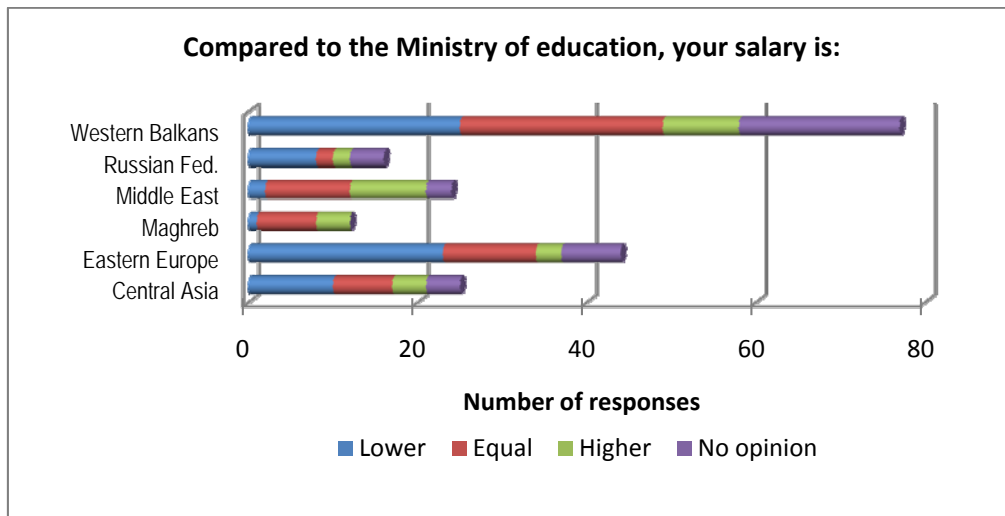
When compared to positions with similar education and level of experience in the Ministries (Chart 4), 35% of the respondents to the on-line survey declared that their salary was lower and 31%, that it was equal (16%, higher). In fact, this average hides regional differences. In the Maghreb countries and the Middle East, where the majority of staff members are civil servants, there is a high co-relation between salaries in institutions and in the Ministries. In the Middle East, 38% of the respondents even declared that their salary was higher than in the Ministries. In Central Asia, Eastern Europe and Russia, the situation looks less favourable for academic staff, when compared to Ministries, whereas the situation is more equal in the Western Balkans.

Insofar as private higher education institutions are concerned (Chart 5), salaries are most often higher in private rather than public institutions – a factor pushing staff to take up additional part-time positions or teach supplementary hours in private institutions, in addition to their public institution position. 62% of the respondents to the on-line survey declared that their salary was lower than at private education institutions. This is particularly the case in the Middle East and the Western Balkans, where such institutions are quite numerous. This is less true in Central Asia (32%), Russia (44%), Maghreb (50%) and Eastern Europe (52%). However, this does not prevent public institutions from being considered more attractive, regardless of the lower salaries because of the higher degree of stability and prestige, as well as the quality of teaching and students.

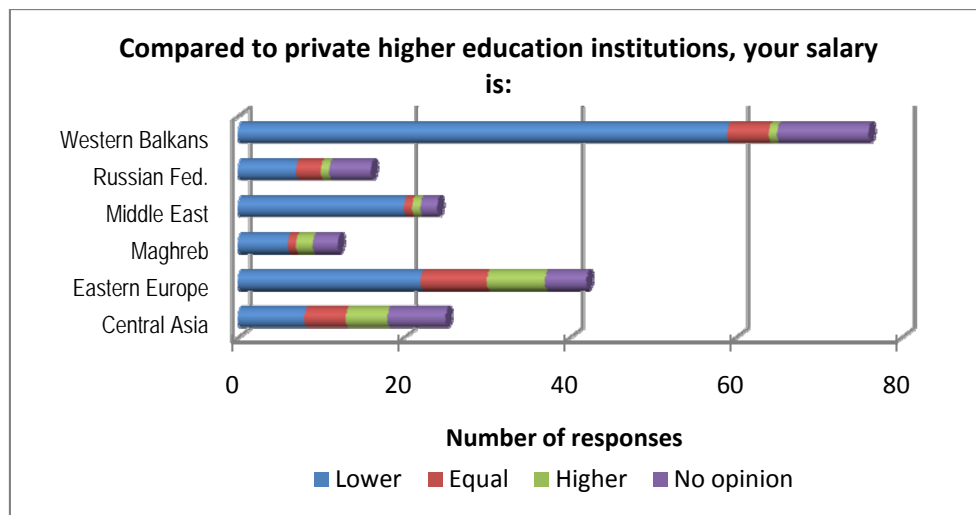
Chart 3 – Comparison of salaries of academic staff with salaries in private business



Source: On-line survey, question B15b: "How does your salary compare with other jobs potentially available to people with a similar education and level of experience in private business – excluding international companies?"

Chart 4 – Comparison of salaries of academic staff with salaries in the Ministry of education

Source: On-line survey, question B15b: "How does your salary compare with other jobs potentially available to people with a similar education and level of experience in the Ministry of education?"

Chart 5 – Comparison of salaries of academic staff with salaries in private higher education institutions

Source: On-line survey, question B15b: "How does your salary compare with other jobs potentially available to people with a similar education and level of experience in private higher education institutions?"

It is interesting to note that in a small number of countries, salaries of academic staff are nevertheless considered relatively attractive. According to the survey at national level, this is the case for Uzbekistan, the Maghreb countries and also several Western Balkan countries. In Montenegro, salaries are considered equivalent to those in private business and higher than for comparably qualified staff working in the Ministry. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the salaries of academic staff are relatively competitive, which could be a result of the shortage of teaching staff in the country. In Kosovo and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, salaries are considered to be higher than those of comparable staff in the Ministry for all staff categories.

As confirmed by both studies (national questionnaire and on-line survey), salaries in public higher education institutions in Central Asia, Russia and Eastern Europe are generally lower than salaries of

comparably qualified individuals in other available jobs, whether in the Ministry or in private institutions or businesses. Low salaries make jobs in higher education less attractive and the best candidates often go into other careers. Low salaries also press staff to hold multiple positions. In countries where civil servant status and short-term contracts co-exist, the salaries and benefits for the latter tend to be significantly lower than for civil servants.

In addition to competition from other sectors in the national context, international attractiveness of salaries is likely to have an important impact on the extent and directions of “brain-drain”. While the main reasons for brain-drain seem to relate to unattractive research and working conditions, rather than low salaries, the latter continue to play a significant role. In several Middle Eastern countries included in this study, a significant problem relates to the fact that in many neighbouring countries. Salaries are more attractive and consequently, many academics spend their sabbatical teaching abroad, to earn some extra money, instead of doing research or move there to work altogether.

Trends in salary development

In most of the countries investigated, salaries have remained the same as in 2000 or have increased slightly in terms of purchasing power. This is also evident from the on-line survey. The very large majority of respondents declared that they did not live in worse conditions, compared to ten years ago. In the Western Balkans and the Middle East, the respondents are evenly distributed between those who think that they live better than ten years ago and those who do not. Undoubtedly, the situation is seen more positively in Central Asia and in the Maghreb countries, whereas more mixed feelings seems to dominate in Eastern Europe and Russia.

According to the data collected at national level and differently from the rest of the region, Belarus reports an important increase in academics salaries in the past ten years. Several Central Asian countries have also increased the salaries of academic staff and in Uzbekistan, the sector is now considered relatively attractive. While conditions have improved for all staff in public institutions, in Kazakhstan, salaries have not increased in the same way across the sector: in the recently established national universities, which are to become the flagships of the country’s higher education system, staff receive particularly high salaries, up to 75% higher than in other public institutions. This is considered a special investment project in a limited number of high profile institutions of excellence. In Algeria, salaries have also increased significantly since 2000 and in particular in the recent years.

It is worth noting that, at national level, several Middle Eastern countries report a decrease in the real value of salaries of academic staff, as salaries have remained nearly unchanged over the last ten years. This is the case of Lebanon and Jordan, for example. In Jordan, to rectify the situation, there is a discussion at the political level to reform the salary systems for staff at higher education institutions. In Lebanon, the government has recently adopted a new pay-scale which increases the salaries of academic staff in public higher education by approximately 80%.

5.4.5 Multiple jobs

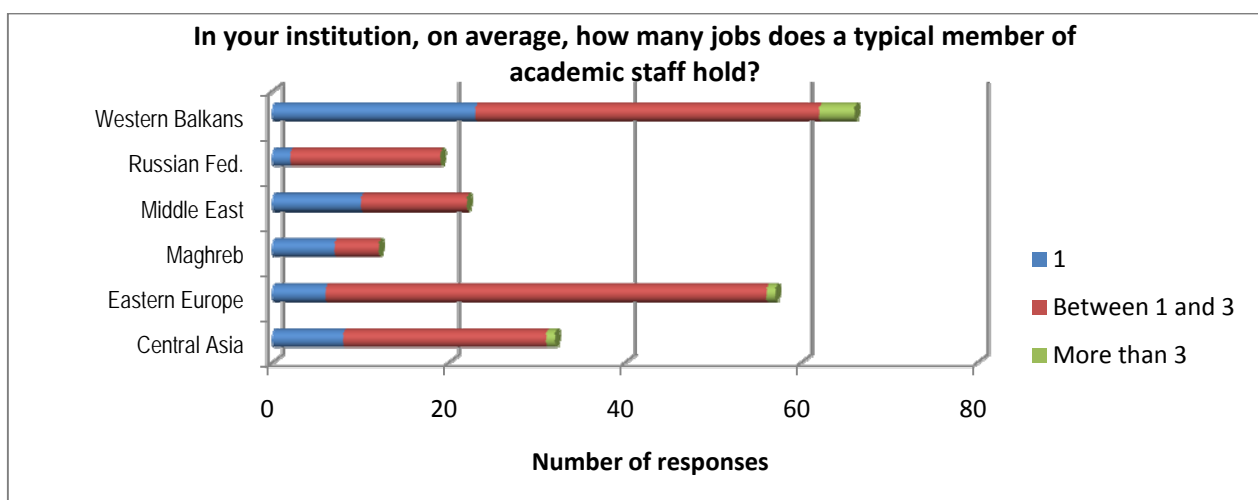
Due to unattractive salaries and the failure in some cases to match inflation with sufficient salary increases, the phenomenon of multiple positions or even simply extra teaching outside of one’s own institution, is in some countries a widespread phenomenon.

In some countries, multiple positions are legally allowed, but do not create a significant issue for the sector. In others, such positions are not allowed at all and in yet others, the issue creates a significant problem, whether formally allowed or not. The main problem with multiple positions is the assumption that it is hard to do two or more jobs, while maintaining the same quality and that the time left after teaching of contractual hours on one’s main job should be used, rather for research, preparation and project activities,

than taking up more teaching hours. Multiple positions can range from extra teaching jobs at other institutions, to consultancy roles in private companies and even to political roles.

The question of having multiple jobs was explicitly raised in the on-line survey (chart 6), which provides interesting information on the actual situation in the Tempus Partner Countries. In spite of the limited number of answers in some regions, a clear trend can be identified. According to the respondents, this practice is very common in Central Asia, Eastern Europe and Russia. More than 70% of the respondents in these regions declared that academic staff in their institution typically holds between one and three jobs (72% in Central Asia, 84% in Eastern Europe, 79% in Russia). In contrast, only 36% and 45% of staff respectively in the Maghreb and the Middle East have multiple positions, according to the respondents in these regions. The Western Balkans appear somewhere in-between, with 59% of the respondents declaring that academic staff in their institution typically holds between one and three jobs.

Chart 6 – Number of different jobs typically held by academic staff



Source: On-line survey, question B10: "In your institution, on average, how many jobs does a typical member of academic staff hold, including jobs in other higher education institutions, ministries and business"

It is interesting to note that multiple jobs are not considered a significant problem in Central Asia, according to the on-line survey, which confirms that the practice is embedded in the consciousness of the people. According to the information provided at national level, in Kyrgyzstan salaries have decreased in purchasing power in the last 10 years and consequently, about a third of all also teachers teach elsewhere. This leaves very little time for academic staff to do other academic activities, such as research, course development or international projects. In Tajikistan, multiple positions are not officially permitted. However, as is confirmed by the on-line questionnaire, they do exist in practice and create a problem for the sector, in particular considering the relatively high number of teaching hours academic teaching staff is already faced with. On the other hand, in Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan, double jobs are allowed and are common.

In contrast, in Eastern Europe, the on-line survey reveals that multiple jobs are indeed considered a problem. This was confirmed by the data collected at national level in Ukraine and Armenia, but not in Moldova and Belarus, where multiple positions do exist, but are not considered a problem for the system at national level.

In Russia, multiple positions are not against the law. There is no data on the impact of the phenomenon on the higher education system, but the on-line survey tends to show that it is common practice and a real concern for most of the respondents.

In the Middle East, there are restrictions on holding positions outside of one's own university and permission often needs to be obtained from the Rector. However, teaching at several institutions on an hourly basis is a practice which creates mixed feelings, according to the on-line questionnaire¹³. Those who are critical of it, consider that this practice creates a problem, as little time is spent by academic staff on research activities, development of teaching materials or participation in international projects. The data collected at national level helps complete this picture. In Israel, academic staff may hold multiple positions, but the overall working time should not amount to more than 150% of a full-time position. In Jordan, teaching supplementary hours at other – often private - institutions is very common among academic staff, however staff rarely holds actual positions outside of their own institution. In Egypt, multiple positions are also common, especially for consultancy or managerial positions in companies or public authorities. This can either be in addition to the regular teaching load or on « loan » from the parent institution, as detached personnel. In this country, the frequency of multiple positions is considered a serious problem for public higher education and concerns also administrative staff. In Syria, about half of all academic staff in public institutions holds several part-time teaching positions. The exceptions in the region are the occupied Palestinian territory and Lebanon, where double positions are not allowed at all. However, in Lebanon, double positions have been relatively common practice among academic staff, but following the recent pay increase at the Lebanese University (only public higher education institution), more pressure will be put on staff to give up double employment.

In the Western Balkans, multiple positions are relatively common but, as in the Middle East, the on-line survey reveals mixed feelings with regards to this practice, probably reflecting the diversity of situations in the countries concerned. In Bosnia and Herzegovina and in Serbia, for example, the data collected at national level tends to prove that multiple positions have a negative impact on the quality of teaching and research, even though no precise data on the extent of the problem is available. Also in Albania, multiple positions are common and can be taken on approval of the Rector. However, differently from many other countries in the region, in Albania, multiple teaching jobs are not necessarily seen as a problem: there is a shortage of highly qualified staff and it is for the good of the Albanian students, if good professors from public institutions also teach in private institutions. There is a high number of part-time academic staff, who are teaching alongside another (main) job, e.g. in industry.

In Algeria and Tunisia, multiple jobs are allowed in the private sector, as consultants, or in the political sphere, though in the latter authorisation must be sought. In neither of the two, are multiple positions perceived as a problem. In Morocco, no multiple positions are allowed.

5.4.6 Workload

The gravity of the problem created by multiple positions or extra teaching, taken at other institutions, also depends of course on the contractual student contact-hours at one's own institution. Logically, the higher the number of hours that need to be taught at the home institution, the more difficult it is to add supplementary tasks and duties, without a negative impact on the remaining duties of the job.

In the national questionnaires, the study asked for an indication of the legal average number of contact-hours with students, both for junior and senior academic staff (Table 8). The contact-hours are actual hours spent teaching or being in contact with students. Apart from some very rare exceptions, a significant difference in student contact-hours can be observed between junior and senior teaching staff. While the contact-hours do give an indication of the overall workload of individuals, the expected time input on research seems to vary significantly between countries and type of institutions (whether more research or mainly teaching-oriented).

¹³ In this region, the same number of respondents declared either that it was not a problematic issue or that it prevents higher education from performing as it should.

Table 8 – Minimum and maximum student contact-hours for junior and senior academic staff by region

	Junior min.	Junior max.	Senior min.	Senior max.
Central Asia	550 (Kazakhstan)	850 (Turkmenistan)	350 (Kazakhstan)	850 (Turkmenistan)
Eastern Europe	180 (Georgia)	750 (Belarus)	120 (Georgia)	450 (Belarus)
Maghreb	192 (Algeria)	450 (Morocco)	165 (Tunisia)	250 (Morocco)
Middle East	300 (Lebanon)	1000 (Egypt)	250 (Lebanon)	500 (Syria, Egypt)
Russian Federation	740	900	500	500
Western Balkans	170 (former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia)	450 (Kosovo)	140 (former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia)	270 (Kosovo)

Source: National questionnaires

For junior staff, the contact-hours vary widely from 170 to 1000 hours annually. For senior staff, the range is slightly more restricted, but covers systems as different as between 120 and 850 annual hours.

In Central Asia, there are important differences in student contact-hours and these vary between 350 in Kazakhstan and 850 in Turkmenistan, for senior teaching staff and between 550 in Kazakhstan and 850 in Turkmenistan for junior teaching staff. In Turkmenistan, all teaching staff has similar obligatory contact-hours and in Kyrgyzstan, the difference is also minimal (750/800). The biggest differences can be observed however, in Eastern Europe. In Georgia, the contact-hours with students are only between 120 and 180 per year, depending on the level, whereas in Belarus, at the other end of the spectrum, the contact-hours reach Central Asian levels, at 450-750 annual contact-hours.

In Russia, the number of contact-hours is relatively high, from 500 for professors up to 900 for lecturers, while in the Middle East, the number of teaching hours is also relatively high. In Lebanon, it varies from 250 h/year for full professors to 300 h/year for lecturers. In Jordan, the number of student contact-hours is considered so high, that it threatens the long-term development of academic staff and thus of institutions.

In the Western Balkans, the student contact-hour load of academic staff can be considered relatively low, in comparison to several other regions. It varies between 140 and 270 for senior academics and between 170 and 450 for junior teaching staff. A similar situation can be noted for the Maghreb. Those countries seem to have the most favourable conditions for academic staff, the workload, not exceeding 450 hours for junior staff and 250 for senior staff.

The question of the actual workload of academic staff was included in the on-line survey and addressed only to the academic staff, working in a Tempus Partner Country (Table 9). In spite of the heterogeneity of answers, some averages have been extrapolated and these indicate that the perceptions of the actual workload vary quite a lot among the regions considered and confirm more or less the analysis carried out at national level.

Table 9 – Average workload of academic staff

	Average number of contact-hours with students within your institution, on a yearly basis.	Average number of contact-hours with students within another higher education institution, on a yearly basis, if any.	Average number of days spent on other remunerated activities per year, if any.
Central Asia	640	200	74
Eastern Europe	600	80	79
Maghreb	270	100	41
Middle East	420	50	50
Russian Fed.	640	180	98
Western Balkans	400	50	62

Source: On-line survey

Central Asia, Eastern Europe and Russia, with their common history, have similar patterns, characterised by very high workloads for academic staff, whereas the Maghreb countries appear in the most favourable situation. The Middle East and the Western Balkans appear in an intermediate situation.

The main issue with student contact-hour workloads is that, in the case of a very high numbers of contact-hours, too little time is left to academic staff to engage in research activities, preparation of publications, international projects and other scientific activities. If high student contact-hours are coupled up with the need to take up extra teaching hours at other institutions to integrate low salaries, the problem may become significant. In addition to risking reducing the quality of teaching and research, the phenomenon may also be an important obstacle to staff development, both in terms of their academic and subject-specific skills, often acquired through scientific activity and other skills.

6. Administrative and technical staff – recruitment, career management and working conditions

6.1 Introduction

Less information was provided through the national questionnaires and during the site-visits, on the conditions of administrative and technical staff, than on those of academic staff. Often, this is probably due to the fact that the differences between administrative and technical staff within institutions and e.g. in ministries are fewer than those between academic staff and similarly qualified individuals in other jobs. Often, very specific working conditions apply to academic staff, while administrative staff members have more 'standard' working profiles. Perhaps because of the direct connection between academic staff and the skills of their students, more focus on evaluation, quality assurance and further training is usually given to academic than administrative and technical staff. However, administrative staff and their commitment and skills are considered crucial to the successful modernisation of institutions and therefore, it is necessary to pay attention to their recruitment, career management systems and working conditions.

6.2 Recruitment of administrative and technical staff to higher education institutions

Overall, there is less control by the national authorities over the recruitment of administrative staff and open competitions, while often employed, are less common than for academic positions. When open competitions are used, this is often at the discretion of the institution. Indeed, for example in Ukraine, Belarus, Armenia, Moldova and Georgia, open competitions are always used for recruitment of academic staff, while for administrative staff, the institutions may decide themselves on the procedure to follow and may consequently advertise jobs publicly or proceed with internal appointments. In Central Asian countries, positions for administrative and technical staff are often not publicly advertised and senior staff members especially are usually selected from junior staff, through internal selection and promotion. The internal recruitment of administrative staff is considered a serious problem for the sector in Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan and Kyrgyzstan. On the other hand, in Kazakhstan, positions for senior administrative and technical staff are publicly advertised. Also in many Western Balkan countries, administrative and technical positions are publicly advertised and the selection process is open.

In Egypt and Syria, administrative or technical positions may be advertised publicly, but this is relatively rare. Senior administrators' recruitment in Lebanon is based on the general system of state employees, while junior staff is recruited directly by the higher education institutions, on short-term contracts.

The recruitment decisions are usually always taken by the institutions. The procedures are relatively unchanged since 2000, across all regions. This may indicate that, while the awareness of the need for new methods to recruit the best academic staff has grown in the sector, the same has not yet happened in regard to administrative and technical staff. Indeed, most countries in the national questionnaires, reported the lack of appropriate skills of administrative and technical staff and the high degree of internal recruitments, as the main challenges in respect to this staff category.

As for the academic staff, it seems that internal recruitment is not seen as a major problem by the individual respondents to the on-line survey. On average, 74% of the on-line respondents indicate that the high frequency of internal recruitment of administrative and technical staff is not considered a problem in their country.

Recruitment requirements for administrative and technical staff are, in most cases, decided on by the institutions themselves, according to their needs and the specific technical and other skills required. In most countries, a degree-level education is required for administrative and technical staff, as well as IT and foreign language skills. Although language skills are becoming an increasingly important recruitment criterion, in practice, the lack of language skills continues to be an important obstacle and is often mentioned as the most important training need.

6.3 Career management: evaluation, training and motivation

6.3.1 Evaluating administrative and technical staff

Evaluations for academic staff tend to be more frequent and detailed than those of administrative and technical staff and students are involved almost exclusively in the evaluation of the former. Whereas 72% of the respondents to the on-line survey declared that their institution carried out periodic performance evaluations for academic staff, only 37% of them declared similar practices for administrative and technical staff. It seems that in practice, as for the academic staff, evaluation is usually carried out on a yearly basis (64% of the respondents to the on-line survey). According to the national questionnaires, it is common that evaluations take place at the end of the contract period. Consequently, e.g. in Kyrgyzstan, academic staff members are evaluated every year, while administrative staff, every five years. In Jordan, Egypt and the occupied Palestinian territory, there are annual staff evaluations for all staff, administrative and technical and in Jordan, this is coupled up with compulsory annual staff training.

According to 76% of the on-line respondents, staff evaluations include the definition and assessment of yearly objectives, except in the Maghreb, where the majority of the respondents indicated that no yearly objectives are defined. Concerning the actors involved, the respondents confirm, as was the case for academic staff, that heads of department, Deans and Rectors play a major role, rather than the ministries and government bodies.

Systematic evaluation methods for administrative staff are neither common in the Western Balkans, nor in Russia. According to the responses in the on-line survey, such practices are rare in both regions and more than 60% of them declared that they did not exist in their own institution. The national questionnaires indicate that in the Western Balkans, administrative staff in Montenegro is evaluated in an ongoing manner by the immediate superiors. In Serbia, evaluation of administrative staff is not obligatory and there is no set frequency. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, there is also no system for evaluation of administrative staff. On the other hand, in Kosovo, administrative staff is evaluated annually by their chief of department or at faculty level, based on the national regulations related to civil servants.

The evaluations may be used for promotions, pay-rises, financial rewards, the identification of training needs, transfers to other positions (as in Azerbaijan), disciplinary actions and so on. The evaluations apply usually to all staff categories, though in Azerbaijan, evaluations do not apply to technical staff. While evaluations are becoming common practice, there are still no systematic evaluation mechanisms of administrative and technical staff in place in Armenia, Syria, Lebanon, Bosnia and Herzegovina and to a certain extent, in Serbia. In these countries, promotions are based on other criteria, mainly years of experience.

6.3.2 Training

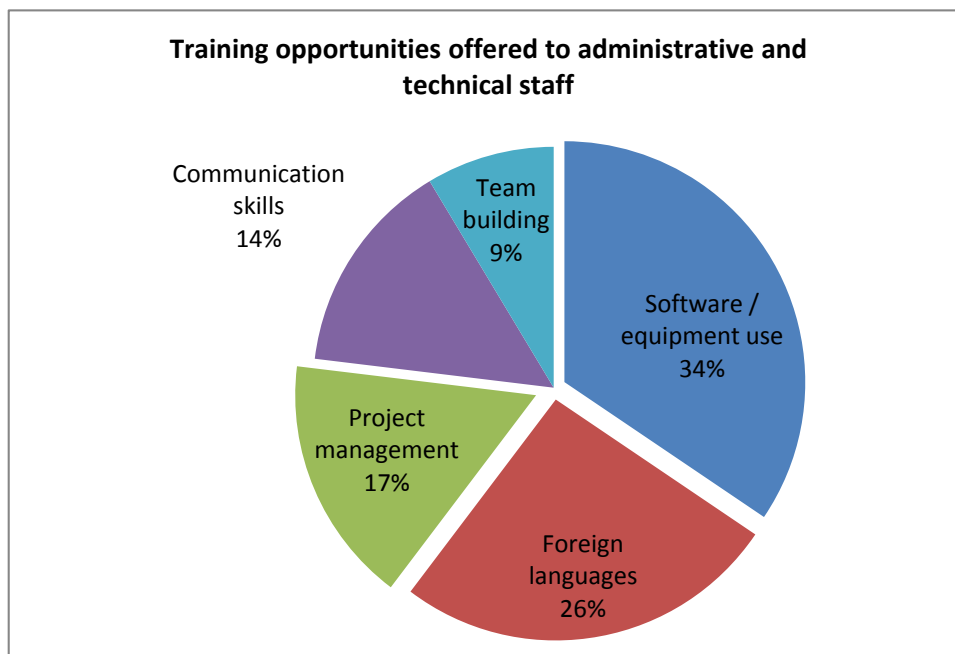
Training programmes for academic staff are starting to be developed across the Tempus Partner Countries. However, the development of similar schemes for administrative staff is a step behind and does not seem to be a high priority in most of the countries investigated. Again, this is also reflected in the on-line survey. Overall, only 48% of the on-line survey respondents stated that their institution offered training opportunities for administrative and technical staff (62% for the academic staff).

Some countries also organise systematic training at national level for administrative and technical staff. In Kazakhstan, for example, all staff has to take part in training every five years. In Syria, ICT training is also compulsory for administrative staff for promotions. In Eastern Europe and the Middle East, training is mainly organised by the institutions and the extent of the programmes depends on their interest and the availability of funds. This leads to significant variations between institutions. In Lebanon, some optional training is organised for administrative staff, by the institutions or donors. There is little systematic training available for administrative and technical staff in the Western Balkans¹⁴, Russia and Egypt and little or no public funding is made available for this purpose by the national authorities. However, institutions sometimes take significant initiatives on this and in Albania for example, several institutions organise training programmes for administrative and technical staff. In cases where programmes exist, they are usually compulsory for all staff members and are used as a criterion for promotion. In Algeria, some periodical training for certain groups of administrative staff on professional skills is organised and in Morocco some possibilities for internships abroad exist.

The main areas for training of administrative and technical staff include IT, professional skills and English (or other foreign) language. In addition, several informative seminars may be organised by the national authorities or the institutions on new legal frameworks or new administrative systems and tools employed nationally. However, these have not been considered as actual training or skills-upgrading in this context.

This is confirmed by the on-line survey. According to the respondents, the most commonly offered types of training are (Chart 7): software / equipment-use for all regions, foreign languages for all regions (except the Maghreb, where this type of training is quoted in penultimate position) and project management (only quoted for the Maghreb).

Chart 7 – Training opportunities offered to administrative and technical staff



Source: On-line survey, question B6.a. "What type of training opportunities does your institution offer for administrative and technical staff?". The percentages represent the proportion of the number of times each choice was selected as answer to the question

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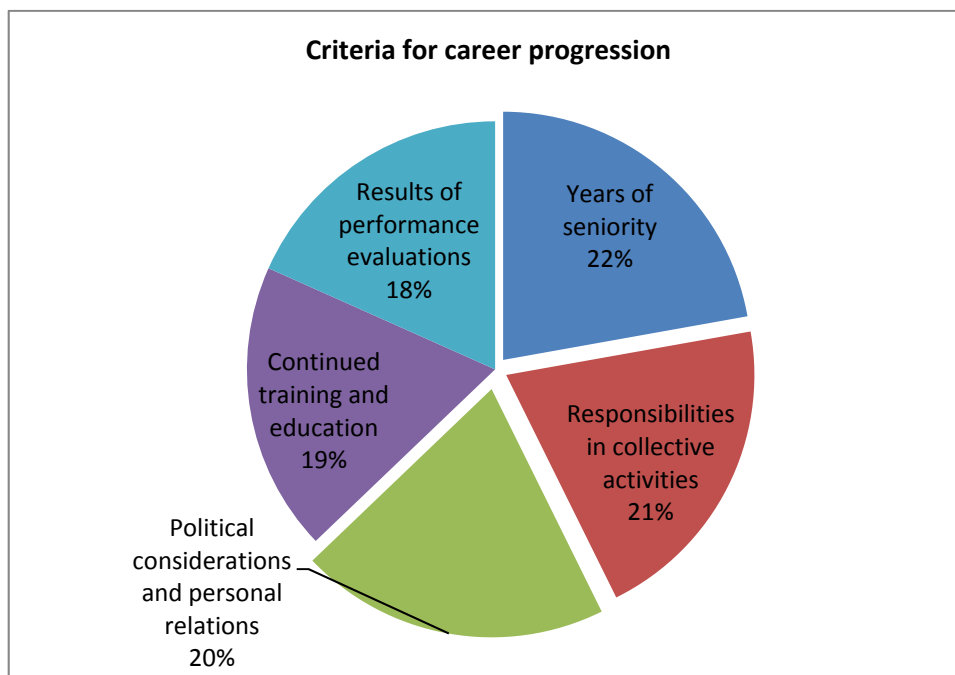
In the Western Balkans, 48% of the on-line survey respondents answered that no training opportunities were offered by their institutions and 24% indicated that they did not know.

6.3.3 Promotions and motivation

In several countries, senior administrative positions are filled through internal promotions. However, in some Central Asian countries, such as Kyrgyzstan, promotions of administrative staff take place through competitive selection. In Georgia, promotions also take place through open competitions only. In Lebanon, the only way to get promoted is to participate in national examinations.

According to the on-line survey (Chart 8), career progression of administrative and technical staff is mainly based on the years of seniority, responsibilities in collective activities, political considerations and personal relations.

Chart 8 – Criteria for career progression of administrative and technical staff



Source: On-line survey, question B4. "To what extent is the career progression (promotion from one category to the next) of administrative and technical staff in your institution based on the following criteria?". The percentages represent the breakdown of grades 4 (important) and 5 (very important) given as answer to the question.

The criteria quoted most often for career progression of administrative and technical staff are:

- Years of seniority, in particular for the Maghreb, the Middle East and the Western Balkans
- Responsibilities in collective activities (coordinating working groups, leading teams, etc.) for Central Asia, Eastern Europe and Russia
- Results of performance evaluations for Eastern Europe, the Maghreb and the Middle East
- Continuous training and education is mentioned as one of the criteria on which career progression is based, only for Central Asia

It is interesting to note that, according to the on-line survey, political considerations and personal relations appear to be a major criterion for the career progression of administrative and technical staff, in particular in Russia and in the Western Balkans.

According to the national questionnaires, in Eastern European countries, Western Balkans and Russia, promotion decisions are most commonly taken by the institutions. However, in countries with civil servant status, promotion decisions are either taken by the national authorities (Maghreb) or approved by them (Syria and the occupied Palestinian territory). As distinguished from other countries in Western Balkans, in Montenegro, the promotion requirements are also set collaboratively by the institution and the national authorities. In Albania, promotions are based on years of service and participation in continuous training. The fact that continuous training is a promotion requirement motivates staff to take part in training, made available at the institutional level. No specific motivation or support schemes for administrative staff were detected in the course of the study.

6.4 Working conditions

6.4.1 Contractual conditions for administrative and technical staff

As for academic positions, the formal status of staff varies between countries and staff categories. Permanent contracts are more frequent among administrative and technical staff than academics, while at the same time, the most short-term contracts can also be observed in this staff category. Map 6 shows the spread of different contractual practices for administrative and technical staff at public higher education institutions in the Tempus Partner Countries. The information in Map 6 is based on data from a table in Annex 4.2.

Permanent contracts by national authorities

In Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, the occupied Palestinian territory and Syria, staff members are usually civil servants and all contracts for administrative and technical staff are permanent. In Egypt, some junior administrative and technical staff is employed directly by the institutions, often on short-term contracts. However, around 85% of all junior administrative staff members are still civil servants. In the occupied Palestinian territory, institutions have also been recently allowed to recruit additional contractual administrative and technical staff on one to four year contracts. In Morocco, there was a recent attempt to change the status of staff in public higher education institutions to ‘employee’ (the form preferred by the ministry), but this met with strong resistance from the trade unions and was thus abandoned for the moment.

Contracts by institutions or their sub-units

In the remaining countries, contracts are concluded directly by the institutions. However, much more often than for academic staff, contracts may be of permanent duration. This is the case for Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan, Ukraine, Armenia, Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova and some institutions in Israel.

In Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, all contracts have a standard duration of five years and in Georgia, where the Labour Law does not allow for permanent contracts, all staff members have renewable three-year contracts. For the moment, in Belarus, institutions decide on contractual conditions.

6.4.2 Retirement

The retirement age of administrative and technical staff is often lower than that of academic staff and late retirements are rare for this category. In some cases, women may retire three to five years earlier than men.

The standard retirement age varies from region to region, but ranges from 55 to 63 years in Central Asia, the Middle East, Russia and Maghreb. In some Eastern European countries, as well as in the Western Balkans, the retirement age ranges from 60 to 65 years. Two countries with a retirement age of 60 years are currently planning to raise it to 65 years (Morocco and the occupied Palestinian territory).

6.4.3 Salaries

In terms of structures in place for the payment of salaries for administrative and technical staff and the conditions related to supplementary payments by the institutions, the mechanisms are similar to those of academic staff.

This is confirmed by the on-line survey. According to the respondents, it seems that such reward mechanisms are rather common in Russia, Eastern Europe and Central Asia (62% of the respondents of these countries mentioned that their institutions offered such mechanisms) whereas on average 70% of the respondents in the Maghreb, the Middle East and the Western Balkans indicated that no reward mechanisms were in place. It seems, however, that the situation is even more varied for administrative and technical staff, when compared to academic staff. For the latter, the above-mentioned figures amounted to 50 and 60% respectively.

As for academic staff, salaries of administrative staff are often considered lower than those potentially earned in private education institutions, private business or in comparable positions within ministries.

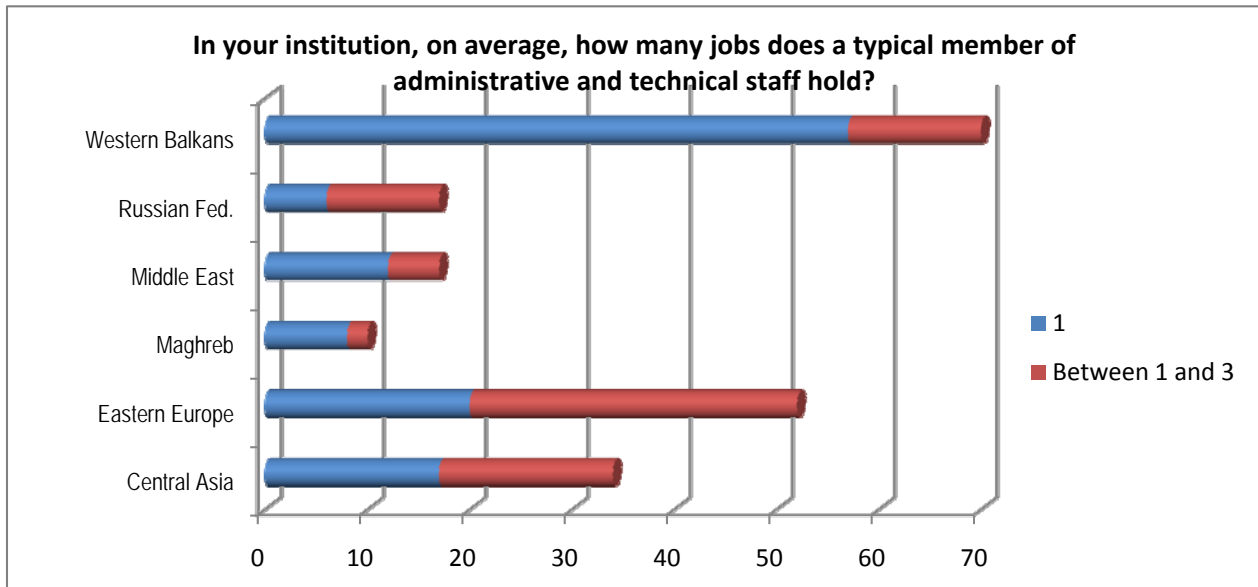
According to the national survey, for administrative staff, the differences are often considered less pronounced. Coupled up with relatively good side benefits (Table 6) in comparison with other available positions and considering the stability of jobs in higher education institutions and the flexibility of time schedules, administrative and technical positions are relatively more attractive than those for academic staff. This appreciation is not fully reflected in the on-line survey, where the figures are rather similar to those observed for the academic staff but less representative, due to the limited number of respondents. The figures are very similar to those of academic staff, when comparing salaries of administrative staff in public higher institutions to other public higher education institutions and private education institutions. In contrast, there is a much stronger feeling that salaries are lower for administrative staff when compared with ministries and businesses. Indeed, 48% (35% in the case of academic staff) and 87% (77% in the case of academic staff) of administrative staff respondents declared that their salary was lower than in comparable positions in ministries and in private business, respectively.

At national level, little change can be observed in the approximate purchasing power of salaries: while in some cases, an increased investment in “brains”, i.e. in researchers and academics, has started through national or institutional schemes, no cases of such an interest in the development of human resources in the categories of administrative and technical staff have been observed. This is indeed confirmed by the on-line questionnaire. The majority of respondents (64%) declared they do not live better than ten years ago (54% of the academic staff).

As regards the multiple jobs phenomenon, the same patterns can be observed for the administrative and technical, as for the academic staff, according to the replies to the on-line questionnaire (Chart 9). It seems, however, that this practice is less common, notably in the Western Balkans. Nevertheless, holding one to

three jobs is considered a common practice in their institutions by 60% of the respondents to the on-line questionnaire in Eastern Europe and Russia (47% in Central Asia). As a result, in all regions, there are mixed feelings regarding the impact of this practice on higher education.

Chart 9 – Number of jobs typically held by administrative and technical staff



Source: On-line survey, question B11. "In your institution, on average, how many jobs does a typical member of administrative and technical staff hold (including jobs in other higher education institutions, ministries and businesses)".

7. Management staff – recruitment and conditions

Institutional management naturally holds a key role in the development, strategic positioning and modernisation of higher education institutions. Therefore, the management of this particularly central human resource is naturally of high importance to the success of institutions and indeed of higher education systems.

The most pertinent issues in respect to management-level staff to be addressed in this section are the selection or appointment procedures and requirements of management-level staff (Rectors and Deans) as well as specific training that is made available for them.

Some problematic issues in this respect concern, for example, the lack of open competitions for positions in senior management, the politicised selection or appointment of management staff, the lack of adequate selection criteria, based on the managerial and leadership skills needed by the institutions, the lack of training opportunities or training requirements and different kinds of political pressures that institutional management may be subjected to. However, some interesting examples of practice can also be found, underlining the increased good will to achieve transparency and to select the best candidates for management of the institutions.

7.1 Appointment and selection of Rectors

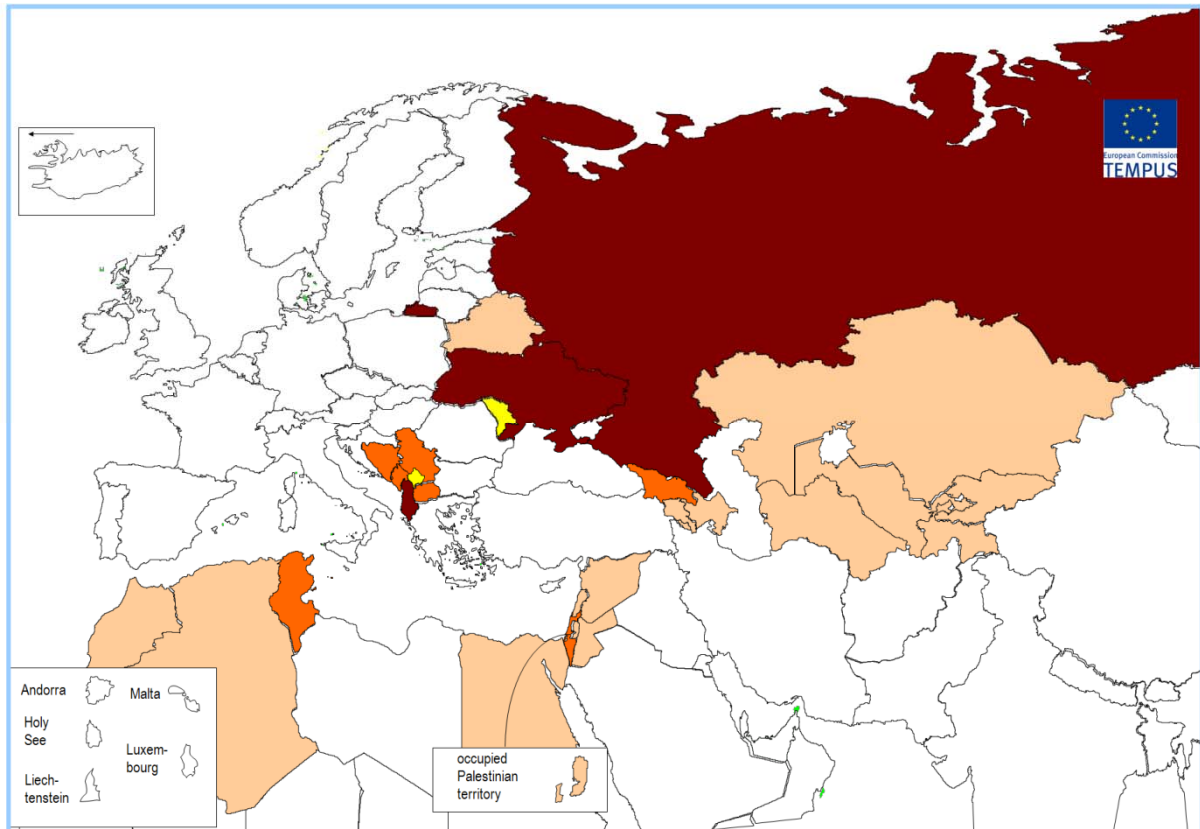
The procedures for the appointment of Rectors vary significantly (Map 7). The main division is that between appointed and elected Rectors. The second important factor is, in both cases, who elects and/or finally appoints the Rector. Subsequently, in some cases, the appointment or election of a Rector carried out at the institutional level may need to be approved by the national authorities.

Rectors elected at the institutional level

One of the two main models (and a more recent one in many countries) is the election of the Rector from a number of candidates. In some cases, the election is open to all staff and students of the institution (e.g. in Albania), while in others it is one of the main bodies of the institution, such as the Academic or University Council or the Senate (in Georgia, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina), which elects the institutional leader. In Ukraine, Russia and Albania, the final appointment or approval following an institutional-level election is, however, up to the national authorities. On the other hand, in Georgia, Israel, BIH, Montenegro, Serbia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Tunisia, no national-level approval is required.

The selection of candidates may be internal or external to the institution and sometimes follows an open competition or Call for Nominations. In the Western Balkans, the Rector is elected either from internal candidates or on the basis of a formally open competition. In Serbia, all full professors are eligible to compete for the management positions. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the selection for management positions is open to all qualified candidates employed by the institution. In the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the candidates can come from outside or within the institution. Albanian institutions require at least a PhD from a prestigious institution abroad or a professorship in an institution in Albania, to qualify for election. Rectors of public institutions are elected by secret ballot by all academic staff, all non-academic staff and all students of an institution. The votes are weighed with the student votes, counting for 20% of the total and non-academic staff votes, for 5% of the total.

Map 7 – Method of recruitment of Rectors



Source: National questionnaires

- Elected Rector, approval by the national authorities required
- Elected Rector, no approval by the national authorities required
- No election, approval or appointment by national authorities
- No election, no approval by national authorities required

Rectors appointed or approved by national-level authorities

In the vast majority of the Tempus Partner Countries - Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Algeria, Morocco, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, occupied Palestinian territory and Syria - the institutional head is appointed by the national authorities. This appointment may take place without consultation of the institutional bodies, such as the Senate or the Academic council or can rely on institutions to make the first selection for a list of suitable candidates, for appointment by the national authorities.

Different national entities may be involved in the appointment of institutional leaders at the national level, depending e.g. on the status of the institutions. For example in Central Asia, the Rectors of higher education institutions are usually appointed by national-level authorities and depending on the country and the status of the institutions, this can be the Education Ministry, the Council of Ministers or the President of the Republic. In the Middle East as well, the national authorities play a significant role overall, in the appointments of management staff. Usually Rectors are appointed by the highest officials of the state and the recruitment requirements and procedures are set by the national authorities. In Algeria, the rectors are

appointed by a Presidential Decree on the basis of a proposal by the Ministry. In Morocco, the Rector is appointed by the King after a selection procedure by the Ministry. In Azerbaijan, Rectors are appointed by the President. In some cases, the list of candidates is provided by institutions. In Armenia, the Rector is selected at the institutional level from internal and external candidates, but the actual appointment falls within the competence of the Ministry.

Appointment of institutional management, which are positions of power, may also be politically controlled to a high degree. In some cases, the appointment for management-level staff, clearly requires that the individual should be politically in line with the national government. The fact that appointments may be based on political connections, rather than on qualities needed to lead an institution, creates problems for the sector, as not necessarily the best candidates are chosen through political appointments. Also, the frequent changes in the political sphere lead to frequent changes in institutional management, which creates a lack of continuity within institutions and makes strategic planning difficult.

In the case of appointed Rectors, the selection is almost never based on an open competition and positions usually aren't publicly announced. However, in most countries, appointed Rectors also need to be professors, or high ranking academics to qualify for appointment.

Rectors selected by institutional organs without election

In some cases, institutional organs are involved in the selection of the Rector from qualified candidates, either at the institutional level or through an open competition. In such cases, there is no election, but rather a selection by a body within the institution. The selection must often be approved by the national authorities. This is the case in Moldova and Kosovo. In Moldova, the Rector is selected by the institution, based on an open competition, for which the requirements are set by the Ministry. In Kosovo, the Rector is appointed through an open competition based on the Statutes of the University and other normative acts. The decision is taken by the University Board.

Trends

It is interesting to observe some contrasting trends in the way in which the Rectors of institutions are appointed. Some countries, for example Georgia, have moved from appointment of the Rector by the Ministry, to an election at institutional level. In Kazakhstan, the institutional leaders are currently appointed by different levels of national authorities, but it is planned to gradually change the appointment procedure of rectors by giving full autonomy to higher education institutions. In Egypt, there is an ongoing process to shift, in the near future, to "election-by-the-base" – model for Rectors and Deans, though the "electing base" has not yet been defined.

By contrast, in Kyrgyzstan, the Rectors were previously elected, but as the system created frictions between the Rector and the members of staff who had been in favour of another candidate, the Rectors are now appointed by the President or the Government, depending on the status of the institution (State institution or special status national institution).

Overall trends in the conditions of work of Rectors indicate that salaries have on average grown faster for the top management, than for other staff at higher education institutions. While several positions in higher education institutions suffer from unattractiveness and lack of competitiveness vis-à-vis other available positions outside the public institutions, this is understandably not the case for the top management. In some countries, the conditions of work of Rectors are very attractive: in Morocco Rectors of universities get the same salary as a Minister. Also in many of the Western Balkan countries, the salaries of Rectors are higher than for positions of similarly qualified staff in business. However, comparisons between sectors are admittedly difficult and at best, approximate.

Training

While increasing attention is being paid to the training of academic staff, systematic training of management-level staff is still relatively rare. In some countries, like Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Egypt, training is obligatory, also for all management-level staff. In others, including the occupied Palestinian territory and Russia, training is available and management is advised to take part in it, but it is not compulsory.

Where training is available, it often concentrates on management skills, quality systems or, in some cases, languages.

7.2 Appointment and selection of Deans

Similarly to the appointment of Rectors, also for Deans, two main models can be easily identified: election or appointment. However, while election takes place without exceptions at the institutional level, appointment may be left to institutional organs, or to the national authorities.

The most common authority to appoint Deans is the Rector. Perhaps logically, this is the most common model in countries where the Rector has himself or herself been appointed by the national authorities. Often in the case of appointed Deans, there is no open competition.

In Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and Russia, for example, the Deans are appointed by the Rector, without any public announcement or competition for the positions. In Turkmenistan, approval of the Ministry has to be sought for the appointments. In Jordan, the Deans are also appointed by the Rector and frequent changes in Rectorships lead also to frequent changes in the whole management body of the institution. Positions of Deans are not publicly announced. In Egypt, the Rector nominates three candidates for each Dean position, but the final decision is taken by the Ministry. In Kyrgyzstan, a wider academic community is involved in the appointment of Deans, through the Academic Council. In Armenia and Kosovo, the Deans are selected from internal candidates and appointed by the institution, while in Ukraine and Azerbaijan, the Deans are selected through an open external competition. In Georgia and Serbia, Deans are elected internally by the faculty council. In Albania, the Deans are elected by all staff and students of the faculty or institute in question.

On the other side of the spectrum, in Tajikistan and Morocco, the appointment of Deans is also in the hands of the national authorities (the Ministry of Education).

7.3 Terms of service of management level staff

The terms of Rectors and Deans vary across countries, even though three to five years is the most common scenario. The shortest term identified throughout the study is a one-year term at some institutions in Israel. Terms can be renewed, most typically at least once, though in some cases, there is no set limit to the number of times a person may be re-elected for management positions. In Ukraine, for example, Rectors have five to seven-year contracts, which can be renewed unlimited times. However, a new draft law proposes that Rectors could only be renewed twice.

7.4 Career management

The on-line survey provides some interesting information about the career management of management staff and the conclusions are in line with those concerning the other categories of staff analysed in the study.

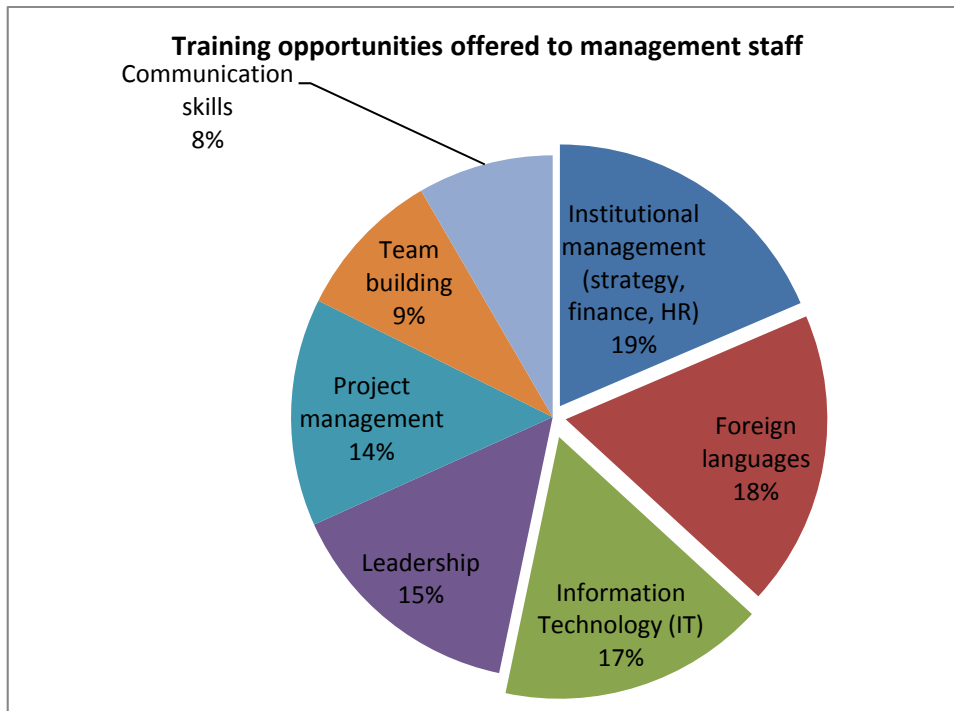
In particular, it is interesting to note that there is apparently a clear divide between:

- Russia, Eastern Europe and Central Asia. According to 59% of the respondents in these countries, most of the institutions carry out yearly performance evaluations of Deans, which take into account staff feedbacks / evaluations. These evaluations are mostly carried out by the Rectors, but the answers provided also show a certain involvement of instances at governmental level.
- the Maghreb, the Middle East and the Western Balkans. On average, 65% of the respondents from these countries indicated that their institution does not carry out any performance evaluations of Deans.

As regards training activities, it seems that opportunities offered to management staff are limited. 47% of the on-line survey respondents stated that their institution did not offer training opportunities to management staff and 23% indicated that they did not know. However, the situation looks better in Russia and in Central Asia, where the majority of respondents indicated that management staff is offered training (respectively 54% and 57%).

On average and according to the respondents, the most commonly offered training relates to (Chart 10):

- Institutional management (strategy, finance, HR) except in Russia, where foreign languages and project management are considered as the most commonly offered types of training for management staff;
- Foreign languages. Exceptions are Maghreb and the Middle East where, respectively, project management and leadership are considered as the most commonly offered training opportunities for management staff.

Chart 10 – Training opportunities offered to management staff

Source: On-line survey, question B8a. "What type of training opportunities does your institution offer for management staff (Rectors and Deans)?" The percentages represent the proportion of the number of times each choice was selected as answer to the question.

8. Gender balance

According to the national questionnaires, gender balance is a cause for concern in several countries investigated. While in many countries, the numbers of female students are on the rise and reaching if not outnumbering male students, the higher positions in academia and management are still held far more often, by men than women. The degree of the problem varies. Indeed, in some countries, the balance is reversed in favour of females, also in different staff categories. The imbalance is often much less visible in the case of administrative staff, compared with academic staff.

It is nevertheless interesting to note that the gender balance is not necessarily considered a cause for concern by the individuals themselves. Indeed, in the on-line survey, the clear majority of respondents (73%) did not consider gender balance a problem in their country.

Three different types of situation were identified, on the basis of the data collected at national level.

Balanced distribution of staff between genders

In Central Asia, there is a lack of precise data on the numbers of women working in higher education. However, according to the national questionnaires, more than 50% of the staff in Kazakhstan is women and around 42% of academic staff in Uzbekistan is female. In the Eastern European countries, the gender distribution on average is also relatively balanced. Across the six countries, female academic staff account for about 50% of the total. In Albania (54%) and Montenegro (45%), the proportion of women in academic staff is also relatively well balanced. As an exception to many Middle Eastern countries, the gender balance in Egypt is relatively good, with about 40% of academic staff being women. In Lebanon, the situation is also better than other countries of the region, as 34 % of academics are women. In Jordan, where very few academics are female, the proportion of women in administrative positions can be considered relatively good (40%). Administrative positions at public institutions are considered very attractive for women with families, because of the extra benefits, flexibility and prestige. In Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, there are somewhat less female than male academics, just around 40% of the total. Kosovo presents the weakest gender balance in the Western Balkans, with only around 28% female academic staff in public institutions.

Lowest proportions of female staff

As an exception to other countries in Central Asia, the gender balance in Tajikistan is considered a significant problem. New policies are in place to guarantee a number of places in higher education for female students. In Maghreb countries, there are also many more men than women working as academics, with the latter accounting for between 25 and 30% of the total teaching staff. The problem is pronounced in several Middle Eastern countries. In Jordan, very few academics are women (6%) though several women can be found in top management positions. It is considered an issue of personal choice for women, rather than a question of religion or culture. Indeed, there are many more women (up to 40%) at the start of the academic career but progression is slower due to family commitments. In the occupied Palestinian territory, the proportion of women is also very low and stands at 17% of academics and 33% of administrative staff (making for an average of 23% of all staff). While slightly better, the balance also remains negative in Israel (27-34%) and Syria (32% of academic staff). In Israel, the new « staff invigoration scheme » includes initiatives for an improved representation of women, as well as ethnical minority groups, in public higher education institutions.

Predominance of women concentrates on administrative positions

The proportion of women is often higher among administrative staff than academic staff and even countries with very low proportions of female academic staff, may have a significant number of female administrative and technical staff. The difference between the staff categories is perhaps the clearest in Jordan, where only 6% of academic staff, but as many as 40% of administrative and technical staff is female. However, in Russia, the gender balance is more strongly in favour of women among academic staff: 60% of academic staff and 40% of administrative staff is female.

The highest proportions of female staff among administrative and technical staff can be found in Moldova and Georgia and stand at 72% and 76%. In several countries of the Western Balkans, there are also more women than men working in administrative and technical positions. This is the case in Montenegro, Serbia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (60-63%). In Albania, 57% of administrative staff is female. In Syria, 56% of administrative staff members are women.

9. Aging of staff

Most Tempus Partner Countries report in the national questionnaires of a serious problem with the aging of staff in their public higher education institutions. The main causes of the problem are:

- Lack of young qualified staff, due to the overall demographic curve in the country
- Lack of young staff due to brain-drain abroad or into the private sector, mainly due to unattractive salaries and other conditions in higher education institutions
- Late retirement of current staff, which makes access to jobs for younger staff more difficult

Again, as is the case for gender balance, it seems that individuals have a different understanding of this type of "macro issues", than the persons consulted at national level. In this case, the individual respondents who have replied to the on-line survey had less concerns about the aging of staff than the national authorities, as 55% of them did not consider the age structure of academic staff in public higher education institutions as a problem. As for administrative and technical staff, their age structure was not considered a problem by 65% of respondents. However, clear differences could be noted between regions: in Russia and in Eastern Europe, the majority of respondents did perceive aging of academic staff as a problem, while in the Western Balkans and even more so, in the Middle East, less respondents considered this an issue. It can also be noted that, in general, respondents did not expect that there would be an insufficient number of academic or administrative staff in public higher education institutions in the coming years.

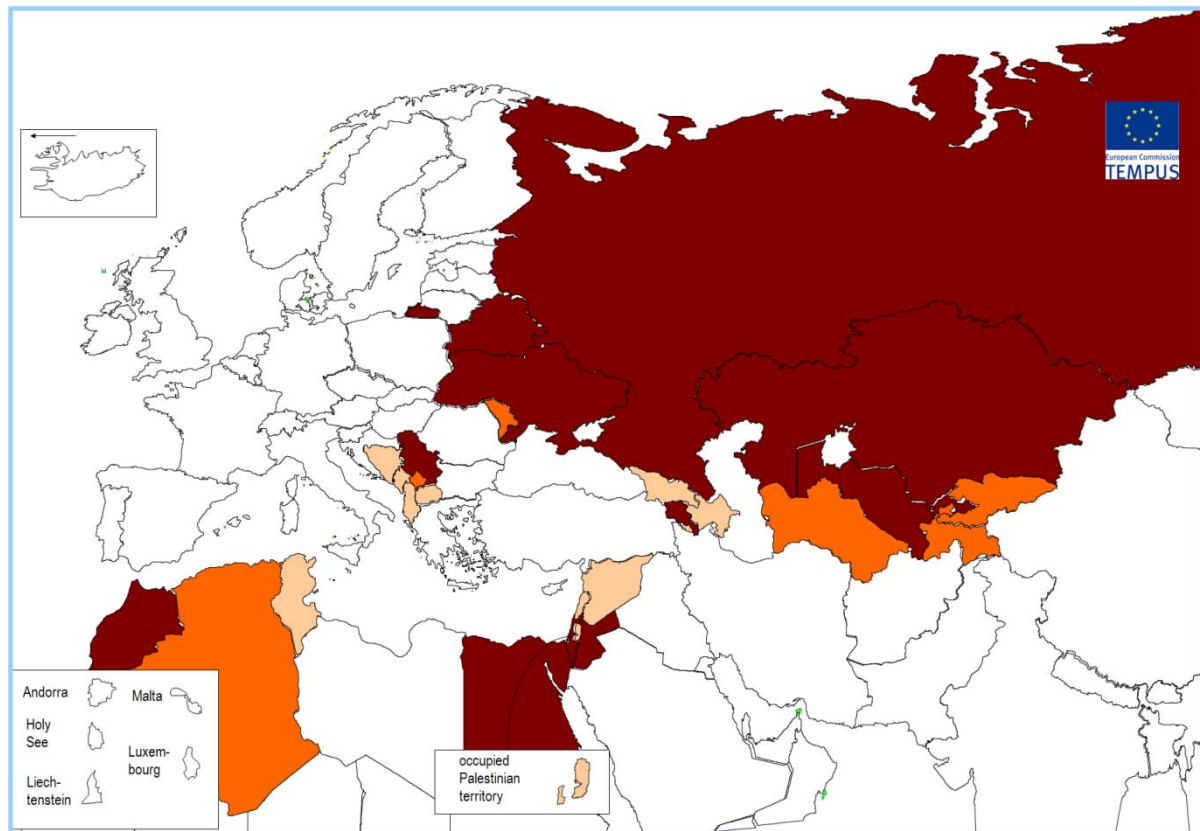
According to the national questionnaires, the extent of the problem caused by the aging of staff varies between regions and in some cases, within regions. The regions where aging of human resources in the higher education sector is a serious concern include: the Middle East, Russia and Eastern Europe. In Central Asia and the Maghreb, more variations can be observed between countries. The Western Balkans is the only region, where overall aging is not considered as a great threat to the development of the higher education sector. Map 8 gives an overview of the trends in staff ageing across the regions.

In **Eastern Europe**, aging of staff is a common problem, as confirmed both by the national questionnaires and the replies to the on-line survey. From 20 to 25% of the staff in Ukraine and Belarus work beyond retirement age, raising the average age in both staff categories. In Armenia, more than a third of academic staff is over 60. As an exception in the region, in Georgia more than half of all staff is under 45 years and it is the only country in the region with a trend to having more younger staff overall. Some countries are investing in supporting the creation of a new generation of academics through different scholarship schemes.

Azerbaijan – educating young academics abroad

Azerbaijan has a State Program for Education of Azerbaijani Youth Abroad (2007-2015). In the framework of this programme, some of the best students are granted scholarships to study at prestigious universities abroad, mostly in economics, management, medicine, social and life sciences, ICT, engineering and services. By 2011, about 700 students had benefitted from the scheme but the objective is to reach 5 000 students by the end of 2015. The contract, which is signed between the student beneficiaries and the Ministry of Education, includes a duty to return to Azerbaijan after studies for at least five years. The interesting feature of this scheme is that the scholarship graduates may work, either in the public or private sector in Azerbaijan.

Map 8 – Trends in age structure of staff in public higher education, as perceived at national level



Source: National questionnaires

- Overall older staff than 10 years ago
- Age structure of staff similar to 10 years ago
- Overall younger staff than 10 years ago
- No data available

According to the national questionnaires, aging of academic staff is a challenge in the **Middle Eastern** region as well. However, it is interesting to note that, in the on-line survey, 66% of respondents for this region did not consider the age structure as a problem – which shows a clear difference between individual and national-level perceptions. However, looking at the statistics provided in the national questionnaires, in Israel, for example, a larger proportion of staff is over 60 than under 45 of age and in Egypt about 30% of academics are over 60 and more than half of the total are over 45 of age. The highest percentage is in Lebanon with 71% of academic staff over 45 years of age. The trend shows that overall there is an older staff body than in 2000. Most of the countries allow the continuation in academic positions beyond the retirement age, which pushes the average age of academic staff up. In Syria, the age structure of academic staff is younger overall, than 10 years ago, even though 30% of teaching staff is still over 60. The exception to the rule in this region is presented by the occupied Palestinian territory: no staff members are beyond the official retirement age of 60 years and nearly half of the academic staff is between the ages of 35 and 45 years. The average age of staff is now lower than in 2000. Across the region, the aging of administrative staff is less serious and for example in Jordan, staff in this category is overall younger than 10 years ago. In

Egypt, 30% of administrative and technical staff is also young. In the occupied Palestinian territory nearly half of all administrative and technical staff members are younger than 35.

Israel – 600 million euro investment in staff invigoration

Aging is a serious problem to the country, as about 800 academics will retire in the next five years and consequently the Government has invested significantly in a staff invigoration scheme. The scheme will enable the recruitment of 1200 new staff members.

Jordan – supporting young talent through scholarships

The University of Jordan has a scholarships scheme, through which good students (all those who get the first rank are eligible) are sent to some of the best universities in the World for further studies. The students need to come back within 6 months after the end of their studies and then serve at the university for a minimum period, corresponding to twice the time spent abroad on the scholarship, otherwise they have to pay back the scholarship and an additional penalty. The project is funded from the institutional budget (and e.g. fees may be partly waved through inter-institutional agreements). By law, institutions need to allocate 3% of the budget to scholarships.

The situation is the reverse in **Russia**, where, according to the national questionnaire, 80% of administrative and technical staff members are over 45 years old, compared to 70% of academic staff in the same age category. However, overall staff ageing is considered a serious issue to the institutions and this problem is clearly perceived also by the respondents of the on-line survey. Paradoxically, due to demographics and changes in the organisation of teaching, institutions have to reduce staff, which makes it more difficult for young staff to access academic careers.

In **Central Asia**, the problem of staff aging does not follow the same trends across the region. Aging is considered a significant issue in Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan, with the latter having a serious problem with late retirements, which inhibit the access of new staff into the sector. In Uzbekistan, specific schemes have been set up to facilitate the entry of younger staff, by allowing them to enter jobs in higher education institutions temporarily without a competition. As distinct from other countries in the region, higher education jobs in Kazakhstan are considered relatively attractive, also to younger staff, which has led to a more balanced age distribution among both categories of staff.

Uzbekistan – facilitated first entry to young graduates

Uzbekistan is combating staff ageing through different schemes. Recruitment to academic positions is done through open competition. However, to help young staff to enter the sector, Master graduates may be employed with an initial three-year contract, without a competition. They can thus get into the university environment and gain experience to help them be better placed in the open competition (competing with experienced teachers), which takes place every five years.

Kazakhstan – investing in high quality staff for the future

The “Bolashak” international scholarship programme was established upon the proposal of the Head of State in 1993 and is aimed to finance studying abroad. The Scholarship covers tuition costs, insurance, living costs and travel costs from Kazakhstan to the country of destination and back, after completion of study. In the period from 1993 till 2010, a total of 7 356 people benefited from the scholarship scheme. 2 788 of these have graduated, around 4 000 continue studying and around 300 are about to be employed. Out of the 2 788 graduates of the programme, 1 725 persons are currently engaged in their five-year mandatory post-scholarship work.

In the **Maghreb region**, the aging of staff does not pose a serious problem for Algeria, where 40% of both staff categories are under 35 years and only 5% of academics (and no administrative staff) are over 60. The situation is different in Morocco, where over half of all staff is over 45 years of age.

The age structure of staff in higher education in the **Western Balkan region** is relatively young compared to all other regions included in this study. The main reason is that many countries in the region miss the “middle generation” due to the war in the 1990s. The trend in all Western Balkan countries is that staff is younger overall, than 10 years ago. In most countries of the region, the majority of staff in both staff categories is under 45 years of age and very few staff members, even including academic staff, are over 60 years of age. The exception in the region is Serbia, where the trend is reverse and staff ageing is a worrying phenomenon. Differences can be observed between different institutions, with an overall older staff in consolidated universities, in comparison to newly established ones. While many young staff members are being recruited as older staff retires, there is a lack of staff that is not yet near or beyond retirement age, but at the same time, sufficiently experienced. For example in Kosovo, almost 40% of academic staff is under 30 years of age, which reflects the overall demographic situation in the country. This shows a positive potential for the future, but might indicate that currently, a large proportion of teaching staff lacks significant experience.

Albanian Excellence Fund – supporting the skills development for the future

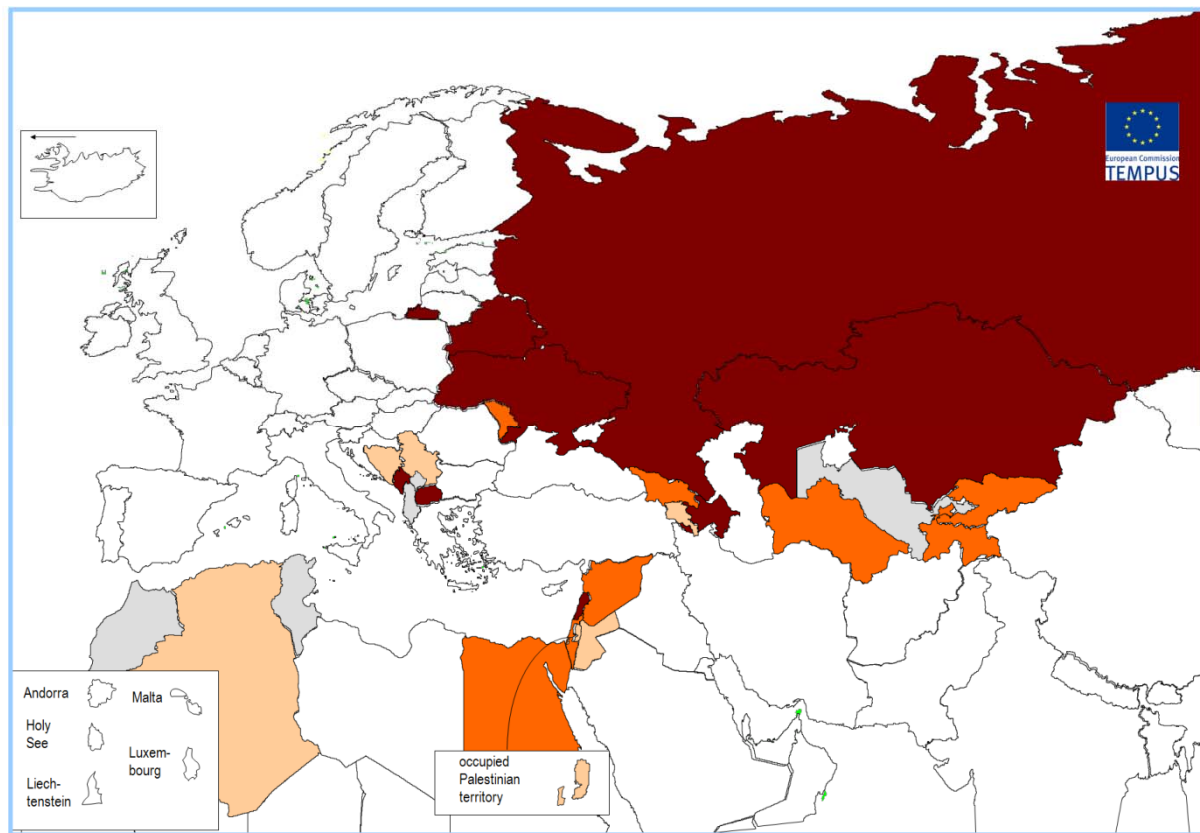
In order to support the fast development of human resources in higher education, the government started the Excellence Fund in 2007, which is a scheme to finance post-graduate studies abroad for some of the best students. The Ministry funds the tuition fees and living costs through a scholarship, in one of the best 50 universities in the world (based on a number of rankings, mainly in the US, UK, Germany, and other European countries). After finishing studies, students are obliged to stay and teach at an Albanian institution for a minimum of 3 years (previously a minimum of 5). The scheme started in 2007, with about 50 students and the first PhD graduates have only recently returned to Albania. In the last round of applications, 200 students applied and 90-100 were given a scholarship. The selection is carried out in cooperation with five to six professors in the related field and a Vice-Minister. The final decision is taken by the Ministry. The selection is based on national priorities in terms of subject area. Albanian students can also apply from abroad.

The students participating in the scheme has to be integrated, from the beginning, with the sending university's overall long-term business and employment plan, which guarantees the production of graduates in the areas most needed by the university. Students, who come back after a PhD abroad, bring in new knowledge and methods, which are of benefit to local universities. The Excellence Fund is an important priority for the government and therefore, there is an open fund of USD 1 million for financing of the scheme.

10. Brain-drain

“Brain-drain” usually refers to the significant emigration of highly qualified individuals to countries with better financial and other conditions for work and – in the case of academic staff – research. Indeed, many of the countries investigated have suffered from or are still suffering from serious international “brain-drain”. In this study, however, a wider definition of the term has been used, which also includes competition with other sectors of the national economy, such as private higher education institutions and businesses (Map 9). There is an increasing awareness, in several countries, of the importance of human resources to the growth and development of the country and therefore, several examples of policies and financial incentives to reverse brain-drain can be found.

Map 9 - Main directions of brain-drain, as perceived at national level



Source: National questionnaires

- Countries suffering mainly from *internal* brain-drain to private institutions and businesses
- Countries which perceive *both internal and international* brain-drain as a problem for public higher education
- Countries which suffer principally from *international* brain-drain
- Brain-drain is not considered as a problem for public higher education

Both 'push' and 'pull' factors are at play in determining the extent and directions of brain-drain. For **international brain-drain**, the main reasons are usually better research opportunities and higher salaries abroad and/or an unstable political situation in the home country. Both the national questionnaires and the replies to the on-line survey indicate that, in Middle Eastern countries participating in the Tempus

programme, brain-drain is a significant problem (with the exception of Lebanon). It also remains a significant problem in the Western Balkans, even though some interesting schemes to reduce brain-drain have reduced the negative trend in Albania.

In terms of **internal competition** from businesses and private higher education institutions, the main issue concerns the better salaries offered by the competitors and the general lack of attractiveness of jobs in higher education. An eventual push factor in internal “drain” is the lack of transparency and high degree of corruption in the higher education sector, of some of the investigated countries. In addition to international brain-drain, there is a high degree of competition for the best brains from the private sector within the country. Several countries, such as Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Ukraine, Lebanon, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Russia report internal competition from businesses as the main cause for concern, rather than international brain-drain. Internal competition particularly hits fields such as medicine, technology and engineering, where higher education institutions cannot offer salaries that can compete with those offered by the private sector. In the Maghreb countries, internal competition is nearly inexistent, due to the high attractiveness of jobs in higher education within the country. The gravity of brain-drain hits different countries to a different degree, but important differences can be observed also within countries, especially between capital regions and rural areas, the latter suffering from a greater drain of brains both towards the capital and other main cities, as well as abroad. This is the case, for example, with several Central Asian countries. Understandably, brain-drain is more frequent among younger staff, than senior academics, although some exceptions exist.

It is interesting to note that, when comparing the national questionnaires to the answers given to the on-line survey, some differences in perceptions can be noted. While at the national level, the competition with the private sector seems to be more of a concern, the individual respondents clearly see international brain-drain as the biggest threat.

Some countries have set up schemes to reduce the negative impact of brain-drain.

Albania – the Brain-gain programme

An initiative of the Albanian Government and the United Nations Development Programme in Albania, the Brain-Gain Programme is creating policies and incentives to encourage skilled people to remain in Albania, to return after university studies abroad or to come on a short-term basis, to engage in specific projects. Partnerships with Albanian lecturers and researchers working in Western universities and research institutions are encouraged. The programme supports universities to fill leading management and academic positions with qualified individuals from abroad, selected on a competitive and transparent basis. The Brain-Gain scheme is supporting the Government by creating policies that allow the return of talented professionals, as well as keeping the expertise of Albanians already in the country. This includes a critical analysis of the current laws and practices in public administration that promote or prevent the attraction of those that have graduated abroad with public administration degrees. More information on the scheme is available at <http://www.braingain.gov.al>.

The occupied Palestinian territory – mobilising human resources abroad

In the occupied Palestinian territory, a national database on highly qualified Palestinians abroad is being created. This database will enable people to contact Palestinian experts in other countries, when specific needs arise. High salaries are offered to the individuals on the list, based on their experience and qualifications, for participation in projects or work at higher education institutions in the occupied Palestinian territory.

11. Attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions – strengths and challenges

11.1 Overview

This chapter is based on national level and individual perceptions, as collected through the national questionnaires, the on-line survey and the site visits, on the comparative attractiveness of positions in higher education institutions and the extent to which, the eventual lack of attractiveness, is considered a problem for the sector.

On the basis of the replies to the on-line questionnaire, it can be noted that, in general, the main advantages of academic jobs in public higher education are perceived to be employment stability, interesting work and a well-regarded social status, while for administrative and technical positions, the main advantages seem to be employment stability and reasonable working hours. Low salaries and the lack of autonomy appear as the main disadvantages in both academic and administrative jobs.

In addition, some regional specificities can be noted, for example, the high number of working hours is mentioned as one of the main disadvantages of academic jobs in Central Asia, Eastern Europe and Western Balkans, while it does not appear to be a major issue in the other regions. The lack of research opportunities, on the other hand, appears as a major disadvantage, mainly in the Middle East, the Western Balkans and the Maghreb countries.

As far as administrative posts are concerned, some divergence between regions can also be noted. The high number of working hours appears as a main disadvantage only in Central Asia and Eastern Europe, while the lack of career development perspectives was ranked as a major disadvantage, mainly in the Western Balkans and the Middle East. The perceived advantages also differ to some extent: in addition to the employment stability and reasonable working hours, the well-regarded social status ranks relatively highly in Central Asia, the Middle East and Eastern Europe. In Eastern Europe and Russia, one of the main advantages perceived, is also the fact that the jobs are considered interesting.

11.2 Regional specificities

According to the national questionnaires, unattractiveness of jobs in higher education is considered a significant problem in most **Central Asian** countries. There are some variations between staff categories, with the academic jobs being considered more attractive in relative terms, than those in administration or technical positions. However, within the region, in Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan, jobs in higher education are considered relatively attractive and in the latter, jobs in the special status « national institutions » are considered competitive and attractive, due to the additional salary provisions made for these institutions in the national budget. It is interesting to note that jobs are considered more attractive in the two countries which also have the most advanced training schemes in the region.

The answers to the on-line questionnaire provide more details on the perceived attractiveness of jobs in public higher education. According to the replies, the perceived advantages of academic jobs in **Central Asia** are in line with the average results: employment stability, good social status and interesting work are seen as the most important. The main disadvantages are low salaries, a high number of working hours and the lack of autonomy. For administrative and technical staff, the employment stability, career development perspectives and a well-regarded social status appear as the main advantages. The perceived disadvantages are more or less in line with the other regions (low salary, lack of autonomy) with the difference being the high number of working hours, which is not typically mentioned in most other regions.

In **Eastern European countries**, jobs also aren't considered particularly attractive, according to the replies to the national questionnaires: low salaries and relatively weak benefits packages make them less attractive overall, than possible alternatives in the private sector. The situation is especially worrying for academic positions, while for administrative and technical staff, the conditions are considered in relative terms, less unattractive. In Moldova, Armenia and Belarus, however, unattractiveness of jobs in higher education is not considered a major issue. At the same time, brain-drain, especially into the private sector, is considered a real challenge, which might indicate, indirectly, the lack of attractiveness of positions offered by higher education institutions. As in many aspects investigated, Georgia differs from other countries in this region: jobs in higher education are considered relatively attractive, mainly because of their stability and prestige. Recent reforms have resulted in more transparent recruitment and promotion procedures, which is likely to have increased confidence in the professionalism of the sector. Some countries, like Azerbaijan and Belarus, implement specific actions to increase the attractiveness of the positions in higher education. These include, for example, improvement of research conditions, by additional funding from the institution's own funds or other conditions, such as longer vacations, flexible working hours and rotation of personnel.

Looking at the results of the on-line survey, the main perceived advantages and disadvantages of academic jobs in **Eastern Europe** are comparable to those in the other regions. However, it is worth noting that the fact of having an interesting job ranks highest in Eastern Europe (before employment stability and a good social status). For administrative and technical positions, the interesting work also appears to be one of the main advantages, which is not the case in most other regions. Among the disadvantages, the high number of working hours is quite frequently mentioned (as in Central Asia).

As in the other ex-Soviet countries, in **Russia**, jobs in higher education also aren't considered very attractive. According to several interviewees, older staff work in higher education because of a commitment to certain values and especially for academics, it is rather a question of lifestyle choice. The perception is that, for younger staff, salary and career prospects seems to matter more, which makes this sector unattractive for them. Russia tries to find new ways to attract and retain highly qualified staff, also through the creation of new types of higher education institutions with a special status, special funds and extended academic freedoms. This initiative may indeed bring and retain some highly qualified researchers into the country, but concerns only a small number of individuals overall, compared to the whole sector.

Whereas the results of the on-line survey for academic staff in **Russia** are similar to those of the other regions, it can, however, be noted that the fact of having an interesting job ranks highest among the advantages. This confirms the above-mentioned conclusions related to the attitudes of at least older academic staff. For administrative staff, interesting work also appears among the "top three" advantages, as in Eastern Europe.

In the **Middle East**, according to staff interviewed, some of the main attractions of jobs in higher education institutions are the job stability, the civil servants status and good additional benefits. At the same time, salaries are not considered competitive, which leads to the need to hold more than one position or to teach extra hours at other – usually private – institutions. For administrative staff, the attraction of jobs in higher education institutions seems greater, in comparison with other alternatives, than for academic staff. Institutions in remote areas or in countries with a higher degree of political instability and unrest have understandably, a more significant problem with the lack of attractiveness. In Egypt, where academic jobs at public institutions are not considered particularly attractive, competitive scholarship schemes and better research conditions are used to attract highly qualified young staff. In Lebanon, the planned changes in the status of contractual staff, reinforcement of research policies and improvement of social allowances and a retirement scheme, are used to increase the attractiveness of higher education jobs.

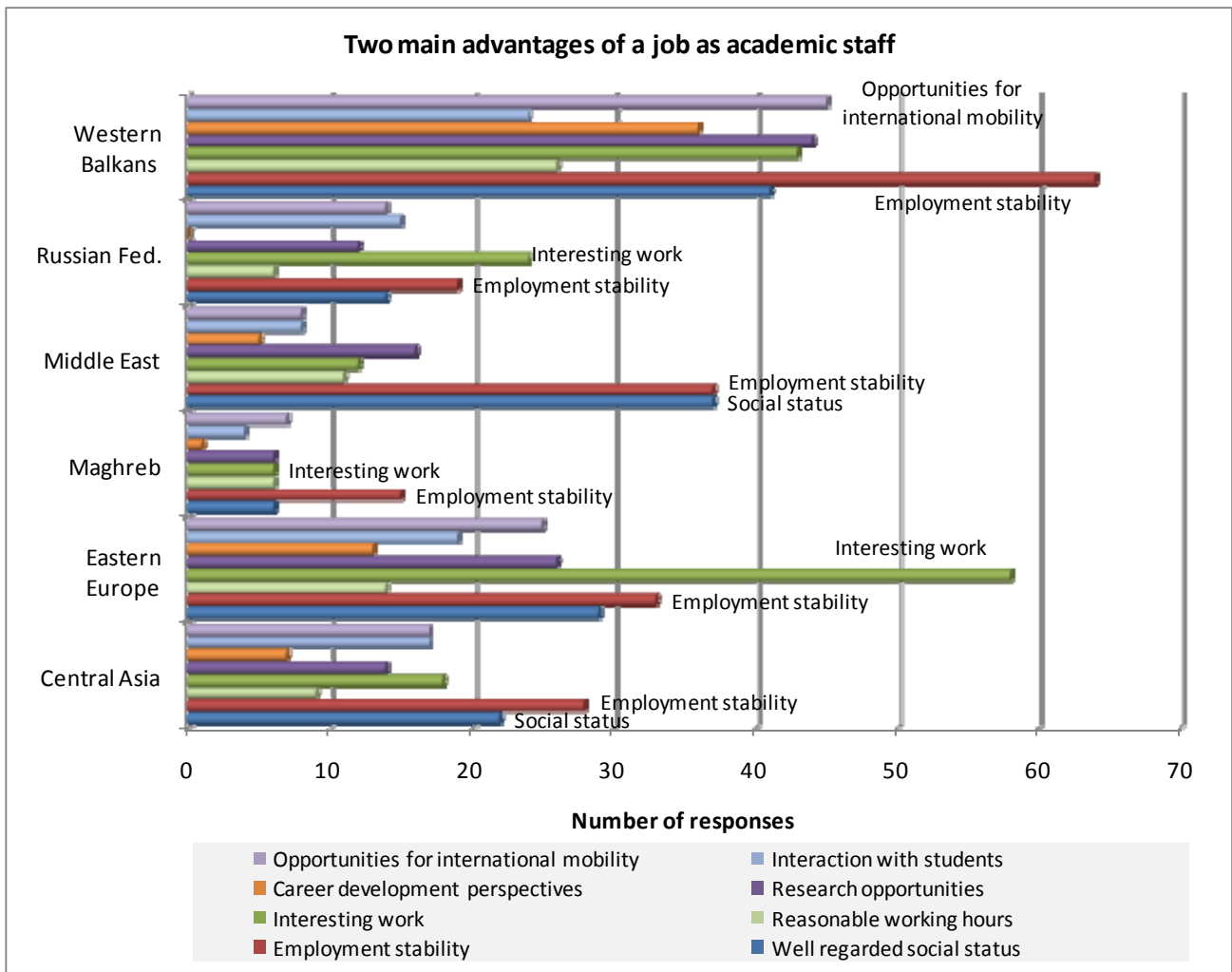
According to the on-line survey, one of the main differences in the Middle East, compared to other regions, is the fact that the lack of research opportunities appears to be one of the highest ranking disadvantages in academic positions. As far as administrative and technical staff is concerned, the well-regarded social status appears to be one of the main advantages, which is not the case in all regions.

While in most regions, it seems that jobs in higher education suffer from lack of attractiveness, vis-à-vis other sectors of the economy, the picture is somewhat different in the **Western Balkans** and in the **Maghreb**. Indeed, in the former, jobs in higher education are considered relatively attractive overall, or at least not particularly unattractive. This is valid, equally for academic and administrative staff in most Western Balkan countries. In Algeria and Morocco, jobs in higher education are considered very attractive, thanks to flexible working hours, stability of jobs and good salaries. In addition, in Algeria good research grants attract high level academics and furthermore, mobility opportunities and scholarships are used to increase attractiveness. For example in Morocco, the main problem with jobs in higher education is not related to the lack of attractiveness, but rather to the difficulty in finding the right profiles in the labour market, that meet the requirements of the higher education sector.

It is difficult to draw conclusions for the Maghreb region from the on-line survey, considering that very few respondents had replied to all the questions linked to attractiveness. The main result that can be observed is that, both for academic and administrative staff, the stability of employment seems to be considered as the main advantage. As far as the Western Balkans is concerned, some specificities can be noted when comparing the replies to the on-line survey with those of other regions. For academic staff, the possibilities for research seem to be particularly important: on the one hand, this is considered as one of the main advantages of academic jobs, but interestingly also the lack of the research opportunities appears as one of the main disadvantages. As for administrative and technical staff, the region differs from others in two aspects: long holidays appear as one of the main advantages, while in other regions, this is not the case and the lack of career development perspectives is considered as one of the main disadvantages, to a higher extent than in most other regions.

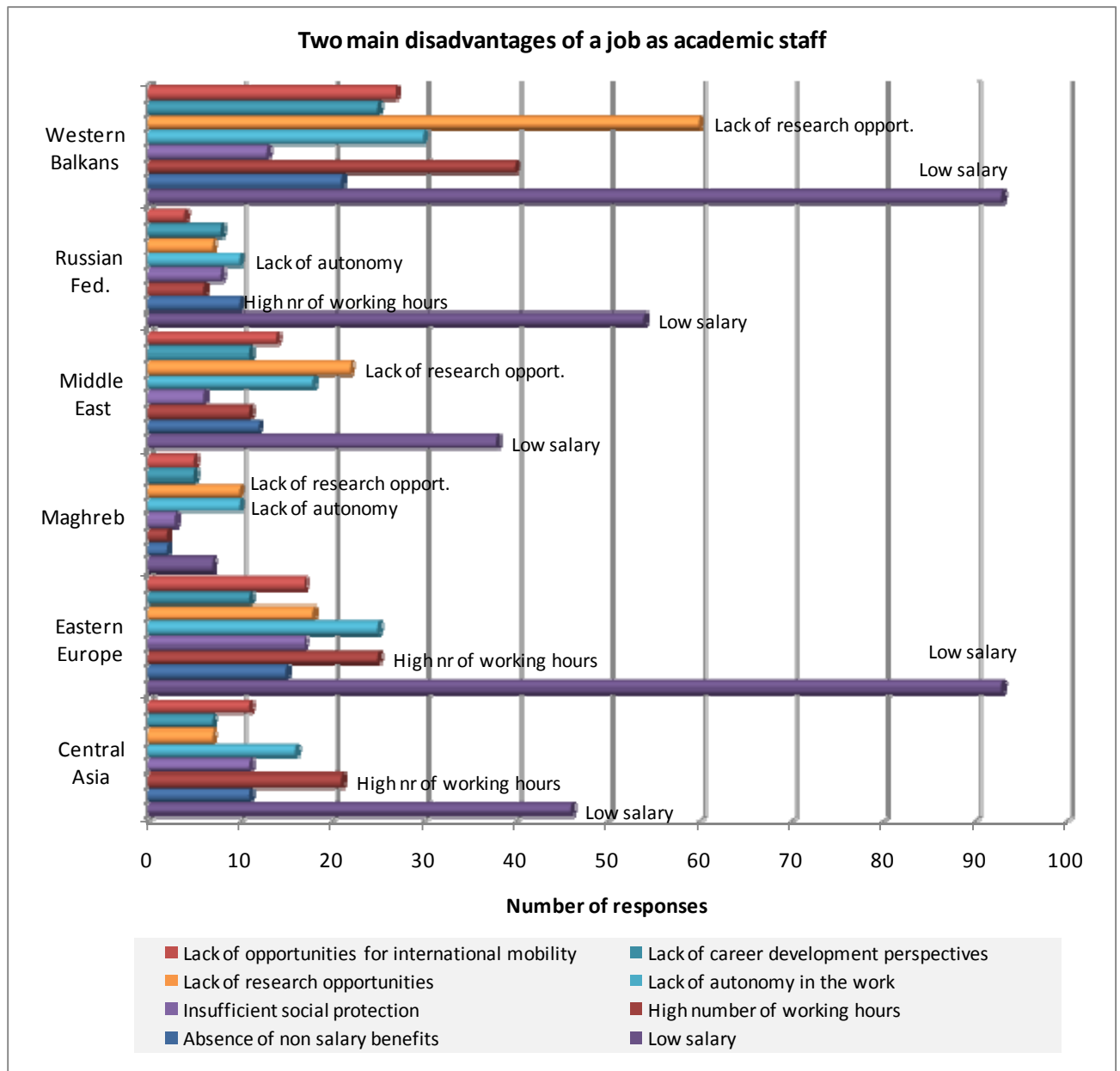
The graphs 11 to 14 below show the distribution of answers by region to the on-line survey on the questions related to the attractiveness of jobs, as academic or administrative and technical staff in higher education institutions.

Chart 11 – Main advantages of a job as academic staff



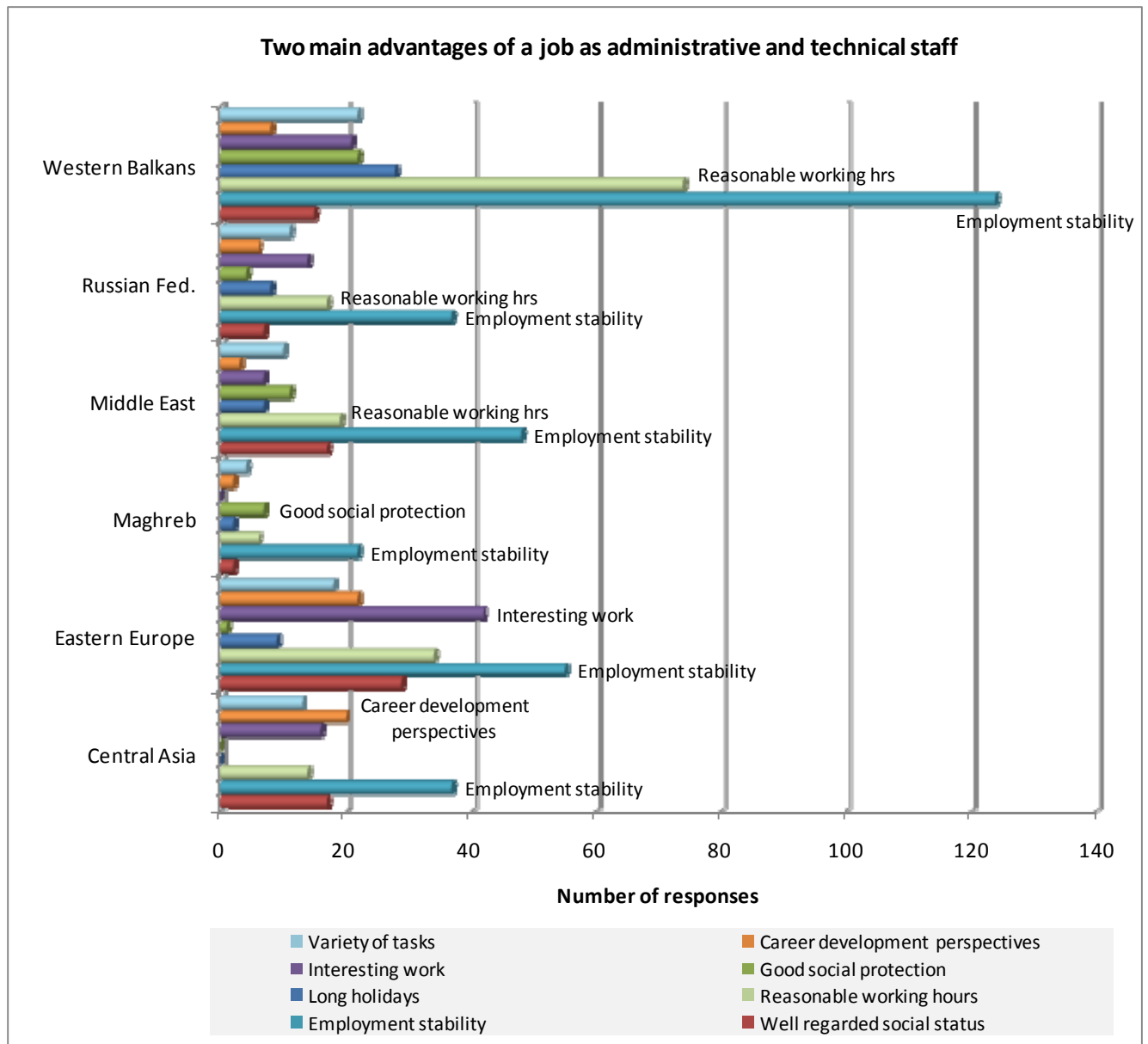
Source: On-line survey, question A.5: "In your opinion, which are the two main advantages of a job as academic staff in a public higher education institution in your country?"

Chart 12 – Main disadvantages of a job as academic staff



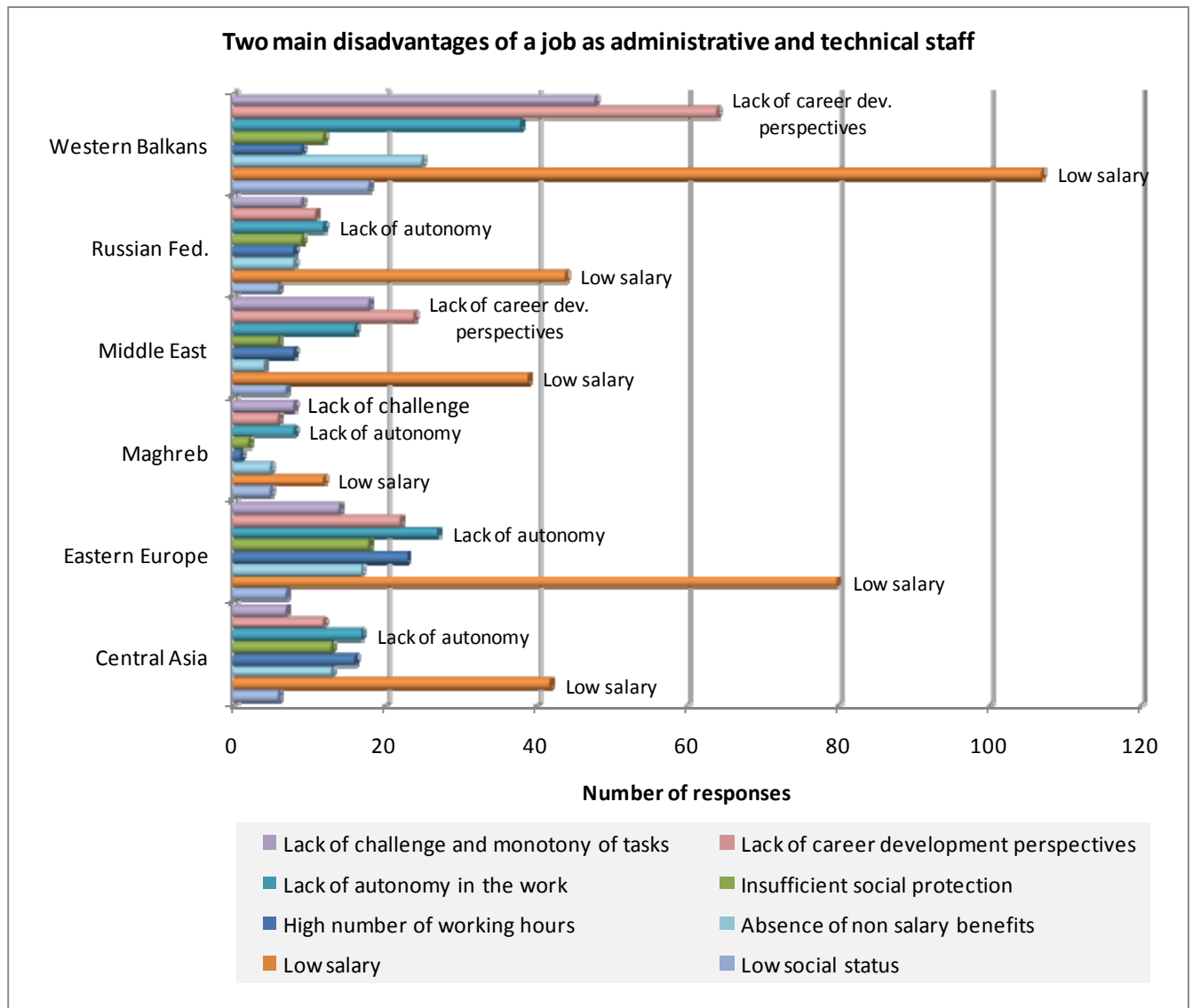
Source: On-line survey, question A.6: "In your opinion, which are the main disadvantages of a job as academic staff in a public higher education institution in your country?"

Chart 13 – Main advantages of a job as administrative and technical staff



Source: On-line survey, question A.7: "In your opinion, which are the two main advantages of a job as administrative or technical staff in a public higher education institution in your country?"

Chart 14 – Main disadvantages of a job as administrative and technical staff



Source: On-line survey, question A.8: "In your opinion, which are the main disadvantages of a job as administrative or technical staff in a public higher education institution in your country?"

11.3. Impressions from interviews

The interpretations of the findings above are also coloured by the perceptions collected through individual interviews of higher education staff during the site visits. After having looked into the extent of brain-drain in the different regions included in this study, it is important to try and link those phenomena to the perceived and effective difficulties that public higher education institutions face to attract, recruit and retain high quality staff.

One of the presumed problems with jobs in higher education institutions is that the positions are not sufficiently attractive to draw the best available candidates. In fact, it seems that the lack of attractiveness of salaries or less than ideal research conditions and opportunities may lead to brain-drain abroad, or out of public institutions towards private business and private higher education institutions in the home country or elsewhere.

However, at the same time, higher education jobs often provide favourable conditions or other advantages which ‘money cannot buy’: indeed, interviewees often spoke about dedication to teaching, self-development, gratification and even used the word ‘vocation’. Often the university environment is highly appreciated for its atmosphere and people are ready to accept worse conditions to be able to work in ‘a nice place’. Some interviewees of administrative staff, especially from the international offices also consider the jobs relatively attractive, regardless of uncompetitive salaries because they consider the job ‘dynamic’ and it allows staff to learn, progress and gain experiences in international contexts. One can then presume that while better conditions would make positions in higher education institutions more attractive and consequently, the potential pool of candidate for available positions larger and more qualified, this aspect only tells a part of the story.

It is also very interesting to observe the main advantages, as identified by interviewed individuals and the presumed impact this may have on human resource management at the institutional or national level. Just by way of example, the fact that jobs in higher education institutions are often considered very stable, almost regardless of the actual duration of the contract, is one of its main attractions. On the other hand, strategically, short-term contracts have been introduced in several countries, in order to be able to select and re-select staff based on performance and in this way, also motivate staff to perform well with consistency throughout the years.

While some deductions on the potential attractiveness of jobs in higher education for the different staff categories and in comparison with other jobs can be made, on the basis of tangible aspects, such as salaries, benefits, research opportunities and so on, the overall perception of the attractiveness of jobs is of central importance to understanding the main attractions and problems related to human resources in public institutions.

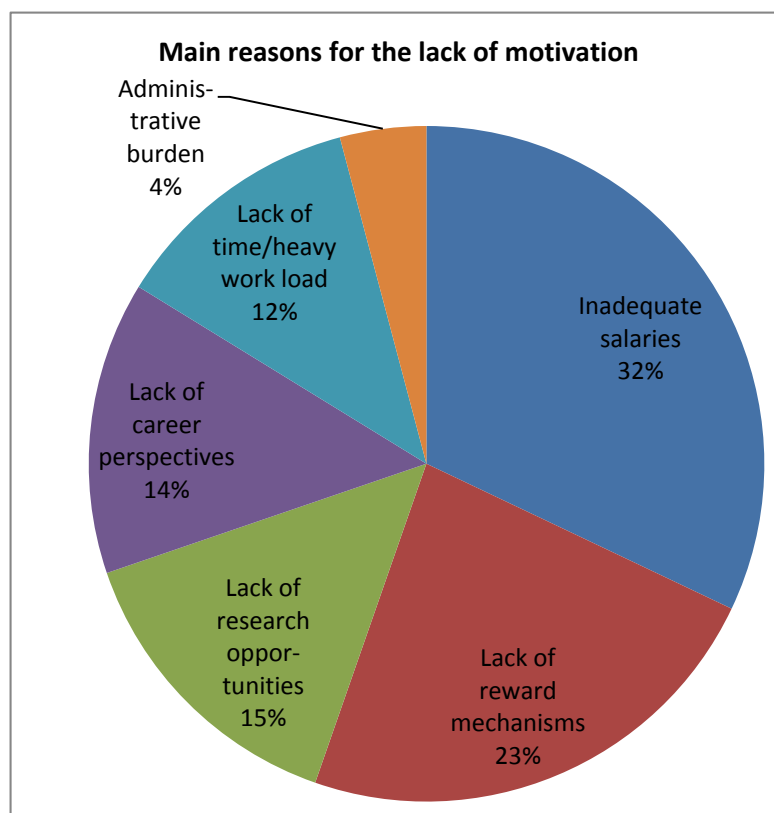
12. Skills and motivation

According to the perceptions of the national authorities, the perceived lack of attractiveness of jobs in higher education may lead to or have led in some countries to a less qualified pool of candidates, with insufficient skills and motivation. Existing staff also may consider that the demands brought about by the modernisation agendas and increasing internationalisation, are not reflected in their working conditions and remunerations or that, indeed, they are not given the tools and means to develop the skills needed to address new and changing expectations. This may lead to lack of motivation and in some cases, even to a strong resistance to change.

The perception of the motivation of academic staff, as expressed by the respondents to the on-line survey, is somewhat more complex and divides the respondents. Of the total replies, around 50% of respondents consider that academic staff in their country does not have sufficient motivation to develop and improve their work, while 40% think the opposite and 10% do not give their opinion. The situation is different when looking at the results at regional level. In Central Asia, for example, a clear majority of respondents (57%) consider academic staff to be motivated, while in Russia, 69% of them find that academics are lacking motivation.

When asked about the reasons for the lack of motivation of academic staff (Chart 15), the inadequate salaries are one of the most often mentioned reasons, together with the lack of reward mechanisms and lack of time, due to heavy workload.

Chart 15 – Reasons for lack of motivation of academic staff



Source: On-line survey, question A.22.a: "In your opinion, what are the two main reasons for the lack of motivation of academic staff?" The percentages represent the proportion of the number of times each choice was selected as answer to the question.

The lack of research opportunities appears as a demotivating factor in particular in the Western Balkans and the Middle East, thus reflecting again the fact that research is seen by academic staff in these countries as an integral component of higher education.

When asked in the on-line questionnaire, what would be the best way to boost the motivation of academic staff, financial incentives are most often mentioned in all regions. Improved career perspectives and better research possibilities are also among the most frequently mentioned solutions, with a particular emphasis on research possibilities in the Western Balkans.

For administrative and technical staff, inadequate salaries also appear as the main reason for the lack of motivation, followed by the lack of reward mechanisms and lack of career perspectives.

Questions related to the skills of the different categories of staff were included, both in the national questionnaires and in the on-line survey. While academic staff skills are, in most Tempus countries, considered sufficient, according to the national questionnaires or even very good, in terms of the subject-specific knowledge and expertise, the lack of additional skills, such as academic writing, communication and foreign language skills may impede the individuals and institutions from taking full advantage of the professional skills that staff possess. In other words, without skills, such as foreign languages, that may be considered secondary for some academic fields, research results cannot be disseminated and the impact remains limited.

According to the national questionnaires, the problem is not the same in all countries or regions and the extent to which a lack of skills is considered a problem, also varies between staff categories. In fact, in most cases, the skills of academic staff are considered satisfactory overall – perhaps with the occasional exception regarding language and IT skills, while for administrative staff, the problem seems to be more pronounced. However, the lack of flexibility and adaptability, as well as resistance to change, were mentioned by many countries among the most significant obstacles to the modernisation of the higher education systems. Detailed tables on the main obstacles to modernisation by region, as collected through the national questionnaires, can be found in Annex 4.11.

Similar findings can be noted in the on-line survey, where a majority of respondents (59%) considered academic staff as well as Rectors and Deans. to have the necessary professional skills to carry out their tasks. As in the national questionnaires, the figure was lower for administrative and technical staff, with 48% of respondents considering that professional skills of this group are sufficient. The most often-mentioned skills or attitudes which were lacking for this group were foreign language skills and willingness to implement change, while respondents see the IT skills of both groups as better generally, than what is reported in the national questionnaires.

From the national perspective, the main weakness in terms of skills in **Central Asia** were the foreign language skills of all staff categories, with often a greater lack of skills indicated for administrative and technical staff. Similar results appear in the on-line survey, where the lack of foreign language skills is the most frequently mentioned weakness, for both academic and administrative staff. In addition to languages, IT skills are also not always considered to be appropriately developed, according to the national questionnaires, though more work seems to have been done in this area than with language skills, e.g. through specific training programmes offered by national-level entities or the institutions. In Tajikistan, the main challenge is presented by the lack of highly-qualified academics and the lack of professional, language and IT skills of those employed.

In **Eastern Europe**, for academics, the main challenges from the national point of view are posed most of all, by the lack of language skills and in second place, by lack of IT skills. Language skills are also considered an issue by the on-line survey respondents, followed by the lack of team working skills and unwillingness to

implement changes, while IT skills are more frequently considered as good. The lack of flexibility and resistance to change by academic staff also causes a challenge in some countries, according to the national questionnaires (Moldova, Armenia, Georgia). From the national perspective, the challenges in relation to administrative and technical staff relate mainly to the lack of language skills and in some countries, also the lack of professional and IT skills. As an exception, in Azerbaijan, neither a lack of skills nor attitudes towards change, seem to be an issue for either of the staff categories. In the on-line replies for the region, the lack of language skills of administrative staff is followed by the lack of team working skills and unwillingness to implement changes, as for academic staff. In **Russia**, the main issue in terms of skills shortage, according to both national and individual replies, concerns the foreign language skills of both administrative and academic staff. In addition, administrative staff's lack of adaptability and autonomy is considered at the national levels as an important obstacle for the development of institutions. The respondents of the on-line survey also highlight the feeling of incapacity of this staff group to propose and implement changes and on the other hand, their unwillingness to implement changes.

In **Maghreb**, in terms of academic staff, the skills are considered good, with an eventual issue in Morocco regarding language skills. There is a slight concern in Algeria regarding resistance to change of academic staff. In Morocco, for administrative staff, a problem is posed by the lack of language skills and professional skills. In the on-line replies, the unwillingness to implement changes is frequently mentioned at regional level for both academic and administrative staff.

In **the Middle East**, from the national point of view, the skills-level of academic staff is considered satisfactory across the region, thanks to high-level recruitment requirements and almost 100% PhD attainment amongst senior academics. The main weaknesses lie in attitudes, including lack of flexibility and resistance to change, though this is not mentioned as an issue in Egypt or in Lebanon. In the replies to the on-line survey, the main weaknesses of academic staff are not seen in the basic skills related to IT or languages, but the most frequently mentioned are the lack of team working skills and unwillingness to implement changes. . An exception, in the national questionnaires was Syria where IT, language and professional skills of academic staff are not considered sufficient for the needs of the sector. In terms of administrative staff, the lack of language skills and in some cases of professional and IT skills is an important area for development, in order to be better able to respond to the needs of an increasingly international sector and more advanced technology. Resistance to change by administrative staff is also a significant obstacle in some countries, including Jordan, Lebanon and Syria. The replies to the on-line questionnaires point in the same direction, language skills appearing as the main weakness, followed by an unwillingness to implement changes and a lack of team working skills.

In **the Western Balkans**, the main issues reported in the national questionnaires in terms of academic staff were their lack of flexibility and resistance to change. In the on-survey, unwillingness to implement changes is also one of the most frequently mentioned weaknesses. Skills are considered satisfactory overall, though in some national contexts, language skills are not yet considered sufficient. The questionnaire for Bosnia and Herzegovina expressed a concern for the lack of experienced academic staff, which would at the same time be open to change. In other words, young staff may be more open to change, but lack the needed experience. For administrative staff in the Western Balkans, the main issues in the national questionnaires pertain to the lack of language and IT skills. Resistance to change is also considered an issue sometimes. In the on-line replies, the lack of language skills also appears to be a major issue, followed by resistance to change and lack of team working skills.

As far as **Deans and Rectors** are concerned, the on-line survey also included questions on the skills and attitudes of this staff group. More than half of the respondents (56%) consider that the majority of Rectors and Deans have the necessary professional skills to carry out their tasks and the figures are even higher in Central Asia and in Russia, where almost 70% of respondents have confidence in the skills of management-level staff. Respondents, who considered the professional skills of Deans and Rectors insufficient, indicated

recruitment criteria mostly based on political considerations or criteria insufficiently focused on competences and skills as the main reasons.

When asked in greater detail about the weaknesses in skills and attitudes of Rectors and Deans, their unwillingness to implement change appears as the main issue, according to the respondents of the on-line survey and this can be noted for each of the regions. The lack of foreign language skills appears in particular in replies concerning Central Asia, Eastern Europe and Russia, while insufficient team working skills are frequently mentioned in the Western Balkans and to some extent, also in Maghreb countries and the Middle East.

13. Conclusions and recommendations

13.1 Main findings

The present report had the mandate to investigate the factors influencing human resource management in public higher education institutions in the Tempus Partner Countries. The objective was to investigate, to what extent, some unfavourable conditions, such as inadequate recruitment procedures and lack of career progression schemes may be hindering the development of human resources in higher education, to their greatest potential and identify current policies and strategies at national and institutional level to address those issues. Since further pressure on higher education systems is created by negative demographic curves in several countries, brain-drain and a more competitive environment for the best graduates, human resource management and staff development are becoming important issues for higher education systems and institutions to address. This report aims to give an overview of the state of play in the Tempus Partner Countries on issues related to human resource management and additionally provides a number of good practice examples on how countries or institutions have addressed the challenges they are currently facing in this field.

13.1.1 National policies

Human resource management is, in most cases, considered the joint responsibility of national authorities and public higher education institutions. However, in almost as many cases, human resource management is considered mainly a task of the institutions. In some cases, the fact that institutions are solely responsible is an outcome of a lack of national strategies in human resource management, whereas in others, human resource management is considered an important area of institutional autonomy and as such, not interfered with by national authorities. However, as human resources management is often understood in a rather restricted sense, the fact that in most countries, national authorities set the framework for contracts, salaries and recruitments may have led countries to opt for 'shared responsibility', even in cases where human resource development is not part of the task of one or both levels.

While the importance of human resource management is recognised in many countries and regions included in this study, only five countries reported on specific human resource-related strategies at national level. At the same time, national strategies are considered very important by institutional actors and they are needed to support and give direction to institutional initiatives.

13.1.2 Academic staff – recruitment, career management and working conditions

The recruitment procedures, contractual conditions and possibilities for staff development and career advancement are important factors in attracting and maintaining qualified staff at public institutions, as well as in ensuring that the staff are not only retained, but that their skills and capacities are constantly upgraded to meet the changing requirements set on the higher education sector. Some problematic issues related to these topics were identified through the national questionnaires, the on-line survey and the site-visit interviews:

- 1) Recruitment processes: high frequency of internal recruitment and lack of transparency of procedures used, corruption and nepotism, use of selection methods and criteria that do not support the recruitment of the best-suited candidates for the jobs and restrictive legal frameworks may be unsupportive to the development of the sector.
- 2) Career progression and training: lack of progression prospects, prolonged time spent within one institution, lack or inadequacy of performance evaluations, lack of training and lack of sufficient

motivation and incentives may hinder the retention of staff and attraction of new talent into institutions.

- 3) Working conditions: lack of research opportunities, political pressure and lack of autonomy, excessive working hours, contract duration, low salaries and the necessity to take up multiple positions, make jobs at public higher education institutions less attractive.

These problem areas are being recognised to varying degrees, by several countries and institutions and a number of positive examples of how these issues have been tackled, have been described in this report. There is a tendency towards a more professionalised selection of staff, with more open and transparent selection mechanisms to combat corruption. In terms of career management, institutions across the regions start to understand the importance of staff training and use training programmes, together with financial incentives and reward schemes, to motivate staff, to develop their skills and capacities further. While the importance of continuous staff training is increasingly being accepted, it is met, at the same time, with resistance by some staff, who does not always see the need for or benefit of training.

As regards the contractual conditions, salaries create a significant limitation to the attractiveness of the sector, but in some cases, improved contractual conditions, substantial side benefits, as well as longer holidays and flexible working hours continue to be seen as important job benefits in higher education. In some countries, heavy workloads and the necessity to hold multiple job positions reveals the difficult conditions. Such practices hamper the implementation of reforms and contradict their objectives, for instance concerning the necessary improvement of the quality of teaching and the development of research activities.

13.1.3 Administrative and technical staff – recruitment, career management and working conditions

Less information was provided through the questionnaires and during the site visits on administrative and technical staff conditions, than for academic staff, which could be taken as an indication that their role is not considered of primary importance to the development of the sector. However, administrative staff and their commitment and skills can be crucial to the successful modernisation of institutions and therefore it is necessary to pay careful attention to their recruitment, career management systems and working conditions.

Overall, there is less control by national authorities in the recruitment of administrative staff and open competitions, while often employed by institutions, are less common than for academic positions. In addition, recruitment decisions are usually taken by the institutions, rather than at national level. The fact that procedures are relatively unchanged since 2000 across all regions, may indicate that while the need for new methods to recruit the best academic staff is gradually being recognised, the same has not yet happened concerning administrative and technical staff. Indeed, most countries have reported the lack of appropriate skills of administrative and technical staff and the high degree of internal recruitments, as some of the main challenges in respect to this staff category. Similarly, the development of training schemes for administrative staff is a step behind the development of training for academic staff and is not a high priority in most of the countries investigated.

In terms of work contracts, there is a clear trend that administrative and technical staff contracts are longer in duration than those of academic staff and short-term contracts often apply mainly to junior staff. Even in the case of temporary contracts, jobs at public institutions are considered very stable. Salaries of administrative and technical staff are often more in line with salaries offered for jobs outside public higher education. In addition, the relatively good side benefits, the stability of jobs in higher education institutions and the flexibility of time schedules, make administrative and technical positions relatively attractive in most countries.

13.1.4 Management staff (Rectors and Deans)

Institutional management naturally holds a key role in the development, strategic positioning and modernisation of higher education institutions. Therefore, the management of this particularly central human resource is naturally of high importance to the success of institutions and indeed, for the modernisation of the higher education systems.

Some problematic issues concern the lack of open competition for positions in senior management, their often politicised selection or appointment, the lack of adequate selection criteria based on the managerial skills needed by the institutions, the lack of training opportunities or training requirements and the different kinds of political pressures that institutional management may be subjected to. However, some interesting examples of good practice can be found, underlining the increased will to achieve transparency and to select the effectively best candidates, able to support the strategic goals of the institution and their modernisation.

13.1.5 The wider context

Most Tempus Partner Countries face a serious problem with the aging of staff in their public higher education institutions. The main causes of the problem are:

- Lack of young qualified staff due to the ageing of population in the country
- Lack of young staff due to brain-drain abroad or into the private sector, mainly due to unattractive salaries and other conditions in higher education institutions
- Late retirement of current staff, which makes access to jobs more difficult for younger staff.

The inadequate gender balance is also a cause for concern in several Tempus Partner Countries. While in many of these countries, the numbers of female students are on the rise, the higher positions in academia and management are still held far more often by men than women. The degree of the problem varies and indeed, in some countries, the balance is reversed in favour of females, also among different staff categories. The imbalance is often much less visible in the case of administrative and technical, than academic staff.

In terms of “brain-drain”, both pull and push factors are at play in determining its extent and direction. For international brain-drain, the main reasons are mainly better research opportunities and higher salaries abroad and/or the unstable political situation and lack of incentives in the home country. Several countries report internal competition from businesses, rather than international brain-drain, as the main source of concern. There is an increasing awareness in several countries of the importance of human resources to the growth and development of the country and therefore, several examples of policies and financial incentives to reverse brain-drain can be found.

While the lack of competitiveness of salaries or less than ideal research conditions may lead to brain-drain abroad or towards the private sector, at the same time, higher education jobs often provide favourable conditions or other advantages which ‘money cannot buy’. The university environment is often highly appreciated for its atmosphere and people are ready to accept worse conditions, to be able to work in ‘a nice place’ or a ‘dynamic environment’ and many staff members value the contact with students and see teaching as their ‘vocation’. While some deductions on the potential attractiveness of jobs in higher education can be made on the basis of formal aspects, gaining an overall perception of the attractiveness of jobs is of central importance in understanding the main assets and problems related to human resources in public institutions.

13.2 Regional specificities

Summarising comprehensively the specific features in terms of human resource management in each region is a difficult task. This section underlines however, some of the main features in this area of investigation that are typical, particularly problematic, or well addressed in each of the six regions investigated in this study. It must be remembered that not all features apply in a similar way to all countries of each region and that some generalisations were necessary in this context.

13.2.1 Central Asia

In most **Central Asian** countries, unattractiveness of jobs in higher education is considered a significant problem. Low salaries and a high number of student contact-hours and relatively weak side benefits contribute to this situation. There are no civil servants in public institutions in the region. Institutions are independent to decide on promotions and have relative freedom in staff appointments. However, the Rectors of institutions are appointed by national authorities. The gender balance of staff is relatively good, with some variations across the region.

The level of PhD attainment among senior teaching staff is among the lowest among the Tempus regions and language and IT skills are reported as an area that needs to be urgently addressed. On the other hand, systematic training of staff is available for academic staff across the region. This shows a positive attitude towards further development of training schemes, to modernise them to better meet the current training and skills needs.

Many countries of the region face a negative demographic turn of the overall population and need to reduce numbers of teaching staff in the next five years.

13.2.2 Eastern Europe

In **Eastern European countries**, jobs in public higher education are not considered particularly attractive: low salaries and relatively weak benefits packages make these jobs less attractive overall, than possible alternatives in the private sector. The situation is especially worrying for academic positions, while for administrative and technical staff, the conditions are considered more attractive in relative terms.

In several Eastern European countries, recruitment requirements are set entirely by the national authorities, which mean that institutions have little freedom to steer the selection in a direction that might best fit their specific mission and objectives. Similarly, institutions have little autonomy for decisions regarding salaries and the implementation of rewards. On the other hand, institutional bodies may often select the Rector and other management level staff directly.

There are currently relatively low proportions of PhD candidates among senior academic staff and the lack of foreign language skills creates a problem for the modernisation of the sector. There is very little systematic training available at any level. In fact, European projects are seen as one of the most important training tools available for staff at higher education institutions.

There are more women in administrative positions, representing in some cases, the highest figures across all regions.

International brain-drain is of less concern than competition from the private sector nationally. At the same time, institutions will need to reduce the number of teaching staff in the next decade.

13.2.3 Russia

As in the other ex-Soviet countries, in **Russia** jobs in higher education also aren't considered very attractive, due to the high number of contact-hours with students, the lack of opportunities for research and low salaries. Russia tries to find new ways to attract highly qualified staff into the sector, for example by the creation of new types of higher education institutions, with a special status, special funds and extended academic freedom. Institutions enjoy a relatively high degree of autonomy overall, for the recruitment and promotion of staff.

Staff training concentrates on institutional initiatives and European projects are seen as one of the main training tools. The main skills shortage is in the area of foreign language skills, while IT skills are widespread.

International brain-drain does not seem to be a serious cause for concern. Rather, the main competition at national level comes from the private sector.

13.2.4 Maghreb

Positions in higher education in the Maghreb countries are considered more attractive than in any other region: all staff has civil servant status and relatively high salaries and in some cases, very good benefits packages. As all staff members are civil servants, recruitment requirements, salaries and promotions are decided upon mainly by the national authorities. Promotions are based mainly on formal criteria, such as years of service. Due to the favourable conditions and overall attractiveness of positions in higher education institutions, there is little competition for the best candidates at national level by e.g. private companies. Most countries in the region have high numbers of PhDs in academia and the skills levels of staff are considered good overall. In fact, the main issue is reportedly the resistance of staff to change, rather than their inability to respond to the challenges posed by modernisation. There is little staff training available at all levels.

Ageing does not pose a serious problem for the sector and institutions need rather to increase their staffing levels in the next five years, due to increases in student numbers. Gender balance has not yet been reached however and the figures are low, especially in academic positions.

13.2.5 Middle East

In the **Middle East**, some of the main attractions of jobs in higher education institutions are the job stability and good additional benefits. At the same time, salaries are not considered attractive, which leads to the need to hold multiple positions. For administrative staff, the attraction of jobs in higher education institutions seems higher in comparison to other alternatives, than for academic staff. It is possible for institutions to implement financial rewards, although they are usually the same for all staff in the same category. However, this is the only region which, overall, reports on a *de facto* decrease of salaries in the past 10 years, due to inflation growing faster than salaries¹⁷.

Recruitment requirements are relatively stringent and often more detailed and comprehensive than in other Tempus regions. There is a very high percentage of PhD holders among senior academic staff in Middle Eastern countries. In fact, lack of skills is not considered a serious problem, but rather the attitudes of staff towards change. Rectors are appointed by national authorities in all countries except Israel, where Rectors are elected at institutional level, without need for approval by national authorities.

¹⁷

Israel reports that salaries have increased slightly in the 10 year period.

There is a well-developed awareness on the importance of further professional training across the region. Training concentrates on institutional initiatives and is often taken into consideration in promotion decisions, which typically include not only formal but also performance-based criteria.

Some of the countries in the region suffer from severe international brain-drain, especially to the richer neighbouring countries and the imbalance in gender distribution, especially in academic positions, is a problem.

13.2.6 Western Balkans

Higher education jobs can be considered relatively attractive in the Western Balkans region. The salaries are considered relatively attractive and contact-hours with students are among the lowest across Tempus countries.

In most cases, institutions are independent to decide on promotions and recruitment and they may also implement financial incentives. The lack of integration of the universities (autonomous sub-units) in several countries is an obstacle to harmonising human resource management practices within the institutions. Selection processes are now, most typically, open to all qualified candidates and important changes to increase transparency have been implemented in many countries in the region, in the recent past. However, sometimes personal connections continue to play a role in appointments. The Rectors are elected by the institutions, sometimes involving all staff and students in the process.

There is very little systematic training available at any level for staff in public higher education institutions. While there is scope for the improvement of language skills, the main issue in the region is considered to be the lack of flexibility of staff and their adaptability to new requirements.

Staff in Western Balkan institutions is relatively young and while brain-drain is a cause for concern in many countries of the region, some national schemes have been established to combat the phenomenon.

13.3 Recommendations

National strategies and support for human resource development

There is a clear need for a national strategy and national-level support for the development of human resources management structures and methods across the Tempus Partner Countries. Countries which have set up financing schemes as parts of their national strategies, have managed to reverse some negative trends, such as brain-drain, aging or the inadequate skills-levels of staff. National strategies and support should however be coupled with sufficient independence and autonomy, for institutions to find the best ways to meet their own institutional mission and objectives.

As one of the main problems in the attractiveness of higher education jobs, is the relatively low salaries in many countries, national-level action in this area will be important, as public institutions rely on public funds for salary payments, to a large degree. In other words, while autonomy in setting supplementary financial reward schemes may be important, it is, at the same time important for the national authorities to ensure that the basic salaries are sufficient to ensure that highly quality staff may be recruited and retained in public higher education institutions. Losing the best brains to private companies or to abroad would be to the disadvantage of entire countries.

While the creation of flagship institutions with special funding may be important for the visibility of the country's higher education sector and for the development of its research capacity, they are not a sufficient response to the problems related to human resource management in higher education. It is important to

find ways to protect and support institutions that have fewer resources and are e.g. remotely located: these are the institutions worst hit by brain-drain and which struggle the most to attract and retain high quality staff.

National-level legal frameworks are often important to maintain minimum standards across institutions, to protect the employees and to make sure public funds are used efficiently. At the same time, institutional autonomy in issues related to staff recruitment, promotion and implementation of financial and other incentives, may be an important way to ensure the attractiveness of institutions and to motivate their leadership to develop institutional strategies and schemes to support the institutional, as well as national objectives in the terms of human resources management.

Institutional strategies and management of human resources

In addition to national strategies, it is essential that institutions create their own strategies on human resource management. These strategies should be translated into concrete action plans and they should make reference to a wider concept of human resource management, as not limited to a set of structural approaches and measures.

Applying transparent and open recruitment procedures

Recruitment of staff in both categories and at all levels, including management level, should be carried out following transparent and open procedures. This is necessary to ensure that the best and most suitable candidates are selected and that the institutions remain as independent from political influence as possible. It is also necessary to build in mechanisms to monitor that transparent and open procedures are also followed through in practice.

Appointment of institutional management staff by the national authorities may impede the selection of the best suited candidate, as political considerations weigh heavily on the balance. Applying clear selection criteria and open Calls should be considered as a way to strengthen the management of the institution and ensure the right skills are available, for the use of institutional development.

Creating attractive working conditions

The financial conditions in some countries and institutions do not make it possible to attract staff on competitive salaries alone. Increased autonomy for institutions to add financial incentives may improve their chances of attracting more and better staff. While financial conditions are very important for all staff categories, they are also sensitive to other aspects, such as working conditions, academic freedom, flexibility and a sense of accomplishment. In some cases, it may thus take little to make a significant difference at the institutional or national level, by improving and sustaining research possibilities and by creating an environment, open to innovative approaches to teaching.

Motivating staff through incentives

Staff at higher education institutions often feels a close connection and a dedication to their institution and its work for society. However, unfavourable working conditions and a lack of incentives and encouragement may easily lead to a diminishing degree of motivation and opposition to change. Possibilities to offer financial and other incentives to staff with high performance, may lead to positive results in this regard.

Staff evaluations are an important tool to monitor the achievement of objectives and performance levels, but the best results are likely to be reached, if evaluations are designed so as to give staff positive and constructive ideas on how to improve their work. In other words, evaluations that focuses on enhancement

of performance rather than punishment due to failure, support staff development without undermining motivation.

Reward and evaluation schemes should also be designed for administrative staff.

Training of staff

In terms of career management, institutions across the regions start to understand the importance of staff training and use these, together with financial incentives and reward schemes, to motivate staff to develop their skills and capacities further. However, not all staff recognises the importance of training and there is consequently a clear need to demonstrate the benefits of training to staff. While financial incentives, rewards and consideration of training as a criterion for promotions may have a positive short-term impact on training attendance, in the longer term, a “training culture” where such initiatives are not seen as a “necessary nuisance”, but as a fundamentally positive opportunity for self-growth, needs to be achieved.

To achieve the purposes, training should take into account the current skills levels and development needs of all staff through a personalised approach. In many cases, training organised with good will, but without a clear understanding of the actual needs, has led to frustration and increased the negative response to training, as something only wasting time, rather than supporting staff development. Realising the relevance of training to their actual functions as academics of an institution, is central to a wider acceptance, appreciation and indeed the impact of training programmes.

Training of management-level staff on the specific skills required for their position would be desirable and set a good example to all staff on the importance and necessity of constant training and skills upgrading. Administrative staff’s skills need also should be addressed by specific training schemes.

Training should address, first of all, the most central areas of skills shortages, namely foreign language and IT skills. The continuous development of academic and subject-specific skills of academic staff also should be ensured, especially in systems where a high number of teaching hours may reduce the possibilities for scientific activity and research.

Considering existing and future benefits and conditions

When reforming the system and implementing changes to contractual conditions, salaries or additional benefits, national authorities and institutions, according to their responsibilities, should be well informed about the main attraction factors for jobs in public higher education in their context. If, for example, the stability of jobs is considered as one of the main attractions of higher education jobs, a plan to implement short-term contracts needs to take this fact into consideration.

Administrative staff

Overall, far too little attention is given to the recruitment requirements, skills, motivation and training of administrative and technical staff. It seems that often, administrative and technical staff is considered far removed from the core operations of institutions and when talking about the human resources of an institution, the main or exclusive focus is on academic staff. However, as administrative and technical staff can play an important role in the modernisation of institutions, this staff category should not be ignored when discussing human resource management in public higher education institutions. Comprehensive evaluation, reward and training schemes for administrative staff should be considered as important as those for academic staff.

Opening up for international recruitment

Very few of the countries investigated reported on significant international recruitment of staff. Clearly, unattractive conditions and low salaries may make many systems unattractive in the international market. However, the elimination of legal and structural obstacles to international recruitment and facilitating the mobility of local staff could have a significantly positive impact on the development of the sector. Where financially feasible, as a first step, re-attraction schemes of highly-skilled expatriates seem to bring positive results and could be seen as a first step in the internationalisation of staff recruitment.

International projects and programmes

International and especially European programmes, namely the Tempus Programme and Erasmus Mundus, are in many cases the only training and development opportunities available to staff at higher education institutions. Their central importance and strong impact on the institutions, as well as national policies in several countries must be underlined and applauded. Without the support of these programmes many good initiatives would not have taken place and the internationalisation and modernisation of several institutions would be giant steps behind its current state. However, it is neither sufficient nor sustainable to leave the task of human resource development and training exclusively to these programmes: while projects may be used as an initiator of new systems or processes, national authorities, together with institutions, should take on more responsibility for the development of human resources across the sector.

ANNEX 1

Brief overview of the Tempus programme

Brief overview of the Tempus programme

Tempus is the EU's external cooperation programme that has been supporting the modernisation of higher education systems in the European Union's neighbouring countries for over 20 years. The number of Partner Countries involved has changed during this time. At present, the programme covers the 27 countries in the Western Balkans, Central Asia, Eastern Europe, Northern Africa and the Middle East¹⁸.

Since its creation, Tempus has contributed to promoting cooperation between higher education institutions in the European Union and the Partner Countries, through various capacity building activities. It also promotes the voluntary convergence of higher education systems in these countries with EU policies and processes in higher education, including the Bologna Process. Indeed, the Bologna Process has become a reference for most of Tempus Partner Countries, by setting in motion a series of reforms, to modernise higher education systems and to make them more compatible and comparable.

Background

Initially covering countries in Central and Eastern Europe, the first phase of the programme was launched in 1990 and lasted until 1993. During this period, Tempus sought to contribute to socio-economic reforms, through cooperation in higher education. These countries were later to join the EU itself.

The second phase of the programme, Tempus II, covered the next six years (1994-2000). During this period, the programme was extended to certain countries in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. National priorities for the Programme, defined by national authorities were introduced for the first time.

The third phase of Tempus was implemented from 2000 to 2006. The concept of cooperation between different countries in the same region was introduced during this time. In the framework of the Euro-Mediterranean partnership, Tempus III was extended to North Africa and the Middle East, with a view to contributing to promoting socio-economic development of this region. The programme also aimed at promoting inter-cultural understanding as a means of sustainable growth, peace and reinforced the 'intercultural' and 'civil society' dimension of the EU's policies in these regions.

Since 2007, Tempus has entered its fourth phase, which runs until 2013. It puts emphasis on regional and cross-regional cooperation and reinforcing links between higher education and society. The programme currently covers 27 Partner Countries and territories. The programme is integrated into the European Union's 'Neighbourhood', 'Enlargement' and 'Development' policies, which aim to promote prosperity, stability and security.

Tempus is funded by three financial instruments: the Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance (IPA), the Development Cooperation Instrument (DCI) and the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI).

¹⁸

Tempus partners (2012): Albania, Algeria, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Egypt, Georgia, Israel, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, Libya, Moldova, Montenegro, Morocco, the occupied Palestinian territory, Russia, Serbia, Syria, Tajikistan, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan and Kosovo.

Main characteristics of Tempus

Tempus was designed to contribute to reforming and upgrading the higher education institutions and systems in the Tempus Partner Countries'. Through cooperation at higher education level, the programme also aims to strengthen civil society, promote democracy, as well as enhancing mutual understanding and intercultural dialogue between the EU and its partners. It promotes a "bottom-up" approach, since the content and methodology of the projects are left to project beneficiaries to define (within the priorities set by the Call). However, the Programme can also be described as "top-down", since the national and regional priorities are established by the national authorities in each Partner Country, to maximise the impact of the Programme on the higher education reform process.

Tempus IV supports three types of projects:

- *Joint Projects* target higher education institutions and fund multilateral partnerships between these EU and Partner Country institutions, to develop, modernise and disseminate new curricula, teaching methods and teaching materials. They also aim to enhance quality assurance mechanisms in institutions, modernise the governance and management of higher education institutions and strengthen their contribution to lifelong learning and the 'knowledge triangle' of 'education-research-innovation'.
- *Structural Measures* aim to reform higher education systems in the Partner Countries and to enhance their quality and relevance to the world of work and society at large. They promote further convergence with EU developments in the field of higher education. They focus on issues linked to the reform of governance in higher education institutions (qualification systems, quality assurance mechanisms, autonomy of institutions...) and foster links between higher education, the world of work and other sectors of education. They can also include studies and research, the organisation of national, regional and thematic conferences and seminars, the provision of training, policy advice and the dissemination of information.

Both Joint Projects and Structural Measures are funded through Calls for Proposal. The grant awarded varies between 0.5 to 1.5 million EUR.

- *Accompanying Measures* are funded through Calls for Tender or Framework Contracts. They comprise of dissemination and information activities such as thematic conferences, studies and activities which aim to identify and highlight good practice or consultation of stakeholders. They are also used to fund the National Tempus Offices and the activities of the group of 'Higher Education Reform Experts' in the Tempus Partner Countries.

Management of Tempus

The Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) is responsible for both the management and the implementation of Tempus, under powers delegated by the European Commission. The Directorate-General for Development and Co-Operation - EuropeAid and the Directorate-General for Enlargement allocate funds directly to the Executive Agency to manage the Programme and thus have the formal responsibility for supervising its activities. The Directorate-General for Education and Culture brings its expertise and facilitates links with the European Union's internal higher education reform policies. The European External Action Service contributes to the strategic orientations of the Programme.

ANNEX 2

The national questionnaire (addressed to National Tempus Offices)



Human Resource Management in Higher Education National Policies and Practice

Questionnaire to National Tempus Offices

Dead-line 16 May 2011

Country:

Respondent:

Contact details of respondent:

Date of completion of questionnaire:

Human Resource Management in Higher Education National Policies and Practice

Questionnaire to National Tempus Offices

Introduction and instructions

This questionnaire is part of a study launched by the Education, Audiovisual & Culture Executive Agency within the framework of the Tempus programme of the European Commission. The study aims at analysing to what extent human resource issues in higher education institutions are an obstacle / driver of higher education reforms in the Tempus Partner Countries.

We would be very grateful if you could complete the following questionnaire in order to describe the situation in your country. The aim of the questionnaire is to collect detailed information on issues related to **human resource management at the national level**, including national level regulations, laws, initiatives, policies and activities related to the theme.

The questions refer to the employment conditions of **regularly employed** staff (excluding staff on project-related contracts) in **public higher education institutions**.

The questionnaire is divided into two main parts, addressing 1) concrete **procedures** in human resource management and 2) human resource **policies**.

Terminology used in the questionnaire

Academic staff: professors, lecturers, researchers

Administrative and technical staff: staff in academic or administrative departments performing administrative and technical tasks

Management staff: Deans and Rectors only

Senior staff and junior staff: judgement is left to you according to the division that makes most sense in your context

Civil servant: term indicating staff employed typically by public authorities (e.g. the state) as permanent staff and who often enjoy specific benefits related to the position

Contract staff: staff on all other types of contracts than civil servants, excluding very short term staff/staff on specific projects

Higher education institution (HEI): all types of state recognised, post-secondary educational and vocational establishments which offer qualifications or diplomas at ISCED level 5 and/or 6, regardless of what such establishments are called (University, Polytechnic, Institute, College, etc).

Practical notes on filling the questionnaire

- Please fill in all questions as completely as possible, including the respondent data on the front sheet.
- Comments are especially important for us, so please provide comments, descriptions and further explanation whenever relevant.
- The responses may be written in a short and concise way, also using bullet points.
- The questionnaire can be filled in **English** or **French**.
- In order to tick a "tick box", double-click on the box and select Default value - checked
- Please return the questionnaire to **Piia Heinämäki** (piia.heinamaki@ec.europa.eu) by **16.5.2011**

Please do not hesitate to get in contact with Maria Kelo (mariakelo@yahoo.co.uk) in case of any questions or doubts regarding the questionnaire.

SECTION I – Procedures in Human resource management

I – Recruitment

1. What is the current number of staff at public higher education institutions (totals in all public higher education institutions across the country)?

	Number of staff (approx.), if possible separately for full-time and part-time	Proportion of women (approx), in %
Academic staff, including post-doctorates	Full-time: Part-time: Total:	
Administrative and technical staff	Full-time: Part-time: Total:	
Total	Full-time: Part-time: Total:	

2. Who decides on the number of posts in each category?

- ☐ The national level authorities (e.g. the Ministry)
☐ The higher education institutions themselves
☐ Co-decision between the two (e.g. institution, but on approval of the ministry).
☐ Other. Please specify.

Please explain:

Requirements

3. Please indicate in the table who decides on the **recruitment requirements** of the two staff categories:

	The higher education institution	The national level authorities	National authorities in cooperation with the institutions
Academic staff			
Administrative and technical staff			

Comments:

4. What are the **minimum requirements** for the employment of the following staff categories:

	Required degree level (Bachelor, Master, PhD)	Number of years of experience (if applicable)	Other specific requirements (e.g. number of publications, post doc experience)
Professors			
Lecturers or equivalent			
Senior administrative and technical staff			
Junior administrative and technical staff			
Deans/Rectors			

5. What changes have there been in terms of recruitment requirements in the last 10 years? Please explain.
6. Which proportion of professors/senior academics hold a PhD? _____%
7. How has the percentage of senior academics holding a PhD in higher education institutions in your country evolved, compared with the situation 10 years ago?
- ☐ Higher percentage with a PhD than 10 years ago
☐ Lower percentage with a PhD than 10 years ago
☐ About the same percentage with a PhD as 10 years ago

Procedures

8. Please describe briefly the typical **recruitment procedure** for the various categories of staff including indication of:
- the actors involved and their respective roles in various phases of the selection
 - the formal aspects, i.e. are posts publicly announced? Are they open competitions? Is the selection internal to higher education institutions or external?
 - the methods used/basis for evaluation (national examination, interviews, suitability tests, etc)
 - who takes formally the recruitment decision (Ministry, higher education institution, etc)?
 - Other factors

Senior academic staff

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Junior academic staff

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Senior administrative and technical staff

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Junior administrative and technical staff

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Management (Rectors and Deans)

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

9. What significant changes have there been in terms of recruitment procedures in the last 10 years? Please describe.

II – Contracts and status

10. Please indicate the most common **contractual conditions** for the different staff categories:

	Civil servant status (yes/no) + indicate the % of civil servants for each category	Contract staff (staff without civil servant status)		
		Typical length of contract	Contract renewable (yes/no, number of times)	The formal employer (state, institution, other)
Senior academic staff				
Junior academic staff				
Senior administrative and technical staff				
Junior administrative and technical staff				
Rector/deans				

Comments:

11. Who decides on the contractual conditions of staff in public higher education institutions? What differences are there between different categories of staff (e.g. civil servants and contract staff) in terms of who decides on their contractual conditions?
12. What significant changes have there been *in the last 10 years* in contractual practice of higher education staff, including issues related to civil servant status?
13. What significant changes in contractual practice of higher education staff, including issues related to civil servant status, are *currently being planned*?

III – Salaries and human resource budget

14. Who sets the **overall staff cost budget** of higher education institutions?

- ☐ the institution
- ☐ the national authorities
- ☐ collaboration between the two (e.g. institutions, but on the approval of the national authorities, or higher education institutions but within set limits).
- ☐ other (please specify)

Comments:

15. Please describe whether and in which ways has the situation changed in the last 10 years?

16. Who decides on **individual salaries**?

- ☐ the institution
- ☐ the national authorities
- ☐ collaboration between the two (e.g. institutions, but on the approval of the national authorities, or higher education institutions but within set limits).
- ☐ depends on staff category and type.

Please explain

17. If national authorities are involved in decisions regarding staff costs, is it by:

- ☐ deciding on the total to be spent in staff costs, without detailing individual salaries
- ☐ setting minimum and/or maximum limits by staff category
- ☐ determining pay-scales within staff categories
- ☐ determining individual salaries
- ☐ other (please specify)
- ☐ the national authorities are not involved in decisions regarding staff costs

Please explain

18. Can higher education institutions implement financial reward mechanisms using their own criteria (e.g. performance) and in particular, can they differentiate salaries of staff in the same staff category or career level? Please describe.

19. Who pays the salaries of staff in public higher education institutions? Tick as appropriate.

	National authorities	Higher Education Institutions	Other (please specify)
Academic staff			
Administrative and technical staff			
Management (Deans and Rectors)			

20. Please indicate whether salaries in public higher education institutions are typically lower, equal or higher than salaries in other jobs for *similarly qualified and experienced staff*.

Are the salaries of *academic staff* typically

- a) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in private higher education institutions?
- b) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in the ministry of education?
- c) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in private business (excluding international companies)?

Are the salaries of *administrative and technical staff* typically

- a) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in private higher education institutions?
- b) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in the ministry of education?
- c) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in private business (excluding international companies)?

Are the salaries of *Deans and Rectors* typically

- a) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in private higher education institutions?
- b) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in the ministry of education?
- c) Lower ☐
 Equal ☐
 Higher ☐ than in private business (excluding international companies)?

Comments:

21. How have salaries evolved in real value (purchasing power) in the last 10 years for the different staff categories? Please tick as appropriate.

	Decreased	Remained equivalent	Increased slightly	Increased significantly
Academic staff				
Administrative and technical staff				
Management (Deans and Rectors)				

Comments:

22. What are the most significant **non-salary benefits** of public higher education institution employees? Please select all that apply.

	Civil servants	Contract staff
Academic staff	<input type="checkbox"/> Pensions/retirement funds	<input type="checkbox"/> Pensions/retirement funds
	<input type="checkbox"/> Child allowance	<input type="checkbox"/> Child allowance
	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised child care	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised child care
	<input type="checkbox"/> Holiday allowance	<input type="checkbox"/> Holiday allowance
	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised housing	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised housing
	<input type="checkbox"/> Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	<input type="checkbox"/> Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	<input type="checkbox"/> Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	<input type="checkbox"/> Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	<input type="checkbox"/> Health insurance	<input type="checkbox"/> Health insurance
	<input type="checkbox"/> Maternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/> Maternity leave
	<input type="checkbox"/> Other allowances. Which?	<input type="checkbox"/> Other allowances. Which?
Administrative and technical staff	<input type="checkbox"/> Pensions/retirement funds	<input type="checkbox"/> Pensions/retirement funds
	<input type="checkbox"/> Child allowance	<input type="checkbox"/> Child allowance
	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised child care	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised child care
	<input type="checkbox"/> Holiday allowance	<input type="checkbox"/> Holiday allowance
	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised housing	<input type="checkbox"/> Free or subsidised housing
	<input type="checkbox"/> Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	<input type="checkbox"/> Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	<input type="checkbox"/> Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	<input type="checkbox"/> Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	<input type="checkbox"/> Health insurance	<input type="checkbox"/> Health insurance
	<input type="checkbox"/> Maternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/> Maternity leave
	<input type="checkbox"/> Other allowances. Which?	<input type="checkbox"/> Other allowances. Which?

Please describe and explain any significant differences between staff categories:

IV - Workload of academic staff

23. Is there an officially defined minimum number of **contact-hours**¹⁹ with students for full-time academic staff on a yearly basis? Please indicate the number of hours for the following categories:

Annual contact-hours in full-time positions	
Professors	
Lecturers or equivalent	

¹⁹

Contact-hours are actual hours spent teaching or being in contact with students. This excludes research activities and office hours such as bilateral meetings with students, preparing lessons or evaluating and grading students' work.

Comments:

24. Where are the annual contact-hours determined?

- ☐ In the law or other national rules
- ☐ In agreements between the national authorities and the institutions
- ☐ By the higher education institutions
- ☐ In individual contracts/negotiated with the employee
- ☐ Other. Please describe.

25. To what extent does academic staff at public higher education institutions hold additional positions, such as in the political sphere, in private higher education institutions, in businesses, etc.? Is the phenomenon of “multiple positions” of academics a problem in your country?

V – Career development

Evaluation and progression

26. Do you have a system for **regular performance evaluations** of staff in public higher education? If yes, please indicate for each staff category

	Who carries out the evaluation?	With what frequency (annual, every five years...)?	What are the principal consequences/objectives of evaluations? (Promotions, disciplinary actions, rewards, contract renewals....)
Academic staff			
Administrative and technical staff			

27. If staff evaluations do not apply to all staff within the above categories, for which staff categories or contract types are evaluations used? Please tick *all that apply*.

- ☐ Staff with civil servant status
- ☐ Staff without civil servant status
- ☐ Junior staff
- ☐ Staff on short term contracts
- ☐ Staff whose contract is coming to an end

☐ Other. Please describe _____

Comments

28. Who takes decisions on the **promotion** of staff? Please tick as appropriate.

	The higher education institution	The national authorities	The institution and national authority together	Other. Please specify
Academic staff				
Administrative and technical staff				

Comments:

29. On what basis are promotions awarded for the following staff categories? Please tick all that apply and specify.

	Formal criteria (e.g. number of years in service). Please specify	Continued training and education	Performance based criteria/evaluations (publications, international activities, development of study programmes, etc). Please specify.	Voluntary service to the university community (responsibilities in collective activities: e.g. coordinating working groups, animating teams, etc)
Academic staff				
Administrative and technical staff				

30. Who decides on the promotion requirements of (please tick as appropriate):

	The higher education institution	The national level authorities	National authorities in cooperation with the higher education institutions
Academic staff			

Administrative and technical staff

Training

31. Are there systematic staff **training programmes**? If yes, please describe for each staff category:
- When were such programmes introduced (approx)?
 - Who is in charge of planning and organisation of training?
 - Is training compulsory for all or some staff in this category? Please describe.
 - Which types of staff can attend training in this category? (all staff, contract staff, civil servants, etc.)

Academic staff

-
-
-
-

Administrative and technical staff

-
-
-
-

Management (Rectors and Deans)

-
-
-
-

32. What specific schemes or initiatives are in place in your country to support the **improvement of staff competences and skills** (e.g. language skills, IT competences)? Please specify for each staff category (academic, administrative and technical, management (Deans and Rectors)) and describe below.

Academic staff

Administrative and technical staff

Management (Rectors and Deans)

VI – Demographics and brain-drain

33. To what extent do you experience or expect the **demographic situation** to create a problem to human resources in your higher education system?

not a serious problem			a significant problem	
1	2	3	4	5

Please explain:

34. Approximately, which percentage of staff in public higher education institutions belong to the following age groups:

	25-35 years	35-45 years	45-60 years	Over 60 years
Academic staff				
Administrative and technical staff				

35. How has the picture changed in respect to 10 years ago?

- ☐ Average age is now higher (older staff overall)
☐ Average age is now lower (younger staff overall)
☐ The current age-structure is similar to 10 years ago

Comments:

36. What is the official **retirement age** for each staff category?

	Women	Men
Academic staff	____ years	____ years
Administrative and technical staff	____ years	____ years
Rectors and Deans	____ years	____ years

Comments:

37. Please describe the conditions for early retirement and continued employment after retirement age and to what extent staff make use of these possibilities. Is early or late retirement a problem for human resource management in your country?

38. In the last five years, have higher education institutions in your country, on average

- ☐ decreased their staff
- ☐ increased their staff
- ☐ maintained similar levels of staff

Comments (e.g. differences between academic/administrative and technical staff):

39. In the next five years, will higher education institutions in your country need to

- ☐ decrease their staff
- ☐ increase their staff
- ☐ maintain current levels

Comments (e.g. differences between academic/administrative and technical staff):

40. Approximately how many PhD graduates do higher education institutions in your country produce each year? _____

41. Approximately how many Master level graduates do higher education institutions in your country produce each year? _____

42. Is the number of potential candidates for jobs in higher education considered sufficient *large* for the needs of the public higher education sector?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Partially
- ☐ Cannot say/don't know

Please explain:

43. Are the potential candidates for jobs in higher education considered sufficiently *qualified* for the needs of the public higher education sector?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ Partially
☐ Cannot say/don't know

Please explain:

44. What was the total number of students in HE in your country in

- a) Year 2000 _____
 b) Year 2010 _____

45. How would you describe the main directions of "**brain-drain**"²⁰ for the following staff categories? Please indicate with numbers from 1 to 5, with 1= no perceived drain to 5=serious drain.

	Go to work abroad	Go to work in private higher education institutions	Go to work in private business in the home country
Junior academic staff			
Senior academic staff			

46. Please describe any active policies or programmes that try to reduce brain-drain (scholarships, reintegration policies, improved conditions for research, etc.)

47. Are there any estimates regarding the percentage of young people that leave the country after graduation? _____

²⁰

Staff leaving public higher education institutions in order to work elsewhere.

Section II – Human resource policies at national level

I – Human resource policies

48. Is management of human resources in public higher education institutions considered essentially the task of the national authorities, or of the institutions themselves?

☐

Institutions

☐

National authorities

☐

Collaboration/shared responsibility of the two

Comments:

49. Is there a national strategy related to human resources in higher education? If yes, please describe the main principles.

50. What national guidelines or requirements are there on human resources management and development at the *institutional level*? Please describe the main principles.

51. What specific policies are there to improve the recruitment and opportunities of *underrepresented groups (e.g. women, members of minorities, disabled persons)* into higher education institutions? Please indicate which groups are addressed by these policies.

52. What active national level policies or incentive schemes are there to increase the attractiveness of working in public higher education and/or support the retention of staff, i.e. to give incentives to staff to stay in public higher education institutions?

53. To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **academic staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions					
Aging staff					
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)					
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)					
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad					
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff					
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff					
Insufficient autonomy given to staff					
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff					
Insufficient professional skills of staff					
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff					
Insufficient IT skills of staff					
Resistance to change and reforms of staff					
Gender imbalance					

54. To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **administrative and technical staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions					
Aging staff					
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)					
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)					
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad					
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff					
Competition from private businesses in attracting					

and recruiting academic staff					
Insufficient autonomy given to staff					
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff					
Insufficient professional skills of staff					
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff					
Insufficient IT skills of staff					
Resistance to change and reforms of staff					
Gender imbalance					

Please comment:

55. Please indicate any recent (+/- last 5 years) reforms in higher education in your country, which relate to the issues addressed in this questionnaire. Please give references to relevant web-sites and/or publications.

56. Are there any reforms foreseen in the near future in the areas addressed in this questionnaire? Which and when?

57. What are the main priorities and objectives in terms of human resources in higher education in your country for the *next 5 years*?

58. Please feel free to write here any other comments you consider relevant in the context of this questionnaire.

Please indicate or submit as attachments any relevant documents related to the questions addressed in this questionnaire.

Thank you!

ANNEX 3

The on-line questionnaire (addressed to individuals)

On-line questionnaire

* = mandatory question

First section of the questionnaire

About the respondent

A.* There are three different questionnaires in this survey, please indicate below the type of institution / organisation where you work; so that the relevant questions are displayed?

Public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country
Other institutions / organisation in a Tempus Partner Country which is not a public higher education institution
Higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union

Tempus Partner Countries are: Albania, Algeria, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Egypt, Georgia, Israel, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kosovo, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Morocco, Russia, Serbia, Syria, Tajikistan, the occupied Palestinian territory, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan

Higher education institution: any state recognised, post-secondary educational and vocational establishment which offers qualifications or diplomas at ISCED level 5 and/or 6, regardless of what such establishment is called (University, Polytechnic, Institute, College etc.).

B.* You have indicated that you work in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country. The questionnaire is composed of questions aiming at gathering:

- I. your perceptions on public higher education institutions in your country;
- II. information about human resources and their management at your institution;
- III. information about your own position in your institution.

Please confirm your choice to proceed.

I confirm that I work in a public higher education institution in a Tempus Partner Country
I confirm that I work in an institution / organisation in a Tempus Partner Country which is not a public higher education institution
I confirm that I work in a higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union.

C.* Please choose your staff category

Academic staff
Administrative and technical staff
Management staff (Dean/Rector)

D.* Please indicate in which country your institution / organisation is located:

E.* Please indicate the type of institution / organisation you work for:

(question displayed only for the respondents having indicated that they work in a higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union)

F.* Please choose the Tempus Partner Country that you are most familiar with, in order to give your perceptions about public higher education in that country

(question displayed only for the respondents having indicated that they work in a higher education institution or other organisation in the European Union)

G. Please indicate your year of birth

H. Please indicate your gender

I. Please indicate your nationality

J. When did you begin to work at your institution? (please indicate the year)

K. Please indicate your current function

Second section of the questionnaire

General perceptions

A1. In your country, to what extent is academic staff working in public higher education institutions considered advantaged?

1 (not an advantage) 5 (significant advantage)	1	2	3	4	5
Good salaries					
Good working hours					
Good social status					
Good holidays					
Good social protection					
Good non salary benefits					

A2. In your country, to what extent is administrative and technical staff working in public higher education institutions considered advantaged?

1 (not an advantage) 5 (significant advantage)	1	2	3	4	5
Good salaries					
Good working hours					
Good social status					
Good holidays					
Good social protection					
Good non salary benefits					

A3. In your country, to what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to academic staff in public higher education institutions?

1 (not very problematic) 5 (prevents HE from performing as it should)	1	2	3	4	5
Jobs in public HE not sufficiently attractive					
Aging staff					
Need to hold multiple positions due to low salaries in public HE					
High frequency of internal recruitments					
"International brain-drain" to work abroad					
Competition from private higher education institutions					
Competition from private businesses					
Insufficient autonomy given to staff					
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff					
Insufficient skills of staff					
Staff resistance to change and reforms					
Gender imbalance					

A4. In your country, to what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to administrative and technical staff in public higher education institutions?

1 (not very problematic) 5 (prevents HE from performing as it should)	1	2	3	4	5
Jobs in public HE not sufficiently attractive					
Aging staff					
Need to hold multiple positions due to low salaries in public HE					
High frequency of internal recruitments					
"International brain-drain" to work abroad					
Competition from private higher education institutions					
Competition from private businesses					
Insufficient autonomy given to staff					
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff					
Insufficient skills of staff					
Staff resistance to change and reforms					
Gender imbalance					

A5. In your opinion, which are the two main advantages of a job as academic staff in a public higher education institution in your country?

Well regarded social status
Employment stability
Good salary
Interesting non salary benefits
Reasonable working hours
Long holidays
Good social protection
Interesting work
Research opportunities
Career development perspectives
Interaction with students
Opportunities for international mobility

A6. In your opinion, which are the two main disadvantages of a job as academic staff in a public higher education institution in your country?

Low social status
Insecurity of employment
Low salary
Absence of non salary benefits
High number of working hours
Not enough holidays
Insufficient social protection
Lack of autonomy in the work
Lack of research opportunities
Lack of career development perspectives
Difficulties in the interaction with students
Lack of opportunities for international mobility

A7. In your opinion, which are the two main advantages of a job as administrative or technical staff in a public higher education institution in your country?

Well regarded social status
Employment stability
Good salary
Interesting non salary benefits
Reasonable working hours
Long holidays
Good social protection
Interesting work
Career development perspectives
Interaction with students
Variety of tasks

A8. In your opinion, which are the two main disadvantages of a job as administrative or technical staff in a public higher education institution in your country?

Low social status
Insecurity of employment
Low salary
Absence of non salary benefits
High number of working hours
Not enough holidays
Insufficient social protection
Lack of autonomy in the work
Lack of career development perspectives
Difficulties in the interaction with students
Lack of challenge and monotony of tasks

A9. In your opinion, which are the two main advantages of a job as Rector or Dean in a public higher education institution in your country?

Well regarded social status
Employment stability
Good salary
Interesting non salary benefits
Interesting work
High level of responsibility
Capacity to influence change in the institution

A10. In your opinion, which are the two main disadvantages of a job as Rector or Dean in a public higher education institution in your country?

Low social status
Insecurity of employment
Low salary
Absence of non salary benefits
High number of working hours
Lack of autonomy in the work
Lack of real influence to bring about change
High level of responsibility
High political pressure
Lack of challenge and monotony of tasks

A11. In your opinion, is the age structure of academic staff in public higher education institutions a problem in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A11.a Please describe the problem

A11.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A11.c Please describe these measures

A11.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A11.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A12. In your opinion, is there, or will there be in the coming 5 to 10 years, an insufficient number of academic staff in public higher education institutions in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A12.a Please describe the problem

A12.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A12.c Please describe these measures

A12.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A12.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

13. In your opinion, is the age structure of administrative and technical staff a problem in public higher education institutions in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A13.a Please describe the problem

A13.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A13.c Please describe these measures

A13.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A13.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A14. In your opinion, is there, or will there be in the coming 5 to 10 years, an insufficient number of administrative and technical in public higher education institutions in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A14.a Please describe the problem

A14.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A14.c Please describe these measures

A14.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A14.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A15. To your knowledge, do all academic staff employed by public higher education institutions in your country receive similar salaries for equivalent positions?

Yes
No
I don't know

A15.a Please explain

A16. To your knowledge, do all administrative and technical staff employed by public higher education institutions in your country receive similar salaries for equivalent positions?

Yes
No
I don't know

A16.a Please explain

A17. In your opinion, is "international brain-drain" of academic staff (staff leaving public higher education institutions in order to work abroad) a problem in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A17.a Please describe the problem

A17.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A17.c Please describe these measures

A17.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A17.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A18. In your opinion, is competition from private higher education institutions in recruiting and retaining (keeping) academic staff a problem in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A18.a Please describe the problem

A18.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A18.c Please describe these measures

A18.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A18.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A19. In your opinion, is competition from private business in recruiting and retaining (keeping) academic staff a problem in your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

A19.a Please describe the problem

A19.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A19.c Please describe these measures

A19.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A19.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A20. In your opinion, do academic staff in your country see themselves as autonomous in deciding on educational content and teaching methods?

Yes
No
No opinion

A20.a Please describe the problem

A20.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A20.c Please describe these measures

A20.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A20.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A21. In your opinion, do public higher education institutions in your country see themselves as autonomous with regards to the organisation of studies?

Yes
No
No opinion

A21.a Please describe the problem

A21.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A21.c Please describe these measures

A21.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A21.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A22. In your opinion, does the majority of academic staff in public higher education institutions in your country have sufficient motivation to develop and improve their work (teaching and research)?

Yes
No
No opinion

A22.a. In your opinion, what are the two main reasons for the lack of motivation of academic staff?

Inadequate salaries
Lack of time / heavy work load
Lack of career perspectives
Lack of reward mechanisms
Lack of research opportunities
Administrative burden

A22.b What would be in your opinion the best incentive(s) to boost motivation of academic staff in your country?

I don't know
Financial incentives
Career perspectives
Research opportunities
Increased level of autonomy/responsibility

A23. In your opinion, does the majority of administrative and technical staff in public higher education institutions in your country have sufficient motivation to develop their work (e.g. implementing new processes, approaches and rules)?

Yes
No
No opinion

A23.a. In your opinion, what are the two main reasons for the lack of motivation of administrative and technical staff?

Inadequate salaries
Lack of time / heavy work load
Lack of career perspectives
Lack of reward mechanisms
Administrative burden

A23.b. What would be in your opinion the best incentive(s) to boost motivation of administrative and technical staff in your country?

I don't know
Financial incentives
Career perspectives
Increased level of autonomy/responsibility

A24. In your opinion, does the majority of academic staff in public higher education institutions in your country have the necessary professional skills to carry out their tasks?

Yes
No
No opinion

A24.a. In your opinion, the main reasons for this lack of skills of academic staff are:

Recruitment criteria (standards are too low)
Career perspectives are not interesting enough to motivate staff to improve their skills
Lack of training (not enough lifelong learning opportunities)

A24.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A24.c Please describe these measures

A24.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A24.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A25. In your opinion, does the majority of administrative and technical staff in public higher education institutions in your country have the necessary professional skills to carry out their tasks?

Yes
No
No opinion

A25.a. In your opinion, the main reasons for this lack of skills of administrative and technical staff are:

Recruitment criteria (standards are too low)
Career perspectives are not interesting enough to motivate staff to improve their skills
Lack of training (not enough lifelong learning opportunities)

A25.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A25.c Please describe these measures

A25.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A25.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A26. In your opinion, do the majority of Rectors and Deans in public higher education institutions in your country have the necessary professional skills to carry out their tasks?

Yes
No
No opinion

A26.a. In your opinion, the main reasons for this lack of skills of Rectors and Deans staff are:

Recruitment criteria not sufficiently focused on competences and skills
Recruitment criteria mostly based on political considerations
Lack of training (not enough training opportunities)
Other (please specify)

A26.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A26.c Please describe these measures

A26.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A26.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A27. In your opinion, to what extent does staff of public higher education institutions in your country have the following skills and display the following attitudes?

1 (most of the staff do not have this skill/attitude) 5 (most of the staff have this skill/attitude)	Academic staff	Administrative and technical staff	Rectors and Deans
Foreign language skills			
Computer literacy			
Communication skills			
Teamworking skills			
Willingness to implement changes			
Feeling the capacity to propose and implement changes			

A28. In your opinion, is the gender balance of staff in public higher education institutions in your country a problem?

Yes
No
No opinion

A28.a Please explain

A28.b To your knowledge, have concrete measures been taken to address this issue?

Yes
No
I don't know

A28.c Please describe these measures

A28.d At what level have these measures been taken?

At university level
At ministry / government level

A28.e Please describe your ideas for measures to address this problem

A29. Are there trade unions in your country that represent staff working in public higher education?

Yes
No
I don't know

A29.a. In your opinion, to what extent do trade unions at national and institutional level play a role in:

1 (not at all involved) 5 (strongly involved)	1	2	3	4	5
Raising awareness of policy makers about current problems related to human resources in public HE					
Raising awareness of the management of public HEIs about current problems related to human resources					
Contributing to reforms related to human resources at national level					
Contributing to reforms related to human resources at institutional level					
Monitoring and evaluating reforms related to human resources at national level					
Monitoring and evaluating reforms related to human resources at institutional level					

A29.b. In your opinion, should the trade unions play a more significant role in human resource management issues in the public higher education sector of your country?

Yes
No
No opinion

Third Section of the Questionnaire

Institution specific information

B1. To what extent is the career progression (promotion from one category to the next) of academic staff in your institution based on the following criteria?

1 (not very important) 5 (very important)	1	2	3	4	5
Years of seniority					
Research outputs (publications)					
Quality of teaching					
International experience					
Continued training and education					
Responsibilities in collective activities (coordinating working groups, leading teams, etc.)					
Results of performance evaluations carried out by the institution					
Political considerations and personal relations					

B2. Does your institution carry out periodic performance evaluations of academic staff?

Yes
No
I don't know

B2.a. At what frequency are these performance evaluations carried out?

Every year
Every 2 years
Less frequently
I don't know

B2.b. Are student feedback / evaluations taken into account in these performance evaluations?

Yes
No
I don't know

B2.c. Which of the following actors are involved in the performance evaluations?

Head of department
Dean
Rector
Other (e.g. ministry / government institution)
I don't know

B3. Does your institution offer training opportunities for academic staff?

Yes
No
I don't know

B3.a. What type of training opportunities does your institution offer for academic staff?

Foreign languages
Pedagogy, teaching methods
Research methodology
Information Technology (IT)
Project management
Team building
Communication skills

B4. To what extent is the career progression (promotion from one category to the next) of administrative and technical staff in your institution based on the following criteria?

1 (not very important) 5 (very important)	1	2	3	4	5
Years of seniority					
Continued training and education					
Responsibilities in collective activities (coordinating working groups, leading teams, etc.)					
Results of performance evaluations carried out by the institution					
Political considerations and personal relations					

B5. Does your institution carry out periodic performance evaluations of administrative and technical staff?

Yes
No
I don't know

B5.a. At what frequency are these performance evaluations carried out?

Every year
Every 2 years
Less frequently
I don't know

B5.b. Are yearly objectives defined and assessed during these performance evaluations?

Yes
No
I don't know

B5.c. Which of the following actors are involved in the performance evaluations?

Head of unit/department
Dean/Head of administration
Rector
Other (e.g. ministry / government institution)
I don't know

B6. Does your institution offer training opportunities for administrative and technical staff?

Yes
No
I don't know

B6.a. What type of training opportunities does your institution offer for administrative and technical staff?

Foreign languages
Software / equipment use
Project management
Team building
Communication skills

B7. Does your institution carry out periodic performance evaluations of Deans?

Yes
No
I don't know

B7.a. At what frequency are these performance evaluations carried out?

Every year
Every 2 years
Less frequently
I don't know

B7.b. Are staff feedbacks / evaluations taken into account during these performance evaluations?

Yes
No
I don't know

B7.c. Which of the following actors are involved in the performance evaluations?

Rector
Other (e.g. ministry / government institution)
I don't know

B8. Does your institution offer training opportunities for management staff (Rectors and Deans)?

Yes
No
I don't know

B8.a. What type of training opportunities does your institution offer for management staff (Rectors and Deans)?

Foreign languages
Information Technology (IT)
Project management
Leadership
Institutional management (strategy, finance, HR)
Team building
Communication skills

B9. Please indicate the minimum number of contact-hours with students academic staff is expected to perform on a yearly basis in your institution
(text answers)

B10. In your institution, on average, how many jobs does a typical member of academic staff hold (including jobs in other higher education institutions, ministries and business):

(text answers)

B11. In your institution, on average, how many jobs does a typical member of administrative and technical staff hold (including jobs in other higher education institutions, ministries and business):

(text answers)

B12.a. Please estimate the percentage of academic staff in your institution between the ages of:

25 and 35
35 and 45
45 and 60
Over 60

B12.b. Please estimate the percentage of administrative and technical staff in your institution between the ages of:

25 and 35
35 and 45
45 and 60
Over 60

B12.c. Please estimate the percentage of management staff (Rectors and Deans) in your institution between the ages of:

25 and 35
35 and 45
45 and 60
Over 60

Fourth Section of the Questionnaire

Respondent specific information

B13. What is your current status?

Civil servant
Contract staff
Other

B13.a. What is the duration of your contract?

B13.b. Who signed your contract?

Faculty
University
Ministry / government institution
Other

B13.c. What are the criteria for renewal of the contract?

Performance
Available budget
Automatic renewal
Other

B14. Please estimate your effective work load

Number of contact-hours with students within your institution on a yearly basis
Number of contact-hours with students within another higher education institution on a yearly basis
Number of days spent on other remunerated activities per year, if any

B14.a Please specify the nature of your other remunerated activity(ies)*(text answers)***B15. Who pays your salary?**

Faculty
University
Ministry / government institution
Other

B15.a. Is your salary paid for the whole calendar year, including the summer break?

Yes
No
I don't know

B15.b. How does your salary compare with other jobs potentially available to people with a similar education and level of experience?

	Lower	Equal	Higher	No opinion
Compared to other public higher education institutions, your salary is:				
Compared to private higher education institutions, your salary is:				
Compared to the Ministry of education, your salary is:				
Compared to private business (excluding international companies), your salary is:				

B15.c. If you have been working in your position for ten years or more, does your present salary allow you to:

Live better than you did ten years ago
Live in roughly the same conditions as you did ten years ago
Live in worse conditions than you did ten years ago

B16. Are you paid for overtime?

Yes
No
I don't know

B16.a. The decision about the payment of overtime is made at:

Faculty level
University level
Other

B16.b. Criteria for the payment of overtime are defined at:

Faculty level
University level
Ministry / government level

B17. Is social protection included in your remuneration scheme?

Yes
No
I don't know

B17.a. Does the social protection included in your remuneration scheme comprise:

Health insurance
Retirement fund
Maternity leave

B17.b. Please specify the duration of maternity leave (number of weeks)**B18. Please indicate the other non salary benefits you receive:**

None
Access to free/subsidised child care
Free or subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
Subsidised meals or meal cheques
Free or subsidised housing
Child allowance
Holiday allowance
Other

B19. Are there reward mechanisms in place for your category of staff?

Yes
No
I don't know

B19.a. These reward mechanisms are of a:

Financial nature
Non financial nature

B19.b. Please specify the nature of non financial rewards**B19.c. Decision about these rewards is made at:**

Faculty level
University level
Other

B19.d. Criteria for awarding these rewards are defined at:

Faculty level
University level
Ministry / government institution level
Other

B19.e. The procedure for the award of these rewards requires:

A request from the staff member

A proposal from the hierarchy

B19.f. In your opinion are these rewards mechanisms an efficient way to boost staff motivation?

Yes

No

No opinion

B19.g. In your opinion should reward mechanisms be put in place?

Yes

No

No opinion

B19.h. Should these rewards be of a:

Financial nature

Non financial nature

B19.i. Please describe the non financial rewards mechanisms which in your opinion should be put in place**Concluding questions**

A. Please identify the four main challenges / obstacles you encounter in your work – concentrating on issues depending on human resource management

(text answers)

B. Other issues and problems related to human resources and their management in public higher education that you would like to point out.

(text answers)

ANNEX 4

Overview tables of responses collected through the national questionnaires

Annex 4.1 – Duration of contract and formal employer of staff at public higher education institutions – *Academic staff*

Country	Formal employer national authorities/the state	Formal employer institution/school/faculty	Permanent /undetermined contract duration	Determined contract duration
Kazakhstan		x		x
Kyrgyzstan		x		x
Tajikistan		x		x
Turkmenistan				
Uzbekistan		x		x
Armenia		x		x
Azerbaijan		x		x
Belarus		x		x
Georgia		x		x
Moldova		x		x
Ukraine		x		x
Russia		x		x
Algeria	x		x	
Morocco	x		x	
Tunisia	x		x	
Egypt	x		x	
Israel		x		x ²¹
Jordan		x		x ²²
Lebanon		x ²³		x ²⁴
Oc. Palestinian ter.	x ²⁵		x	
Syria	x		x	
Albania		x		x
Bosnia and Herzegovina		x		x ²⁶
Kosovo		x		x ²⁷
Montenegro		x		x ²⁸
Serbia		x		x ²⁹
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia		x		x ³⁰

- ²¹ In Israel contractual practice varies between institutions. The universities and a part of the colleges offer permanent contracts to senior staff. The remaining institutions do not offer permanent contracts at all.
- ²² Associate professors can become tenured/get permanent contracts.
- ²³ Less than 30% of academic staff members are state employees.
- ²⁴ A minority of staff may have permanent contracts.
- ²⁵ Recently institutions have been enabled to recruit academic staff also directly on short term contracts of 1-4 years.
- ²⁶ Full professors can become tenured/get permanent contracts.
- ²⁷ Full professors can become tenured/get permanent contracts.
- ²⁸ Full professors can become tenured/get permanent contracts.
- ²⁹ Full professors can become tenured/get permanent contracts.
- ³⁰ Full professors can become tenured/get permanent contracts.

Annex 4.2 – Duration of contract and formal employer of staff at public higher education institutions – *Administrative and technical staff*

Country	Formal employer state	Formal employer institution/faculty	Permanent contract	Determined contract
Kazakhstan		x	x	
Kyrgyzstan		x	x	
Tajikistan		x		x
Turkmenistan				
Uzbekistan		x		x
Armenia		x	x	
Azerbaijan		x	x	
Belarus		x		x
Georgia		x		x
Moldova		x		x
Ukraine		x	x	
Russia		x		x
Algeria	x		x	
Morocco	x		x	
Tunisia	x		x	
Egypt	x		x	
Israel		x		x ³¹
Jordan		x		x ³²
Lebanon		x ³³		x ³⁴
occupied Palestinian territory	x		x	
Syria	x		x	
Albania		x		x
Bosnia and Herzegovina		x	x	
Kosovo		x		x
Montenegro		x	x ³⁵	
Serbia		x	x ³⁶	
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia		x		x ³⁷

³¹ The practice varies between institutions in Israel. Some of them offer permanent contracts, while others have contracts of determined duration.

³² Contracts can become permanent after some years in service.

³³ In some cases, contracts may be concluded directly by the national authorities.

³⁴ Also some permanent contracts exist for administrative and technical staff, but temporary contracts are the main model.

³⁵ Also temporary contracts exist, depending on institutional needs.

³⁶ Contracts vary in duration and some staff may have determined duration contracts. However, permanent contracts are more common for administrative and technical staff.

³⁷ Depending on institutional needs, contracts may be also permanent.

Annex 4.3 – The most significant non-salary benefits of public higher education institution employees by staff category and region³⁸

Numbers indicate the number of countries that have selected each of the items.

	Academic staff		Administrative staff	
Central Asia Total countries 5	5	Pensions/retirement funds	5	Pensions/retirement funds
	5	Child allowance	5	Child allowance
	3	Free or subsidised child care	3	Free or subsidised child care
	5	Holiday allowance	5	Holiday allowance
	1	Free or subsidised housing	1	Free or subsidised housing
	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	1	Health insurance	1	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave Other allowances. Which?	5	Maternity leave Other allowances. Which?
Eastern Europe Total countries 6	4	Pensions/retirement funds	4	Pensions/retirement funds
	3	Child allowance	3	Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	3	Holiday allowance	3	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
		Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	1	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	1	Health insurance	1	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave Other allowances. Which?	5	Maternity leave Other allowances. Which?
Maghreb Total countries 3	2	Pensions/retirement funds	2	Pensions/retirement funds
	2	Child allowance	2	Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	1	Holiday allowance	1	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
	1	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	1	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	1	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	2	Health insurance	2	Health insurance
	2	Maternity leave Other allowances. Which?	2	Maternity leave Other allowances. Which?

³⁸

Information on this table is based entirely on the national questionnaires. As each country could indicate in the national questionnaire the benefits enjoyed by staff in public higher education institutions, it is difficult to evaluate whether in some cases certain benefits were not selected, as they were not considered specific to the higher education sector, or because such benefits do not exist at all.

Middle East Total countries 6	5	Pensions/retirement funds	5	Pensions/retirement funds
	5	Child allowance	5	Child allowance
	1	Free or subsidised child care	1	Free or subsidised child care
	3	Holiday allowance	3	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
	3	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	3	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	5	Health insurance	4	Health insurance
	5	Maternity leave	5	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?
Russia	1	Pensions/retirement funds	1	Pensions/retirement funds
		Child allowance		Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	1	Holiday allowance	1	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
		Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses		Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques		Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	1	Health insurance	1	Health insurance
	1	Maternity leave	1	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?
Western Balkans Total countries 6	6	Pensions/retirement funds	6	Pensions/retirement funds
		Child allowance		Child allowance
		Free or subsidised child care		Free or subsidised child care
	4	Holiday allowance	4	Holiday allowance
		Free or subsidised housing		Free or subsidised housing
	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses	2	Free, subsidised or reimbursed transport expenses
	2	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques	2	Access to subsidised meals/meal cheques
	5	Health insurance	5	Health insurance
	6	Maternity leave	6	Maternity leave
		Other allowances. Which?		Other allowances. Which?

Annex 4.4 – The role of national authorities in salary decisions by region

	<i>Central Asia</i>	<i>Eastern Europe</i>	<i>Maghreb</i>	<i>Middle East</i>	<i>Russia</i>	<i>Western Balkans</i>
Deciding on total spent on staff costs	Tajikistan	Moldova Belarus Ukraine		Egypt		Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina Montenegro
Setting minimum/maximum limits by staff category	Uzbekistan Kyrgyzstan Tajikistan	Moldova Azerbaijan Armenia		Jordan Israel	Russia	Serbia
Determining pay-scales within staff categories	Uzbekistan Turkmenistan Kazakhstan	Moldova Azerbaijan		Jordan Lebanon Israel	Russia	the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina
Determining individual salaries	Uzbekistan	Azerbaijan	Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia	Syria, the occupied Palestinian territory, Israel		
Not involved in decisions about staff costs		Georgia				

Annex 4. 5 – Average number of student contact-hours by category of academic staff and by region

Country	Senior academic staff	Junior academic staff
Kazakhstan	350-450	450-550
Kyrgyzstan	750	800-850
Tajikistan	550	650
Turkmenistan	850	850
Uzbekistan	400-700	500-800
Armenia	150	500
Azerbaijan	300-400	300-400
Belarus	450	750
Georgia	120	150
Moldova	240-300	420-520
Ukraine	300	450
Russia	500-600	740-900
Algeria	192	192
Morocco	256	448
Tunisia	165	285-330
Egypt	500-600	800-1000
Israel	n/a	n/a
Jordan	288-384	480-512
Lebanon	250	300
occupied Palestinian territory	n/a	n/a
Syria	500	750
Albania	200	260
Bosnia and Herzegovina	150	300
Kosovo	270	450
Montenegro	200	400
Serbia	180	180-300
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	140	170

Annex 4. 6 – Overview of career progression by region: evaluation, training and promotion

Country	Academic staff			Administrative and technical staff		
	Intervals of regular evaluations (in years)	Main basis of promotions (formal ³⁹ , training, performance)	Availability of systematic training ⁴⁰	Intervals of regular evaluations (in years)	Main basis of promotions (formal, training, performance)	Availability of systematic training
Kazakhstan	1	Training Performance	Yes	1	Formal Training Performance	Yes
Kyrgyzstan	1	Formal Training Performance	Yes	5	Formal	Yes
Tajikistan	5	Formal Training Performance	Yes	At end of contract	Formal Training	Yes
Turkmenistan	5	Formal Training Performance	Yes	No data	Formal Training Performance	Yes
Uzbekistan	Varies	Formal Training Performance	Yes	Varies	Formal Training	Yes
Armenia	No regular evaluation	Formal Performance	Yes	No regular evaluation	Formal	No
Azerbaijan	5	Formal Training Performance	No	5	Formal Training Performance	No
Belarus	5	Formal Training Performance	Yes	5	Formal Training Performance	Yes
Georgia	1	Training Performance	No	No regular evaluation	Training	No
Moldova	5	Formal Training Performance	Yes	5	Formal Training	No
Ukraine	5-7	Formal Training Performance	Yes	No regular evaluation	Formal Training Performance	No
Russia	3-5	Training Performance	Yes	No regular evaluation	Training Performance	No
Algeria	3	Formal Performance	No	3	Formal	Yes
Morocco	No regular	Formal	No	No regular	Formal	No

³⁹ Formal criteria, such as years of service.

⁴⁰ Only systematic and regular schemes have been included. Smaller scale or less than regular programmes may be on offer in countries without regular schemes.

	evaluation			evaluation		
Tunisia	No regular evaluation	Formal Performance	No	No regular evaluation	Formal	No
Egypt	5	Formal Training	Yes	1	Formal Training	No
Israel	1	Formal Training Performance	No ⁴¹	1	Formal Training Performance	No
Jordan	1	Formal Training Performance	Yes	1	Formal Training Performance	Yes
Lebanon	No regular evaluation	Formal Performance	No	No regular evaluation	Formal	No
occupied Palestinian territory	1	Formal Performance	Yes	1	Formal Training	Yes
Syria	No regular evaluation	Formal Performance	Yes	No regular evaluation	Training Performance	Yes
Albania	1	Formal Training Performance	No	1	Formal Training	No
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5-6	Training Performance	No	No regular evaluation	Formal Training	No
Kosovo	4	Formal Training Performance	No	1	Formal Training Performance	No
Montenegro	1 ⁴²	Formal Training Performance	No	1	Training	No
Serbia	3-5	Formal Training Performance	No	No regular evaluation	Formal Training	No
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	3	Formal Performance	No	3	no data	No

⁴¹ No systematic schemes are offered at the national level. However, practices vary between institutions, some of them offering regular training programmes to one or both staff categories.

⁴² For junior staff: annually by their mentors. For the rest of the staff evaluation is ongoing and student evaluations are carried out twice a year.

Annex 4.7 – Procedures for the appointment of management staff – *Rectors*

Country	Elected	Not elected ⁴³	Approval of national authorities required	Approval of national authorities NOT required	Open selection/ appointment	No open selection/ appointment
Kazakhstan		x	x		x	
Kyrgyzstan		x	x		x	
Tajikistan		x	x			x
Turkmenistan		x	x		x	
Uzbekistan		x	x			x
Armenia		x	x		x	
Azerbaijan		x	x			x
Belarus		x	x		x	
Georgia	x			x	x	
Moldova		x		x	x	
Ukraine	x		x		x	
Russia	x		x		x	
Algeria		x	x			
Morocco		x	x		x	
Tunisia		x		x		
Egypt		x	x			x
Israel	x	x ⁴⁴		x	x	x
Jordan		x	x			x
Lebanon		x	x			x
occupied Palestinian territory		x	x		x	
Syria		x	x			x
Albania	x		x		x	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	x			x	x	
Kosovo		x		x	x	
Montenegro	x			x		x
Serbia	x			x	x	
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	x			x	x	

⁴³ This includes both open selections, as well as direct appointments, i.e. all other methods apart from election by a major body of the institution.

⁴⁴ Depending on institutions

Annex 4.8 – Procedures for the appointment of management staff – *Deans*

Country	Elected	Not elected ⁴⁵	Approval of national authorities required	Approval of national authorities NOT required	Open selection/ appointment	No open selection/ appointment
Kazakhstan		x		x		x
Kyrgyzstan		x		x	x	
Tajikistan		x	x			x
Turkmenistan		x	x		x	
Uzbekistan		x	x			x
Armenia		x		x	x	
Azerbaijan		x		x	x	
Belarus		x	x		x	
Georgia	x			x	x	
Moldova		x		x	x	
Ukraine		x		x	x	
Russia		x		x	x	
Algeria		x	x		x	
Morocco		x	x		x	
Tunisia		x	x		x	
Egypt		x	x			x
Israel	x			x	x	
Jordan		x		x		x
Lebanon			x			x
occupied Palestinian territory		x	x		x	
Syria		x	x			x
Albania	x			x	x	
Bosnia and Herzegovina		x ⁴⁶		x	x ⁴⁷	
Kosovo		x		x		x
Montenegro	x			x		x
Serbia	x			x	x	
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	x			x	x	

⁴⁵ This includes both open selections, as well as direct appointments, i.e. all other methods apart from election by a major body of the institution.

⁴⁶ Varies by institution

⁴⁷ Varies by institution

Annex 4.9 – Percentage of female staff in public higher education institutions

Country	Academic staff	Administrative staff
Kazakhstan	55%	65%
Kyrgyzstan	77%	37%
Tajikistan	33%	n/a
Turkmenistan	n/a	n/a
Uzbekistan	43%	n/a
Armenia	49%	54%
Azerbaijan	n/a	n/a
Belarus	55%	45%
Georgia	55%	77%
Moldova	53%	72%
Ukraine	55%	n/a
Russia	60%	40%
Algeria	35%	25%
Morocco	25%	39%
Tunisia	n/a	n/a
Egypt	40%	n/a
Israel	27% ⁴⁸	n/a
Jordan	6%	40%
Lebanon	34%	58%
occupied Palestinian territory	17%	33%
Syria	32%	56%
Albania	54%	57%
Bosnia and Herzegovina	38%	n/a
Kosovo	28%	50%
Montenegro	44%	60%
Serbia	40%	60%
former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	39%	63%

⁴⁸

34% in colleges.

Annex 4.10 – Division of responsibilities and institutional autonomy in human resource management issues in higher education

NA = national authorities, including national laws

HEI = higher education institutions

Both = joint decision making, or influences from both institutional and national level

	Number of posts in HEI			Recruitment requirements			Contractual conditions			Individual salaries			Annual student contact-hours			Promotion decisions academic staff			Promotion decision administrative staff			Promotion requirements		
	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both	NA	HEI	both
Kazakhstan		x			x			x		x			x				x			x			x	
Kyrgyzstan		x			x			x			x		x				x			x			x	
Tajikistan			x		x			x			x			x			x			x			x	
Turkmenistan		x				x			x				x				x			x			x	
Uzbekistan		x				x		x			x		x				x			x			x	
Armenia		x			x			x		x			x				x			x			x ⁴⁹	
Azerbaijan			x		x			x		x				x			x			x			x	
Belarus			x		x			x			x			x				x					x	
Georgia		x				x		x			x			x			x			x			x	
Moldova			x		x			x		x					x			x						x
Ukraine			x			x ⁵⁰		x			x		x				x			x			x	
Russia			x			x		x			x		x				x			x				
Algeria	x			x			x			x														
Morocco			x			x		x			x		x						x				x	
Tunisia	x			x			x			x			x						x				x	

⁴⁹ For academic staff national authorities and for administrative staff institutions
⁵⁰ Institutions alone for administrative staff.

[illegible]

51 National authorities for administrative staff

52 Recruitment requirements for academic staff are set by national authorities.

53 Institutions alone for administrative and technical staff.

Annex 4.11 – Main challenges to the modernisation of higher education by region and staff category

Central Asia⁵⁴

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **academic staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions		x	xx	x	
Aging staff			x	x	xx
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)			x	xx	x
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)		x	xx		
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	x		xx	x	
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff		xx	x		
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff		x	x	xx	
Insufficient autonomy given to staff			xx	x	x
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff			xxx	x	
Insufficient professional skills of staff		x	xx	x	
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff			x	xx	x
Insufficient IT skills of staff			xx	x	x
Resistance to change and reforms of staff			xx	xx	
Gender imbalance		xxx	x		

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **administrative and technical staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions		x	x		xx
Aging staff		xx			xx
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)		x	x	xx	

⁵⁴

There was no reply to this question from Turkmenistan.

High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)		xx	x	x	
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	xx	x		x	
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff		xx		x	
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	x		xx	
Insufficient autonomy given to staff			x	xx	x
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff			xx	xx	
Insufficient professional skills of staff		x	x	xx	
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff				xxx	x
Insufficient IT skills of staff				xxxx	
Resistance to change and reforms of staff		x		xx	x
Gender imbalance	xx		xx		

Eastern Europe

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **academic staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions	x		xxx	x	
Aging staff			xxx	x	x
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)			xx	xx	x
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)		x	xx	x	
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad		x	xx	xx	
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	xx	xx		
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff			xx	xx	x
Insufficient autonomy given to staff		xxx	x	x	
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff		xxx		xx	
Insufficient professional skills of staff		x	xxxx		
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff			xx	xx	x
Insufficient IT skills of staff		xx	x	xx	
Resistance to change and reforms of staff		x	x	xxx	
Gender imbalance	xxx	xx			

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **administrative and technical staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions	x	x	xxx		
Aging staff	x	x	xx		x
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)	x	xx	xx		
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)		xxx		x	
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	xxx		x	x	
Competition from private higher education	x	xxx	x		

institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff					
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x		xxx		x
Insufficient autonomy given to staff		xxx	x	x	
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff		xx	x	xx	
Insufficient professional skills of staff		x	xxx	x	
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff			xx	xx	x
Insufficient IT skills of staff		x	xxx	x	
Resistance to change and reforms of staff			xxx	xx	
Gender imbalance	xx	xx	x		

Maghreb⁵⁵

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **academic staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions	xx				
Aging staff	x				x
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)	x	x			
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)	x	x			
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad		x			x
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	x			
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	x			
Insufficient autonomy given to staff	xx				
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff	x				
Insufficient professional skills of staff		x			
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff				x	
Insufficient IT skills of staff		x			
Resistance to change and reforms of staff		x	x		
Gender imbalance	x				

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **administrative and technical staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions	x				
Aging staff		x			
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)		x			
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)		x			
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	x				

⁵⁵

Algeria: only partial responses were received, and only for academics

Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff		x			
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x				
Insufficient autonomy given to staff	x				
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff		x			
Insufficient professional skills of staff				x	
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff				x	
Insufficient IT skills of staff		x			
Resistance to change and reforms of staff		x			
Gender imbalance	x				

Middle East⁵⁶

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **academic staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions			XXXX	X	
Aging staff		X	X	X	XX
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)		X		X	XXX
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)	X	X	X	XX	
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad		X	X	XX	X
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff			XX	X	XX
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	XX	X	X	X	
Insufficient autonomy given to staff		XX	XX	X	
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff	X	XXX			X
Insufficient professional skills of staff		XX	XX		X
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff		XX	XX		X
Insufficient IT skills of staff		XX	XX	X	
Resistance to change and reforms of staff		XX	X	X	X
Gender imbalance	XX	X	X	X	

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **administrative and technical staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions		X	XXXX		
Aging staff	X		X	XX	X
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)	X	X	X		XX
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the	X	X	X	X	X

⁵⁶

As separate responses were received from all public institutions in Israel, it was decided not to include the responses of Israel in this regional overview, in order not to distort the overall result.

institution)					
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	xx	xx	x		
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x		xxx		x
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x		xxx		x
Insufficient autonomy given to staff	xx	x	x		x
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff		x	xx	x	x
Insufficient professional skills of staff			xx	xx	x
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff				xxx	xx
Insufficient IT skills of staff			xx	x	xx
Resistance to change and reforms of staff			xx		xxx
Gender imbalance	xxx	x			x

Western Balkans

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **academic staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions	xxxx	xx			
Aging staff	x	xx	xxx		
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)	xx	x	x	xx	
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)		xxx		xx	x
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	xx	xx	xx		
Competition from private higher education institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	xx	xx	x	
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	xxx	xx		
Insufficient autonomy given to staff	xx	xxxx			
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff	xx	xx	x	x	
Insufficient professional skills of staff	xx	xxx	x		
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff		x	xxxx	x	
Insufficient IT skills of staff		x	xxxxx		
Resistance to change and reforms of staff	x		xxxx	x	
Gender imbalance	xxx	xx	x		

To what extent are the following issues considered as a problem in relation to **administrative and technical staff** in public higher education institutions in your country?

Please grade the issues according to the importance you give them: 1 not very problematic, 5 prevents the higher education system from performing as it should

	1	2	3	4	5
Insufficient attractiveness of jobs in higher education institutions	xx	xxxx			
Aging staff	xxx	xxx			
Need to hold multiple positions (to have more than one job)	xxx	xx	x		
High frequency of internal recruitments (public higher education institutions mainly recruiting staff already working or having studied in the institution)	xx	x	xxx		
"International Brain-drain" to work abroad	xxxx	x	x		
Competition from private higher education	xxx	xx	x		

institutions in attracting and recruiting academic staff					
Competition from private businesses in attracting and recruiting academic staff	x	xxxx	x		
Insufficient autonomy given to staff	x	xxx	xx		
Insufficient flexibility / adaptability of staff	x	xxx	xx		
Insufficient professional skills of staff	xx	x	xxx		
Insufficient foreign language skills of staff	x	xx		xx	x
Insufficient IT skills of staff	x	xx	x	xx	
Resistance to change and reforms of staff	x	xx	xx	x	
Gender imbalance	xxx	xxx			

"A TEMPUS STUDY"

"A Tempus Study" is a series of studies providing an in-depth overview of the management, achievements and impact of the Tempus programme

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These documents are available on the Tempus website:

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