HOW TO MANAGE JOINT STUDY PROGRAMMES?

Guidelines and Good Practices from the JOIMAN Network

Document developed within the framework of the JOIMAN Network by the joint effort of the following partners:

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Foreword

This book is addressed to all Higher Education Institutions which intend to implement joint programme initiatives and which would like to know which practices and solutions have been adopted for the administration and management of existing joint programmes. The report therefore addresses academics wishing to start new collaborative programmes, but also academics and administrators in charge of defining and implementing the internationalisation policies and strategies at their institution.

The report is the result of the work carried out by 15 European Universities involved in the JOIMAN project, a Network financed by the European Commission in the framework of the Lifelong Learning Erasmus Programme. Out of the 15 universities, 12 are members of the Utrecht Network, 6 of which are involved in the “Joint Programmes” task force, and all 15 universities have a long experience in the field of development and management of joint programmes. The 15 universities have been working on these reports during the 2 years of the JOIMAN project, supported by 3 Erasmus Mundus National Structures.

While important papers, reports and surveys have been developed in the issue of Joint Programme development (cf. Bibliography), these Reports are the first attempt to investigate the administration and management of joint programmes, at Master and Doctoral level.

It presents and comments the data collected on the following topics:

BOOK 1: The administration and management of Joint Programmes at Master level

1. Institutional strategies and policies adopted for the development and management of joint programmes
2. The management structures of joint programmes
3. Administration of students in joint programmes
4. The financial management of joint programmes
5. Quality assurance in joint programmes

BOOK 2: The development and management of Joint Programmes among EU and non EU institutions, at Master level.

6. Strategies behind the development of Joint Programmes with non EU partners
7. The development and management of Joint Programmes within different educational settings

BOOK 3: The Development and management of joint programmes at Doctoral level

8. Different models of joint doctorates
9. The joint doctorate structure
10. The added value of a joint doctorate
List of abbreviations

JP: Joint Programme
HEI: Higher Education Institution
IRO: International Relations Office
DD: Double Degree
JD: Joint Degree
DS: Diploma supplement
QA: Quality Assurance
ENQA: European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education
EM: Erasmus Mundus
EMMC: Erasmus Mundus Master Courses
ENIC: European Network of Information Centres
NARIC: National Academic Recognition Information Centres
EHEA: European Higher Education Area
EACEA: Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency
EU: European Union
EFTA: European Free Trade Association
EC: European Commission
Introduction

Since the late eighties, European Universities have been involved in the development of joint programmes leading to the award of double or joint degrees. The Bologna Process, which started in 1999 with the Bologna Declaration, has increased the interest in JPs among European and non-European Higher Education Institutions, and in many cases European countries have adapted their legislation to allow the development of JPs.

The first phase of the Erasmus Mundus Programme, launched in 2003 and implemented in the years 2004 – 2008, triggered an essential change in the philosophy of JP creation and administration. The Erasmus Mundus Programme focuses predominantly on the concept of “consortia” as well as on the concept of “integration” to be applied to the curricular aspects as well as to the administration and management issues of a JP.

The Erasmus Mundus Programme has also set an explanation of the most commonly used terminology, with particular reference to the final delivery of the diploma, providing a definition for the terms “double degree”, “multiple degree” and “joint degree”. However, following the Erasmus Mundus philosophy, whatever the final diploma delivered, the consortia should implement a jointly planned and developed programme, including a strong integration of both curricula and organisation.

Concerning the curriculum, this has to be jointly developed, taking care of the professional profile to be created, the competences required for that particular professional profile, the definition of learning outcomes of the whole programme, the workload to be attributed to the single teaching units and modules for the achievement of the identified learning outcomes.

Concerning the integration of the organisation and management of JPs, Erasmus Mundus focuses on the integration of student administration procedures (application, admission, selection and enrolment procedures), as well as in the definition of a common tuition policy among the consortium participants and in the assurance of providing each student the same level of services. The basic assumption behind this requirement is that students enrolled in a JP will acquire the same learning outcomes regardless of the institution where they start the programme, and they should therefore benefit from the same level of services and should pay the same tuition fee.

The Erasmus Mundus Programme has achieved incredible success among European institutions in the five years of implementation, and its philosophy has been considered both a challenge and an opportunity to implement attractive master programmes within the European Higher Education Area.

The Erasmus Mundus Programme has pushed European universities to find solutions to administrative and management problems connected to JPs and have, either directly or indirectly, fostered European institutions to advocate changes at institutional and national level to permit the implementation of JPs.

Problematic issues such as the accreditation of joint degrees at national level (some European Countries seem not to have adapted the national legislation on this issue yet) or the administrative consequences of joint selection, enrolment and administration of students which require the involvement and coordination of many
administrative units in all the partner universities, have been faced and overcome by European institutions. Another challenging issue is the sustainability of joint programmes, which requires a special effort since it juxtaposes different national university funding systems, challenges the social cohesion dimension, and demands common procedures and tools for consortium co-operation.

Furthermore, the second phase of Erasmus Mundus has broadened the spectrum of possibilities, allowing Third Country Institutions to become full partners within an Erasmus Mundus Master Course and opening to the third cycle, thus allowing Joint Doctorates to compete for Erasmus Mundus grants. This “ouverture” is a great opportunity for Higher Education Institutions, but it also constitutes a further challenge when it comes to a common definition of “doctorate” and more precisely “joint doctorate” and when it comes to the development of collaborative programmes between institutions belonging to different geographical, cultural and, more technically, educational settings.

In 2008, a group of 15 European Universities and 3 Erasmus Mundus National Structures coordinated by the University of Bologna, created the JOIMAN Network, which has been funded under the umbrella of the Lifelong Learning Erasmus Programme. The JOIMAN Network intends to intervene in the above mentioned issues, trying to identify models of JP management and solutions adopted, either by Erasmus Mundus Consortia or by institutions involved in other kinds of collaborative programmes, in order to provide information and tools to overcome administrative problems in the management of JPs. For additional information on the aims and objectives of the JOIMAN project, and on the future activities and research fields, please refer to the JOIMAN web site: www.JOIMAN.eu.
How to read this report

This publication, presented in 3 separate books, contains the results of the 2 years of the JOIMAN project and addresses academics in charge of JPs or involved in the international relations strategies of their institutions, as well as administrators at different levels involved in the management or implementation of the procedures connected to JPs (International relations officers, registrar officers, quality assurance officers etc).

BOOK 1 “Management and administration of joint programmes”

This book presents the results of the survey launched in 2009 by the JOIMAN Network, addressed to Joint Programme coordinators and academics and administrators covering political and decision making roles within institutions. This book describes the methodology applied by the project and the quantitative data provided (Part I), and contains presentations of the collected data organised under the following chapters (Part II):

1. The role of the institutions (Part II chapter 3), i.e. the policies and the strategies adopted for the development and management of joint programmes at institutional level;
2. The management structures of joint programmes and the organisation of services (Part II chapter 4);
3. Students’ administration timeline (Part II chapter 5), including the application and selection procedures, admission and enrolment practices and certification and award of diploma issues;
4. The financial management of JPs (Part II chapter 6), including tuition policies and the issue of the sustainability;
5. Quality assurance for JPs (Part II chapter 7).

Each one of the above mentioned headings is presented through the interpretation of the data facilitated by graphs and the comments and reflections deduced from the analysed data, presented in “boxes”.

Part III summarises the main findings in the form of a list of recommendations of actions to be implemented or issues to be taken into consideration when developing a new Joint Programme.

BOOK 2 “Development & management of joint programmes with non-European partners”

This book presents the results of the study visits carried out to European institutions which coordinate or participate in joint programmes with non European partners. It contains a description of the methodology applied (Part I) and the analysis of the results of the interviews carried out during the project life. These results are presented in PART II and are divided in the following chapters:

1. Strategy: motives for the development of JP with non EU partners, type of partnership and target group
2. **Development**: design of the joint study programmes and impact of the educational structures

3. **Management**: Administration of the joint programmes, mobility – related issues and financial matters

Finally, Part III presents conclusions and a list of recommendations for the development and management of joint programmes with non European partners.

**BOOK 3 “Developing and managing joint doctoral programmes: challenges and opportunities”**

This book presents the results of the self-evaluation exercise and the study visits carried out to European institutions which coordinate or participate in joint programmes at doctoral level. It contains a description of the methodology applied (Chapter 3) and the presentation of the different models of joint doctorates (chapter 4). The second part of the book (Chapter 5) is dedicated to the issues to be considered when developing and managing a joint doctoral programme; each session (partnership, research and training, student supervision and monitoring, organisational structure, recruiting and selection of students, legal framework, employability and funding) is accompanied by a conclusive paragraph on challenges and opportunities.

The third part (chapter 6) is an analysis of the added value of the joint doctorates and is followed by a conclusive chapter.

The last section of this publication presents all relevant annexes which can be used not only for a better reading of the report, but also as complementary tools for the development and management of joint programmes. The first annex contains the two questionnaires which were sent out for the JOIMAN Surveys. The questionnaires will help to follow the presentation of the data, but they can also be considered a tool in their own right, as they describe in detail the whole administrative process applied to the management of a joint programme.

The Glossary (annex 3), which is not meant to give a definitive answer on the terminology connected to joint programmes, is useful for the reading and comprehension of the report but it is also a useful additional tool for understanding the debate on joint programmes.

An additional tool developed by the JOIMAN project is the cooperation agreement template (annex 4). This could serve as a reference for the institutions wishing to start a new joint programme and in particular could be used as a tool for mapping the issues which need to be addressed and negotiated before the implementation of the programme.

Annex 5 is an example of institutional guidelines for the development of joint programmes developed by the University of Lund and by the University of Bergen, and it is an example of good practice developed at institutional level.

Annex 6 are the papers collected on the theme “Joint Programmes with non EU partners”, which we decided to include for a better understanding on Book 2.
Good Practice Report for the Management and Administration of Joint Programmes
**Authors:** Adeline Barre, Violaine Boye, Béatrice Delpouve, Boas Erez, Francesco Girotti, Tabea Mager, Svend Poller, Nicolas Pottiez, Anne Vorpagel
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Executive Summary

METHODOLOGY

The people involved in the elaboration of Good Practice Report are the administrators of the 15 Universities involved in the JOIMAN project, which have been divided in three thematic task forces working separately and coordinated by the Steering Committee of the JOIMAN project. The three groups have been working on the following topics:

- Institutional strategies and policies adopted for the development and management of JPs, the management structures and the organisation of services and Quality Assurance (QA) for JPs;
- Educational administrative issues in JPs, including application and selection procedures, admission and enrolment practices and the certification and award of diplomas.
- Financial issues related to JPs, including the additional costs of the programmes, tuition policies and the issue of the sustainability of joint programmes.

The first step of the working groups was the discussion on the terminology to be adopted; for this purpose a specific “JOIMAN Glossary” was developed, including the most relevant terms related to JPs. The second step consisted in the collection of data to be analysed and processed. Data have been collected through the following means:

- Survey on institutional policies of HEIs involved in the development and management of JPs;
- Survey on the organisation of JPs;
- Study visits and interviews addressed to respondents to the survey
- The collection of cooperation agreement samples from the JOIMAN partners.

The following step consisted in the organisation and first analysis of the collected data with the aim of identifying trends and tendencies as well as the major challenges encountered by JP coordinators and institutions, and to identify some institutions to be visited in order to deepen the analysis.

After the analysis, study visits to the selected institutions were carried out and research work on the national legislations on tuition fees for higher education programmes was undertaken in parallel.

A separate working group has been working on the analysis of the cooperation agreement samples collected from the partners and has drawn up the cooperation agreement template, which is meant as a transferable tool which could be adopted by the HE community.

The last step was the consolidation of the data and the presentation of the main findings on the Good Practice Report.
THE ROLE OF THE INSTITUTION

This chapter synthesises the results of the survey on institutional policies submitted to HEIs involved in the development and management of joint programmes.

Strategic Policy

The results extracted from the survey on institutional policies, show that a strategic policy on JPs adopted at the highest level of an institution seems to contribute to a systematic development of JPs. Thus a JP policy enhances internationalisation and gives the institution an international profile. Moreover, a strategic policy gives the institution credibility when cooperating with other institutions.

A strategic policy anchors the development and running of JPs within the institution and at the highest level. It may also enhance the quality of the programme. Furthermore, a strategy can also motivate academic and administrative staff to work towards the development and running of a JP.

Two basic approaches to set up a strategic policy can be distinguished:

Top-down approach: developed from the highest level of the institution and then spread inside the institution. So for instance one HEI has developed a JP policy, has then integrated it in its general policy documents, and finally has disseminated a “JP culture” to faculties and departments.

Bottom-up approach: a strategic policy is developed after the institution becomes involved in JPs in order to streamline and frame the development of new JPs. Such a policy might also be defined in order to help the existing JPs to run more smoothly.

The strategic policies can have different emphasis:
- They might stress the administrative side and hence limit themselves to defining a framework
- They might add an incentive to work inside a framework
- Or else they might aim at rationalising the development of JPs, by creating an appropriate professional culture.

Guidelines to develop JPs and other institutional support

The majority of universities do not have a support framework or guidelines to develop JPs or to manage them (75% of the respondents do not have guidelines for the development of JPs and 70% of the respondents do not have any guidelines for the management of JPs).

However, based on the analysis of the good examples of guidelines presented by some of the respondents, and on the effects that those guidelines had within the universities concerned, we can state that Internal guidelines guarantee that the institution functions or operates in a homogeneous way concerning all its JPs. Such guidelines also enhance the transparency of procedures and make the institution more accountable, as a partner. If guidelines are available, academic staff and administrators work in a more systematic way within JPs. From the point of view of the institutional leadership, guidelines are a good tool for monitoring the implementation and running of JPs. If the institution has a quality
assurance system, these guidelines must be in alignment with this system. The purpose of the guidelines should help to support the staff in developing and running JPs.
At the same time guidelines should be flexible at the point to allow negotiations with partners.

Apart from the guidelines, a framework to support JPs can consist of *i.e.* financial support, staff support, strategic policy, guidelines, and support from the leadership (such as a quality label or inclusion in the general promotion of the institution).
Most of the respondents (70%) have not developed a framework to support JPs. Those who have developed such a framework did it either by:

- Providing (direct/indirect) funding;
- Ensuring staff support (with some dedicated staff from the students affairs and International Relations Offices or dedicated unit to JPs). This seems to be the new trend.

A framework to support JPs (especially funding) motivates the participation in these programmes and contributes to the internationalisation of the institution. A framework is also of great importance in securing (long term) sustainability of JPs. There is a trend to create units dedicated to the development and management of JPs (within/attached to IROs or QA units). Their goal is to support and frame initiatives in a professional way. It is also interesting to note that very few HEIs have mentioned direct support to students as an issue. The study visits have shown that some HEIs provide (special) scholarships to students enrolled in a selected group of JPs (determined at the institutional level).

Another kind of institutional support shown by the survey is a financial support transferred to the Faculties running Joint Programmes matching the quality requirements defined (teaching units taught in a foreign language, a minimum percentage of international students enrolled, the presence of international visiting professors, a dedicated tutor etc.).

In two cases, shown by a study visit and by the survey, a less direct financial support is provided to international programmes in the form of a “special agreed distribution of the tuition fees” among the central administration and the study programme. In these cases the study programmes are conceived as “autonomous” and they can count on a percentage of the fees (80 – 85%) for running the programmes. These funds are additional funds to be added to the costs incurred by the institution for the provision of the regular services (teaching rooms, academic personnel, student’s services) and are generally used for additional services for international students or for scholarships.
THE GOVERNANCE MODELS OF JOINT PROGRAMMES

The JOIMAN Survey on JP organisation aimed to investigate, among the other issues, the management and governance structures of the targeted JPs in order to identify which bodies and administrative units, either external or internal to the Institutions, are involved in the different processes and phases. Here below we resume the main data collected on the governance structure of JPs.

Supervision/decision making-process are mostly performed at consortium level (63.6%), while the administrative coordination is either performed at consortium level (40.9%), for instance through a technical secretariat, or also at the level of the departments/faculties of the partner institutions (30.7%).
The responsibility for the follow up of the programme is shared, again, between the consortium and the faculties or departments, while the selection of students is mostly performed at consortium level.

Academic quality control is mostly performed at consortium level (39.8% each), but often at faculty/department level (26.1%), and also at institution level (15.9%) or external body level (10.2%), while the administrative quality control is mostly done at consortium level (39.5% each) and at institution level (27.9%).
The coordinating institution is usually in charge of receiving the applications, sending letters of acceptance, financially monitoring the programme, collecting and distributing fees.

The consortium is then in charge of the following tasks: screening of applications, deciding on admission, organising the mobility and issuing the certificate.
The partner institutions are usually in charge of the following tasks: at central level: enrolment, visas, accommodation, certification, delivery of degree certificate and delivery of diploma supplement; at faculty/departmental level: organisation of extra curricular activities; examination, thesis/dissertation and transfer of marks and transcript of records.

Visa and Health Insurance are usually delegated to other instances (mostly the students/individuals concerned).

Based on the above reading, one could identify different models for the organisation of JPs. A centralised organisation, in which the coordinating institution as such is in charge of most of the procedures; an integrated organisation, in which partners delegate most of the procedures to a well identified entity, such as a consortium/technical secretariat; a decentralised organisation, in which partners share the burden and responsibility of performing the various tasks. In most cases, the technical secretariat will be located at the coordinating institution, but it will function as a relay between the partners and the other branches of the institution’s administration.

Depending on the tasks to be achieved, different patterns have been identified:

- **Academic tasks**, which are under the responsibility of teachers are usually more distributed over the consortium;
- **Administrative tasks** can be decentralised/delegated to other bodies like IROs or student affairs offices or at the Faculty administrative offices;
- **Services** can be decentralised
STUDENTS’ ADMINISTRATION

A specific section of the survey was dedicated to the administrative processes connected to students, from the application phase to the final awarding of the diploma and diploma supplement and a specific chapter of the report is dedicated to the students’ administration timeline presenting the current procedures and main problems faced in the whole process including the following phases: application, selection, admission, enrolment, registration, monitoring, academic calendar, grading systems and final certification.

First of all, it can be seen from Fig.1 that the majority of the respondents don’t have conflicts regarding all the above listed points, as the highest rate reported is 36%. The main challenge faced by respondents is the delivery of a joint degree diploma (36%) followed very closely by the grading system issues (33%). The former includes the difficulties with the format, the legality of the joint diploma and its accreditation. Concerning the grading systems, they are mostly different between the partners, thus the transfer of marks among partners institutions may engender problems. Other challenges include: the admission requirement (25%) in terms of institutional regulations; the examinations regulations (22%); the period of enrolment (22%) as the academic calendar may not be the same at all partner institutions; the application procedures (19%); the recognition of the studies (18%); the enrolment process (17%); the length of the programme (15%) and the thesis dissertation (15%). Selection process (9%), health insurance (8%) and mobility (8%) are considered less problematic. The majority of the problems encountered for the awarding of the joint degree diploma seem to be related to national legislation conflicts, as shown by graph 13. The admission requirements may also lead to conflicts with the national legislation (14%).

Nearly all respondents solved this issue (83%). Recognition of studies may be an issue related to national authorities or legislation, 12% of respondents had or still have conflicts regarding that matter. Half of them found a solution to clear up the problem.

Fig.1 Main conflicts/problems encountered as regard to students’ administration

![Diagram showing the main conflicts/problems encountered as regard to students’ administration](image-url)
As it is shown by Fig. 2, the main issue between institutional regulation and the consortium, is the grading system (23%). 80% of the institutions have solved the problems related to this issue. The examination regulations may lead to conflicts as well (19%), but most of the institutions have cleared up the problem (87%). In addition, for the period of enrolment, the enrolment procedures, the thesis dissertation and the application procedures, challenges often come from institutional regulation conflicts; most of the respondents have managed to solve these issues. As shown in the 2 graphs above, difficulties regarding the delivery of the joint diploma may come from institutional conflicts, however as we said above, this issue is more often linked to national legislation. As confirmed by a specific question asked on the “academic calendar”, partially confirmed by some study visits, although 72% of the sample was able to adapt the academic calendar to consortium needs, flexibility in calendars is not easy to obtain.

Most of the respondents have experienced conflicts either with national legislation or institutional regulations and have more easily overcome the institutional barriers. Solutions could be either the flexibility of the JPs with regards to general regulation of the institution or a dedicated institutional strategy on JPs. In the first case, exceptions to ordinary regulations may be awarded to single JPs (“ex – post passive approach”), while in the second case it is the institution which creates special regulations valid for all JPs (“ex – ante active approach”). This has also been applied to solve the problem of harmonisation of academic calendars where flexible solutions have been adopted for JP by their institutions derogating from the general institutional regulations.

Fig. 2 conflicts between the institutional and the consortium regulations
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT OF JOINT PROGRAMMES

Joint Programmes require to institutions supplementary investments to cover the additional costs for the organisation and implementation of the programmes. These investments can be either in the form of additional human resources, additional services or scholarships or direct money support. The Erasmus Mundus Programme has introduced the requirement of the common policy on tuition fees, which was almost unexplored by JP in Europe before the EM era, but which requires the harmonisation of an issue – tuition fees – which is linked to the social systems of the Countries concerned, which are, up to now, not harmonised in Europe. Erasmus Mundus, in this sense, has revealed the many national and institutional differences in EU and demanded that measures be taken to synchronise or even harmonise the various national approaches. This is why these issues have raised the interest of the JOIMAN project which has dedicated a specific part of its research to this field.

Tuition fees

Traditionally in Europe, there is a great diversity in national legislations concerning tuition fees. In some countries, such as the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Portugal etc. all students pay tuition fees, whereas in others, as some Nordic Countries, tuition charged have not (yet) been introduced. This variation is also reflected in the fees being charged in Joint Programmes (JP). The main explanation for not charging tuition fees seems to consist in legal constraints. This goes along with the fact that programmes not charging tuition fees are located in countries where these fees are either not legally possible or holding up a long tradition of “free” university education. Some examples include Norway, Germany (some Federal States), Austria, Czech Republic, and Sweden. Presumably, EMMC can afford to charge students the full costs of their tuition because the EM label renders the programmes more attractive on the educational market. Another explanation might be that their students are often provided with very generous scholarships from the European Commission.

Not all partners in the consortia charge the same tuition fees. In some cases differences are explained by the legal restrictions in some countries. One existing model to overcome that obstacle consists in one member (co-ordinator) of the consortia collecting fees and distributing the money to all the partners. However, this policy is forbidden by some national legislation, e.g. Norwegian. Generally, EMMC seem to be better organised as consortia and share unified policies; non EMMC consortia are more open to meet the needs and consider legal obstacles of every partner. Some of the consortia charge very low fees or none at all. This means that institutions have to invest their own resources or rely on government grants. From the programme’s perspective this leads to a growing dependence on the institutions. Yet the investment out of non-financial motives might increase the quality of the programme as well as the support of JP when facing difficulties with external funding.
Scholarships

Although the sample might be too small for general conclusions, it is obvious that EMMC are better off in terms of their ability to award scholarships. Public sources (EU, state, university) prevail over non-public sources significantly. The programmes should be encouraged to consider the contact with business sponsors as well. This could have positive side effects on the employability of their graduates and the curriculum design. Moreover, the amount of EMMC scholarships could attract students of (non EU origin) for economic rather than academic reasons. Additionally, some EMMC JPs are in a kind of dilemma: either they recruit sufficiently from the region they are supposed to regardless of the applicant’s performance, or they miss the EMMC benchmarks in recruiting from a particular region and only enrol the best students regardless of their passport. Student’s merit should always be the dominant criterion to register a student and award a scholarship.

Sustainability

Nearly half of the JP respondents do not have any reserves to ensure sustainability. Apparently, the institution’s motivation for continuing the programmes is high even though serious issues arise in practical terms. The high percentage of non-existing answers and the use of the “do not know” options when questioned about continuity of the JP in the event of external funds ceasing imply a lack of awareness of the matter of sustainability or insecurity when faced with unclear conditions. Yet the findings imply that EMMCs are better informed about financial matters and are more structured in thinking ahead when it comes to sustainability. Many of the experts interviewed during the study visits could not present a strategy to support their programmes. The potential suspension of funding from public sources is not on the agenda until it is about to happen. It was also said that the consortium was built on the personal friendship of the academics involved; when the co-ordinator retires the network is endangered. In addition, administrative personnel in JPs are usually paid out of the JP income; when the income dries up there could be no continuity.

Generally, sustainability is a priority item in JPs which is obviously disastrously underestimated or even ignored. Programmes heavily rely on the already established funding sources and on public funding in general. In particular EMMC get used to a rather comfortable situation of public funding which has a tranquillising effect. While the JP is running successfully and all the staff are rather busy there is almost no room for the effort to look out for new partners in business or elsewhere away from the well trodden path. Another conclusion would be that many JPs have not been institutionalised yet, i.e. they are regarded as a temporary positive addition to the “regular” study programmes offered, or as a private matter of a professor extraordinarily committed to international exchange. That is why it is often so hard to install a long-term plan to sustain a programme not only academically, but financially as well. A solution could be to install a unit within the administration of a university which co-ordinates all JPs which is at least partially independent from the funding of the JPs. This unit should accompany and support
the programmes administratively from the starting line and ensure their sustainability by developing and monitoring their financial planning, in particular by putting aside reserves and establishing contacts with business or different sources of funding. Institutions could even charge JPs for the service of that unit and, thus, force them to make provisions for sustainability. It might help JP co-ordinators to have a universal terminology at their disposal (e.g. “full costs”, “revenue reserve”, “ad hoc-funding” and “sustainability”) to encourage communication and sharing information which even co-ordinators of the same nation up to the same university do not seem to do yet. In line with this, seminars and get-togethers should be arranged to profit from mutual experience and to raise awareness about the various matters including the best ignored question of sustainability.

The JPs are not islands, and their inhabitants (academic and administrative co-ordinators) should not operate in splendid isolation, they need professional development and mutual exchange. The EMMC are a privileged group in this regard, as they can benefit from EC and National Agencies’ seminars and meetings and from the networking opportunities put in place for them by the stakeholders. However, as the survey clearly shows, the EM model is not the only one and not all the JPs could aim to be part of the EM club. Therefore, information and specialised training initiatives could be organised by National agencies or institutional units involving potential coordinators of JP, regardless of the willingness to participate in the EM Programme.
QUALITY ASSURANCE

A specific section of the Survey has been dedicated to QA measures, investigating the QA systems and understandings in the development of the curriculum, for the mobility of students and for the evaluation of the teaching and services of the programmes.

Quality Assurance for the curriculum

With reference to QA for the curriculum, three questions were asked in the Survey. The first question asked the target how they ensure that their programme is a coherent, holistic programme of study and not just a curriculum consisting of separate, loosely compounded modules; the second question aimed to investigate how learning outcomes at programme, module and teaching units level have been defined among the consortium and the third one aimed to know whether guidelines for the workload of students are implemented within the consortium. A fourth question referred to the quality of the final certification, which we include in this paragraph as we think the quality in the awarding of certification may vary – positively – considerably if it is part of the development and planning phase. Not all respondents demonstrated their understanding of the first question, therefore some of the answers are not usable for this report. However, two main approaches have arisen from the open answers which can summarised by these two main quoted answers:

- The initial design of the JP, which has been jointly developed, is sufficient for the programme to be coherent and holistic;
- Having a periodic evaluation and follow-up system (like a QA committee, a joint board, students evaluation and assessment).

To ensure quality in the awarding of certifications (including the issuing of the diploma), two main answers were identified

- It is regulated in the consortium agreement (52.4%)
- During the planning of the joint programme the awarding of degrees will be agreed within the Consortium (35.3%)

Quality Assurance for the Mobility

Mobility is an intrinsic aspect of JPs and has to be treated with great care, as it is intimately linked with the success of the programme. The answers show that indeed great attention is given to the mobility scheme by the consortia, since precise guidelines and individual counselling are the two main sources of information for students on this delicate matter. Study visits show that counselling of students can be done as follows:

At central level: by offering general guidance and counselling from a specified unit in charge of JPs. At faculty level: by providing more specific guidelines
Evaluation

An important part of quality assurance processes are the evaluation and assessment procedures implemented by the programme. From the study visits it appeared that the JP have put their own evaluation systems in place which in some cases have been added to the regular evaluation activities put in place by each institution or faculty, or in other cases have substituted those activities. Quality assurance offices in the visited institutions have in some cases developed guidelines to be applied before the development of the programmes; those guidelines, however, do not impose any evaluation system which can be defined and agreed among the consortium.

An effective, updated and comprehensive evaluation system is a crucial tool for the success of a joint programme. The system should include regular evaluation of the academic activities (which is mostly the case of our sample) as well as of services (in this case there is a clear need for improvement). Evaluation should be made by different stakeholders, including the students and the academic staff, as well as the feedback from the labour market which is essential for the adjustment of the curricula. Evaluation procedures allow programmes to be up to date and respondent to students needs and expectations and permit to avoid high drop-out rates.
MAPPING OF THE PROCESSES

The “joint programme life cycle” can be divided in two main macro phases which are the “development phase” and the “implementation phase”. A third phase, which is the “marketing of the programme”, can be placed in between, where not considered under the implementation phase. These macro–phases refer to each JP singularly, while the “role of the institution”, in the sense of how each institution is capable and prepared to invest in the internationalisation of education and in particular in JPs, is an important factor which is not necessarily directly related to each singular joint programme but which may considerably influence the macro–phases indicated.

Based on the data presented and commented in the previous chapters, we can assert that the majority of the actions which could prevent the challenges and problems arising during the implementation phase, need to be addressed in the planning of the programme or can be prevented thanks to the “role of the institution” in terms of the policy defined and strategy implemented to support joint programmes. The graph represented in Figure 3 has been conceived to represent the whole process and to describe the tools which can be adopted in the various phases, while Fig 4 represents in details the implementation phase, with the aim to give a picture of the main activities and processes of the JP implementation.
Fig. 4 The Implementation Phase
CONCLUSIONS

Based on the sample analysis, we can identify 3 main causes which originated the main obstacles to JPs, 2 of which are exogenous and one is endogenous. The exogenous causes are the national legislation on joint degrees and the national legislation on tuition fees for higher education, the latter more specifically when it is put in relation with the rules of the main European Programmes in support to joint programmes. Among the “endogenous causes” we mention the lack of institutional support or commitment in the joint programmes’ initiatives and the difficulties faced by the actors involved in the processes with regards to the challenges of the international environment.

Starting from the legislative constraints, the main obstacle pointed out is connected with the accreditation of joint degrees. Indeed, in some European countries the accreditation of joint degrees it is still not regulated and consequently the awarding of joint diploma is not possible. However, national legislations on this issue are in a continuing evolution and the governments involved in the Bologna Process are working to harmonise the laws on this theme. However, it seems that the numerous actors involved in the development of joint programmes are not always fully aware of this legislative evolution. On this point the GPR provides recommendations and suggestions in order to overcome the gap of information, proposing a list of specialised organisations to be involved during the development phase. In addition, it has been detected, even from the academic side, a suspicious approach in relationship to joint diplomas since part of the academic world considers joint diploma a certificate which may mislead the labour market and therefore prefers to award double of multiple diplomas which are more “readable” and more easily understood and assessed. In order to remove this obstacle, with a cultural rather than normative nature, information and raise awareness campaigns addressed to the main stakeholders (students first) are necessary.

Concerning the legal constraints generated by the main European Programmes sustaining joint programmes, the main obstacle seems to be the requirement of a common tuition policy among the institutions involved in a funded joint programme. This issue, which need to be addressed by those institutions wishing to apply for the European support, is usually the cause of conflicts among the consortia since the institutions involved belong to higher education systems, and more widely to socio-economic systems, with different approaches and traditions with regards to higher education funding. Therefore, it is often hard and sometimes impossible to harmonise the tuition policies among the institutions involved in a joint programme. On this particular issue, some good practice examples or recommendations can be extracted by the report in order to find, if not a solution, a support for the development of new joint programmes. An additional tool which has been developed by the JOIMAN Network is the table with the description of the national rules (in the 27 EU Countries) on tuition fees at master level.

In addition to the legal constraints above described, for the resolution of which it is necessary a process of raise awareness and change which may need long time and which requires the involvement of all the national and international decision makers, the majority of the obstacles detected by the research appears during the implementation phase of the joint programme and it is linked to the students’ administration in all phases, from the joint application phase to the final certification. Those obstacles can be more easily removed since they are related to the institution role rather than to
international or national decision makers. It is not possible to find a universal solution for those obstacles, however, in order to avoid being surprised and overwhelmed by them, it is necessary to be fully aware of all the processes in place. At this regard, the Report can be a valid support, mapping all the management processes, identifying the barriers which may arise during all the life cycle of the project and proposing a number of good practices examples and recommendations which may serve to anticipate, avoid or overcome them.
PART I

1. Methodology and tools

The people involved in the elaboration of this Report are the administrators of the 15 Universities involved in the JOIMAN project, which have been divided in three thematic task forces working separately and coordinated by the Steering Committee of the JOIMAN project. The three groups have been working on the following topics:

1. Institutional strategies and policies adopted for the development and management of joint programmes, the management structures of joint programmes and the organisation of services and Quality assurance for joint programmes;
2. Educational administrative issues in joint programmes, including application and selection procedures, admission and enrolment practices and the certification and award of diplomas.
3. Financial issues related to joint programmes, including the additional costs of the programmes, tuition policies and the issue of the sustainability of joint programmes.

The first step of the working groups was the discussion on the terminology to be adopted; for this purpose a specific “JOIMAN Glossary” was developed, including the most relevant terms related to joint programmes (see annex 5).

The second step consisted in the collection of data to be analysed and processed to be presented and commented in this report. Most of the data have been collected online, thanks to online surveys.

The means for the collection of the data adopted by the project were:

1. A survey on institutional policies of HEIs involved in the development and management of joint programmes;
2. A survey on the organisation of JPs;
3. Study visits and interviews addressed to respondents to the survey or to institutions from Countries not covered by the survey;
4. The collection of cooperation agreement samples from the JOIMAN partners.

The following step consisted in the organisation and first analysis of the collected data with the aim of identifying trends and tendencies as well as the major challenges encountered by JP coordinators and institutions, and to identify some institutions to be visited in order to deepen the analysis.

After the analysis, study visits to the selected institutions were carried out and research work on the national legislations on tuition fees for higher education programmes was undertaken in parallel.

A separate working group has been working on the analysis of the cooperation agreement samples collected from the partners and has drawn up the cooperation
agreement template, which is meant as a transferable tool which could be adopted by the HE community.

The last step was the consolidation of the data acquired and the presentation of the main findings in this report.

1.1 JOIMAN survey on institutional policies

The Survey on institutional policies (Annex 2) has been designed to gather relevant information on the institutional strategies adopted at central level for the development, management and support for joint programmes. In addition, the survey contains questions on the governance structure of the respondent institutions in order to compare the governance structure, size and typology of the institution with the above mentioned policies adopted for the JPs. The ideal respondent defined by the project is either an academic with administration functions involved in the definition of the policies for JPs (i.e.: Rector’s delegate for international relations or Rector’s delegate for teaching) or administrators involved in the development and management of JPs (i.e.: International relations officers, quality assurance officers etc).

The survey was promoted within the 15 universities involved in the JOIMAN project and beyond the project using the institutional networks of the people involved.

1.2 JOIMAN survey on the organisation of JPs

This survey was designed to collect relevant information on the administration and management phases of the joint programmes. While the survey addressed to administrators referred to institutional policies adopted for all JPs, this survey asked specific questions to academic coordinators on the specific joint programme which they coordinate.

The survey was divided into 4 sections:

A. Organisation and Management
B. Educational administrative issues (timeline of students' administration including application, selection, enrolment and certification and final award of the diploma)
C. Financial issues (including costs calculation, tuition and fees and sustainability issues)
D. Quality assurance

The survey was promoted within the JOIMAN institutions and beyond, using the institutional networks of the JP coordinators and thanks to the information campaign realised by the three Erasmus Mundus National Structures participating in the project.

The survey contains 82 questions, including matrix questions, open questions and requests for comments. On one hand this generated a long and detailed questionnaire which may have jeopardised the respondency rate; on the other hand, it allowed the collection of a large amount of data from the respondents and, above all, was an important process for mapping the management procedures of a JP, which can be considered an important tool itself (see annex 3).
1.3 Study Visits

After the closure of the survey, in order to extend the analysis, five study visits and 2 institutional interviews were carried out by the JOIMAN group. Out of the 5 institutions visited, 3 are JOIMAN partners and 2 are external to the network. All 5 institutions were selected on the basis of the answers they provided in the 2 surveys. During the visits, the JOIMAN partners interviewed the administrators in charge of policy implementation and the academic coordinator of JPs. Two additional interviews were carried out to administrators of UK institutions, because the data collected did not represent any UK university.

Institutions visited:

- University of Padova (IT)
- University of Trento (IT)
- University of Antwerp (BE)
- University of Bergen (NO)
- University of Ghent (BE)

Interviews to administrators of UK institutions

- University of Sheffield
- University of Reading

1.4 National regulations on tuition fees

Using the existing networks, the JOIMAN group requested data on the national legislation on tuition fees to one representative of each EU Country with the aim of creating an overview of the ongoing tuition fees policies adopted by each EU Country. The questions asked were:

1. What are the legal regulations in your state system for tuition fees of master programmes?
2. Do they make a distinction on the citizenship of the student?
3. Are there special regulations for joint degrees?
4. Do they distinguish EMMC from others?

The findings of this survey will be added as an annex of this report at the end of the project.

1.5 Cooperation agreement template

The Survey addressed to JP coordinators showed that 95% of the coordinators are currently using a cooperation agreement which can be considered a good practice for the development and management of a new JP if addressed at the very beginning of the development phase. The Survey contained two additional questions on the cooperation agreement:
1. Which issues are regulated by the cooperation agreement?
2. Why a cooperation agreement?

The answers to the first question helped the JOIMAN Network to identify what are the most frequently included issues in the cooperation agreement. Furthermore, the second question reinforced the idea that the cooperation agreement is an indispensable tool for the development and running of a JP. Indeed, the vast majority of users replied that the main reason for having a cooperation agreement is because it is a good practice, which may avoid troubles and misunderstandings during the running of the programme.

The cooperation agreement template, including administrative and educational issues as well as financial issues related to JP management, is one of the transferable outputs of the JOIMAN project. This output, which is included in the annexes to this report, is meant as a tool which could be adopted by HEIs interested in the development of new JPs, or interested in adapting existing ones to a different quality model.
2. Presentation of the sample

This chapter intends to introduce the general results of the JOIMAN surveys and to present the sample analysed in terms of quantitative results, geographical coverage, kind of institutions involved and number of JPs covered. A first graphical representation of the sample is provided by the map below, showing the institutions involved either in the survey on institutional policies, the survey on JP organisation and with study visits.
2.1 Survey on institutional policies

The survey on institutional policies contained questions on the governance structure and on the policies and strategies implemented at institutional level for the development and management of JPs. A specific question aimed to identify the size of the institution in terms of number of students enrolled and number of programmes implemented at bachelor and master level, while the last question of the survey asked respondents the total number of joint programmes activated by their institution.

The questionnaire ran from the 1st May to 22nd June. The total number of questionnaires received was 36 from 36 different institutions.

The total number of countries covered is 19; the graph below shows the distribution of respondents per Country.

The above graph shows that the 30% of the respondents come from France and the rest of the sample is distributed quite homogeneously. Out of the 19 Countries represented, 15 are Members of the EU (France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Finland, Nederland, Czech Republic, Sweden, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and Lithuania) 1 is member of EFTA (Norway) and 3 are not members of the EU (Republic of Serbia, Albania and Armenia).

Concerning the Governance structure, as shown in graph 2, the vast majority of institutions are public institutions (31 out of 36 respondents i.e. 86% of the sample). Although 5 institutions are private, only 3 respondents stated that they receive their main financial resources from sources other than the State or Regional Government. More than half of the sample defined themselves as centralised and autonomous, while 7 institutions are based in more than one city.
Concerning the size of the institutions represented by the sample, Graph 3 represents the distribution of respondents grouped per number of students enrolled.

It can be noted that essentially the same percentage of respondents represent respectively very small institutions (less than 1000 students enrolled), small institutions (from 1000 to 10000 students enrolled), medium sized institutions (10000 to 30000 students enrolled) and big institutions (from 30000 to 50000 students enrolled). Two additional institutions are to be considered “very big” (more than 50000 students enrolled).

The above described data on the size of institutions is confirmed by the distribution of respondents per number of bachelor and master programmes offered (Graphs 4 and 5).
It is also relevant to note that all respondents but 1 are both teaching and research institutions, regardless of their size.

The last question of the survey asked the respondents to indicate the total number of JPs developed at bachelor, master and doctoral level. The total number of JPs represented by the sample at the first two cycles is 184 (28 at bachelor and 156 at master level). At doctoral level, the sample represents 59 implemented JPs, but this data may not be relevant as the survey did not give the respondent a proper definition of joint programmes at doctoral level. However, it is interesting to note that two thirds of the respondents have implemented JP at master level, while only one third of the sample have implemented JP at bachelor and doctoral level.
2.2 JOIMAN survey on the organisation of joint programmes

The survey on the organisation of JPs, addressed mainly to JP academic coordinators, aimed to gather relevant information on specific joint programmes managed or coordinated by the respondent.

The total number of valid questionnaires received is 89, covering 45 different institutions in 15 European Countries. The total number of JPs represented by the sample is 75 as some questionnaires have been filled in by more than one partner of the same JP. Graph 6 presents the distribution of the sample by Country:

As can be seen in Graph 7, 34 respondents represent an EMMC while 55 are “non Erasmus Mundus” programmes.
In order to provide a further classification of the “non EM programmes” the type of diploma awarded could be analysed, choosing among double, multiple, joint degrees and “other” (including single degrees or joint degrees “planned” but not yet implemented or “not answered”).

Graph 8 presents the classification of non EM programmes per kind of degree awarded. For coherency and in order to give a term for comparison, the same classification is presented for EMMC in graph 9.

To conclude the presentation of the sample, it has to be mentioned that the great diversity of respondents combines at the same time positive and negative aspects regarding the entire survey. Creating a thorough picture of the JP landscape, a diverse group as such can be beneficial. It demonstrates the ability of many different types of institutions to organise JPs. However, the group of respondents to both surveys is too inhomogeneous to be considered statistically relevant. Therefore, the data presented in the next chapters together with findings, comments, and recommendations extracted, need not to be considered from the statistical point of view, but as the reading of general trends, analysed with the eye of people involved daily in the processes examined.
PART II

3. The role of the institution

The “Guidelines For Quality Enhancement In European Joint Master Programmes” published by EUA in 2006 as well as the study commissioned by the EC to ECOTEC Group “Erasmus Mundus Support services related to the Quality of ERASMUS MUNDUS Master Courses and the preparation of quality guidelines”, published in 2008, underline the need for “institutional commitment” for the realisation of a quality joint programme.

The JOIMAN survey on institutional policies aimed to investigate which bodies are in charge of the establishment, accreditation and signature of agreements for JPs, as well as the presence of strategic policies and specific guidelines developed at institutional level for the promotion and management of JPs.

The basic assumption was that the support a JP receives from an institution can be of many kinds, but it is clearly of the utmost importance that the JP complies with the rules and regulations which are in force. These may be of a varied nature. Here we address, among others, the question of the role of institutions in the development, establishment, accreditation and support of a JP.

3.1 Legal rights related to JPs

Out of the 36 institutions questioned, the majority (52%) responded that the legal right to finally approve the JP is within the Institution, even though different bodies are in charge of this aspect (e.g.: administration council, academic senate, general director), and this is mostly done at the central level of the institution.

The same results apply to the signature of the cooperation agreement for the establishment and management of the JP, which is mostly performed at the central level of the institution, generally by the legal representative, mostly the rector/chairman of the HEI (66.7%).

On the other hand, the final accreditation of JPs mostly depends on a national authority (38%) and to a lesser extent depends on the institution (25%).

BOX 1

As noted above, there are various institutional models used in Europe or outside. Therefore a new consortium should be aware of how the programme is legally approved and accredited in the participating institutions. For example it is important for the establishment and running of the programme to decide when the programme can actually start. It goes without saying that JPs based on already existing, accredited degrees, have no problem with accreditation, as has been confirmed in a number of study visits.
3.2 Strategic policy for JPs

Half of the 36 respondents do have a strategic policy to develop JPs. They have developed such a policy in order to contribute to and support the internationalisation of their institution, following in parallel national and European incentives to develop JPs (especially through funding). Here are excerpts of some of the answers collected:

BOX 2

**Respondent 1:** Our university “intends to further strengthen its international profile by increasing the number of excellent joint programmes”

**Respondent 2:** “Internationalisation takes a prominent place in the strategic plan of the university, a new being recently adopted for the period 2009-2012. [The] General target is transparent global internationalisation policy for its education, research and services, meeting the highest standards. Measurable goals are set to recruit more international students and staff. Therefore each faculty will develop at least one international programme. Although not explicitly mentioned, structural cooperation with partner universities abroad is encouraged. Joint degrees programmes/double degrees will be preferred options”.

**Respondent 3:** "Internationalisation is one of four strategies for [our] University to achieve the overall goal of highest quality. An international profile on education strengthens students in an increasingly internationalised market. According to [our university’s] Strategic Plan 2007-2011, the university will distinguish itself by programmes on an advanced level, especially master programmes with national and international recruitment.”

**Respondent 4:** “The strategy on internationalisation underlines development of JD as one of the strategic areas”.

**Respondent 5:** One of the Strategic objectives is to “foster the internationalisation of educational programmes”, to be achieved through “the increasing number of courses and modules offered in a foreign language” and through the “participation in international projects for the development of international Joint Double or Multiple degree”.

**Respondent 6:** Internationalisation is part of the University’s statute and JPs are strategic: every year we strengthen existing successful agreements and start new ones, both within Europe and worldwide, in particular with Asia and America”.

If, a fortiori, all universities which answered the questionnaires do manage JPs, we should note that only half of them have developed a strategic policy to develop such programmes. A more detailed analysis of the data shows however that those universities which have developed such a policy have, on average, a higher number of JPs. More precisely:

- Universities with a policy on JPs have 10 JPs on average (between 2 and 40)
- Universities without a policy on JPs have 1.7 JPs on average (between 1 and 12).
A strategic policy on JPs adopted at the highest level of an institution seems to contribute to a systematic development of JPs. Thus a JP policy enhances internationalisation and gives the institution an international profile. Moreover, a strategic policy gives the institution credibility when cooperating with other institutions. **A strategic policy anchors the development and running of JPs within the institution and at the highest level.** It may also enhance the quality of the programme. Furthermore, a strategy can also motivate academic and administrative staff to work towards the development and running of a JP.

Based on the study visits, we can distinguish two basic approaches to set up a strategic policy:

**Top-down approach:** developed from the highest level of the institution and then spread inside the institution. So for instance one HEI has developed a JP policy, has then integrated it in its general policy documents, and finally has disseminated a “JP culture” to faculties and departments.

**Bottom-up approach:** a strategic policy is developed after the institution becomes involved in JPs in order to streamline and frame the development of new JPs. Such a policy might also be defined in order to help the existing JPs to run more smoothly.

The strategic policies can have different emphasis:

- They might stress the administrative side and hence limit themselves to defining a framework
- They might add an incentive to work inside a framework
- Or else they might aim at rationalising the development of JPs, by creating an appropriate professional culture

It does not seem out of place to cite here an excerpt from one of the study visits, which shows how a JP can have an impact on an institution or a faculty:

“[…] These two programmes brought a very important change in the culture of the Faculty […]. They brought an important impulse to the internationalisation culture (courses in English, international dimension, etc.), but also to the whole organisation of the Faculty (dedicated tutor for international students, coaching for social integration, dedicated fund for the running of the international programmes).”
3.3 Guidelines for the development and management of JPs

The majority of universities do not have a support framework or guidelines to develop JPs or to manage them.

- 75% of the respondents do not have guidelines for the development of JPs;
- 70% of the respondents do not have any guidelines for the management of JPs.

Only very few universities presented their guidelines for the survey.

The guidelines presented are of a varied nature and scope. The most complete guidelines are those from the University of Lund, which address all main points that one has to take into account for setting up and running a JP. These guidelines are also reported integrally as an annex of this report. References are given to the main sources of information and ideas are put forward for those seeking financial support. The tone of the document is not emphatic and has no promotional objective.

Other guidelines are of a completely different kind, focusing on legal aspects related to the recognition and accreditation of degrees. They seem to be fairly complete in that respect, and are thus rather technical.

In between these two kinds of guidelines are those which are built around a template for cooperation agreement and therefore include a statement of intent, but also address most of the relevant legal matters, albeit in a generic way.

A fourth model analysed follows very closely the procedure that a department has to follow to obtain accreditation from the Ministry of Education of the Country concerned while the last example of guidelines received is interesting in that they emphasize the need for a JP to comply to the quality assurance principles of the institution, which are to be understood as guaranteeing students that they will not lose out on quality during their mobility periods.

BOX 4

Internal guidelines guarantee that the institution functions or operates in a homogeneous way concerning all its JPs. Such guidelines also enhance the transparency of procedures and make the institution more accountable, as a partner.

If guidelines are available, academic staff and administrators work in a more systematic way within JPs.

From the point of view of the institutional leadership, guidelines are a good tool for monitoring the implementation and running of JPs.

If the institution has a quality assurance system, these guidelines must be in alignment with this system.

The purpose of the guidelines should help to support the staff in developing and running JPs.

At the same time guidelines should be flexible at the point to allow negotiations with partners.

We take the following remarks from one of the study visits:
Respondent 1: [We have developed a] policy rather than a strategy with a very large scope. The policy contains a guideline, which addresses all elements of a JP from the first idea about the programme up to the JD certification and alumni network:

[Its] main aspects [are]:

1. Academic aspects,
2. Financial aspects
3. The aspect of sustainability of the programme at all partner universities.

[We favour a] professional/well organised approach to developing JPs, e.g. by developing a business plan for each JP. One basic rule to implement a JP is: solve all problems before the programme starts.

The main conditions that need to be fulfilled are:

- Insure full financial coverage of the programme, at all partner institutions;
- Organise site visits to the partners prior the start of the programme to check institutional commitment;
- Perform a diligence investigation of all partners (including an investigation of the legal framework).
3.4 Framework to sustain JPs

A framework to support JPs can consist of *i.e.* financial support, staff support, strategic policy, guidelines, and support from the leadership (such as a quality label or inclusion in the general promotion of the institution).

Most of the respondents (70%) have not developed a framework to support JPs. Those who have developed such a framework did it either by:

- Providing (direct/indirect) funding;
- Ensuring staff support (with some dedicated staff from the education/students affairs and IRO or dedicated unit to JPs). This seems to be the new trend.

**BOX 4**

A framework to support JPs (especially funding) motivates the participation in these programmes and contributes to the internationalisation of the institution. A framework is also of great importance in securing (long term) sustainability of JPs.

It is interesting to note that the respondents who are running EMMC, did not mention the fact that -- by contract -- they have to guarantee a level of services, which clearly requires support from the partner institutions. This probably means that those JPs received the necessary support, even though a framework does not exist *formally* or has not been made explicit.

There is a trend to create units dedicated to the development and management of JPs (within/attached to IROs or QA units). Their goal is to support and frame initiatives in a professional way.

It is also interesting to note that very few HEIs have mentioned direct support to students as an issue. The study visits have shown that some HEIs provide (special) scholarships to students enrolled in a selected group of JPs (determined at the institutional level).

Another kind of institutional support shown by the survey is a financial support transferred to the Faculties running Joint Programmes matching the quality requirements defined (teaching units taught in a foreign language, a minimum percentage of international students enrolled, the presence of international visiting professors, a dedicated tutor etc.).

In two cases, shown by a study visit and by the survey, a less direct financial support is provided to international programmes in the form of a "special agreed distribution of the tuition fees" among the central administration and the study programme. In these cases the study programmes are conceived as “autonomous” and they can count on a percentage of the fees (80 – 85%) for running the programmes. These funds are additional funds to be added to the costs incurred by the institution for the provision of the regular services (teaching rooms, academic personnel, student’s services) and are generally used for additional services for international students or for scholarships.
4. Management and organisation of the joint programmes

The JOIMAN Survey on JP organisation aimed to investigate, among the other issues, the management and governance structures of the targeted JPs in order to identify which bodies and administrative units, either external or internal to the Institutions, are involved in the different processes and phases.

While our sample of JPs is not too large, it shows that there are different (viable) ways of managing and organising a JP. The differences might reflect the history of the JP or say something about the kind of partnership that lies at the foundation of the JP. The responsibility for the various aspects of a JP (management, pedagogical, administrative) can be distributed over the consortium or can lie with only one or few partner institutions. In this chapter we present and analyse these issues in some detail.

4.1 Governance processes

Table 1 represents which bodies are in charge of the main “governance processes” including supervision and decision making, administrative coordination, follow up of the programme and academic and administrative quality control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>External body</th>
<th>National authority</th>
<th>Regional authority</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Faculty Dept School</th>
<th>Individual</th>
<th>Consortium</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision/D. making</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>63.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative co-ordination</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>40.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up of the programme</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>52.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic quality control</td>
<td>10.20%</td>
<td>3.40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>4.50%</td>
<td>39.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative quality control</td>
<td>8.10%</td>
<td>2.30%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>1.20%</td>
<td>39.50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that supervision/decision making process are mostly performed at consortium level (63.6%), while the administrative coordination is either performed at consortium level (40.9%), for instance through a technical secretariat, or also at the level of the departments/faculties of the partner institutions (30.7%).

The responsibility for the follow up of the programme is shared, again, between the consortium and the faculties or departments, while the selection of students is mostly performed at consortium level.

Academic quality control is mostly performed at consortium level (39.8% each), but often at faculty/department level (26.1%), and also at institution level (15.9%) or
external body level (10.2%), while the administrative quality control is mostly done at consortium level (39.5% each) and at institution level (27.9%).

**BOX 5**

In this regard, it is important to state that EMMC and joint programmes leading to the award of a multiple degree, which together represent 43% of the sample and which involve more than 2 partners, manage the above described processes mainly at consortium level while non EM programmes awarding double degrees usually manage the processes at faculty or departmental level.

It is not too surprising that the supervision and decision making for most of the JPs takes place at consortium level, indeed all of the identified procedures are mostly performed at consortium level. The fact that the quality controls are somewhat decentralised probably reflects the fact that there are procedures in place at the partner institutions, which are not too easy to harmonise. It is clear from this table that our sample does not fully adhere to the EM model and this data is confirmed by the fact that the majority of the non EM programmes awarding double degrees do not follow the EM model of integration.

It is important to note, on the other hand, that most of the non EM programmes awarding either multiple or joint degrees have concentrated some of the management processes at consortium level, adopting in this issue the EM model.
4.2 Organisation and management of the JP: share of responsibility, division of tasks and services provided

The question in table 2 about how tasks and responsibilities on the main organisational processes are divided among the partners offers an inside view into the JPs and, with that, provides ideas how a new programme can be successfully structured or how an existing one could be improved.

Table 2: answers to the question: “The organisation of the JP: who is in charge of the following procedures?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coordinating institution</th>
<th>Delegated to individual partner institutions at central level</th>
<th>Delegated to individual partner institutions at Faculty or Dept. level</th>
<th>Joint structure/Consortium</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Receipt of applications</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening of applications</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>37.1%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admission decision</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>60.7%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sending letters of acceptance</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment</td>
<td>35.2%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation of mobility</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Insurance</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Monitoring of the Programme's fees</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fees collection</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
<td>37.7%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fees distribution</td>
<td>36.3%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation of Extra curricular activities</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examination</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis/dissertation</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of marks and transcript of records</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivery of degree certificate</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivery of diploma supplement</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
<td>18.1%</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The answers given presumably state the obvious.

The **coordinating institution** is usually in charge of receiving the applications, sending letters of acceptance, financially monitoring the programme, collecting and distributing fees.

The **consortium** is then in charge of the following tasks: screening of applications, deciding on admission, organising the mobility and issuing the certificate.

The **partner institutions** are usually in charge of the following tasks: at central level: enrolment, visas, accommodation, certification, delivery of degree certificate and delivery of diploma supplement; at faculty/departmental level: organisation of extra-curricular activities; examination, thesis/dissertation and transfer of marks and transcript of records.

Visa and Health Insurance are usually delegated to other instances (mostly the students/individuals concerned).

However, extracting from the sample the EMMC and the non EM programmes, we note that for the vast majority of EMMCs all the mentioned procedures are managed either by the coordinating institution or jointly by the consortium, with the exception of the Visa procedures, accommodation procedures, organisation of extra-curricular activities and examination/thesis dissertation, which are mainly delegated to partner institutions at faculty level. On the other hand, the majority of non EM programmes delegate the management of those procedures in the partner institutions to Faculty level. EMMC usually take care of health insurance and visa procedures, which are mostly delegated to students in the case of non EM programmes. The only procedures for which it seems there is no relevant difference between EMMC and non EM programmes are the organisation of extra-curricular activities, examination and thesis dissertation and accommodation services (usually managed at the partner institution) the definition of mobility (usually defined jointly) and the certification, issues (delivery of diploma and diploma supplement, usually in charge of each institution).

**BOX 6**

Based on the above reading, one could identify different models for the organisation of JPs. A **centralised organisation**, in which the coordinating institution as such is in charge of most of the procedures; an **integrated organisation**, in which partners delegate most of the procedures to a well identified entity, such as a consortium/technical secretariat; a **decentralised organisation**, in which partners share the burden and responsibility of performing the various tasks. In most cases, the technical secretariat will be located at the coordinating institution, but it will function as a relay between the partners and the other branches of the institution’s administration.

A second comment on the above data is that the role of the coordinating institution is played mainly in the EMMCs while in most of the non EM courses the coordinating institution does not cover specific roles, and one may deduce that in many cases the partnership, especially in bilateral programmes, is conceived with equal roles without one institution coordinating the programme.
Table 3 summarises the involvement of different administrative units in the management of joint programmes. The list of units provided by the survey included IRO, students affairs office, financial office and consortium secretariat.

Table 3: representation of the answer to the question: What are the main administrative offices in charge of the following procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International office</th>
<th>Student Affairs office</th>
<th>Financial Office</th>
<th>Consortium secretariat</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Application procedures</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admission procedures</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment and registration Procedures</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>54.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial monitoring</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra-curricular activities</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic monitoring</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>25.3%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis of the answers it is clear that all these units are involved in the processes. In addition, from the analysis of the “Other” answers, it appears that some of the above mentioned tasks are performed at faculty level by administrative or academic personnel, while some of the tasks are performed by external services such as students’ associations and former students for the organisation of extra curricular activities.

**BOX 7**

The management and organisation of JPs is mostly performed at consortium level, with some variations. Depending on the tasks to be achieved, different patterns have been identified.

- **Academic tasks**, which are under the responsibility of teachers are usually more distributed over the consortium;
- **Administrative tasks** can be decentralised/delegated to other bodies like IROs or student affairs offices or at the Faculty administrative offices;
- **Services** can be decentralised or may even be completely absent, for instance when staff support is not sufficient.

Results of a study visit shown how one consortium has developed an online management tool for their JP. With this system, all the partners have access to the students’ information. Data can also be exported and this can facilitate the award of certifications. This management tool, which can be used for the general management of the programmes as well as of the student’s career, reduces the workload and permits a more effective monitoring and quality control.

A specific question of the survey to academic coordinators aimed to map the services provided for incoming and outgoing students, which services are offered to all students
and which ones have been specially created for the JP. In table 4 we summarise the results of this question.

Table 4: representation of respondents to the question: Services: please specify which of the following sentences are true or false and which ones are applied specifically to your JP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>False</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>True, specifically for this JP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My institution organises specific language courses for outgoing students</td>
<td>52.8%</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution organises specific language courses for incoming students</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>73.6%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution supports incoming students in finding accommodation</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>75.3%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution can help incoming students to find accommodation but does not propose accommodation as such</td>
<td>51.8%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution offers short time accommodation for scholars and students</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
<td>56.3%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution organises special activities on arrival for incoming students</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution organises some leisure time activities for students</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution provides information on health insurance</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>75.9%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that services for JP students are usually not provided specifically for these students but are part of a wider range of services. In terms of services, the typical services offered to such students are: specific language courses, support in finding accommodation, information on health insurance and special activities on arrival for incoming students.

**BOX 8**

The EM model encourages institutions to include a number of services in their offer and organisation of the JP. This is one of the criteria retained to assess the quality of the JP. It should be noted that JPs very rarely develop their own services. On one hand, this might be very difficult, and on the other hand, **the fact that the services on offer are those of the institution(s) facilitates the integration of students into the larger body of the institutions students and avoids the creation of “special lanes”, which might have the effect to impede a richer cultural experience.**
4.3 The cooperation agreement

The survey addressed to academic coordinators contained 3 questions specifically referred to the issue of the cooperation agreement:

1. Do you have a cooperation agreement which regulates consortium organisation and programme implementation?
2. Which issues are regulated by the cooperation agreement?
3. Why a cooperation agreement?

The answers of the questions have confirmed the strategic importance of such a tool, which can be considered a quality tool for the implementation of JPs. Indeed from the first question, which required a yes/no answer, it was found that 95% of the sample has implemented a cooperation agreement within the JP consortium.

The second question, where multiple choices were allowed, shows what are the issues mainly included in the cooperation agreement, and is represented by graph 10.

Graph 10

On the other hand, the third question reinforced the idea that the cooperation agreement is an indispensable tool for the development and running of a JP. Indeed, as can be seen in graph 11, the vast majority of users replied that the main reason for having a cooperation agreement is a because it is a good practice, which may avoid troubles and misunderstandings during the running of the programme.
It is hard to imagine a consortium functioning without an agreement. The results of the survey confirm that essentially all consortia have one. Still, the aspects of the cooperation within the consortium ruled by the agreement are not the same for everyone. The JOIMAN project has produced an agreement template, based on existing agreements, which might be used by future consortia.
5. Students’ administration timeline

A specific section of the survey was dedicated to the administrative processes connected to students, from the application phase to the final awarding of the diploma and diploma supplement. This chapter presents the current procedures and main problems faced in the whole “students administration timeline” including the following phases: application, selection, admission, enrolment, registration, monitoring, academic calendar, grading systems and final certification. Special emphasis is laid on the difference between EMMCs and the non EM joint programmes.

5.1 Target students

Joint programmes are usually developed to foster the internationalisation of the institutions, offering local students an international education and trying to attract international students. Therefore, the kind of students we are taking into consideration are either EU students - intended as both those “local” students coming from the institutions involved, and European students experimenting “vertical mobility” within the EHEA – or non EU students, defined as those students coming from outside EU borders and therefore requiring additional services.

Asking our sample if they make differences among EU and non EU students for some academic or administrative processes, the only relevant differences observed is for the time of admission decision and for the application process. This can be explained by the length of the Visa procedures for non EU students and by the timetable imposed by the donors for obtaining scholarships (Erasmus Mundus Programme and national governments with other international programmes).
5.2 General issues related to students’ administration timeline

Before analysing each phase of the “Timeline”, it could be worthwhile to introduce a general overview of the main problems or conflicts encountered by the respondents with regard to student administration. These kinds of problems are represented in general terms (graph 12), with regard to National legislation (graph 13) and with regard to institutional regulations (graph 14).

First of all, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents don’t have conflicts regarding all the above listed points, as the highest rate reported is 36%. The main challenge faced by respondents is the delivery of a joint degree diploma (36%) followed very closely by the grading system issues (33%). The former includes the difficulties with the format, the legality of the joint diploma and its accreditation. Concerning the grading systems, they are mostly different between the partners, thus the transfer of marks among partners institutions may engender problems.

Other challenges include: the admission requirement (25%) in terms of institutional regulations; the examinations regulations (22%); the period of enrolment (22%) as the academic calendar may not be the same at all partner institutions; the application procedures (19%); the recognition of the studies (18%); the enrolment process (17%); the length of the programme (15%) and the thesis dissertation (15%). Selection process (9%), health insurance (8%) and mobility (8%) are considered less problematic.
The majority of the problems encountered for the awarding of the joint degree diploma seem to be related to national legislation conflicts, as shown by graph 13. The admission requirements may also lead to conflicts with the national legislation (14%). Nearly all respondents solved this issue (83%). Recognition of studies may be an issue related to national authorities or legislation, 12% of respondents had or still have conflicts regarding that matter. Half of them found a solution to clear up the problem.

**Graph 13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues leading to conflicts between national legislation and the requirements of the consortium</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis/dissertation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examination regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment procedure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periods of enrolment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grading systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admission requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint degree diploma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main issue between institutional regulation and the consortium, as shown in graph 14, is the grading system (23%). 80% of the institutions have solved the problems related to this issue. The examination regulations may lead to conflicts as well (19%), but most of the institutions have cleared up the problem (87%). In addition, for the period of enrolment, the enrolment procedures, the thesis dissertation and the application procedures, challenges often come from institutional regulation conflicts; most of the respondents have managed to solve these issues.
As shown in the 2 graphs above, difficulties regarding the delivery of the joint diploma may come from institutional conflicts, however as we said above, this issue is more often linked to national legislation.

As confirmed by a specific question asked on the “academic calendar”, partially confirmed by some study visits, although 72% of the sample was able to adapt the academic calendar to consortium needs, flexibility in calendars is not easy to obtain.

**BOX 10**

Most of the respondents have experienced conflicts either with national legislation or institutional regulations and have more easily overcome the institutional barriers. Solutions could be either the flexibility of the JPs with regards to general regulation of the institution or a dedicated institutional strategy on JPs. In the first case, exceptions to ordinary regulations may be awarded to single JPs (“ex – post passive approach”), while in the second case it is the institution which creates special regulations valid for all JPs (“ex – ante active approach”).

This has also been applied to solve the problem of harmonisation of academic calendars where flexible solutions have been adopted for JP by their institutions derogating from the general institutional regulations.
5.3 Application process

For non EM programmes, most of the partners within a consortium have their own application procedures. Some consortia decided to accept one application procedure based on that of one of the partners. For the EMMCs, there is one application for EU students, one for non EU; most of the partners use the same application as the one from the coordinating institution. 

64% of the institutions use an online application form usually based on a database controlled either by the coordinating institution or accessible to all partners. This facilitates the selection or the pre-selection which can be done by all partners without moving or without printing documents.

For the verification of documents the main tendency is that the verification of the documents is centralised and undertaken by a secretariat or an administrative office (in case of EMMCs or joint programmes with more than 2 partners) or delegated to sending institutions (mainly in bilateral programmes). In this case the vast majority of respondents trusts the sending institution because they have been partners for a while and they can rely on them.

**BOX 11**

Online application procedure is crucial for Programmes wishing to attract international students.

Online application based on databases where students can upload application files and which can be accessible to all partners can facilitate and speed up the selection procedure. Many of these systems are based on open source platforms and can be implemented rather cheaply. Furthermore, a lot of expertise has been shared recently among Erasmus Mundus and above all EM External Cooperation Window Consortia.

Verification of documents should be done only by the first institution. Second or third mobility institutions should trust the screening carried out by first institution.

Involvement of registrar offices since the development phase of the programme is important, especially if the institution has no great experience in joint programmes, in order to avoid students rejected for formal requirements after having been selected by the consortium or by the first enrolment institution.

The involvement or the establishment of good relations with ENIC – NARIC centres is a practice which could facilitate and speed up the verification procedures. Indeed, ENIC – NARIC centres could provide relevant information concerning the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study undertaken in other States.
5.4 Selection process

Most of JPs make a screening of the applications before the selection takes place. Sometimes it is done by the secretariat of the coordinating institution and sometimes by the partner universities. The main tendency is that the coordinating institution does a screening of all the applications and then distributes them among each partner, who ranks each applicant according to a predefined and common ranking process.

The most common criteria used for the selection are:

- Formal requirements;
- Academic excellence;
- Motivation;
- Language proficiency (mostly a qualification in the language of the institution the student apply to). Sometimes, a national agency is involved in the language proficiency assessment;
- References/ references letters;
- Research experience.

The majority of respondents (71%) don’t validate non-formal learning such as the professional experience when considering applications. For those who validate such experiences they require the CV, a cover letter and occasionally employment documents. On the other hand, the professional experience is taken into account by almost all the respondents as additional information for the selection.

70% of the sample has set up a joint selection process. The majority of the programmes which don’t use a joint selection are bilateral programmes. Where a joint selection is present, partners usually perform the pre-selection while the final decision is referred to a joint selection committee. The joint selection committee decides on the acceptance of the applicants and on the distribution of the scholarships during meeting organised on a yearly basis. It is constituted of representatives from all the participating institutions. This committee mostly consists of academic staff. In few cases both academic and administrative staff are involved. In most cases, the programme’s academic coordinator of each institution is involved.

BOX 12

For a substantial majority of respondents, the selection criteria are the same within the consortium in order to have the same “grading scale” when pre-selecting in each institution. In most of the JPs there is a predefined ranking procedure in the cooperation agreement.

In some cases the selection process doesn’t refer to a special procedure but to the regular selection process applied for local programmes. In these cases, after the academic approval, each application needs to be formally approved by the central administration. If a student does not fulfil the formal requirements, the application will be returned to the faculty for negotiation.
**EMMCs:** Most universities refer to the 8-step selection procedures of the EACEA\(^1\). Mostly, the coordinating institution does a screening of the applications to check if the criteria of the EM are met. The remaining applications are assessed by the Joint committee who ranks each applicant. Students not applying for the scholarships are usually pre-selected by partners institutions according to common criteria.

**Non EM programmes:** The majority of non EM programmes select their students locally, each institution ranks the applications and the final selection is done by the joint selection board. Students may apply either to the coordinator or to their home university. Deadlines are usually harmonised.

**Non EM bilateral programmes:** The selection process is mostly done by the sending institution; the final decision is handled by the host institution. The process of selection for bilateral programmes is similar to an Erasmus exchange selection.

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5.5 Enrolment and Registration

The definitions of “registration” and “enrolment” seem to be different from one country to another. In most of the responses, the terms registration and enrolment cover the same step of administration. It permits the institution to enter all the data of the nominees in their database and ensure the follow up of the students and the award of the final certification.

According to the JOIMAN definition\(^2\), enrolment is “registering the student on the roll of the university in order to fully manage the student’s academic career (i.e. fees, study programme, mobility, results, diploma, etc.)”, whereas registration is “registering (exchange) student data in the institution’s student database in order to provide the student with a student ID and access to the facilities such as library, electronic learning platform, etc. and to provide them with a transcript”. In other words, an exchange student cannot register in a university without being enrolled in another.

In most of the consortia issuing a joint diploma, students must enrol at the coordinating institution in order to allow the award of the diploma. Then, they have to register in each visiting institution.

For the EMMCs, the enrolment is, in the vast majority, handled by the coordinating institution. For this type of programmes, students pay the fees to the coordinating institution and are then exempted from paying at the other hosting institutions. EU students are usually enrolled by the institutions where they applied to.

For non EM programmes, students are predominantly enrolled at the coordinating institution and then must register at the partner university selected for the first year. Registration at the partner university is mostly free of charge because the students have already paid their tuition fees to the coordinating institution.

In some programmes students are automatically enrolled in the partner university when they obtain the admission decision. Students may be also registered in each university of the consortium even regardless of where they will perform their mobility periods.

**BOX 13**

The terms “enrolment” and “registration” may have different meanings from one Country to another Country or even from one institution to another one. The Erasmus Mundus Programme has introduced the concept of “enrolled by the consortium”. It has to be remembered that EM consortia are not legal entities and the enrolment in the consortia cannot substitute enrolment in one institution. For this reason, it is very important that negotiations among partners during the development phase of the programme take into consideration the issue of enrolment, discussing and harmonising the formal requirements for enrolment ensuring that students can obtain access to services and to certification at each institution (i.e. transcript of records, diploma and diploma supplement).

\(^2\) See the JOIMAN Glossary annexed
5.6 Welcoming and mobility

Mobility refers both to international students enrolling in a study programmes and to students enrolled spending an exchange period in another institution to follow the study programme abroad.

One of the main problems connected to the mobility of international students starting a study programme abroad, is the issue of welcoming services and the administrative requirements for the immigration in another Country.

In this regard, the most problematic issue encountered by international students is the issue of Visas and, in some cases, of the residence permit. These two issues are challenging aspects for international students enrolled in local programmes and therefore it is even more problematic for JPs in which non EU students have to access to more than one EU Country.

Indeed, 38% of the sample answered that their non EU students have already faced some trouble with obtaining their Visa. For EMMCs this amount comes to 44%.

The length of the procedures, in relation to the rigid calendars of master programmes which usually include language courses before the start of the programmes, and the access to consular services are the main problematic issues. Students may also encounter some trouble concerning financial sufficiency if they don’t have enough money in their bank account; this applies mainly to non EM students who cannot always benefit from generous scholarships like the EM students. Finally, some students reported problems regarding the documents that must be submitted to the consulate or about the national language proficiency.

Graph 15

Kind of problem with Visa

- Falsified documents: 3%
- Insurance problems: 12%
- Other: 21%
- Language: 24%
- Incomplete documents: 26%
- Financial sufficiency: 29%
- Access to consular services: 59%
- Length of procedures: 74%
Another problem encountered by the universities has been the “residence permit” for international students, especially for those students remaining in the coordinating institution for a short term who risk not receiving the residence permit before their departure for the partner University, and consequent refusal at the border.

**BOX 14**

It is difficult to find a general solution for Visa issues since, as a general rule, Consulates are in charge of the Visa issuing with their own rules and procedures which may differ, in time or procedures, from one to one other.

It is interesting to know that *Erasmus Mundus National Structures* usually collaborate with JP coordinators and institutions being a sort of “trait d’union” with the consulates all around the word. Again the propulsive and innovating role of the Erasmus Mundus Programme can be noted, but at the same time JPs which are “outside” the EM club do not benefit from the same support.

Here we report some suggestions for the Visa issuing taken from the open questions of the survey:

*To cooperate with administrative bodies, embassies*
*To send the certificates, documents directly to the consulate*
*Intervention of the ministry of foreign affairs*
*To issue the letter of acceptance as soon as possible*
*To offer a financial support to excellent applicants i.e. some students don’t manage to prove that they will have sufficient funding for their mobility. In that case the university can support them financially to solve this issue*
*To increase the level of assistance in the joint consortium*

Concerning the residence permit issue, some universities have managed to overcome the problem by **developing formal agreements or more simply establishing good cooperation paths with national authorities at local level**, as was remarked during some study visits.

A part from the initial mobility of international students enrolled, the **mobility within a study programme** is a crucial part of the JP, even if in some cases respondents have described their JP without a “physical mobility of the students”.

In the next paragraphs we try to show to potential coordinators possible mobility schemes extracted from existing JPs.

Mobility flows usually follow the terms of the academic year, which can be three lasting 4 months or 2 lasting 6 months. Mobility can also be organised in the form of intensive residential modules (such as summer or winter school), usually outside the course periods, or in the form of internships or project work not necessarily within an higher education institution.

The average length of the mobility is one year and this is applied to either EMMC, non EMMC and to bilateral cooperation.

In most of the EMMC, the last 6 months are dedicated to a research project or, in fewer cases, to an internship. In those cases the search for an internship is carried out either at the home institution after the mobility period, or in a partner institution which offer specialised research fields.
Some of the courses analysed seem to be organised so as to offer core courses in each institution, leaving the choice of the starting institution to the students, and presenting specialisation fields which differ from one institution to another. Some other courses foresee that all students start in one institution and have to perform mobility period in all the other partners (“Master trip” model).

The majority of respondents declared that they let their students choose their mobility among several partners (43%). For 24% of the respondents, the student has no choice and is obliged to spend the period abroad at a certain partner university. Other consortia have decided to impose the mobility for the courses but give the student the choice for the master thesis.

**Graph 16**

**How many mobility options can students choose?**

- Only one partner university: 3%
- Several partner universities: 19%
- Students are obliged to spend the period abroad at a certain partner university: 26%
- No obligatory mobility period: 43%
- Other: 11%

The majority of EMMC declared that they offer mobility options in several partner institutions (which is a formal requirement of the Programme), However for 26% of them the mobility is decided by the consortium (graph 17).

**Graph 17**

**Erasmus Mundus Master Courses**

- Only one partner university: 12%
- Several partner universities: 0%
- Students are obliged to spend the period abroad at a certain partner university: 26%
- No obligatory mobility period: 62%
- Other: 0%
For the non EM programmes awarding multiple or joint diploma all the possibilities are in place.

Graph 18

![Non Erasmus Mundus joint programmes](chart)

**Non Erasmus Mundus joint programmes**

- Only one partner university: 40%
- Several partner universities: 20%
- Students are obliged to spend the period abroad at a certain partner university: 13%
- No obligatory mobility period: 27%
- Other: 0%

BOX 16

As shown by the above description, many mobility options/model can be applied. The following models can be highlighted as examples:

**Programmes with common core courses**: offered by some or all universities where students can start the programme + one mobility for specialising courses lasting one semester with students going back to home institutions for the research or project work period. Research work can also be performed outside Higher education Institutions.

**“Trip programmes”**: with fixed mobility and with all students starting at the same institution. This option is more costly for students who have to carry out more than one mobility period but ensure that all students are together from the beginning to the end of the programme.

**“Bilateral mobility programmes”**: in this case students spend one year at the starting institution and one year in the second institution, including research for the thesis and dissertation. The mobility options in this case can be either fixed depending on the starting institutions or free.

**Programmes with Intensive residential modules**: in this model students can have either a long mobility period on the basis of the above described models and an intensive residential module, usually organised outside the lectures periods, in which all students are together.

The appointment of a tutor for mobility, who may also be a former student, in charge of counselling before leaving or in charge of integration within the faculty services and social life could be an important service for mobility.
5.7 Monitoring

Monitoring of academic progresses is in the majority of cases performed by the institution delivering the programme (83%) since academic monitoring can be performed more efficiently by institutions in daily contact with the students. The remaining 17% follows these progresses through the JP board. Only 57% of the respondents declared that they use a learning agreement, but this data can confirm that the programmes concerned are really integrated and students do not need learning agreements as the learning outcomes of the study programme, the modules and the teaching units have been jointly designed and approved.

Most of the time, students are assigned to a local coordinator who is responsible for following the academic progress of JP students. This does not prevent all academic staff teaching in the programme from being responsible for monitoring courses and examinations. Local coordinators usually report their observations and remarks either to JP Boards or to QA boards. In non EM programmes awarding double degrees diplomas, the monitoring of the academic progress is mostly handled by both universities.

BOX 15

An example for monitoring the programme extracted from the survey

“The Joint programme board organises a yearly “evaluation and planning meeting” with each local coordinator. They report on the teaching delivered by their staff members. These reports are compared with the student evaluation forms which evaluate each course. Afterwards, the JP board makes recommendations on the teaching in each partner university. These recommendations are sent to the partner university for official approval.

The student evaluation also allows monitoring of other aspects of the JP: “information given to students, the organisation of tests and exams, the perceived workload, tutoring offered, accommodation issues, etc;.”

Each local coordinator has a strong relationship with the overall academic coordinator in this HEI. In case of change in the academic staff at the local institution, the local coordinator and overall coordinator have to make sure that the new teacher is well informed of the structure of the JP”.
5.8 Grading system

Some consortia took several years to solve the differences between national marking systems. This is partly due to the fact that ECTS grading scale is not applied properly and can generate misunderstandings. Some of the respondents declare that the ECTS grading scale is not sufficient to solve the “translation” problems because of the different interpretation given to the ECTS scale, either quantitative (A = best 10%, B next 25% etc) or qualitative (A= excellent, B = good etc.).

Indeed, even if the vast majority of the sample uses the ECTS grading scale for the conversion of marks, 24% of them use an additional conversion table. The “Other” answers, which are 12% of respondents as shown in graph 19 have developed their own grading scale. In some cases there is no transfer of marks but only of credits.

In many cases, conversion tables are in place for those JPs either with institutions which do not apply the ECTS grading scale or because the conversion table had been developed for the Erasmus exchange purposes and has been adopted for JPs too.

Graph 19

Transfer of marks

- ECTS Grading Scale: 74%
- Conversion table: 30%
- Other: 12%

If grading scale is adopted properly within institutions, with statistics carried out at faculty or programme level regularly, ECTS grading scale seems to be the most suitable and fair tool for the conversion of marks. Where this is not possible, the use of converting tables developed ad hoc could be a valid alternative.
5.9 Awarding the diploma and the diploma supplement

Our sample involves JP awarding, double, joint and multiple diploma. As shown in graph 20, the majority of respondents issue a double diploma. More than a quarter of the sample delivers a joint diploma. Among “other” answers, many cases are the delivery of diploma by each institution plus a joint certificate issued by the consortium. Some institutions plan to implement a joint diploma, being aware of the long time they will need to achieve this results and of the difficulties they could meet.

Graph 20

Type of diploma issued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diploma Type</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One diploma</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple diplomas</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One joint diploma</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double diplomas</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Joint Diploma: In most cases the joint diploma is printed and issued by the coordinating institution. In some cases the joint diploma is issued by the university in which the student has submitted and discussed the master thesis. All Rectors of the partners’ institutions have to sign the diploma and this procedure usually requires many months. In most cases, once the diplomas are printed and signed by all Rectors, the consortia organise a graduation ceremony to award the diplomas.

The joint diploma is described as a certificate including the logos of all partners, where possible, and the signature of all rectors. In addition, the national name of the degree and the national law enabling the institution to award the joint diploma is quoted on the diploma. Some respondents declared that they issue joint certificates which are not recognised by national laws, which do not replace the degree awarded by the institution according to national law. In this cases diploma is a symbolic award to students and cannot be considered as a real joint diploma because it doesn’t fit the common definitions of the Joint diploma.

3 ESU definition of Joint degree: “a single diploma issued by at least two higher education institutions offering an integrated programme and recognised officially in the countries where the degree-awarding institutions are located.”
Double and multiple diplomas: the procedures for issuing double or multiple diplomas rarely differ from the regular procedures for local programmes. In some cases the first diploma is issued by the coordinating institution and automatically issued by the other institutions, in other cases it is awarded by the institution in which the student has defended the thesis and may be awarded at a later stage at the request of the student.

As anticipated in 5.1, the issuing of the joint diploma remains one of the main challenges for JP coordinators. The main reasons seem to be connected to either national legislation or institutional regulations. The procedures for the accreditation of joint diplomas are perceived as still too complicated and the regulations of the partners’ universities may not be compatible with the delivery of the joint diploma.

An important issue arising from some respondents is that apparently the joint diplomas are not recognised by the labour market; indeed only 16% of the sample believe it is easier for the students to find a job with a joint diploma rather than with a double or multiple one.

It has to be considered that JP constitute a cultural revolution for higher education, which needs time to be digested by the universities themselves and therefore even more by the external world. The issue of “recognition of the joint diploma” by the labour market, seems to hide a two-fold problem: on one hand universities and students are afraid to present “pieces of paper” which are designed differently from the traditional ones; on the other hand it seems to be difficult to communicate what is really the added value of a joint diploma, and more importantly, of a joint programme.

Graph 21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for non issuing a joint diploma</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislation of a partner country</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures for the accreditation are still too complicate</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easier for graduates to find employment with a national academic degree</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislation of my country</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diploma Supplement and Joint Diploma Supplement: 81% of respondents provide a DS. The DS is issued together with the diploma for 67% of the sample. However the delivery of a joint diploma supplement is less frequent (40%). DS is still a new procedure for many universities and the international dimension of the JPs does not
seem to have affected the DS procedures. What is more rare and still under discussion among consortia is the issuing of a joint DS (in Lithuania is not allowed by law) and the technical problems connected.

BOX 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The procedure to deliver the joint diploma should be written in the cooperation agreement.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are two main problems connected with the issuing of a joint diploma:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On one hand national and institutional laws and regulations have not always been adapted for this issue; on the other hand students and even JP coordinators are not convinced that the labour market is ready to accept such innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To overcome the above problems, in both cases the involvement of stakeholders and in particular of national ministries of education is crucial, but also national associations such as rectors’ conferences, national agencies and the EC as well. These actors could on one hand play an advocating role for change in order to adapt laws to innovation; on the other hand they could raise awareness among students and in the labour market on the existence and value of a joint diploma. In other words, the appeal of the joint diploma still needs to be explained and absorbed by students and companies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Financial management of joint programmes

Joint Programmes require to institutions supplementary investments to cover the additional costs for the organisation and implementation of the programmes. These investments can be either in the form of additional human resources, additional services or scholarships or direct money support. The Erasmus Mundus Programme has introduced the requirement of the common policy on tuition fees, which was almost unexplored by JP in Europe before the EM era, but which requires the harmonisation of an issue – tuition and fees – which is linked to the social systems of the Countries concerned, which are, up to now, not harmonised in Europe. Erasmus Mundus, in this sense, has revealed the many national and institutional differences in EU and demanded that measures be taken to synchronise or even harmonise the various national approaches. This is why these issues have raised the interest of the JOIMAN project which has dedicated a specific part of its research to this field. This section presents the findings of the project group that tackled financial issues. The focus lies on current procedures and main problems faced in the domains of tuition fee application and distribution, scholarships and sustainability of JPs. Special emphasis is placed on the difference between EMMC and non EM programmes. The different funding systems of HEIs in Europe as well as the different national legislation on fees and scholarships are also taken into account.

6.1 National Legislation

The whole issue of the financial administration of joint programmes is closely linked with the interrelationship between university autonomy and state legislation. Universities usually are not free to charge tuition as they “like” it. One of the intentions of the legislature in many countries in Europe therefore might be to maintain a social cohesion among the students. The national legislations on tuition fees apparently reflect the various European approaches to education: in some Countries education is as a common good while in other countries education is a benefit of individuals which are therefore asked to pay for their education. However, the changing character of (higher) education in a globalising context raises the political awareness to change legislation in many countries. Globalisation does not stop at a university door - the increasing diversity and competition among European universities on the global education market influence that process as well.

BOX 18

The JOIMAN project carried out a survey in autumn 2009 to photograph the current situation reported by colleagues from institutions in the individual countries. The survey concentrates on the legal situation with regard to tuition fees for master programmes, a distinction on citizenship, special regulations for joint degrees and EMMCs. The survey will be published on the web site of the project.
6.2 Tuition fees

According to the present survey, as reported in graph 22, more than two-thirds of the 89 respondents charge tuition fees.

Graph 22

The main explanation for not charging tuition fees seems to consist in legal constraints. It is stated explicitly by approx. 20% of the institutions that have tuition fee waiving policies. This statement goes along with the fact that programmes not charging tuition fees are located in countries where these fees are either legally not possible or these countries holding up a long tradition of free university education. Some examples include Norway, Germany (some Federal States), Austria, the Czech Republic, and Sweden.

It is, however, important to note that apart from the legislative diversity, there is another distinction between EMMCs and the non EM joint programmes. The former charge tuition fees in a significantly higher number of cases than the latter. In total, 85% of EMMCs charge tuition fees whereas the remaining 15% do not charge fees mostly due to legislative obstacles. In comparison, only 55% of the non EMMCs charge tuition fees while the remaining ones are fully supported by the institutions or governments.

Graph 23
Another strong variation in financial matters concerns the maximum fees. As shown by graph, in EMMCs 70% of all courses charge tuition fees higher than €5,000 in comparison to 11% of non EMMC with that amount. Most of non EMMC (45%) do not charge any fees at all, 27% charge fees between €1,000 and €5,000.

The average maximum tuition fee among EMMC (excluding the ones which are tuition free) is more than twice as high (€ 6,982) as the one of non EMMC (€2,961). The same holds true for the average minimum tuition of €2,367 for EMMC whereas non EMMC charge only €1,013 on average.

Although the maximum tuition fees in EMMC are relatively high, only 28% of all EMMC charge the same fees for all the students. The majority distinguishes between students according to different criteria. The two main criteria for paying lower prices consist in the student’s EU/non-EU origin (70%) and the award/non-award of EM grants (25%).

To compare, 26% of the non-EMMC, if they charge a tuition fee at all, charge all students the same fees. Furthermore, the non-EMMC consortia distinguish by performance (40%), and equally by needs (18%), by nationality (18%) as well as the student being from a partner institution or not (18%).
Graph 25

Criteria of charging tuition - EMMC versus non EMMC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>EMMC</th>
<th>Non EMMC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM grant holders</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner institution</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BOX 20

There seems to be inequality within EMMC consortia with regard to the tuition fees charged from EU students compared to non EU students. Higher charges for non EU students are usually waived. This may not support social cohesion among the students enrolled. **Non EMMC joint programmes use students’ performance as the dominant criterion to charge less from well performing students.** Although the applicant’s performance presumably is the main factor in EMMC as well, it is overruled by their nationality in the respondents’ eyes. The performance factor should be strengthened or at least pointed out more visibly within EMMC.

Study visits also underlined that in some cases institutions had to require special regulations to be approved by the university board in order either to increase the regular fees or to apply different fees to students on the basis of nationality. **For institutions wishing to participate in the Erasmus Mundus programme, this is an issue to be taken into consideration before developing the programme**

Taking the consortia and their tuition policies into account, most of them charge the same fees in every partner institution (graph: 38% against 25%).
Many of the study visits revealed that the most severe problems occurred in consortia which comprise institutions from countries with diverging legislation on tuition fees, e.g. when British universities have to harmonise their fees with Scandinavian institutions. It was also reported that the distinction along students’ citizenship caused problems, i.e. EU and non EU students are charged different amount. Social cohesion is an issue in this respect.

Graph 26

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DON'T KNOW</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIDN'T ANSWER</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**BOX 21**

Therefore **it is essential to check the legal situation of potential partners first. The involvement of administrative or law offices in the planning phase of JP is a “must”** and avoids trouble among the partners and even with courts in later phases of the project. The tuition and other fees have to be agreed on within the consortium before a JP is to be launched. Examples of solving the problems involve the partial re-imbursement of tuition fees to students from “legally difficult” countries, check the real purpose of costs and identify those costs (within a “tuition” fee) which are not directly used for teaching (tuition) clearly, and share fees among the partners considering their legal situation as well. In the latter case, within a set period of time the real participation of the individual partner institutions (in teaching and administering the JP) within a consortium should define their shares amicably. The gap between Erasmus Mundus programme parameters and differing or even conflicting national legislation should be bridged for the sake of the programme and the institutions and students involved.

It is interesting to divide the programmes again into EMMC and non EMMC. 73% of the consortia in EMMC share the same tuition fee policy (see graph 27), whereas for non EMMC this applies to only 12 % of the cases.

**BOX 22**

A striking discovery is the number of “Don’t know” answers with is tripled in non EMMC, leading to the assumption that transparency between the partner institutions is better in place in EMMC than it is in non EMMC.
Regarding future plans (graph 28), most of the consortia are not going to change their tuition fees (51%). In many cases the legal situation or national regulations do not allow this, in some cases this is due to the economical situation of the students. The relatively high figure of “Don’t know” answers could lead to the consideration that one third of the sample does not consider the issue of tuition fees as an issue for sustainability.

**Graph 28**

**Plans to change tuition fees within next three years**

- YES, INCREASE: 13%
- YES, DECREASE: 2%
- NO: 51%
- DON’T KNOW: 34%

**Box 22**

It might be a case of head-in-the-sand-politics when the question of how to develop the fee policy within a JP seems to be an odd one. The predominantly academic or scientific motivation to offer joint programmes seems not to be concerned by their financial dimension in many academic cultures on the continent. This is another reason for raising awareness towards administrative issues among academics. Furthermore, from a marketing point of view it would be easier to decrease the price of a good product than to increase it. But the academic/scientific quality of the JP in a particular market situation is the key question in this regard as well.
To sum up the chapter on tuition fees: Traditionally in Europe, there is a great diversity in national legislations concerning tuition fees. In some countries, such as the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Portugal etc. all students pay tuition fees, whereas in others, as some Nordic Countries, tuition charged have not (yet) been introduced. This variation is also reflected in the fees being charged in Joint Programmes (JP).

The main explanation for not charging tuition fees seems to consist in legal constraints. This goes along with the fact that programmes not charging tuition fees are located in countries where these fees are either not legally possible or holding up a long tradition of “free” university education. Some examples include Norway, Germany (some Federal States), Austria, Czech Republic, and Sweden.

Presumably, EMMC can afford to charge students the full costs of their tuition because the EM label renders the programmes more attractive on the educational market. Another explanation might be that their students are often provided with very generous scholarships from the European Commission.

Not all partners in the consortia charge the same tuition fees. In some cases differences are explained by the legal restrictions in some countries. One existing model to overcome that obstacle consists in one member (co-ordinator) of the consortia collecting fees and distributing the money to all the partners. However, this policy is forbidden by some national legislation, e.g. Norwegian.

Generally, EMMC seem to be better organised as consortia and share unified policies; non EMMC consortia are more open to meet the needs and consider legal obstacles of every partner. Some of the consortia charge very low fees or none at all. This means that institutions have to invest their own resources or rely on government grants. From the programme’s perspective this leads to a growing dependence on the institutions. Yet the investment out of non-financial motives might increase the quality of the programme as well as the support of JP when facing difficulties with external funding.
### 6.3 Scholarships

Crucial financial matters of JP are, of course, closely linked to the question of scholarships and their distribution. Scholarships could be considered a means to support social cohesion among the applicants and students. With nearly 80%, the majority of the 89 responding JPs grant scholarships to students. More than half of these JPs award a scholarship to more than half of their students, 17 programmes even to all of their students. Only 10% allocate no scholarship whatsoever. Compared to other questions on financial issues such as the coverage of full costs, the percentage of respondents who did not know about scholarships or did not answer at all is relatively small (10%).

Distinguishing between EMMC and non EMMC, it can be stated that all 34 EMMC which responded grant scholarship grants. Moreover, a much higher number of EMMC than non EMMC grant scholarships for more than half of their students (68% out of the 34 EMMC compared to 33% out of the 55 non EMMC). Yet, the non EMMC JPs grant scholarships to 100% of their students more often (13% versus 6% in EMMC). Scholarships being distributed to less than half of the students show equal results in both EMMC and non EMMC. All programmes without scholarships as well as respondents not answering the question at all belong to the non EM section.

![Graph 29: Student scholarships - EMMC versus non EMMC](image-url)
The allocation of the scholarships mostly consists of a combination of EU and public or other sources (37%). Only 6 out of 32 programmes with mixed allocation rely on the private sector. The 13% that do not indicate any source also include 7 programmes without scholarships.

Graph 30

Regarding the purpose of scholarships, 26 programmes did not answer at all. The answers given range from covering tuition and living costs (37 respondents), the need to attract non-EU students (12), general mobility of students (8), social reasons (1), and general merit purposes (3). It follows that EMMC generally cover tuition waivers whereas in non EMMC the dominating purposes are the partial coverage of travel, housing and living costs.

29% distribute the scholarships on a performance-based system, followed by programmes deploying a mix of performance, need, and other considerations (curriculum etc.). Again, 20% do not know or do not respond at all (though it has to be noted that this percentage also includes programmes without scholarships).

Graph 31
The survey also allowed respondents to make remarks. Comments of interest state the following for EMMC:

**Respondent 1**: “The scholarship is too high for non EU students. The amount could be more attractive than the programme itself. More scholarships are opportune for EU students”;

**Respondent 2**: “The scholarships are so large that they discriminate very strongly between those who receive them and those that do not. Thus, only students getting scholarships take part”.

Besides, the geographical locations of the programmes apparently cause several inequalities:

**Respondent 3**: “Geographical balance means that sometimes we must choose a weaker student”, and “The amount of scholarship for EU students is too high for Italian students and too low for British students. A kind of normalisation according to the country of origin might be advisable in the future.”

Interviews with JP co-ordinators and administrators during the study visits revealed the problem that local students need an incentive to enrol for a JP. Probably the relatively high tuition fees frighten them off. **One university interviewed therefore successfully introduced a scholarship scheme for their local students which awards €550 a month to support enrolment for JPs.**

Although the sample might be too small for general conclusions, it is obvious that EMMC are better off in terms of their ability to award scholarships. Public sources (EU, state, university) prevail over non-public sources significantly. **The programmes should be encouraged to consider the contact with business sponsors as well.** This could have positive side effects on the employability of their graduates and the curriculum design.

Moreover, the amount of EMMC scholarships could attract students of (non EU origin) for economic rather than academic reasons. Additionally, some EMMC JPs are in a kind of dilemma: either they recruit sufficiently from the region they are supposed to regardless of the applicant’s performance, or they miss the EMMC benchmarks in recruiting from a particular region and only enrol the best students regardless of their passport. Student’s merit should always be the dominant criterion to register a student and award a scholarship.

The EC has no doubt chosen the right path in the second call for Erasmus Mundus by allocating scholarships to European students for the entire duration of the course. The scholarships should ensure the same living conditions for EU and non EU students, and, there might be reason to harmonise the scholarships for both groups even more significantly.

**Additional scholarship** schemes on university level may further help to recruit gifted students from populations under-represented in a JP’s student body, e. g. EU students.

Again, **institutional support** seems to be crucial on this issues. Financial support can be provided to JP either in the form of scholarships, as shown by one of the study visits, or in the form of support to the programmes (see Box 4)
6.4 Sustainability

As introduced above, it is commonly agreed that JP generate additional costs for the institutions involved. Even the programmes supported by the EM Programme, which can count on a certain number of students enrolled, have to support additional costs for the quality measures put in place for the running of the programmes. The issue of sustainability, therefore, is an issue which should interest all institutions wishing to plan and run a cooperative programme and not only because of the special attention paid by the Erasmus Mundus II programme to this issue.

Apart from academic and marketing measures to support a JP, reserves could be considered a major factor in running a programme when spending exceeds income. Only 41% of the sample declared that it reserves revenues for the future (graph 32). Where a reserve fund is created, a quarter of the respondents reserve more than 10% of the yearly revenues (24.72% on average). Out of 10 programmes at an Italian university, for example, only 4 state that they have some reserves (2 more than 10% and 2 less than 10%); out of 5 programmes of an exemplary French university only 1 reserves more than 10%, equally, there are 6 Austrian programmes with 5 keeping reserves (4 more than 10% and 1 less) and 1 without.

![Graph 32](image)

Overall, there seems to be no specific logic or even exchange of information due to geographical location and proximity. Some universities in Germany and Austria underline that occasional reserves derive only from private associations. It has to be stated that 10% of the 89 respondents did not answer the questions about revenue reserves for the purpose of ensuring sustainability.

The question of sustainability included the issue of potential continuation of the programme in the event of termination of external funding. Without displaying the specific graphs, a striking result needs to be stated: from the entire group of 89 respondents 40% do not know about a plan for such eventuality or did not answer at all. However, 39% would continue running the programme without external funding. This corresponds with the statements on the programme costs. The majority claim that the institution or tuition fees cover the full costs.
Besides this variation, the distinction between EM and non EM programmes does not seem to be decisive for the question. This figures in 34 EMMC, out of which 16 would continue without external funding, 8 would have to end programmes and 10 either do not know (9) or did not answer (1).

Graph 33

Geographical location and proximity seems to be no criterion neither. Even within the same university, the answers vary. In Italy, for example, 4 out of 9 programmes of one University would continue, 2 would not, 2 do not know and 1 did not answer; out of another Italian university’s programmes 3 would continue, 3 would not, 3 do not know, 1 did not answer.

Many programmes plan to reapply to their funding source, especially those depending almost entirely on EU funding; similar numbers chose to try to receive more public funding, find other solutions or expand the programme to other students or partners. Only three programmes out of the 89 consider increased tuition fees as the only option and just one programme plans to exclusively work on the target group to attract more non-EU students. When asked about strategies to sustain JP, 15% did not answer.

Graph 34
The majority of programmes (59% of 89) deploys a mix of solutions, favouring re-application to funding sources/finding other public funding sources. Less popular are the options to search for other non-public funding resources or increase tuition fees. Other solutions include restructuring the curriculum, increasing the number of international students, and employing marketing operations.

Graph 35

As shown in graph 36, while there appears to be no crucial difference in EMMC versus non EMMC in most answers, the willingness to increase tuition fees to sustain the programme figures slightly higher in EMMC (17%) than in non EMMC (9%).

Graph 36
The question of planned modifications to tuition fees within the following three years, displays a certain lack of awareness how to sustain the programme best through financial means. The majority (nearly 51%) does not pursue future changes and, again, a relatively high percentage of 34% does not know (partly because the decision depends on the consortium/co-operation agreement or national legislation with regard to tuition fees). The main reason for increasing fees is connected with economic problems (sustainability or economic situation for 10 programmes out of 12 having chosen this option) and only 1 programme argues to offer better services to students.

The open answers given by respondents indicate that JPs are highly attractive for both students, and that the internationalisation profile of institutions benefits significantly. Therefore, the lack of external funds is a crucial issue. Though institutions theoretically seem motivated to invest or look for other solutions, realistically they might not be able to continue successful programmes due to the lack of reserves.

BOX 25

The following comments express some apparently widespread opinions and perspectives:

Respondent 1: “We hope that the Ministry and local universities will show more sensitivity for the issue of internationalisation”.

Respondent 2: “This is the crucial problem: Money. EU funded the initial steps, but afterwards we were let go, hoping that the programme would find its breath (money)”.

Respondent 3: “Given the successful results of the programme until now, in the event of a lack of funds we will work to find a different solution in order to guarantee our students with at least some minimum economic support”.

Respondent 4: “We are planning to increase the quality of the programme and to increase the connections with the labour market”.

BOX 25

Nearly half of the JP respondents do not have any reserves to ensure sustainability. Apparently, the institution’s motivation for continuing the programmes is high even though serious issues arise in practical terms. The high percentage of non-existing answers and the use of the “do not know” options when questioned about continuity of the JP in the event of external funds ceasing imply a lack of awareness of the matter of sustainability or insecurity when faced with unclear conditions. Yet the findings imply that EMMCs are better informed about financial matters and are more structured in thinking ahead when it comes to sustainability.

Many of the experts interviewed during the study visits could not present a strategy to support their programmes. The potential suspension of funding from public sources is not on the agenda until it is about to happen. It was also said that the consortium was built on the personal friendship of the academics involved; when the co-ordinator retires the network is endangered. In addition, administrative personnel in JPs are usually paid out of the JP income; when the income dries up there could be no continuity.

Generally, sustainability is a priority item in JPs which is obviously disastrously underestimated or even ignored. Programmes heavily rely on the already established
funding sources and on public funding in general. In particular EMMC get used to a rather comfortable situation of public funding which has a tranquillising effect. While the JP is running successfully and all the staff are rather busy there is almost no room for the effort to look out for new partners in business or elsewhere away from the well-trodden path.

Another conclusion would be that many JPs have not been institutionalised yet, i.e. they are regarded as a temporary positive addition to the “regular” study programmes offered, or as a private matter of a professor extraordinarily committed to international exchange. That is why it is often so hard to install a long-term plan to sustain a programme not only academically, but financially as well. **A solution could be to install a unit within the administration of a university which co-ordinates all JPs which is at least partially independent from the funding of the JPs.** This unit should accompany and support the programmes administratively from the starting line and ensure their sustainability by developing and monitoring their financial planning, in particular by putting aside reserves and establishing contacts with business or different sources of funding. Institutions could even charge JPs for the service of that unit and, thus, force them to make provisions for sustainability.

It might help JP co-ordinators to have a universal terminology at their disposal (e.g. “full costs”, “revenue reserve”, “ad hoc-funding” and “sustainability”) to encourage communication and sharing information which even co-ordinators of the same nation up to the same university do not seem to do yet. **In line with this, seminars and get-togethers should be arranged to profit from mutual experience and to raise awareness about the various matters including the best ignored question of sustainability.** The JPs are not islands, and their inhabitants (academic and administrative co-ordinators) should not operate in splendid isolation, **they need professional development and mutual exchange.** The EMMC are a privileged group in this regard, as they can benefit from EC and National Agencies’ seminars and meetings and from the networking opportunities put in place for them by the stakeholders. However, as the survey clearly shows, the EM model is not the only one and not all the JPs could aim to be part of the EM club. Therefore, **information and specialised training initiatives** could be organised by National agencies or institutional units involving potential coordinators of JP, regardless of the willingness to participate in the EM Programme.
7. Quality assurance related issues

It is a common feature of JPs that they are based on mutual trust among the partner institutions or more simply among the people most directly involved in the coordination of the Programme. This might be sufficient to launch a JP and to ensure its smooth functioning in some of its aspects, but it seems desirable to support the positive climate brought about by mutual trust, with a regular discussion of the objectives of the JPs and of the ways to attain these. This is what justifies the introduction of QA procedures.

There are widely accepted and enforced standards for QA, such as the European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance (ENQA-standards, see http://www.enqa.eu/pubs_esg.lasso), adopted by the Education and Research Ministers at the Bologna process Bergen conference, in 2005. The EM Programme has also developed a tool to facilitate the self-evaluation of EMMC (see http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus-mundus/doc/handbook_en.pdf).

We should highlight the fact that there are two main dimensions of QA procedures related to JPs. One is administrative and is concerned with making sure that the programme respects the general rules and regulations. The other is academic, and focuses on the content of the JP. This section presents the main findings of the JOIMAN survey on quality assurance issues, in both these dimensions.

Comparison between EMMC and non EM programmes is not presented in this section as, with some exceptions, the differences between the two categories are not relevant.

7.1 ENQA Standards

The JOIMAN survey to JP coordinators asked respondents if they apply ENQA Standards for quality within their JP. The results, represented in graph 37, are that almost half of the respondents apply the ENQA standards, 15% of them do not apply the ENQA standards while 36% do not know about the ENQA standards.

Graph 37

The fact that almost half of the respondents do not apply the ENQA standards, does not mean that they do not follow any QA procedure, which is disproved by the other answers on QA, but rather by the fact that that this part of the questionnaire was answered by the JP coordinators, who are generally teachers, and not QA officers.
7.2 Quality in the development of the programme

With reference to the development phase of the programmes, three questions were asked in the Survey. The first question asked the target how they ensure that their programme is a coherent, holistic programme of study and not just a curriculum consisting of separate, loosely compounded modules; the second question aimed to investigate how learning outcomes at programme, module and teaching units level have been defined among the consortium and the third one aimed to know whether guidelines for the workload of students are implemented within the consortium.

A fourth question referred to the quality of the final certification, which we include in this paragraph as we think the quality in the awarding of certification may vary – positively – considerably if it is part of the development and planning phase.

Not all respondents demonstrated their understanding of the first question, therefore some of the answers are not usable for this report. However, two main approaches have arisen from the open answers which can summarised by these two main quoted answers:

- The initial design of the JP, which has been jointly developed, is sufficient for the programme to be coherent and holistic;
- Having a periodic evaluation and follow-up system (like a QA committee, a joint board, students evaluation and assessment).

Both approaches are to be taken into account even if one refers to the development phase, prior to implementation, and the second refers to the implementation phase and refers more to the monitoring and evaluation aspects rather then to the joint development of the programme.

Table 4 below represents how the respondents answered to questions on the definition of learning outcomes. As shown in the table, it can be noted that learning outcomes of JP study programmes are mostly defined at the level of consortia (86%); learning outcomes at module level are defined at the level of consortia (almost 40%), but also at the level of the institution, while at single unit level the learning outcomes are mostly defined by the providing institution (41.3%) and to a lesser extent by the individual institutions.

Table 5. How are the learning outcomes and competences defined?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Jointly within the Consortium</th>
<th>By the coordinator</th>
<th>By the single institutions</th>
<th>By the providing institution</th>
<th>There are no learning outcomes defined</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On programme level</td>
<td>85.9%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On module level</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On single units level</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concerning the workload of students, around 70% of respondents declared to have implemented guidelines for the workload of students within the consortium.

As one would expect, the coordinating institution mainly plays a role in the administrative running of the JP. The academic content is naturally distributed among the partners.

To ensure quality in the awarding of certifications, two main answers were identified

- It is regulated in the consortium agreement (52.4%)
- During the planning of the joint programme the awarding of degrees will be agreed within the Consortium (35.3%)

**BOX 29**

Both of the above mentioned statements should be taken into account. The issues regarding certification should be discussed and defined during the planning of the JP and then regulated in the consortium agreement.
7.3 Quality, transparency and clarity of information

7.3.1 Information on mobility scheme

In most of the JPs, students are informed about the mobility scheme by receiving practical guidelines before entering the programme. They also benefit from individual counselling and advice. To a lesser extent (12%), other means are used in JPs such as the JP website, but also brochures, flyers and timetables.

Graph 38

How are students informed about the mobility scheme of the JP

- 48%: By counselling individual students
- 40%: By practical guidelines for students before the programme starts
- 12%: Other

BOX 30

Mobility is an intrinsic aspect of JPs and has to be treated with great care, as it is intimately linked with the success of the programme. The answers show that indeed great attention is given to the mobility scheme by the consortia, since precise guidelines and individual counselling are the two main sources of information for students on this delicate matter. Study visits show that counselling of students can be done as follows:

At central level: by offering general guidance and counselling from a specified unit in charge of (all) JPs.
At faculty level: by providing more specific guidelines.
7.3.2 Quality of admission procedures

Regarding admission procedures, the target was requested to indicate if they pay attention to the clarity of information about the course - in order to guarantee accessibility – to the clarity of the selection criteria - in order to guarantee transparency – and on the achievement of student’s expected level - in order to evaluate if accessibility and transparency are achieved.

The results show that three quarters of the respondents pay attention to accessibility and to transparency and two thirds of them measure the achievement of students’ expected level in order to evaluate the quality of the admission procedures.

Graph 39

Regarding admission procedures, do you pay attention to:

- Clarity of information about the course: 76%
- Clarity of selection criteria: 75%
- Achievement of students’ expected level: 66%
- Other: 3%

BOX 31

The answers to this questions clearly show that quality measures are in place in the JP reached by the questionnaire, without any substantial difference between EMMC and non EM programmes. This goes partially against the answers to the question on ENQA standards for quality, which does not seem to be widely known among JP coordinators.
7.4 Assessment and evaluation measures

An important part of quality assurance processes are the evaluation and assessment procedures implemented by the programme. Below the evaluation systems put in place by the consortia as extracted by the survey are reported. During the study visits, interviews also aimed to investigate if the evaluation measures applied by single institutions were in contrast with the evaluation procedures developed by the joint programmes, if those institutional measures were used to replace evaluation systems agreed among the partners or if those procedures were substantially ignored and replaced by specific measures agreed by the consortium.

7.4.1 Evaluation of teaching

As presented in graph 40, students are involved in the evaluation of teaching, both evaluating individual modules and, to a lesser extent, evaluating the whole programmes. Only few programmes do not foresee any kind of evaluation of teaching activities (7%) while almost one third of the target have implemented external evaluation or require feedback from the labour market.

Concerning the evaluation of teaching, we found some differences between EMMC and non EM programmes which we think it is useful to highlight. Although the general data of the involvement of students is confirmed, it can be noted in Table 6 that almost all EMMC foresee the evaluation of teaching modules by the students, while only half of the non EM programme have implemented this kind of evaluation. Some percentage differences are also evident for the external evaluation, both of the whole programme (50% of EMMC against 33% of non EM programmes) and of the individual modules (24% EMMC against 9% of non EM programmes). All EMMC respondents have implemented an evaluation system for teaching, while it is interesting to note that non EM programmes pay more attention to the feedback from the labour market (31% against 24%).
Table 6 What system is used to evaluate teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation Type</th>
<th>EMMC (%)</th>
<th>NON EM programmes (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Evaluation of the Programme</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Evaluation of the teaching of individual modules</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation by the teaching staff involved</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of the Programme as a whole</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of individual modules</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback from the labour market</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No kind of evaluation</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.2 Evaluation of services

As shown in graph 41, students are also involved in the evaluation of services. Evaluation by students is the main means for the evaluation of services which are evaluated to a lesser extent also by teaching and administrative staff and external evaluators. It is important to note that 18% of respondents do not have any evaluation system for services. No relevant differences are to be highlighted between EMMC and non EM programmes.
7.4.3 Overall evaluation of the programme

In order to assess the systems developed by the partners for the evaluation of the joint programme as a whole, including the academic as well as the administrative dimension, 4 questions were included in the survey to academic coordinators; one question refers to the ex – post evaluation of the students’ career as a means to evaluate the success of the programme (dropout rate, average grades, graduation rate, time employed in looking for a job, income etc) while the other questions refer to the measures to improve the overall quality of the programme.

Concerning the ex – post evaluation of students, graph 43 shows how half of the JPs perform an evaluation of the success of the JP with special emphasis on graduation rate (49%), while only 1 JP out of 5 performs an evaluation of the time spent by students in looking for a job or of the income and career analysis. This may indicate either that JPs do not consider these two parameters as important, or that they are not able to keep records of the students’ career after graduation.

Graph 42

An open question aimed to gather some indications from respondents on the measures taken to avoid high drop-out rates, unsatisfactory graduate analyses or unsatisfactory average grades. The main measures taken by the respondents in order to avoid the above issues can be summarised in the following categories:

1. Quality and flexibility of the curriculum, allowing adjustments on students’ and labour market’s needs;
2. Quality in the selection process and in services, in particular in the very important issue of tutoring and coaching.
Box 32

In this box we report some of the more interesting answers on how to prevent high drop-out rates, unsatisfactory graduate analyses or unsatisfactory average grades.

**Respondent 1**: “Curriculum development, enhancement of the quality of the curriculum, joint grading system, ECTS, tutoring system, individual tutoring, special courses on different subjects related to the joint programme”.

**Respondent 2**: “It is attempted to avoid these issues by ensuring a high profile programme with excellent teaching and student involvement in both planning, implementation and running of the programme. The programme has high flexibility in adjusting course selection according to the students' individual needs and plans”.

**Respondent 3**: “Our programme has performed rather well in terms of drop-out rates, once students are accepted in the programme and generally in terms of graduate grades. More challenging is the task of keeping attractiveness in the European post-graduate market, and this is being discussed in the Governing Bodies and with the Inner Circle Universities with a view to adapt to new market conditions and find ways for enhance competitiveness”.

**Respondent 4**: “By increasing the quality of the Master having regular evaluations with the students”.

**Respondent 5**: “Improving the selection process and the quality of tutoring and services”.

**Respondent 6**: “Student tutoring by both professors and older students enrolled in related programmes”.

**Respondent 7**: “Tight follow-up of students by tutors/supervisors and by administrative staff. Internal discussions within member institutions and at consortium meetings level”.

**Respondent 8**: “Very careful admission procedures and student selection. Frequent feedback from the student representative”.
These data are also confirmed by the graph 43 which reports the answers to the question “What are the main focus areas for enhancing the quality of the programme?” from the graph we can note that the adjustment of curriculum (which includes also the feedback from students and labour market to get the input) and the quality of services are the main measures to improve the quality of the programme.

Graph 43

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How to enhance the quality of the Programme?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjusting the curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving students' recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoiding Student drop-out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving the mobility scheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More feedback from students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More feedback from alumni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More external feedbacks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BOX 33

From the study visits it appeared that the JP have put their own evaluation systems in place which in some cases have been added to the regular evaluation activities put in place by each institution or faculty, or in other cases have substituted those activities. Quality assurance offices in the visited institutions have in some cases developed guidelines to be applied before the development of the programmes; those guidelines, however, do not impose any evaluation system which can be defined and agreed among the consortium.

An effective, updated and comprehensive evaluation system is a crucial tool for the success of a joint programme. The system should include regular evaluation of the academic activities (which is mostly the case of our sample) as well as of services (in this case there is a clear need for improvement).

Evaluation should be made by different stakeholders, including the students and the academic staff, as well as the feedback from the labour market which is essential for the adjustment of the curricula.

Evaluation procedures allow programmes to be up to date and respondent to students needs and expectations and permit to avoid high drop-out rates.
PART III

8. Recommendations and good practices

The “joint programme life cycle” can be divided in two main macro phases which are the “development phase” and the “implementation phase”. A third phase, which is the “marketing of the programme”, can be placed in between, where not considered under the implementation phase. These macro-phases refer to each JP singularly, while the “role of the institution”, in the sense of how each institution is capable and prepared to invest in the internationalisation of education and in particular in JPs, is an important factor which is not necessarily directly related to each singular joint programme but which may considerably influence the macro-phases indicated.

Based on the data presented and commented in the previous chapters, we can assert that the majority of the actions which could prevent the challenges and problems arising during the implementation phase, need to be addressed in the planning of the programme or can be prevented thanks to the “role of the institution” in terms of the policy defined and strategy implemented to support joint programmes.

Therefore, in this conclusive chapter, we will “twist the chronological order” presenting all the processes of the implementation phase and the most challenging issues which can be met in this phase. Then we will present those actions or issues which can be put in place or addressed during the planning and developing of the programme, and finally how the “Institutions” could be prepared to prevent some of those challenges.
Some good practice examples are included in between the recommendations within the “boxes”, while useful tools developed by the JOIMAN project are annexed at the end of the report.

8.1 The Implementation phase

The implementation phase includes what has been defined in chapter 5 as the “students’ administration timeline” and, in addition, includes transversal processes which are in place during the entire life of the programme. These transversal processes are the financial management of the programme and the quality assurance measures put in place for the whole management of the programme. The figure on next page represents the implementation phase in graphical terms.
## 8.2 Main challenges during the implementation phase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROCESSES</th>
<th>CHALLENGES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Application     | • Management of applications from different target groups of students  
                   • Adapting the regular application procedure to the international dimension                                                               |
| Selection       | • Implementation of a joint selection process and implementation of two-step selection  
                   • Adapting the regular selection procedure to the consortium needs  
                   • Assessment of high numbers of applications                                                                                             |
| Admission       | • Management of communication flows involving many actors (consortium secretariat, the coordinating institutions, the single institutions, the faculties and, in some cases, the donor)  
                   • Preparation of the documentation for student enrolment  
                   • Length of procedures for the issue of visas                                                                                             |
| Enrolment/Registration | • Management of joint enrolment procedures  
                   • Different national or institutional regulations for enrolment documents                                                                 |
| Welcoming       | • Organisation of specific welcoming services such as accommodation, insurance, residence permits etc.  
                   • Finding additional funds for specific services  
                   • Adapting regular welcoming services to international/exchange JP students (different level of expectations or academic calendar problems)  
                   • Cultural integration of international students staying for a short period                                                         |
| Teaching        | • Harmonisation of the academic calendars  
                   • Monitoring and assessment of students  
                   • Harmonisation of marks  
                   • Transfer of students records  
                   • Tutoring and coaching services                                                                                                          |
| Mobility        | • Organisation of specific welcoming services such as accommodation, practical issues, insurance, residence permits.  
                   • Finding additional funds for specific services  
                   • Adapting regular welcoming services to international/exchange JP students (different level of expectations or academic calendar problems)  
                   • Cultural integration of international students staying for a short period  
                   • Tutoring and coaching services                                                                                                          |
| Dissertation    | • Organisation of joint jury  
                   • Harmonising “dissertation” systems                                                                                                          |
| Diploma and Diploma Supplement | • Issuing of joint diploma (difficulties due to national legislation or institutional regulations).  
                   • Issuing of the double/multiple diploma  
                   • Awarding of a joint DS  
                   • Timing for award of joint diploma or in the awarding of DS                                                                 |
<p>| Financial       | • Definition of (common) tuition fees (national regulations or                                                                                         |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>management</th>
<th>institutional constraints)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o Definition of a JP budget</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Management/distribution of tuition fees or of the JP budget</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Finding financial support for the programmes in terms of scholarships or human resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Calculation of costs and in the reserves for sustainability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Reporting/accounting phase when requested by donor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Assurance</th>
<th>o Ensuring quality in the admission and selection procedures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Ensuring transparency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Setting up of an evaluation system for the teaching and for the evaluation of services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Setting up an overall monitoring and evaluation system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Setting up ex – post evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Involvement of relevant stakeholders in the overall evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.3 Recommendations and good practices for the development phase

a) The importance of the selection of partners

1. When planning a joint programme, one should set the criteria for selecting partner(s) beforehand.

2. When setting your criteria for selecting a partner, one should include administrative aspects as well. The academic criteria are essential, but not sufficient.

3. Mutual trust is essential for the development of successful joint programmes, it is therefore recommended to involve long term collaborative partners assessed both at academic and administrative level.

Good Practice 1: Participation in HE networks

As a starting point for collaboration, in addition to the research links established by single academics, it is also important to underline the usefulness of the participation in HE Networks (i.e.: Utrecht Network, the Coimbra Group, the Compostela Group, the Santander Group etc) in which there is an institutional participation which can facilitate the development of successful JPs. Networks are also important to develop common tools and shared understandings

b) Verification of national legislation and educational systems

4. Having selected the partners, before starting the development phase it is important to be aware of the national situations of the partners involved and in particular:

- It is important to check the educational systems of the partners/Countries involved.
- It is important to check the accreditation system of the (joint) programme in the partners/Countries involved.
- It is important to check the legal situation of the partner involved in relation to the awarding of joint diploma.
- It is important to check the legal situation of the partners/Countries concerned in relation to tuition and other fees and social cohesion.

Good practice 2: How to verify these issues?

- Involvement of the administration of the partner concerned
- Involvement of the ENIC-NARIC centres or the Erasmus Mundus National Structures of the Countries involved
c) Ensuring Institutional commitment

5. Ensuring the institutional commitment from all partners is crucial. Only with a strong institutional commitment is it possible to bring problems to the decision making tables.

6. Institutional commitment is necessary for obtaining the necessary institutional support in terms of human resources, direct funding, scholarships or services to international students. It is indeed very important that each partner be committed to invest means (either money or infrastructure/personnel) and that not only “people” are involved, but rather the Institutions as a whole.

7. Institutional commitment is also required if the joint programme requires adaptations of institutional regulations or special derogations to allow the consortium rules to prevail over institutional ones.

**Good practice 3: How to obtain institutional commitment?**

- Study visits to partners institutions before the development of the programme
- Cooperation agreement negotiated at the very beginning of the development phase
- Involvement of the administration in the development phase
- Involvement of the academic boards

**Good practice 4: Visits to institutions?**

One of the visited institutions reported that the quality assurance office is in charge of the institutional visits to partners, before the development of the project, in order to ensure that the partner meets the quality standards of the visiting institution and in order to check or obtain the necessary institutional commitment from the central administration, from the faculties and from the administrative units involved.

This approach generates additional costs for the institution but the cost – benefit ratio is positive.

d) Involvement of Stakeholders

8. Stakeholders at national and local level need to be involved in order to advocate the necessary changes in the national procedures and to adapt regulations to innovation (e.g. modification of national regulation on the issuing of joint diploma).

9. Stakeholders are also important as a support to institutions in the process of raising awareness among students and in the labour market on the existence and value of a joint diploma.

e) Establishing cooperation with external services or institutions

10. In order to facilitate the solution to the issuing of visa and the residence permit, it is important to establish cooperation with National Agencies/Structures, with Ministries of Foreign Affairs and with consulates around the world.
11. It is also important, for those countries where residence permits are an issue, to establish cooperation or special agreements with local offices in charge of the issuing of the residence permit.

Good practice 5: Erasmus Mundus National Structure

Some good practices have been put in place by Erasmus Mundus National Structures which usually collaborate with JP coordinators and institutions, being a sort of “trait d’union” with the consulates all around the world. As for EMMC the list of selected non EU students is ready some months before the start of the programmes, some EM National Structures request those lists every year from JP coordinators and communicate the lists to the consulates in advance. This practice can also be adopted by single institutions running non EM Programmes, providing that they anticipate the selection process of non EU students.

Again the propulsive and innovating role of the Erasmus Mundus Programme is remarked, but at the same time JPs which are “outside” of the EM club do not benefit from the same support.

f) Financial management: creating a budget of the programme and calculating costs

12. Even if it could be a difficult process, being aware of the full costs of a programme could serve for the negotiations of the budget. Full costs calculation include personnel costs as well as the costs for rooms, communication and travel. Where full costs calculation is not possible, a detail list of additional costs should be provided by all partners.

13. Plan reserves or other means to sustain the programme (e.g. contact with funding organisations, business) from the beginning. This could also influence the curriculum (labour-market relevance).

14. The income within a consortium should be distributed among the partner institutions according to their actual full costs and their contribution rather than institutional or legal regulations. If this is not possible within a shorter period of time, then in the long run there should be means to balance it sufficiently.

15. A scholarship scheme should be implemented in order to attract the best students (performance-based allocation as the dominant criterion) and support social cohesion. The scholarships should be as high as the average scholarship rate for students in that region, they should not be higher than the average living costs for students in that particular region.

16. The budget needs to be constantly monitored and transparently managed.

17. Check in the negotiation phase if your institution will have to grant a derogation or a special approval for the modification of tuition fees (harmonisation with other partners, special conditions on student’s nationalities etc.)
g) Setting up a quality assurance system

18. The adoption of ENQA standards is recommended; for JP development and management, refer in particular to their Part 1: “European standards and guidelines for internal quality assurance within higher education institutions”, and Part 1.2 “Approval, monitoring and periodic review of programmes and awards”.

19. Having a periodic evaluation and follow-up systems (like a quality assurance committee, a joint board, students evaluation and assessment).

20. An effective, updated and comprehensive evaluation systems is a crucial tool for the success of a joint programme.

21. The system should include regular evaluation of the academic activities as well as of services.

22. Evaluation should be made by different stakeholders, including the students and the academic staff, as well as labour market which is essential for the adjustment of the curricula.

23. Guarantee the flexibility of the curriculum, allowing adjustments according to students' and labour market' needs.

24. Guarantee quality in the selection process and in services, in particular in the very important issue of tutoring and coaching.

25. Development of an online tool for the whole management of the JP, including students' careers.

Good practice 6: A good example for monitoring the programme

“The Joint programme board organises a yearly “evaluation and planning meeting” with each local coordinator. They report on the teaching delivered by their staff members. These reports are compared with the student evaluation forms which evaluate each course. Afterwards, the JP board makes recommendations on the teaching in each partner university. These recommendations are sent to the partner university for official approval.

The student evaluation also allows monitoring of other aspects of the JP: “information given to students, the organisation of tests and exams, the perceived workload, tutoring offered, accommodation issues, etc.”.

Each local coordinator has a strong relationship with the overall academic coordinator in this HEI. In case of change in the academic staff at the local institution, the local coordinator and overall coordinator have to make sure that the new teacher is well informed of the structure of the JP”.

h) Setting up specific services in support to mobility

26. To set up a clear information system on the JPs including clear explanations about their organisation and the different mobility options (practical guidelines about the different possible tracks).

27. To provide individual counselling to students to choose their track since the choice of the host university is not (only) linked to the attraction of the city/region/country but has to be linked to the study programme offered there.

28. Organisation of extra–curricular activities to foster social and cultural integration.

29. Creation of synergies between the Joint Programmes at the institution in order to instil a “community spirit” among students and academics.

30. Integration of the JP students in the activities organised for the exchange students.

Good practice 7: Involvement of students or alumni

As shown by study visits, a good practice for the organisation of extra-curricular services is the involvement of students or alumni organisations which could provide additional services with very limited additional costs and which could improve the integration of the international students with the local students.

i) Division of roles within the partnership

31. Roles and the tasks of each actor involved (coordinator, institution, faculty, administrative units involved etc.) should be defined during this phase.

32. Work jointly and create synergies between different offices (IRO, student affairs, financial, faculty) and involve them from the start of the project.

33. Organising meetings at technical and political levels, involving different services (students affairs office, IRO, external service for accommodation) to guarantee political support and implement the correct procedure.

l) Negotiations on procedures

34. Clarifying if the implementation of an application procedure managed at consortium level could substitute the regular application procedures applied to each partner’s institution.

35. When addressing international students from all over the world, it is important to use an online application. The consortium should discuss how to implement and financially and technically support this.

36. Involvement of registrar offices since the development phase of the programme is important, especially if the institution has no great experience in joint programmes, in order to avoid students being rejected for formal requirements after having been selected by the consortium or by the first enrolment institution.
37. Discussing and harmonising the formal requirements for enrolment ensuring that students can obtain access to services and to certification at each institution.

38. Discussing in detail the documentation required by each institution for enrolment (certificate of previous studies, declarations from the consulates, official translations).

39. Mutual trust for enrolment: do not require additional documents at the second enrolment or registration.

40. To properly adopt, with statistics carried out at faculty or programme level regularly, the ECTS grading scale for the conversion of marks. While this is not possible, the use of converting tables developed ad hoc could be a valid alternative.

41. Have a common follow-up tool which enables the centralisation of data, made available to all partners.

**Good practice 8: Online application procedures**

Online application based on databases where students can upload application files and which can be accessible to all partners can facilitate and speed up the selection procedure. Many of these systems are based on open source platforms and can be implemented rather cheaply.

Furthermore, a lot of expertise has been shared recently among Erasmus Mundus and above all EM External Cooperation Window Consortia.

**Good practice 9: Development of student’s agreement**

A good practice implemented by almost all the Erasmus Mundus consortia is the student’s agreement. This contract usually covers issues such as fees, scholarship, “code of honour” which includes duties and responsibilities of the parties, learning agreement and mobility scheme. This tool is a transparency tool for the students but it is also a tool to enhance the institutional commitment of the partners.

**Good practice 10: Management tool and intranet spaces for students, academics and administrative staff**

Many JPs have implemented a website with intranet access for both scholars and students. On the intranet, the students can register for all courses and modules and in some cases they can check their results online. These web portals are managed by the coordinating university which is in charge of the student database.

Results of a study visit shown how one consortium has developed an online management tool for their JP. With this system, all the partners have access to the students’ information. Data can also be exported and this can facilitate the award of certifications. This management tool, which can be used for the general management of the programmes as well as of the student’s career, reduces the workload and permits more effective monitoring and quality control.
m) Developing a good, comprehensive cooperation agreement

42. A cooperation agreement should be developed and negotiated during the development phase.
43. The cooperation agreement should include all the agreements undertaken and should include regulations on the curriculum but also on administration.
44. The cooperation agreement should include financial management issues.

**Good practice 11: the JOIMAN cooperation agreement template**

The JOIMAN project has developed a cooperation agreement template which introduces the meaning of this tool and includes and explains possible topics. This template can be adapted by Higher Education Institutions and can be used as a tool for planning and negotiating administrative issues during the development phase.
8.4 Recommendations and good practices for the “role of the institution”

n) Develop a strategic policy on joint programmes at institutional level

45. A strategic policy on JPs adopted at the highest level of an institution seems to contribute to a systematic development of JPs. A strategic policy anchors the development and running of JPs within the institution at the highest level.

Good practice 12: Models and meaning of strategic policy on JPs

This models have been extracted by the results of surveys and study visits and have been explained in chapter 4.

*Top-down approach*: developed from the highest level of the institution and then spread inside the institution. So for instance, one HEI has developed a JP policy, has then integrated it in its general policy documents, and finally has disseminated a “JP culture” to faculties and departments.

*Bottom-up approach*: a strategic policy is developed after the institution becomes involved in JPs in order to streamline and frame the development of new JPs. Such a policy might also be defined in order to help the existing JPs to run more smoothly.

The strategic policies can have different emphasis:

- They might stress the administrative side and hence limit themselves to defining a *framework*
- They might *add an incentive to work inside a framework*
- Or else they might aim at *rationalizing* the development of JPs, by creating an appropriate professional culture

It does not seem out of place to cite here an excerpt from one of the study visits, which shows how a JP can have an impact on an institution or a Faculty:

“[…] These two programmes brought a very important change in the culture of the Faculty […]. They brought an important impulse to the internationalisation culture (courses in English, international dimension, etc.), but also to the whole organisation of the Faculty (dedicated tutor for international students, coaching for social integration, dedicated fund for the running of the international programmes).”
O) Develop a framework to sustain joint programmes in the long term

46. Create units dedicated to the development and management of JPs (within/attached to IROs or quality units). Their goal is to support and frame initiatives in a professional way.

47. Provide additional funding in terms of scholarships or other kind of direct or indirect support

48. Provide required professional training to administrative staff to carry out specialised tasks.

49. Spread the QA culture within the institution.

Good practice 13: Financial support from the institution

The study visits have shown that some HEIs provide (special) scholarships to students enrolled in a selected group of JPs (determined at institutional level). One institution, in particular, increases the LLP/Erasmus scholarship up to € 550 for all European students enrolled in a JP (EMMC and non EMMC). This practice increase the balancing between EU and non EU students in JP and fosters the cultural integration of international students.

Another kind of institutional support shown by the survey is a financial support transferred to the Faculties running Joint Programmes matching the quality requirements defined (teaching units taught in a foreign language, a minimum percentage of international students enrolled, the presence of international visiting professors, a dedicated tutor etc.).

Finally In two cases shown by a study visit and by the survey, a less direct financial support is provided to international programmes in the form of a “special agreed distribution of the tuition fees” among the central administration and the study programme. In these cases the study programmes are conceived as “autonomous” and they can count on a percentage of the fees (80 – 85%) for running the programmes. These funds are additional funds to be added to the costs incurred by the institution for the provision of the regular services (teaching rooms, academic personnel, student’s services) and are generally used for additional services for international students or for scholarships.

50. Provide internal guidelines on how to develop and manage joint programmes to be used as a development tool, as a monitoring tool and as a flexible tool for negotiations among the partners.

Good practice 14: Example of policy developed

[We have developed a] policy rather than a strategy with a very large scope. The policy contains a guideline, which addresses all elements of a JP from the first idea about the programme up to the JD certification and alumni network:
[Its] main aspects [are]:

1. Academic aspects
2. Financial aspects
3. The aspect of sustainability of the programme at all partner universities.
[We favour a] professional/well organised approach to developing JPs, e.g. by developing a business plan for each JP. One basic rule to implement a JP is: solve all problems before the programme starts.

The main conditions that need to be fulfilled are:

Insure full financial coverage of the programme, at all partner institutions;
Organise site visits to the partners prior the start of the programme to check institutional commitment;
Perform a diligence investigation of all partners (including an investigation of the legal framework).

Good practice 15: Guidelines developed by the University of Lund

The most complete guidelines are those from the University of Lund, which address all main points that one has to take into account for setting up and running a JP. These guidelines are also reported integrally as an annex of this Report. References are given to the main sources of information and ideas are put forward for those seeking financial support. The tone of the document is not emphatic and has no promotional objective.
8.5 Synthesis of the phases and of the tools

**ROLE OF INSTITUTION**
- POLICIES AND STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP JPs
- FINANCIAL AND HR SUPPORT JPs

**DEVELOPMENT PHASE**
- CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
- INSTITUTIONAL COMMITMENT
- EDUCATIONAL AND LEGAL SYSTEM
- SELECTION OF PARTNERS
- INVOLVEMENT OF STAKEHOLDERS
- COOPERATION WITH EXTERNAL SERVICES
- PLANNING OF PROCEDURES
- PLANNING OF SERVICES
- BUDGET DEFINITION
- SETTING UP QUALITY MEASURES

**IMPLEMENTATION PHASE**
- APPLICATION
- SELECTION
- ADMISSION
- ENROLMENT/REGISTRATION
- WELCOMING
- TEACHING
- MOBILITY
- DISSERTATION
- DIPLOMA
- DIPLOMA SUPPLEMENT

**FOLLOW UP / EX POST EVALUATION**

**Tools**
- Guidelines for management of JP
- Site visits
- ENQA standards
- Coop. agreement
- JOIMAN cooperation agreement template
- EURYDICE database
- HE Networks
- National agencies (EMNS, ENIC-NARIC, LLP)
- Online application
- Student’s agreement
- Online management database
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DEVELOPMENT & MANAGEMENT OF
JOINT PROGRAMMES WITH NON-EUROPEAN PARTNERS
Authors: Ovidiu Caltun, Natalia Cowderoy, Patricia De Clopper, Anne Gemminger, Martin Glogar, Åsa Grunning, Tabea Mager, Violeta Osouchova, Svend Poller, Nicolas Pottiez, Bianca Roseaux, Filippo Sartor, Anne Vorpgel
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Bibliography
Introduction

The aim of the research was to investigate the obstacles and challenges in the development and management of study programmes jointly offered by European and non-European universities, in particular located in countries outside the EHEA. The focus of the investigation was on how it differs from working in a purely European consortium, which was the reference point of the comparative research.

Administrators from 8 universities were involved in this task force; during the second year of the JOIMAN project they developed the methodology and actions necessary for the research, analysis and reporting on the topic.

Two different actions were launched:
- a survey on the experiences and main difficulties encountered and
- a call for papers in order to add supplementary information from stakeholders.

Part I of this report describes the methodology and the sample developed for the purpose of the project. The target and the results of the call for papers are also included.

Part II analyses the main findings collected during the in-depth interviews and is divided into three chapters: Strategy, Development and Management, focusing on the identification of trends and major challenges.

Part III summarises some conclusions and lists recommendations.
PART I: Methodology

1. Definition of the geographical scope

For the purpose of this research European universities located in countries belonging to the EU and EFTA are labelled as ‘European’ universities. Non-European universities are those located in all other countries. There is a special but non-exclusive focus on countries outside the European Higher Education Area.

2. Definition of the scope of the research

The Good Practice Report presented in Book 1 presents predominantly joint study programmes at master level. Consequently the present research was exclusively targeted towards master programmes offered jointly by European and non-European universities.

3. Methodology approach

3.1 Survey

The Task Force opted for study visits, a qualitative methodology approach based on a well-balanced sample of 20 master programmes with non-European partners selected out of the 94 joint programmes.

The first step was the collection of data on relevant Joint programmes in order to constitute the sample. The Task Force approached the National Erasmus Mundus Structures, universities in their country, the Utrecht Network and partners in other university networks (i.e Coimbra group, Compostela group) with the request to provide information on their running joint master programmes with non-European partners. Finally, also all EU-funded joint master programmes were included in the list.

The second step was the definition of the sample. A representative sample of 20 joint master programmes was selected:
- representing all continents;
- including different funding mechanisms: developed under EU programmes or as single initiatives;
- delivering different type of diplomas: joint/multiple/double degrees;
- organised by two types of organisational structures: bilateral or consortium

During the study visits and the following discussions three selected Joint Programmes did not work out for reasons tied to the lack of cooperation with the non-European partner, difficulties in contacting the European coordinator of the programme, or not fitting in the set-up of the research. The final sample and the
qualitative analysis counted 17 Joint Programmes with the same well-balanced criteria as described above.

Concerning the **geographical distribution**, all continents and regions are represented in the sample of the master programmes:
- Latin-America (6 countries): 9 Joint programmes
- North-America (2 countries): 8 Joint programmes
- Africa (2 countries): 6 Joint programmes
- Asia (4 countries): 11 Joint programmes
- Middle East (1 country): 1 Joint programmes
- Russia: 3 Joint programmes
- Western Balkans (5 countries): 1 Joint programme (curriculum development project) leading to 4 different Master courses

Regarding **the funding mechanisms** of the joint programmes, the sample distinguishes between joint programmes running with EU funding (and consequently developed according to their guidelines) and those programmes developed without EU-funding. More precisely:
- 5 joint programmes are recognised as Erasmus Mundus Master courses;
- 3 joint programmes are financed by the EU/US Atlantis programme;
- 1 joint programme is running as a Tempus project (under the ‘Curriculum development’ strand);
- 9 joint programmes are not funded under any EU programme.

*Note: One joint programme is counted twice, as the programme is both funded as an Erasmus Mundus Master Course and under the EU/US Atlantis programme.*

Also different types of **diplomas** are represented in the sample. Most of the joint programmes in the sample do not award a single joint degree. Within one consortium different methods may exist. Usually it is a mixed form of different types of diplomas that are awarded:
- 9 double degrees;
- a single degree + a joint certificate;
- a single + a joint degree;
- 2 joint and 1 double degrees;
- 1 joint and/or double degrees;
- 3 joint degrees.

Finally the sample also represents two types of **organisational structures**:
- 11 joint programmes are organised by a consortium of universities;
- 6 joint programmes are offered under bilateral cooperation.

The next page shows the final table representing 17 Joint programmes which were visited.

Members of the Task Force visited and interviewed the European co-ordinator of each of the 17 master programmes of the sample.
For this purpose a template was prepared in advance. This methodology included:
guidelines for the interview, some basic information on the Joint Programme to be completed, and the main part: a questionnaire covering three chapters:

- **Strategy**: including questions on the target group, the reasons for developing a joint programme with a non-European partner, etc.
- **Development**: covering the design of the programme, all educational aspects, the legal framework, quality assurance, etc.
- **Management**: focusing on topics such as communication, administration, organisation of mobility, financial aspects and sustainability.

Each Task Force member wrote a **narrative report** on the study visit, clearly focusing on the information that was relevant for the analysis and reporting, i.e. challenges and obstacles of joint programmes with non-European partners.

Comparison of the results and more elaborate discussions on the findings were held during final meetings of the Task Force in order to identify trends and major challenges and to present examples of good practice detected throughout the study visits.

For further analysis of the results and to draft the report, the Task Force split up in three groups; each group covering one of the three sections of the questionnaire: strategy, development and management.

This book is structured along the same three chapters.
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<th>Organisational Structure</th>
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<th>European Countries Involved</th>
<th>Non-European Countries Involved</th>
<th>Type Of Degree Awarded</th>
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</table>
3.2 Call for papers

In order to include specific contributions from stakeholders, European and non-European universities alike, a call for papers was launched on 'joint master programmes jointly offered by European and non-European universities' simultaneously with the study visits. The call for papers was aimed at individuals, administrators and faculty members from higher education institutions who have experience in developing and managing or have participated in such Joint Master Programmes. The target were papers highlighting key issues on policy, development and management presenting and analysing the constraints, challenges and opportunities of Joint Master Programmes with non-European partners. Possible topics included: academic management differences (degree requirements, duration, credit system, grading, etc.), recognition and accreditation, impact on the international labour market, JP’s to avoid brain drain, cost/benefit analysis, funding and sustainability (including tuition fees), communication issues in an intercultural environment, mutual benefits within partnerships.

The call for papers was distributed to the Utrecht Network, the Coimbra Group, the participants at the Rome Seminar (November 2009), the respondents on the questionnaires of the first JOIMAN year, the Modern Network, UNIMED, UNICA Network, people registered in the Higher Education Reform Portal, participants in the EU-US annual project directors meeting (October 2009 in Boston/USA) and was posted on the JOIMAN website.

The steering committee of the task force selected the submitted papers according to pre-set criteria: relevance, text structure, content, language, references. Three papers were accepted and are published in the annexes of this report and on the JOIMAN website (www.JOIMAN.eu).

- ‘Collaborative provision – challenges' by Suzanna Tomassi/UK
- ‘Joint Master Programmes with non-European partners, in particular the organisation of Erasmus Mundus Master Courses’ by Andries Verspeeten/Belgium
- ‘Benefits and Challenges of Dual Degree Programs: Case of EU and the United States by Nader Asgary & Patricia Foster/USA
PART II: ANALYSIS & RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

Part II is divided into three chapters:

1. **Strategy**: includes reasons for developing a joint programme with a non-European partner, looks at the partnership and strategic approaches to select the partners and targeted student groups;

2. **Development**: covers the design of the joint programme, investigates the impact of different educational structures, including the legal framework, and the use of quality assurance mechanisms;

3. **Management**: focuses on topics such as communication, administration, mobility-related issues, financial aspects and sustainability of the Joint programmes.

In each of the chapters the role and involvement of the non-European partners is examined.

4. **Strategy**

The first aim of the survey was to look into the strategies which are enticing European and non-European universities to develop joint programmes and whether there is a common pattern which characterises these strategies.

The figures of Erasmus Mundus Master courses show that the involvement of non-European partners is ambivalent. In the 2009 selection the involvement of the universities outside of EU or EEA was allowed for the first time: 55 non-European universities participated in 21 consortia selected. The results of the 2010 selection revealed that the number of non-European institutions involved decreased to 21 represented in 11 consortia. Moreover in the 2009 call consortia counted up to 5 or 6 non-European partners, whereas in the 2010 call the maximum number of non-European partners in any consortium was 3. There is no other comparative material available to draw further conclusions as the involvement of non-European universities as a full member is a novelty of the 2nd phase of the Erasmus Mundus programme. However, the figures are relevant as the inclusion of non-European universities was not described in the guidelines as a compulsory requirement but rather as a strategic choice of European consortia to become more global.

The new Erasmus Mundus framework is only one of the reasons which justify the increase of joint programmes with non-European universities. The results of the survey show other common patterns of motivations why European universities embark on this new business. Some of these motivations are the same as for the design of joint programmes among European institutions. Other reasons seem more relevant in the context of non-European relations.

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4 In the scope of this report we label universities in any country outside EU/EEA by term “non-European”. We are aware that by doing so we exclude a few countries which perfectly meet geographical standards for belonging to Europe.

5 One of the reasons for such a drop is the fact that the EC decided to award the Erasmus Mundus Masters Course grant in the 2010 call to significantly fewer consortia (29) in comparison to the 2009 call (50). However, if we look at the ratio of the reduction of the awarded grants, we still see a drop in the number of consortia with a non-European partner.

6 In the Erasmus Mundus 2004-2008 the participation of non-European universities was possible only through Action 3 with a much more limited status.
4.1. Motives for developing joint programmes with non-European partners: the European Perspective

Six main motives for the development of Joint Programmes with non-European partners were identified and described from the perspective of the European universities, which were the main target of the survey. It is useful to underline that in most cases, a joint programme is the result of more than one of the reasons presented below:

1) Topic-related cooperation

The first motive is related to the topic of the joint programme. Many coordinators justify the need for participation of non-European universities by the fact that they are strategic for the content and the learning environment. Non-European partners are functional to achieve specific learning outcomes which require a global vision and the capacity to deal with different contexts. In addition, in order to be correctly investigated some topics require association with specific territories and the opportunity to carry out local field work.

This approach represents a unique opportunity to exploit the expertise offered by local universities and to provide students with a wider perspective. The aims can be achieved not only through training but also through the organisation of internships, field work, site visits, etc.

Examples are issues connected to specific regions, to natural resources or to events which are associated only to certain parts in the world: Master courses dealing with sustainable development or international relations issues or courses that deal with specific natural disasters, climate changes, specific farming or veterinary techniques.

The topic-related cooperation is the justification for many joint programmes also within Europe. This element may be even more of a decisive factor in the case of non-European partners. There is a clear added value when the partners are more familiar with or closer to a problem. The Master course acquires more importance as the prospective is global. Teaching and learning about conflict prevention makes great sense if the debate involves professors, field workers and students from different backgrounds and if students have the opportunity to put theory into practice during field work. If well designed, joint programmes developed with a global prospective become an extraordinary educational tool and a great experience for all stakeholders, e.g. participating universities, students and teachers.

2) Reinforcing already existing cooperation

Joint programmes are often considered as a good opportunity for reinforcing existing cooperation with non-European partner universities. Joint programmes perfectly fit the desire to find new challenges for cooperation. Research groups have often consolidated their longstanding relations into a joint study programme; Universities that have been connected for years through mobility programmes sometimes want to offer extra opportunities for their students.

This rationale is absolutely consistent with the development of joint programmes within Europe. It is often the first reason to explain the design of joint programmes based on a bottom-up approach, i.e. being conceived by academics in different institutions with a high level of trust and familiarity dedicated to facing new challenges.
3) Geographical cooperation

a) Cross-border cooperation – strategic political reasons

Some of the joint programmes have been developed according to specific cooperation schemes between countries. These programmes are usually part of bilateral or multilateral political agreements aiming to strengthen cooperation among geographical areas and to focus on strategic topics. The rationale is that education is considered as an additional means for reinforcing cooperation and that joint programmes at university level represent a unique tool to help achieve this goal. Some of these initiatives have been developed in the framework of regional cooperation programmes, involving students of European universities and institutions in neighbouring countries. Through student mobility and the creation of transnational and intercultural classes, it is supposed that new generations will be more open and able to understand each other. In other cases, joint programmes are supported by external institutions as they respond to the need to improve education and research in a specific issue which is relevant for both countries.

These joint programmes are part of a wider framework and are usually financed by national or local regional governments. Universities contribute with their own expertise. The initiatives are not necessarily conceived at university level but higher education institutions are strongly interested and motivated to play their part.

This type of motivation also applies to joint programmes among European partners. These initiatives are generally associated with areas that share common policies or require the strengthening of cross-border relations. Examples are various projects aiming to increase cooperation among regions through EU regional funds or the need to deal with common political issues in different states through a common educational policy.

Box 1

A master programme of the sample is organised by five Finnish and five Russian universities as a cross-border initiative. The universities of Eastern Finland have created this joint programme with governmental support to promote regional cooperation with Russian universities. The topic is in the field of computing. Acquiring the skills and the competences of this master programme is attractive for students who want to develop a career in international business. However, a similar example in a cross-border consortium makes it clear that this kind of cooperation is not so easy to manage. Cooperation problems appear for several reasons: non-European partners might not be so familiar with the topic of the programme, lack of (sufficient) funds to create and maintain a decent programme, cultural differences between the people who have to work together, often causing a lack of trust between the partners.

One master programme covers the field of Oil and Gas, a relevant topic and one of great importance for both partners, namely Norway and Russia. The educational programme is the result of several other existing agreements in particular in the field of economic cooperation. The partners need to deal with common political issues, in this case oil and gas, through a common educational policy.

b) Country-based approach

Quite similar to cross-border cooperation is country-based cooperation: some joint programmes have been developed in the framework of a well-established policy of an institution to cooperate with a specific country or regional area. Some European
universities focus their internationalisation policy on cooperation with specific countries and concentrate most of their efforts and financial resources on these initiatives. Decisions on geographical areas and actions depend on historical links, strategic interests, commercial flows, cultural affinity, excellence in the higher education system, business opportunities. Joint programmes are often considered a strategic tool in consolidating relations, mutually reinforcing educational programmes, attracting international students, responding to needs and requirements imposed by external stakeholders who are interested to support the cooperation such as local or national governments, enterprise associations, chambers of commerce, foundations.

This rationale seems more evident in joint programmes developed with non-European universities. The decision to concentrate on a specific country or regional area is more motivated in a global context, as Europe is often considered a single entity in terms of cooperation policy. Of course, there are European universities which pursue cooperation with one specific European country for various reasons, such as physical proximity or the high standard of its higher education system. However, the interest to invest in a particular area outside Europe is more evident. In recent years, particular countries such as Brazil, Russia, India and China (BRIC) are seeing increasing interest.

Box 2

An Italian university chooses explicitly to collaborate with Latin-American countries. The university wants to strengthen its international relations with Latin-America through cooperation with countries with similar teaching and cultural visions. Other reasons for collaborating with Latin-American countries are: attracting excellent students, enhancing the international dimension of its curricula, increasing the number of international students. But the impact of this kind of cooperation falls wider than on the university alone; it involves local stakeholders who subsidise scholarships to attract the Latin-American students. The regional government and the local production sector are also involved.

4) Recruitment of non-European students

Joint programmes and, more specifically, joint programmes with non-European universities are often acknowledged as a way to enhance the attractiveness of the university programmes and consequently, to increase the number of international students. This is gradually becoming a strategic objective for many European universities. The number of international students enrolled is usually considered a key indicator of the level of internationalisation of an institution. In some countries this indicator is adopted as a funding criterion at national level.

Joint programmes are often better marketed and in this way more visible for the target group. Moreover these students register at both/several universities where they spend a study period and are counted as ‘full’ students in these partner universities.

In some cases the attractiveness for non-European students was the main reason for developing the joint programme. These initiatives usually refer to the award of double degrees based on bilateral agreements between the partner universities. Students of non-European universities spend a consistent part of their Master degree programme in Europe; as they are also registered in the European university/ties they can conclude their studies in Europe. At the same time they remain enrolled at the home university and maintain relations with the home university as well. These projects usually have no restrictions in terms of stipulated number of students; the main constraint however is financial, related to the subsistence costs of the students while studying in Europe. Some programmes have received financial support from private and public stakeholders as a way to strengthen relations among regions.
Compared to joint programmes developed among European institutions, the rationale of increasing the number of international students is similar. Offering joint programmes as a marketing strategy to enhance the attractiveness for international students is a widespread practise in Europe with a growing impact.

5) Capacity building

Joint programmes are sometimes organised with universities in developing or emerging countries with the strategic aim of supporting these universities in improving their curricula and their capacity, in this way avoiding brain-drain. These joint programmes usually include only teacher and no student mobility. They usually fulfil several objectives. In the medium term, these joint programmes should help the universities in developing countries to reformulate their curricula with a more international perspective. These results can be achieved thanks to the cooperation with the European universities through co-teaching and the involvement in an international context. In the short term, these programmes offer a unique opportunity to students from developing countries to experience an international environment and to European students to deal with professors coming from other regions, to share ideas and problems and to do an internship or research in a developing country, which is provided in one case of the sample.

Some cases mention projects that are supported and financed by international donors or that are purely bilateral cooperation initiatives. Nevertheless, the altruistic motivation, the intellectual curiosity, the wish for new challenges seem the main rationales that justify European universities in embarking on such projects. Additionally over the past few years the role of universities as agents of development is open to growing debate and European universities are becoming more sensitive to issues related to social responsibility.

All these factors are less relevant when considering the development of joint programmes among European universities.

6) Funding-related cooperation

The funding-related cooperation is sometimes a necessity for universities interested in developing a joint programme. The JOIMAN project has previously analysed the costs related to the implementation of a joint programme. It is important to obtain financial support from external stakeholders or donors to cover the additional costs. Therefore, the decision whether or not to involve a non-European university sometimes depends on the need to participate in a specific funding programme or to fulfil a request from an external donor. E.C. cooperation programmes are available for the implementation of joint programmes with third countries.

Additionally, there is another rationale behind the funding-related approach. Building an international consortium with universities from all over the world can represent an important strategic marketing tool for a joint programme. Participating universities can raise (higher) tuition fees, exhibiting the high standard of the programme and the range of opportunities offered to the students. A joint programme with non-European partners will be more costly but partner universities can definitely make a profit if they manage to market the programme properly. This business concept seems to be more effective in some thematic fields such as international marketing or ICT management.

Compared to programmes developed within Europe, funding-related cooperation is not very different. Joint Master programmes among European universities can also be developed to address funding scheme requirements or are designed with the aim of
merging prestigious institutions and providing top-level education with high tuition fees. The latter mostly concerns joint Programmes at the level of executive training programmes.

4.2 The non-European perspective

European universities should not only consider their own motives in the joint programme development but also the motives of the non-European partners.

In most cases, motives are similar: reinforcement of existing cooperation, cross-border cooperation, topic or funding-related cooperation. Interesting ideas, if strategically matched, could bring along excellent proposals and produce innovative projects.

Other interesting elements are prestige and international reputation. Some universities, especially in emerging countries, consider the partnership with European universities as a way to increase the prestige of their course catalogue. A joint programme with a well-known European institution is an important asset when competing in the international higher education market. It is a flagship that could enhance the reputation of the institution and the other study programmes offered. Moreover, some countries consider the cooperation with Europe in specific fields as a strategic priority: joint programmes in sectors where Europe maintains a cultural and scientific competitive advantage.

Additionally, the impact of the Bologna process outside Europe and the interest to develop joint programmes with institutions belonging to the European Higher Education Area is important to mention. Non-European universities may be attracted to cooperate with (a European consortium of) institutions which are undergoing a harmonisation process and are adopting credits & cycles, establishing or improving their quality assurance systems and other tools facilitating international mobility and joint programme design.

4.3 The partnership

The success of a joint programme depends vitally on the quality of the relations among the consortium partners, which can be more challenging with a partnership including a non-European partner. In this paragraph the selection of the partners is discussed.

Two different approaches were identified: a **bottom-up** and a **top-down** approach. Secondly given the importance of thorough selection six quality criteria are identified for assessment when selecting partners.
4.3.1. General approaches

Two different general approaches are distinguished as they have an impact on the functionality and character of each consortium.

A) Bottom-up approach

As in many European joint programmes, most of the programmes with non-European partners have been developed from bottom-up, usually by deploying already existing contacts. In most cases, partners have been academically linked, e.g. in research, through student exchanges or by participation in other European cooperation programmes. Hence, mutual trust is already gained and willingness to find a common ground is usually not an issue. However institutional support may be more essential than in purely European joint programmes. Overseas partnerships can be more costly in terms of both financial and human resources and can be a burden without the explicit support of the university authorities. The key to success lies in the level of dedication of the academic staff involved and of the supportive staff from other university units. This approach can work well in countries with a liberal academic culture where the university administration is usually ready to step into new initiatives. The situation can be different in other cultures, where the academics cannot commit themselves without the prior approval of the university management. In either case, given the complexity an early institutional involvement is recommended in order to secure the stability of the joint programme.

B) Top-down approach

The sample reveals interesting examples of initiatives developed by a top-down approach. (cf: country-based approach). The selection and inclusion of a non-European partner was a strategic decision of the internationalization policy towards a specific country or region. In this case, contacts start at the highest level and faculties are involved at a later stage. However such approach may have risks:

- Given the novel character of the cooperation and the unfamiliarity, the ‘trust’ element is lacking. Trust was identified as one of the key factors for the successful running of joint programmes, and is needed even more so for a joint programme with a non-European partner e.g. to make up for possible gaps in infrastructure. The eagerness and capacity of the different partners to run a joint programme might vary and can cause difficulties when the joint programme is running at full speed. So concern is recommended when starting up the cooperation. In this case starting with only mobility can be a temporary solution. If the mobility component proves to be successful, the next step towards a joint programme can be made.

- Another risk is lack of involvement of the academic staff as they may execute institutional decisions less enthusiastically than their own.
Box 3

The sample shows joint programmes of a European university having a focus on cooperation with Latin America and combines both approaches. The geographical interest is part of its institutional policy. The initiative to set up a joint programme can be suggested both by academics and by the university management who travels regularly to the continent and has a good understanding of the situation in the different regions. Once a good match is identified by either party, the International Relations Office steps into the process and sets up a double degree agreement in the widest field possible which can then be used by a broad range of faculties.

4.3.2. Quality criteria for the selection of the partnership

When selecting non-European partner universities several criteria can be taken into account. The following six elements are meant as a guideline in the selection and should be used as a reference list. The list is not exhaustive. Each joint programme is unique and has different needs. There are certainly other quality criteria which on a-case-by-case basis need to be assessed before a consortium is set up. These criteria might be more important for top-down cases as in a bottom-up approach partners have previous experience with each other.

1. Academic excellence

The sample proves that the quality and reputation of the partner institution are two of the most important factors. Given cultural differences and geographical distances it is often less obvious to evaluate the academic quality of the non-European partner. There are several indicators to look at:

- study programmes: module structure, content
- research activities: complementarities/similarities are important, in particular for Masters’ and Doctoral programmes, as they guarantee excellent empirical preparation for the final thesis-
- quality assurance procedures in place
- composition of academic staff (level, number, quality)
- number and quality of scientific publications
- sufficient supporting staff available
- infrastructure
- student facilities
- university ranking

2. Reliability

Reliability is not easy to judge. It is difficult to indicate at an early stage how efficient the cooperation with a new partner will be. Communication patterns which are typical for some cultures might be interpreted differently by others. A joint programme needs material and managerial support from all universities. The lack of basic academic infrastructure might be a constraint in some countries. The solution could be to start with a cooperation project funded by E.C. programmes such as Edulink, Alfa, Tempus, etc. which can prepare both ground and structure for further academic cooperation.
3. **Institutional commitment**

Joint overseas ventures are more demanding than domestic or continental ones in terms of finances, time, cultural differences, etc. All parties have to invest in the project and it is important to secure sufficient interest. European institutions are often easier to convince to participate because joint programmes are often one of the indicators measuring their level of internationalisation. It can prove to be more difficult with non-European partners, so their level of institutional commitment should be well checked in advance. However in the sample some joint programmes were developed at the initiative of the non-European partner. This requires an ability to evaluate the offer and the partner. In such cases it might be good to start with student mobility as a first step in the cooperation.

4. **Communication channels and language proficiency**

Culture has a big impact on the way one behaves and communicates. The cultural differences with non-European countries can be challenging. European partners should be aware of these differences. Involving staff from the non-European partner having international experience can overcome many challenges too. There is a need to ensure that all communication channels are working, among coordinators, between students, programme administrators and teachers. Communication channels need to be defined: format (meetings, video-conferences, occasionally at conferences), frequency (at regular intervals), location (e.g. of meetings). The language of communication needs to be defined as well. The proper assessment of the language proficiency beforehand will save a lot of trouble later on. Given the different organisational cultures it should be clear in advance which persons will be involved, at what level they are working and which responsibilities they are assigned.

5. **Academic compatibility**

Some non-European higher education systems or specific academic programmes have been historically developed (through colonial, cultural or historical ties) according to European (or specific French, German, etc.) standards. Their compatibility can be one of the reasons when selecting a partner. When patterns and structure of education are similar, the number of potential problems can be limited. Moreover, the proximity or similarity of study programmes can be an important criterion for initiatives leading to double degree programmes with a lower level of integration.

6. **Geographical area**

The location of the university also plays an important role in terms of accessibility and appeal of the partner. This can increase the inbound mobility and enhance the cultural experience of incoming students and staff. Even its strategic relevance can be taken into account. In some cases the chances to obtain external funding may be better when a partner from a certain part of the country (e.g. Quebec in Canada) is part of the consortium or when minorities from a given country/region (e.g. Western Balkans) are represented.
4.4. Target group of Joint Programmes with non-European partners

The survey identified which target group of students joint programmes with non-European partners are aiming at and what the challenges are to recruit them.

Within the sample two target groups can be distinguished:

1. Students from the partner universities, particularly in joint programmes organised by two universities (bilateral) and those funded under the E.C/US Atlantis programme;
2. International students coming from inside and outside the consortium. This approach seems to be most common.

The ‘Local model’ (= own students) is typical for bilateral cooperation. In most cases they deliver double degrees. The cooperation has often been established before the implementation of the joint programme. Some programmes have been developed due to earlier political or economical cooperation or by geographical proximity.

The joint programmes under the EC/US Atlantis programme also select their students from the consortium. But some of these programmes are considering enlarging their target group, particularly in view of sustainability when the EU funding comes to an end.

The cross-border programmes in the sample attract international students globally, not only students from both countries involved.

Joint programmes organised by larger consortia tend to recruit their students more internationally. Some programmes wish to recruit students from emerging countries who need to develop specific skills in special fields (such as energy, development aid etc...). In other programmes the variety of the student body is important for the global character of the programme. Moreover in the concept of the Erasmus Mundus programme it is more important to improve the attractiveness of European Higher Education globally. The most convincing element for international students in applying is definitely the availability of scholarships. Consequently the Erasmus Mundus Master programmes receive considerable numbers of applicants.

Concerning the type of students, most programmes wish to recruit the “best students” in terms of academic excellence and motivation.

Although they claim to target ‘excellence’, in many joint programmes it is a challenge to fulfil this goal. There are practical and personal reasons: participating countries are considered less attractive (for European students), or there are higher costs involved. The prospect of being away from families and friends is discouraging. In spite of the fact that going overseas is generally perceived as a plus, some of the best students do not apply, as they find it too demanding or are afraid of losing their domestic job opportunities or friends.

Selecting the target group of students is a delicate and strategic exercise for a joint programme since it is closely connected to finances. Indeed, attracting the best students from all over the world requires well defined marketing plans, investments and fund raising activities in order to promote and sustain the programme.
Indeed, for most of the programmes marketing is essential for attracting a wide range of students. However the availability of grants makes programmes far more attractive than when students have to bear the full costs. The Erasmus Mundus Master courses have to follow specific guidelines to recruit certain target groups. The variety of students is wider. The number of applicants is considerably higher due to the generous scholarships, whereas the programmes without scholarship schemes receive a more limited choice of candidates.

In the search for the ‘best students’ the composition of the student body in terms of quality, origin, background and so on is closely connected to finances:

- Availability of scholarships and funding of the mobility periods: non-European students from low income backgrounds may not apply if no funding opportunities are available
- Cost of promotional activities: investments in websites, online application processes, advertisement in databases, travel to educational fairs, etc.. in order to make the programme attractive for recruiting international students
5. Development

The ‘development’ chapter takes a look at:

- the design of the joint study programme, including the mobility period as a standard embedded component, the use of e-learning and preparatory courses;
- the impact of the educational structures that govern universities and the possible consequences for the cooperation between European and non-European universities: important in the survey were the legal framework stipulating admission procedures and diploma-awarding, credit systems, the duration of study cycles and academic calendars;
- the quality assurance mechanisms of joint programmes with non-European partners.

In each section the role or involvement of the non-European partners is highlighted where relevant. Recommendations and examples of good practice are included where available.

5.1 Design of the joint study programme

When studying the different models of the Joint programmes represented in the sample certain patterns in the design of the joint programmes were identified. Decisive elements for tracing common features are:

- requirements set by external sponsors: i.e. joint programmes developed and running under EU-funding programmes
- organisational structure of the joint programme: consortium or bilateral cooperation

Regarding design, the sample can be classified into four categories of joint programmes:
### WITH FINANCIAL SUPPORT FROM EU
#### 1. Erasmus Mundus master courses (EMMC)
- Curriculum development: often existed before EMMC as a single programme or loosely offered course modules in one or more partner universities
- Course integration: integrated into one joint programme
- Learning outcomes: at programme level
- Developed according to the EMMC guidelines
- Involvement of non-European partners: inclusion of non-European partners did not change, nor adapt the study programme
- The European consortium is dominant

#### 2. Joint programmes organised by a consortium (including a US partner)
- Curriculum development: existed before as a single programme or loosely offered course modules in one or more universities
- Course integration: integrated into one joint programme
- Learning outcomes: for the whole programme
- Involvement of non-European partners: an active role and impact on the joint programme design

#### 3. EU/US Atlantis programme
- Curriculum development: existed before as a single programme or loosely offered course modules in one or more partner universities
- Course integration: partly integrated into a joint programme
- Learning outcomes: at programme level (for the European partners)
- Developed according to the guidelines of the EU/US Atlantis programme
- Involvement of non-European partners: an active role and impact on the joint programme design

#### 4. Joint programmes offered on a bilateral basis
- Curriculum development: existed before as a single programme or loosely offered course modules in one or more universities
- Course integration: Mostly no integration into one joint programme – in some cases one common part is added to establish a joint programme
- Learning outcomes: Not always at programme level
- Involvement of non-European partners: an active role and impact on the joint programme design

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All programmes defined learning outcomes, but not always at programme level, sometimes only at subject or at course level. This reflects the fact that often there is no course integration, in particular in joint programmes set up under bilateral cooperation, or regional cooperation leading to a double degree.
5.1.1 Mobility period

The systematic mobility of students is one of the key objectives of the joint programme. In the survey the following elements were investigated: nature of the mobility period, role of the non-European partners and which educational activities they provide.

A **mandatory mobility period** for students is introduced in almost all master programmes of the survey. Mobility is always **physical** and not limited to virtual or distance learning.

One particular master programme (a double degree programme between France and Morocco) did not include student mobility, but only staff exchanges in order to prevent brain drain.

The **duration** of the mobility period varies greatly. According to the survey, the minimum mobility period is one semester (=30 ECTS credits), the maximum mobility period is four semesters (=120 ECTS credits) in a particular double degree programme; hence, an additional semester is required to obtain the home degree. All other programmes have a mobility period between these two poles (see table below).

In joint programmes running under the Erasmus Mundus programme the mobility period towards the non-European partners is exclusive and not compulsory. It is created as an extra opportunity for a small group of European students who obtain the Erasmus Mundus scholarship and for (European) students who can afford to travel by their own financial means. The compulsory mobility part is exclusively towards the European partners. In one case the choice of destination, either a European or a non-European, is treated on equal basis: students can freely chose their destination among all partners.

Joint programmes organised by consortia but running without EU funding offer a mobility period with the non-European partner on an equal basis as well. The only concern is a strict balance of the mobility flows between the European partners and the non-European partners, in casu the US partner.

Inherent to the specific nature of all other joint programmes in the sample, i.e. bilateral cooperation, EU/US Atlantis programme and cross-border cooperation the mobility period is always compulsory towards the non-European partner.

In some joint programmes the mobility period aims at attending lectures. In other cases students do their research, internship or master thesis at the partner institution. The type of the **educational activity** delivered by the host university depends on the level of involvement of the non-European partner (see section ‘role of non-European partners in the mobility component’ below).

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<td>Course Work, Summer School, Internship...</td>
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Role of non-European partners in the mobility component

Regarding the role of the non-European partners in the mobility component a different level of participation is distinguished according to their involvement in the consortium. The level of involvement depends on the type of joint programme. Different patterns are found in the Erasmus Mundus Master courses, joint programmes under the EU/US Atlantis programme, bilateral cooperation programmes, and joint programmes under cross-border cooperation.

A. Erasmus Mundus Master Courses

In the Erasmus Mundus Master courses the non-European partners count as mobility partners: in most cases they only provide a case study (10 ECTS credits), practical training (10 ECTS credits), or serve as a possible location for the research of the master thesis to the European students (20 – 30 ECTS credits). In one Erasmus Mundus course students can attend lectures at the non-European partner. In another Erasmus Mundus course there is no mobility towards the non-European partners planned yet. Their role in the consortium is streamlining the processes of the incoming student mobility.

Box 4

A master programme on a very specific international issue indicated that the involvement of the non-European partners has been strategically evaluated; in its context these partners are integrated as mobility partners. Part of the European students’ cohort can do a research project and/or an internship there, which fits the global topic and approach of the joint programme.
B. Bilateral cooperation programmes

In all bilateral cooperation programmes none of the non-European partners are just mobility partners; they contribute in a considerable part. The students do a significant part of their study at the non-European country by completing a study programme with the same learning outcomes. Non-European partners allow European students to attend courses and/or to do an internship and/or produce their master thesis.

Box 5

One master programme is designed in such a way that the students have to spend the first year of the programme in Sweden and the second year in China. The students are recommended to write their master thesis in China, but there is the option to write it in Sweden as well. During the first year students have a wide choice of optional courses. The choice of courses in China is limited since not all courses are available in English.

C. Joint programmes with the US (within and outside the EU/US Atlantis programme)

In these joint programmes the American partners allow European students to attend courses and/or to do an internship and/or produce a master thesis as well.

Box 6

In one Atlantis master programme European students spend the first semester at the home institution and during the second semester they go to another European institution. During the final year they study at a US university. The US students spend their master year in Europe, each semester at a different European institution of the consortium. This model is according to the EU/US Atlantis guidelines.

D. Cross-border cooperation

In the cross-border cooperation there is a high level of integration and participation of the non-European partners: they are fully integrated in the development of the joint programme and offer courses, internships and summer schools at their universities.

Box 7

In one master programme the students of the European partner have to obtain 40 credits in the home institution and 80 credits in the joint programme and the same rule applies to the non-European students. But if the latter obtain 40 extra credits at the European institution, they receive a double degree, one from the home and one from the European university.
5.1.2 Preparatory courses

Some joint programmes identified an obstacle in the diverse academic level of the students. In order to level out and to prepare students for the joint programme adequately, several programmes have developed preparatory courses. In a few cases, the home (non-European) university prepares the students for the academic differences. In other cases, the host (European) university offers extra modules during the first term in order to facilitate the integration of (mostly non-European) students. These modules are usually compulsory.

In the framework of one programme, an elective self-preparation phase is proposed to non-European students in order to update their knowledge on research-methodology.

Another way to prepare the students is to offer an e-learning course during a self-preparation phase to enable students to check if they fulfil the requirements and to avoid them having problems during the semester.

5.1.3. Distance learning

The use of distance learning tools is limited but will probably be more developed in the coming years. A lack of resources is mentioned as the main reason. Programmes do use distance learning tools in a complementary way: for occasional or guest lectures (from visiting professors e.g. from non-European partners) and/or for tutoring, or in order to solve problems caused by different academic calendars. A few mention the use of a moodle platform or videoconferences, e.g. for Master thesis evaluation. The distance-learning tools are also used for language acquisition and cultural initiation.
5.2 Impact of the educational structures

Differences in educational systems can complicate the set-up of joint programmes with non-European universities, in particular when the non-European partner belongs to a country outside the European Higher Education area (EHEA). The survey investigated whether the following aspects hindered the cooperation, and if so, how obstacles were overcome:

- Legal framework
- Credit systems: ECTS versus other systems
- Duration of study cycles
- Academic calendars.

5.2.1 Legal framework

Legal stipulations cover the entire educational landscape and encompass a variety of topics. Hindrances by different and often conflicting legislation are not exclusively detected in cooperation with non-European countries. As documented in part I the intra-European cooperation can suffer from similar limitations, related to tuition fees, use of national language, legally described composition of study programmes, diploma-awarding, legal injunction on joint degrees, etc.

Two topics of particular relevance for cooperation with non-European universities are discussed below:

- Admission procedures
- Diploma-awarding

A) Admission procedures

A university consortium is not a legal body but an association with the objective of participating in a common activity or pooling resources to achieve a common goal. It is not possible to admit a student to a virtual legal body. In this respect three models for the selection and admission of students to a joint programme were identified. It depends on the legal framework of the partners and the degree of cooperation which model to choose.

In some consortia with a high level of cooperation, the selection of students is done by the consortium. The partners have set up common criteria for selection and admission. Selected students are admitted to one or to all partners’ institutions with no additional procedures. This model is suitable for consortia awarding a joint degree with a high level of cooperation and flexibility. It is a great advantage for students, as all requirements and conditions are equal for all. The partners work as one body. Due to legal obstacles this model is not workable for all consortia.

Box 8

A typical example is a Erasmus Mundus Master course where students apply to the consortium; they are selected at the consortium meeting; admission requirements are jointly set up and valid for all selected applicants; students are admitted at the
coordinating institution; they are automatically admitted in all degree awarding institutions.

The second model is similar to the first one but with one difference at the level of admission. Partners have set up common criteria for application and selection of the candidates but after selection, students must fulfil the admission requirements of their ‘entrance’ institution. This model gives the opportunity to keep a high level of cooperation between the partners and at the same time allows the institutions to fulfil their national legislation requirements. However it can be confusing for the students as for the same joint programme they need to comply with different rules and to complete different documents. Moreover in some cases they need to pass an additional entrance examination.

Box 9

In 6 out of 17 joint programmes of the sample students apply to the consortium; they are selected jointly by the consortium meeting and are admitted to the respective home institution. But students have to fulfil the local admission requirements.

The third model is used by the consortium with the lowest level of cooperation, often in case of double degree programmes. The institutions maintain their own selection and admission procedures which are done separately by the students’ home institution. The cooperation is based on trust.

Box 10

In the sample is a double degree master programme with a Russian partner. Admission is done in each country, half the class is admitted in Russia and the other half in Norway. Other international students can apply through either channels.

In the survey all joint programmes under bilateral cooperation and the consortia operating without EU funding work according to the third model. There are only two exceptions as these programmes are preparing an application for EU funding and have integrated the compulsory requirements for full integration accordingly.

In the consortia financed by EU programmes the situation is more diversified. Among the sample there is only one consortium, i.e. financed under the Erasmus Mundus programme, working according to the first model with joint selection and admission procedures. Also only one consortium, i.e. financed under the Atlantis Programme is working according to the third model with very separate procedures in each partner institution; the majority of joint programmes with EU funding work according to the second model where the application and selection procedure is jointly done at the consortium level but admission is done by the ‘entrance’ university.

An important criterion concerning ‘admission procedures’ is whether the non-European universities are fully-fledged partners in the consortium. In the sample the non-European partners involved in Erasmus Mundus Master courses are almost never involved (except one) in admission procedures, as they joined an existing European consortium, which structurally remained unchanged.

B) Diploma-awarding
The **type of diploma or degree** awarded after completion of a joint programme very much depends on:

- structure of the cooperation: organised on a multilateral or bilateral basis;
- requirements set by the external sponsor, in casu E.U. funding.

Among the survey **joint degrees** were delivered solely by consortia organising Erasmus Mundus Master courses and one joint programme running without EU funding. From the 5 Erasmus Mundus Master courses one consortium delivers one joint consortium degree (from 4 universities). Another programme delivers a joint degree with the logos of all (4) partners but signed by the co-ordinating university. According to the partners this is not perceived as a ’joint’ degree. In other 3 cases, joint (from 2 partners) and double degrees are awarded within one consortium according to the partners’ legal situation, and only by those universities where the individual student mobility took place. In the joint programme running without EU-funding one joint consortium degree is delivered with the logos of all partners signed by the ‘home’ university of each student.

All other joint programmes of the sample award **double degrees**. The most frequent motivation mentioned was that universities prefer to follow their own national regulations in order to avoid legal obstacles.

All joint programmes in the survey deliver a **diploma supplement**.

5.2.1.1 **Involvement of non-European partners in the diploma-awarding**

**Erasmus Mundus Master Courses**

Students get a (joint or double) degree from partners of the consortium, i.e. the European universities. The non-European partners are not involved in degree-awarding.

Although the non-European universities are considered ‘full partners’ of the consortium, in reality there is a noticeable difference in the level of involvement between European and non-European partners; this was common to all Erasmus Mundus Master courses in the sample. The existing curricula of the joint programmes were not modified by the inclusion of non-European partners in the second phase of the Erasmus Mundus Master courses. Most of the partners are involved in neither the process regarding admission procedures nor the curriculum adaptations. Actually it seems that the non-European partners became full partners for strategic and financial reasons, such as the availability of scholarships to European students. It might be premature to draw conclusions yet, as the cooperation started up rather recently and the level of involvement and impact of the non-European partners in the partnership can gradually grow.

**Joint programme with one American partner (without EU-funding)**

In this joint programme all students get one joint degree, delivered by all partners of the consortium, e.g. European and non-European partners, on an equal basis, even if the student did not study at the American university. This requires considerable involvement and flexibility from the American partner. Strict balances in mobility flows
and tuition fee waivers are the obvious consequences. Some universities in the consortium add their home university degree as well.

**Bilateral cooperation programmes** Joint programmes funded under the EU/US Atlantis programme - Cross-border/regional cooperation programmes

In these joint programmes students obtain a double degree: one from the European and one from the non-European partner. In one joint programme students get a single degree (from the home university) plus a joint diploma supplement.

*Box 11*

**In one case of a cross-border cooperation programme all students have to obtain 40 credits at the home institution and 80 credits in the joint programme. In order to get the double degrees they have they obtain 40 extra credits at the partner institution. In addition, they all get a joint programme certificate.**

The sample teaches us that it is not an easy task to overcome legal obstacles. Where identified in the cooperation agreement, often the pragmatic approach was chosen to adapt to the local situation and accept the rules of each partner. However this can be problematic in larger consortia.

This is the reason why issues simply were avoided, e.g. by offering double/single degrees instead of joint degrees, separate instead of joint admission procedures, tuition fees paid at one institution rather than to a consortium, even no integration of study programmes.

On the contrary when - in certain countries - there is no proper legal framework and requirements at all or when the institution is not well regulated, there is no guarantee of quality.

It is important to promptly identify possible legal differences, in particular in the non-European countries participating in the consortium. Before starting the cooperation, it is a good solution to find out about each partner’s educational legal framework and in addition about possible restrictions related to joint programmes or joint degrees.

It is hard to change limitations imposed by national laws. The consortium will need to cope with them although recommendations can be made for more flexible solutions. Institutional regulations are different again. Often these can be negotiated and modified for the sake of international cooperation.

According to the survey, it is an example of good practice that partners provide the consortium with information about their educational legal framework by e.g. translating some parts of their national laws and consulting their legal experts on educational matters. In most cases it will help to establish an efficient partnership.

*Box 12*

**In the sample, regarding a master programme with non-European partners, all partners presented their national legislation concerning possible problematic areas at the kick-off meeting in order to discuss possible cooperation methods. It allowed them to identify possible bottle-necks, negotiate adequate solutions in order to**
respect national laws. It was a good start for a long partnership and successful cooperation.

5.2.2 Credit system: ECTS versus other systems

Thinking about educational differences it is clear that credits, credit transfer and recognition may be an issue when cooperating with non-European partners. Some non-European countries have adopted the Bologna principles and use ECTS, although the majority have their own credit system or other systems for calculating the study workload and student performance. Partners need to be aware of this when planning a joint programme.

There are different ways of dealing with this issue. Some partners use simple formula for transferring the systems (see example below); others divide the whole study workload in the foreign country - based on number of contact hours - into ECTS credits.

It is important to discuss credit transfer within the partnership: to find a key to calculating the student workload and how to transfer the credits, study workload and grades obtained in the partner institutions.

According to the survey it is **good practice** to draw up a prior **agreement** on the conversion of credits and grades.

**Box 13**

*In a Double Degree master programme with a US partner, the consortium partners agreed to calculate 1 US credit hour as 2 ECTS credits.* –

*In a master programme with several non-European partners, each using different credit systems, the partners agreed to continue to use their own credit system. The comparability of previous academic records is done for each student by the international co-ordinator at programme level, making an overall evaluation of the proposed study plan of the student in the partner institution.*

5.2.3 Duration of study cycles

Most European universities have now integrated the Bologna principles and developed a 3+2 years system. The study cycle of the joint Master programmes usually takes 4 semesters (2 years) after the Bachelor degree. The most frequent difficulty consists in harmonising the duration of the study cycle with some non-European partners. If the duration of the joint Master programme is fixed at 2 years, it is less attractive for students coming from an institution or country with a 4+1 system. They might not be motivated to do one supplementary year of study. In some joint programmes, the European 3-year Bachelor is recognised as an equivalent to the US 4-year Bachelor. But this requires flexibility from the non-European partners involved.
In the framework of some joint programmes, students need to complete extra course work at the home university in order to obtain the home university’s degree. These can be summer courses before or additional courses after the mobility period.

5.2.4 Academic calendars

In the sample the majority of programmes encountered difficulties related to different academic calendars but this is not typically an issue for non-European collaboration. Also within Europe different academic calendars require appropriate solutions which are always centred around the ‘flexibility’ of institutions and academic and administrative staff. Some include summer schools, distance learning, others suggest shortening or extending the duration of the semesters. But in some faculties lectures may have a larger target group and are not only offered for a specific joint programme.

Institutions and staff should be willing and ready to work outside their usual calendar, e.g. by starting the programme before the official start of the academic year or by offering a summer programme (language preparation, internship, etc.) and vice versa after the completion of the academic year.

The extra work often entails enrolment, examinations, communication of grades, delivering of certificates or diplomas outside the usual periods etc.

In the case of joint programmes with countries in the southern hemisphere, one possible solution is to work to an asymmetric programme model: enrol students at the host university in the 2nd semester when it is the 1st semester in the home university and vice versa. This offers an extra advantage in that student cohorts are mixed. Students meet their peers, exchange their mobility experience and in this way are well prepared in advance.

There is no general and common rule to solve academic calendar issues, but the sample shows that it is not an insurmountable obstacle.
5.3. Quality assurance mechanisms

5.3.1 Accreditation

Accreditation of joint programmes is complex due to the existence of multiple national accreditation procedures. Accreditation is based on the assessment of the quality of the programme.

In the sample all joint programmes are accredited, except for the Finnish partner whose evaluation organisation – for the time being - concerns the enhancement and evaluation of quality assurance rather than ‘accreditation’ in its strictest sense.

In the majority of the sample, each partner has its own accreditation process.

The Erasmus Mundus Joint Master Programmes have specific European regulations on accreditation. They may have to undergo multiple accreditation procedures, e.g. one programme is accredited by NVAO (Dutch-Flemish Accreditation Agency) and is also accredited by the respective Ministries of Education of all partner universities. This is one approach.

The ECA (European Consortium for Accreditation) has developed a proposal for a European methodology for single accreditation procedures regarding joint programmes. In the last two years, ECA has run a methodological pilot project with 5 joint programmes. One of these joint programmes is included in the JOIMAN sample. 4 different national agencies are involved in this accreditation exercise: NVAO (Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands & Flanders), ANECA (Agencia Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad y Acreditación), HSV (Högskoleverket) and AQAS (Agentur für Qualitätssicherung durch Akkreditierung von Studiengängen). In each pilot procedure, the agencies involved have tried out different methodologies that would enable them to achieve results that could be adopted by all the agencies involved.

In 2011 the ECA will start work on including non-European quality assurance and accreditation agencies in its approach to single accreditation procedures. It does this in a new project called JOQAR (Joint programmes: Quality Assurance and Recognition of degrees awarded) that was recently approved under Action 3 of the Erasmus Mundus programme. This project will also establish a European coordination point for external quality assurance and accreditation of joint programmes and cooperate with recognition bodies (ENIC-NARICs) to further facilitate the recognition of degrees awarded by joint programmes.

In the sample one joint programme has implemented another accreditation method, which implies mutual recognition: the programme was firstly accredited by being by Erasmus Mundus Master course; this rule is part of Flemish educational legislation, where the coordinating university is situated; afterwards it was accredited by EAALS (European Accreditation Agency for the Life Sciences). Recently the accreditation body of the coordinating university (NVAO) adopted the EAALS’ accreditation.

At present, the involvement of the non-European partners seems non-existent in the accreditation procedures of any Erasmus Mundus Master Programme of the sample, as they act only as mobility partners in the consortium and do not co-deliver the degree.
Concerning joint programmes funded by the EU/US Atlantis programme, the non-European partner is involved in the accreditation procedure as it awards a degree, the ‘home’ degree. In the USA there are private regional institutional accrediting bodies, private specialised/professional accrediting bodies and private national institutional accrediting bodies.

When joint programmes are developed in bilateral cooperation leading to a double degree, the programme of both European and non-European partners are accredited. In one case there was no need to apply for a new accreditation since it was viewed as an orientation of an already developed Master Programme which was already accredited.

5.3.2 Quality assurance

Quality assurance is very important for enhancing the quality of the programme. A quality policy is more than window-dressing. It needs to be consistent with the educational vision and organisation and must be applied in an integral manner.

The majority of our sample apply a quality assurance policy. The policies may be developed locally, nationally or internationally (=joint quality assurance policy).

In our sample all Erasmus Mundus Master Courses have established minimum criteria for a joint quality assurance policy. The degree of ‘jointness’ in these programmes varies; generally speaking these programmes have a mutual agreement on quality assurance. If the quality assurance system is jointly organised it should add value to the existing national and local quality assurance systems.

In bilateral cooperation and cross-border consortia, European and non-European partners often maintain their own quality assurance systems. To build trust they may conclude a specific agreement on procedures and mechanisms. The sample shows different ways of implementing quality assurance in several joint programmes organised in bilateral cooperation. Some have an extensive and clear quality assurance system, with an internal and external approach, e.g. some of the programmes use external quality evaluators in order to evaluate their programmes objectively.

There may be dissimilarities in the quality assurance policies used by the European and non-European partners due to cultural differences.

Box 14

One joint programme introduced an online evaluation system for students. This system is only used by the European partner. For reasons of cultural particularities this evaluation method cannot be used by the non-European students. This type of student participation is not common in the country, as the hierarchy between teachers and students is considered very important.

The quality assurance system can be used to demonstrate the quality of the study programme to students and employers. Some consortiums even advertise it as a type of “brand” (market value).
Box 15

Examples of quality assurance activities applied in the Joint programmes of the sample

Student evaluations, evaluation from visiting scholars and alumni
In many countries universities are bound to use student evaluations to improve the quality of study programmes. But frequency varies: some organise continuous evaluations, others at less frequent intervals. Visiting scholars may also be requested to evaluate the programme. Finally, alumni have become very important in the process. They can be questioned on knowledge gaps in relation to their present job, other useful comments on the programme... Not every programme has introduced alumni evaluations yet. However, some co-ordinators are aware of their importance and plan to start in the near future.

Joint meetings with administrative staff, scholars and students
Some programmes organise a number of board meetings every year. Students are considered as valued full partner during these meetings and give feedback on the joint programme.

Sharing information regularly and exchanging ideas
Feedback from students, staff and scholars needs to be discussed in a board meeting in order to remediate the programme. The circle of quality assurance needs to be closed.

Production of a quality assurance handbook
A number of joint programmes mentioned the production of a quality assurance handbook, complying with EUA, ENQA, OECD, etc. standards to be used inside the consortium and within a broader framework of cross-border cooperation.

Examples of innovative methods of quality assurance activities include the publication of the master theses, an agreement on administrative procedures, face-to-face discussions between students and teachers, the introduction of a co-teacher (a way to enhance trust in the other partner), the organisation of focus groups.

5.3.3 Employability

The international dimension of the joint programmes seems to be an important added value in the job market, particularly in terms of language and intercultural skills. Half of the sample (53%) has information on the employability of their students. The other programmes do not have any information on graduate employability and could not provide us with this information as they have been established only recently. Although the data on employability was not available yet, there was wish to develop this aspect.

Recommendation:
Publish the information on employability on the joint programme website.
6. Management

6.1 Communication among the partnership

21st century communication involves all kinds of media. Meetings still seem to be the core of communication with non-European partners. There are usually held twice a year, e.g. on the occasion of student selections and for graduation or Master thesis evaluation. But now e-mail, skype, facebook and video conferences are contributing to keeping all partners connected, especially when long distances do not allow frequent meetings.

To manage the joint programme successfully the coordinating university plays an important role in maintaining communication, in particular in larger consortia, and at all levels.

Communication concerns not only the staff involved, but also students. Especially where long distances and strongly differing cultures are involved, students should be encouraged to share their experiences. Different cohorts of students might already exchange practical information during their studies through platforms or meetings. Such meetings are sometimes strategically integrated in the shape of summer/winter schools. Furthermore, alumni can be supported to give productive feedback and to promote the programme.

6.2 Administration of joint programmes

All joint programmes are well embedded in the faculties visited. The project coordinator manages the programme; but also International Offices and other units are involved in managing mobility (incoming students), for logistical matters or for the validation of diplomas etc... This is mostly the case in bilateral cooperation programmes, leading to a double degree.

In Erasmus Mundus Master courses the administration is entirely done at departmental level due to the extra resources provided by the EU funding.

All partners interviewed generally stressed mutual trust and flexibility as inevitable conditions for a successful joint programme run with non-European partners.

One aspect that varies is the main responsibility for the implementation and execution of joint programmes with administrative and/or academic staff in some non-European partners. Different levels of autonomy and decision-making may be one reason why the administration of the programme is assigned to different figures. In some joint programmes there were boundaries in autonomy at partner institutions in China and Russia. A solution was found by integrating the processes at different levels at each of the different partner institutions. In one joint programme between Finland and Russia, Finnish departments have enough autonomy and language proficiency to govern their own programmes, whereas in Russia administrative tasks were assigned to the International Office.
Other obstacles of a cultural nature occur, e.g. in countries where **hierarchies** strongly affect communication paths. **Cultural differences** are also often revealed in different management styles, where for example feasibility aspects in terms of cost-effectiveness are more decisive in some countries than in others.

Obstacles have also been found to have a structural nature. In one programme, at the non-European partner all information was governed by only one person. In another case it was hard to find out who the administrative managers involved in the partner universities were, as the information was never passed on.

A lack of experience with international and/or joint programmes at partner universities was generally felt to be a major obstacle; people were not able to cope with legal and academic issues and consequently could not advocate appropriate solutions.

**Some examples of good practice to overcome the identified obstacles:**

- Organisation of a training programme for administrators in partner universities;
- Appointment of a joint programme ‘facilitator’ in each partner university for the development and implementation of the joint programme;
- Set-up of a joint programme unit at central level to provide support to the faculties;
- Production of joint programme guidelines at university or national level;

**6.3 Mobility-related issues**

With students from non-European partners the matter of **scholarships** takes on great importance because the gaps between average living costs tend to be enormous.

In the non-EU funded joint programmes of the sample in most cases grants are made available by governments, regions, professional agencies, foundations or universities; sometimes only for the benefit of third-country students, sometimes also for European students for their study period at the non-European partner; but the number of grants for European students is often limited, and competition is tough. In some programmes this results in a smaller number of participants from the European side. This brings the question of the sustainability of the joint programme into the debate.

**Funding** the mobility period for the European students is a concern for most of the Master programmes in the sample. European students can rely on Erasmus grants for their intra-European mobility within a joint Master programme, but given the fact that there is a shift to take a mobility period at Bachelor level, these students no longer qualify for an Erasmus grant in their master studies.

For non-European mobility under Erasmus Mundus Master courses or the Atlantis programme some grants are available, but they are limited in number. They cannot support large-scale mobility flows as the amount of the individual grant is fixed by the donors. Flexible spending of the overall scholarship budget among all candidates would be a solution.
It also affects the choice of mobility destination: students tend to prefer certain partners as their chances of getting a student job are better than elsewhere. One solution may be to offer a teaching or research assistantship at the non-European partner to support the subsistence costs of the incoming European student.

For a number of reasons, such as the availability of grants or cultural differences, at times there is no balance between incoming and outgoing students within a consortium. In one master programme 90 incoming non-European students participated in the double degree programme, compared to only 5 outgoing European students. The incoming students receive a generous scholarship, the outgoing students do not. The attractiveness of a cross-border programme works mostly one-way: the programme receives much higher numbers of Russian than Finnish participants.

Language issues were mentioned in joint programmes when certain European or non-European partners of a consortium do not provide courses taught in English.

Some of the coordinators experienced problems with the visa process. All of them identified timely communication with embassies or consulates as a solution, informing them about the programme and maintaining regular contacts. Early selection and admission dates also smoothed the way.

Most joint programmes show efforts to integrate the non-European students well in the local study environment by offering them immersion activities and preparing them for a different academic culture and cultural differences generally. This may involve pre-mobility training, welcome weeks, language courses etc. Joint programmes vary in the ‘status’ they offer the students. Some treat them as ‘special’ international students, others assign them to the general group of incoming and outgoing exchange students. They connect with locals through (PhD) tutors, or a kind of ‘family feeling’ is created in the cohort. Accommodation with families to ensure cultural and linguistic immersion and integration is sometimes offered as an option.

Recommendations

- Well performing International Offices are necessary for the smooth running of (large scale) mobility in joint programmes, in particular when students from non-European countries are involved.
- An important role is played by the international academic coordinator in defining the study path, workload and recognition for each individual student taking part in a double degree programme under bilateral cooperation where there is often no course integration.

6.4. Financial matters

In the European partner universities most joint programmes with non-European partners are managed like any other study programme. No ‘full’ costs are calculated. Structural costs such as (administrative and academic) staff, supplies, office rooms
etc. are provided for by the university. Travel costs for meetings are often covered from special budgets earmarked for this purpose.

Most programmes receive mixed funding from the institution, national and/or international grants, and external sources. There is a constant need for scholarships, especially for students from economically challenged regions or for financing high tuition fees. Many coordinators emphasise the importance of regional funding and sponsors; but handling these funds calls for extra administrative resources and frequent contact with external sponsors.

6.5. Sustainability

Although all universities guarantee the willingness to continue the cooperation, well-defined plans on how to sustain joint programmes in the future are not very common.

Generally speaking, Erasmus Mundus master courses do not have concretely defined sustainability plans based on a long term strategy. Most Erasmus Mundus Master Courses - and some bilateral Joint Programmes as well – depend entirely on the generous scholarships offered by their sponsors, in order to attract non-European students. Their future existence depends heavily on this external funding. Most programmes are aware of the fact that EU funding will be discontinued sooner or later. Consequently they plan to apply for alternative funding (under EU or other international programmes) or switch over to a more market-driven approach, but this has not yet been put into practice.

In other joint programmes there is no interdependency with funding at all; given the fact that the topic of some joint programmes has a high strategic value and is guaranteed by high employment rates, these programmes can count on large numbers of tuition fee-paying students. Some Erasmus Mundus Master courses share the same situation. They attract a large number of European and non-European students, with or without scholarships. These joint programmes look very positively towards the future.

In order to remain sustainable, some joint programmes are organised only every other year; this keeps the costs under control and ensures a balance between supply and demand.

Joint programmes funded under the EU/US Atlantis programme hope to remain attractive to students beyond the funding period and in this way to be able to continue the cooperation without external funding.
PART III: CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

7. Conclusions

1. The challenges of managing a joint programme with non-European partners could be expected to increase proportionally to the partners’ distance. This seems hardly to be the case with the joint programmes investigated.

2. Instead of clear distinctions between European and non-European partners, personal bonds, close mentalities or familiarity with structures seem to be crucial.

3. Mutual trust and flexibility are inevitable conditions for a successful joint programme run with non-European partners.

4. Issues caused by educational differences are reduced when countries are included in EHEA and have implemented the Bologna principles.

5. Most joint programmes choose a pragmatic approach. Bilateral joint programmes and smaller consortia seem to cope with the issues better.

6. Although the Erasmus Mundus Master courses are characterised by a high level of integration, this remains a European concept, with little impact on the non-European partners (so far).

7. For the successful management of a joint programme, the coordinating university plays a crucial role in maintaining communication among the consortium.

8. No full costs are calculated; the sustainability of many joint programmes is directly connected to the availability of external funding for grants, in order to attract mostly non-European students. How sustainable is the Erasmus Mundus Master course model and the integration of non-European partners beyond the funding period?

9. Mobility: strong unbalances between European and non-European students are recorded in both student cohorts and incoming/outgoing student flows.

10. Scholarships: global mobility is in search of grants for non-European and European students alike. Preference is given to ‘a little to everybody’ rather than ‘a lot to few’!
8. Recommendations

1. Select partners with care. The more distant the cultures, the higher the impact. But good ties and familiarity with structures & cultural environment help. Ensure institutional commitment from all partner institutions right from the onset.

2. List and overcome possible legal differences and limitations from the start.

3. Discuss study workload and credit recognition, find a common ‘key’ for credit transfer.

4. Ensure that all communication channels are properly working. Check decision-making and autonomy levels.

5. Involve academic and administrative staff in management. Involve other university units, such as student support services, ICT, legal experts, international offices, where appropriate.

6. Draw up a sound partnership agreement before the start, defining all academic, managerial and financial arrangements.

7. Start to think of a sustainability plan at the start, rather than the end of the funding period.

8. Negotiate common elements for quality assurance and produce a quality assurance charter with clear arrangements on methods and procedures to be used by all partners.

9. Establish a steering committee within the partnership, in particular in larger consortia, with a clear division of tasks for communication, search for funding & calls, contacts with enterprises to facilitate employment of alumni, feedback for quality assurance and adjustment of the programme.

10. Data on the employability of the alumni of joint programmes (with non-European partners) is scarce. An information campaign targeting the business community on the added value of joint programmes and joint/double degrees is necessary. More research would be useful.
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BOOK 3

DEVELOPING AND MANAGING JOINT DOCTORAL PROGRAMMES

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES
Authors: Adeline Barre, Béatrice Delpouye, Boas Erez, Jonna Hänsel, María González, Gry Kibsgaard, Kanita Kovacevic, Raimonda Markeviciene, Kristina Miolin, Sara Pittarello, Christiane Wüllner
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REFERENCES AND FURTHER READINGS
Executive Summary

Joint curricula development has been a part of the internationalisation strategies of European universities for many years now. Despite the universities’ commitment, interest and accumulated experience, many managerial and administrative issues relating to such programmes still need to be addressed by identifying different approaches to challenges and sharing good practice.

The work carried out by the JOIMAN project called attention to a very important issue that generally tends to be underestimated – the added value of joint doctoral programmes. Even though there are many national differences in doctoral education, there is a general consensus that there should be no doctoral education without original research and that high quality doctoral programmes are crucial if Europe is to reach its research goals.

The 18 programmes examined by the JOIMAN project were developed to meet different institutional aims, such as strengthening research in a specific discipline, increasing the number of doctoral candidates, strengthening research activities with partners, and responding to international trends and the specific needs of countries/regions.

Firstly, joint doctorates allow candidates to be trained in specific fields of study that are not always available at an institution or in a country. Secondly, irrespective of whether they are based on ‘soft relations’ or a highly formal structure, joint doctorates built around European networks or international schools attract high profile doctoral candidates. This is because they provide an opportunity to experiment with different approaches to research, and thereby produce new knowledge.

The joint format of doctoral programmes improves the quality of doctorates by offering larger-scale services, mobility of scientists and diverse training opportunities and approaches. Because of their extensive use of interdisciplinary approaches, these programmes enable diversification in terms of types of facilities and the profile of young researchers.

The report highlights the indisputable added value such programmes have for the PhD candidates themselves. For doctoral students, the most important outcomes of joint programmes are: diversity of research through mobility and tutorship, access to job markets in different countries, links to research networks, the growth of multicultural and social awareness and the development of a broader range of transferable skills as well as personal development.

Choosing partners for joint doctoral programmes is crucial, and the study showed that the underlying rationale for several of these programmes is long-standing and intense scientific cooperation with partners. The JOIMAN project has found out that a clear organisational and managerial structure is a crucial factor in the success of these programmes. The study revealed that both the degree of integration and the structure of joint doctoral programmes depend on the main aim for the development of the programme. The degree of integration of the doctoral programme is closely linked to its aim. Hence, the organisation and aim of the programme are relatively interdependent. The study showed that, with regard to management structure, Erasmus Mundus Joint Doctorates (EMJD) differ greatly from other programmes that
are not funded through EM (Erasmus Mundus). All EMJD programmes have a similar management structure, while the other programmes use a variety of organisational models and have a multitude of organisational bodies that differ in scope and tasks. In non-EM-funded programmes with a high degree of jointness, administrative tasks tend to be handled at each institution. They only share responsibility for core scientific tasks such as research and courses. There is a substantial difference between EM-funded programmes and other programmes with regard to funding arrangements. Non-EM-funded programmes depend on several funding sources. However, EM-funded programmes also state that it is necessary to identify sources other than institutional ones in order to ensure the sustainability of the programmes. Funding arrangements are crucial in relation to dealing with the challenges of integrating all the elements involved in joint programmes. There is a need for strong investment at the European level, according to the majority of coordinators. Despite the growing interest in and popularity of joint programmes, statutory provisions relating to such programmes remain scarce at the national level. The study reveals that the difficulties mainly relate to joint degree diplomas, the academic calendar, visa requirements, the employment of doctoral candidates and requirements concerning tuition and admission.
Introduction

Those involved in the development of this report are administrators from 15 universities in Europe and three Erasmus Mundus National Contact Points, all part of the JOIMAN project. The JOIMAN project was divided into thematic task forces and work packages that worked separately under the coordination of a steering committee.

Since this is the second part of the JOIMAN project, some of the material and the terminology developed during the first part of the project were used in this report. The report is based on information about joint doctoral programmes gathered through a call for papers and a self-evaluation exercise with follow-up site visits.

The joint doctoral programmes that are part of the study were chosen from among the partners in the JOIMAN project. All programmes that received funding from the first EMJD call were invited to take part in the study. In addition, some programmes that have been running for some years without specific joint programme funding, such as EM, were also included. The first joint doctoral programme funded by Erasmus Mundus started in 2010. A lot of the information gathered therefore came from programmes that are in an early stage of the process. Consequently, they mostly shared experience from the development phase. In addition to exploring the management and development of joint doctoral programmes, the task force has chosen to focus on research opportunities and research collaborations that form the basis for the development of the joint programmes included in the study. The study shows that there is diversity in relation to the concept of joint doctoral programmes, and we therefore use the concept in a broad sense here in the report. The programmes included in the study all fall under the category JOINT PROGRAMMES based on the definition from the JOIMAN glossary: A study programme developed and/or provided jointly by two or more higher education institutions, possibly also in cooperation with other institutions, leading to the award of a double, multiple or joint degree.

2.1 The report

The final report, Developing and Managing Joint Doctoral Programmes – Challenges and Opportunities, aims to describe the challenges and possibilities, and provide guidance for those who wish to establish a joint doctoral programme. It also aims to be a useful tool for those already running a joint doctoral programme. It should serve as a reference work and a catalogue of issues to be considered when dealing with joint doctoral programmes.

While the focus of the report is largely on the aims/outcomes of the programmes, it also includes administrative structures and takes into consideration the different types of joint doctoral programmes, such as:

1. International collaboration
2. Individual doctoral Programmes
3. Joint doctoral programmes
4. Joint doctoral degrees

The final report describes the various challenges and opportunities involved in developing and running a joint doctoral programme. The report identifies the factors
that influence the degree of jointness of each of the different types of joint programmes, and investigates the correlation between jointness and the quality of the programmes.

Important issues are dealt with separately and in greater detail, for example:

- Partnerships
- The level of integration/cooperation in terms of research/educational cooperation
- Formal training and courses
- Theses and defence
- Supervision/monitoring
- Organisational structure
- The degree of cooperation with potential employers and job opportunities
- Admission
- Various legal obstacles at different levels
- Funding

The report explores the difficulties and challenges related to these issues, but it also offers some possible solutions. However the report does not attempt to impose solutions and say what is good or bad, but simply identifies different factors and their correlation with various important issues involved in joint programmes at doctoral level.

The report offers several possible roads to choose from when developing and running a joint doctoral programme.
1. Study Methods

The plan for the study involved the application of several methods of collecting information. The working group that conducted the study comprised representatives from institutions with experience in running joint doctoral programmes, and the study could thus draw on wide-ranging experience and competence in the field. In addition to reading existing literature and policy documents about the topic, several methods were used to gather information and experience from diverse joint doctoral programmes.

1.1 Call for Papers

The call for papers invited scientific staff, young researchers and administrators from higher education institutions with experience of developing and managing joint programmes at doctoral level to submit papers. The papers were intended to highlight key issues relating to joint doctoral programmes on the policy as well as the development and management level. They were also intended to serve as a key resource for institutions, administrators and scientific staff engaged in presenting and analysing the impact of joint programmes at doctoral level in the EHEA and other parts of the world. Five papers of high quality and relevance were submitted by European universities (the Faculty of Physics, University of Iasi, Romania; the University of Rome Sapienza, Italy; the University of Edinburgh, Scotland, UK; Mykolas Romeris University, Lithuania; Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona), and the selection committee, which consisted of three members from three partner universities, selected the paper submitted by Prof. Annamaria Silvana De Rosa (Research Centre and Multimedia Lab, University of Rome Sapienza, Italy) describing ‘The joint European/International Doctorate on social representations and communication’, which was presented at the Second International Seminar on Joint Degrees – Antwerp on 26 March 2010. In addition, the paper from the University of Edinburgh was presented at the final JOIMAN conference in Vilnius on 28 October 2010.

1.2 Self-Evaluation Exercise and Study Visits

In order to produce an informative final report with reliable information describing challenges and opportunities, the work package members decided to base their report on a self-evaluation exercise among selected joint doctoral programmes and on study visits/interviews.

The study aimed to find out how the different joint doctoral programmes were developed and administered, including issues such as organisational structure, the degree of jointness, solutions for funding, the issuing of diplomas etc.

1.3 Selection

The first step was to identify joint doctoral programmes in Europe. The joint doctoral programmes that are part of Erasmus Mundus Action 1 and funded by the EU
Commission were easily identified. The problem is that the majority of these collaborations have just started, which meant that many of the issues addressed in this survey were impossible for the consortia to answer at this point. Several programmes were identified by asking members of the JOIMAN network to send a list of programmes at their institution or in partner institutions. A few programmes were located by searching the internet. The list was then compiled and again distributed to the network, with the result that a few more programmes were added. It was important to include a certain number of the Erasmus Mundus Joint Doctoral Programmes in addition to programmes not funded through this programme in order to see whether the funding source influences issues relevant to joint doctoral programmes. The programmes studied will not be named in the report. It is impossible to fully acknowledge all programmes, since they have been running for very different lengths of time and a comparison of individual programmes would therefore not be appropriate. The analysis and results presented in the report represent trends, and the object of the study is in no sense to compare the quality of the programmes.

1.4 Self-evaluation – Questionnaire

Through the self-evaluation, selected programmes were invited to take part in the identification of challenges and good practices. The aim of the self-evaluation was to identify best practices in running the programmes. The questionnaire contained 10 ‘golden’ questions that were sent to 15 PhD programmes. The self-evaluation report had particular focus on challenges relating to the creation, development, implementation and running of joint doctoral programmes. It covered issues such as organisational structure, recruitment/admission, supervision, instruction and courses/training, research, monitoring/reporting, theses/defence of theses. The self-evaluation form was only sent to the coordinators of the joint doctoral programmes, and not to all partners in the programmes. The self-evaluation endeavoured to explore what the coordinators of the programmes saw as best practices in the running and development of joint doctoral programmes.

1.5 Study Visits

The members of the work package decided to undertake a series of study visits aimed at collecting more information about various research-related issues that were identified as crucial to the success of joint doctoral programmes. The site visits, which included an interview with the coordinator of the joint doctoral programme, used a template for data collection. A review of various handbooks and/or reports was also included.

1.6 Limitations

The study has a number of limitations that must be considered when reading it:

1. The study relies on a self-report method of data collection as it had only two main sources of information on the development and management of joint
doctoral programmes: self-evaluation reports and interviews conducted during the site visits. The results represent the perceptions of those who chose to take part in the study.

2. The responses only represent the coordinator’s view of the joint doctoral programme in question. The study only includes the opinions and views of the coordinators and not of all involved partners and PhD candidates. This is a weakness in relation to the reliability of the responses obtained to the questions asked in the self-evaluation exercise and during the interviews. Our study is thus a compilation of descriptions of respondents’ own practices and experiences of developing and running joint doctoral programmes.

3. An additional limitation on the study’s ability to report outcomes is the relatively short time that most of the joint doctoral programmes have been operational. Several of the joint doctoral programmes included have only recently started up and have no graduates so far. Many of the respondents could not really provide answers to some of the issues concerning outcomes, but they were able to provide input about the problems or solutions relating to the development of programmes. Even though a limited number of the joint doctoral programmes have a longer ‘history’, long-term tracking of outcomes is not yet available.

4. The response rate is rather low. Thirty-two coordinators of joint doctoral programmes were approached and asked to take part in the self-evaluation exercise. We have received only six responses, and they were partly incomplete. The response rate for the self-evaluation exercise is only around 19%.

Despite the limitations mentioned here, the study includes 19 joint doctoral programmes from which a lot of information was gathered. The report is thereby based on experiences from these programmes as presented in papers, self-evaluations, study visits and literature on the topic of joint doctoral programmes.
4. Different Types of Joint Doctoral Programmes

While European universities have been involved in joint programme development since the 1980s, the Erasmus Mundus Programme has brought a substantial change in the ‘philosophy’ behind joint programme creation and administration, focusing on the use of consortia, and didactical and administrative integration. Through the papers, self-evaluations and study visits, it became clear that most of the joint doctoral programmes had come into being through different types of cooperation development. The types of international cooperation we were able to identify in the programmes are characterised by varying degrees of jointness and formalisation of the different activities on which the cooperation is based. There is a clear difference in the degree of jointness and integration between joint doctoral programmes funded through Erasmus Mundus and those that are not. The criteria for Erasmus Mundus Joint Doctorates (EMJD) entail a high degree of jointness and integration in all aspects of the cooperation at doctoral level. Few of the joint doctoral programmes with no EM funding had a high degree of integration or jointness in all activities.

The different types of joint doctoral programmes were based on the following characteristics:

1. **International collaboration on doctoral education**: There is little or no structure in relation to research cooperation and/or student/staff exchanges. A low degree of formalisation of cooperation, may share a few common activities in relation to research, but without integrated courses as part of the actual programme.

2. **Individual doctoral programmes**: e.g. cotutelle, including formalisation of cooperation around one or several candidates.

3. **Joint doctoral programmes**: A doctoral programme developed and/or provided by two or more higher education institutions, possibly also in cooperation with other institutions, leading to the awarding of a double, multiple or joint degree.

4. **Joint doctoral degree programme**: A joint doctoral programme leading to the awarding of a joint degree issued jointly by two or more higher education institutions.

Each of the types of programme presented above involves various challenges and opportunities in relation to collaboration on doctoral education. They differ in the degree of integration and jointness of the various activities they cooperate on. The different types of programmes also reflect how doctoral education is structured. Most of the joint doctoral programmes studied offer courses as part of their joint programme. Others have common research fields as the core of their programme and thus have less structure and integration in relation to activities such as courses. Although there are different ways of structuring and developing joint doctoral programmes, they all share the characteristic of having a certain amount of integration or jointness of activities in connection with doctoral education. These differences do not imply that one degree of integration is better than another. The differences between the types of programme relate to a scale of jointness but not necessarily of quality, as the quality of the programme depends on factors such as research quality, the people involved, legal constraints etc. The degree of integration is thus simply a marker used to distinguish between the different types and ways of organising a joint doctoral programme.
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<th>Activities</th>
<th>Type of joint doctoral programme cooperation</th>
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<th>Individual programmes Cotutelle agreements</th>
<th>Joint doctoral programme</th>
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The degree of jointness is clearly connected to the type of joint doctorate programme. The study showed that this is the case for several aspects of the different programmes. In order to identify the programmes’ degree of jointness, the study focused on the integrational aspects of partnerships, courses, supervision, research, selection/admission, monitoring/reporting, quality assurance and degree structure. In addition, an analysis was carried out of the degree of jointness in relation to cooperation mechanisms, such as joint steering committees and evaluation boards, and the extent to which decisions on admission and evaluation were collective. It was clear that the doctoral programmes either have research or courses, or both, as the joint core of their programme. Research proved to be the most important joint element in the programmes. This is probably due to the fact that most of the joint doctoral programmes were based on previous research cooperation. However, the study showed that it is perfectly feasible to run a joint doctoral programme that is only organised around joint courses or training activities and where all candidates end up with a one-institution doctoral degree. There is thus great variety in the field of joint doctoral programmes.
4.1 Joint Doctoral Programmes – in brief

4.1.1 International collaboration exchanges

In international collaboration exchanges, most of the research cooperation takes place between few partners. The research collaborations are not formalised and they tend to be centred on a handful of people who know each other from the international research scene. They engage in a steady interchange of ideas and share common research interests through visits and research stays at each others’ institutions. The collaboration does not have a formal structure, there is very little formalisation, and there is rarely joint funding for projects. Within this type of joint doctoral venture, there may be some joint funding for networking and exchanges among staff and doctoral candidates, but with little or no formalisation. Several of the joint doctoral programmes reported that their programme started out on the basis of such loosely structured collaboration, and later developed into a more structured programme. This type of collaboration is nevertheless included here, as it is an important precursor of many of the joint doctoral programmes we studied. It is also perfectly feasible to have a loosely organised ‘programme’ based on exchanges of staff and doctoral candidates. This is described here as an international collaboration exchange, since it is loosely organised and not part of a structured programme of joint courses or other joint training elements.

4.1.2 Individual doctoral programmes – cotutelle agreements

The joint supervision agreements normally referred to as cotutelle agreements are increasingly being utilised by higher education institutions to formalise joint supervision of one candidate by two institutions that award doctoral degrees. It emerged from the study that several joint doctoral programmes use a cotutelle agreement as part of their organisational structure. They have a consortium agreement for the whole joint doctoral programme and a cotutelle agreement for each individual candidate. This makes it possible to have large consortiums with several partners, where cotutelle agreements between two partners are used for individual doctoral candidates. While the cotutelle agreement can only be used for joint supervision, it can also regulate other elements of doctoral education, such as which courses and other training activities the doctoral candidate is expected to complete. It is possible to use a cotutelle agreement in partnerships that award a joint degree or double degree, and they have also been used in cases where one institution awards the degree, while the diploma merely states that the degree has been awarded on the basis of joint supervision based on a cotutelle agreement.

4.1.3 Joint doctoral programmes

A joint doctoral programme is a programme developed by several higher education institutions, where the programme is provided by more than one institution. The majority of the programmes are both developed and provided by a group of higher education institutions. These programmes have a high level of formalisation. While the candidates can be jointly funded, they can also be formally affiliated to, and funded by, one of the universities. In such case, the ‘jointness’ is visible in regards with supervision related to which institutions they take their courses and spend their study period.
The majority of the Erasmus Mundus Joint Doctoral Programmes fall under this category. They include formalised arrangements for where the doctoral candidates spend their time and how they move between institutions. While the joint programmes jointly develop and execute the programme, they lead to double or multiple degrees. This is sometimes by choice, but mostly it is because legislation makes it impossible for the partners to issue a joint degree. More and more countries in Europe are changing their legislation (Sweden 2010, the Netherlands 2010) and can, if they wish, develop joint doctoral degree programmes leading to joint doctoral degrees.

4.1.4 Joint doctoral degree programmes

A joint doctoral degree programme is a structured programme where all the elements of doctoral education are run jointly and the organisational structure and evaluation processes are managed on the basis of full integration of the partners. As they have been developed and run jointly, such programmes are integrated programmes that lead to one degree – a joint degree. These programmes have a high degree of integration in all aspects of running the joint programme. They are joint doctoral programmes, the only difference being that the programmes lead to one degree only. This means that the institutions involved award the degree jointly. The programme leads to a joint degree with one diploma (and diploma supplement). Largely because of legislative obstacles, this is not very common, and the survey found only one programme that issues a joint degree only. Some of the consortiums awarded a mixture of joint degrees and double degrees depending on the different laws that applied to the partners.

4.1.5 Differences in the Degree of Jointness

All the joint doctoral programmes have varying degrees of jointness in how they run programmes. The degree of jointness can be related to the funding of the programme, as EM has introduced several criteria for running a joint doctoral programme that require a high degree of jointness in all activities. However, if we look at joint doctoral programmes with no-EM funding, we see that they have a lower degree of jointness. While this may be due to the lack of joint funding, they also have a tendency to organise the joint programme around the activities that are deemed to be the most important to the partners: joint research and joint courses. The majority of the programmes are strongly research-driven, and their development goes through different stages of research cooperation, each stage formalising more activities as part of the cooperation. The degree of jointness is thus closely related to funding but also to the stage of development of the research cooperation. Changes in critical mass may correlate with the development stages, whereby higher numbers of doctoral candidates seem to require more structured administration and funding. Several of the programmes included in the study are concentrated around a handful of doctoral candidates. This clearly shows how the completion of joint degrees is strongly related to the individual cotutelle agreements, which are based on well-established research cooperation between the partners. Joint doctoral programmes use different ways of solving the administrative and legal issues. However, the strongest criteria for succeeding were clearly the quality of the research cooperation and the common research field shared by the partners in the programme.
5. Issues to be considered when developing and managing Joint Doctoral Programmes

5.1 Partnerships

The data gathered show that joint doctoral programmes are mainly offered by universities accredited to award doctoral degrees. When establishing a consortium to run a joint doctoral programme, the selection of partners is always a challenge for the initiating institution(s). The self-evaluations reports and study visits showed that most of the joint doctoral programmes are collaborations involving between two and five institutions. They are mainly European universities, with only a few non-European higher education institutions. Overall, the number of partners varies between two and 24.

**How many partner institutions are in the consortium of the joint doctoral programme?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Partners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most joint doctoral programmes have developed from **long-standing research cooperation** and/or academic networks with **research as their core joint interest**. Few of the programmes sprang from previous educational cooperation; however, those that did were partnerships with long-standing cooperation on both research and education. Joint research interests are mentioned by most programmes as the core of the cooperation, and also the main reason for establishing a joint doctoral programme.

**What kind of agreement is the partnership in the joint doctoral programme based on?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilateral agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consortium agreement of several partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix of bilateral and consortium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A few partners already had good experience of collaboration on running a joint Master’s programme. They decided to develop a joint doctoral programme as a natural next step. It is evident that personal ties have a great influence on the creation of joint doctorate programmes.

Other reasons for the selection of partners can be observed, however, such as outstanding international experience and reputation of (potential) partners, a common
interest in the same research fields, and the existence of compatible national systems that would facilitate the development and management of a joint doctoral programme. Moreover, some partners were chosen very carefully as follows: the initiating institutions decided to search for partner institutions on the basis of their outstanding publication record and their scientific production in the research field, their research environment, training facilities, and the fact that their research teams were able to offer excellent supervision for doctoral candidates.

All in all, a number of good practices seem to have been identified. If a university wishes to start a new international joint doctoral programme and to run it successfully, it would have to look for partners among higher education institutions with compatible or at least complementary scientific interests, and a strong administrative and teaching staff. As regards the selection of partners and the organisational structure of a joint doctoral programme, limiting the number of partners involved in making decisions is very important. It is also important to have a clear definition and division of responsibility between the partners. Cooperating institutions should be aware of the importance of regular communication and frequent meetings as well as the ability to involve both academic and administrative staff in the programme by identifying a clear role for all staff involved.

In addition, potential partner institutions should be able to offer a wide range of suitable courses to doctoral candidates, to present an appropriate organisational structure and be in a sound financial situation. With respect to the latter point in particular, institutions that intend to develop a new joint doctoral programme ought to consider including partners from the business community (depending on the research field, of course). Companies from the business sector could make a financial contribution to the programme, and to the activities it involves, i.e. they could support doctoral candidates by providing scholarships for them etc. In addition, candidates would have an opportunity to form connections with them and gain practical experience. Including companies as partners would entail opportunities for internships for doctoral candidates during their PhD programme. The candidates could find a job more easily if they had already been in contact with industry through their research project. For this purpose, it would be excellent to have a person who coordinates exchanges between universities and industry/business employers, and who can be continuously in touch with supporting companies and make frequent visits to companies in order to promote the programme, organise internships and seminars, raise additional funding/sponsorship, and create strong links between the universities' programme and the business community. One of the institutions could be appointed as 'brand manager', and have a person serving as coordinator between the programme and industry. This would be a good practice in the running of joint doctoral programmes. Apart from companies from the industrial sector, organisations and other potential employers could be included. All partners form a network that could be useful to doctoral candidates, a unique international network and forum for leading researchers and companies in the relevant field. The best way to guarantee the future employment of doctoral candidates is to assure them a high publication record at the end of the programme, to give them opportunities to meet researchers in their field at international conferences, to present their research at conferences and enable them to spend time at two different labs at least (mobility!). The study reflected this to a certain extent, although only a few programmes have been running long enough to produce more than a few candidates.

In the study, about a third of the partnerships are based on bilateral agreements, while the rest are based on a consortium agreement involving several partners. One
of the partnerships was based on a consortium agreement between several partners, although it used bilateral agreements between two institutions to organise cooperation on shared candidates. This meant they had an overall cooperation agreement for cooperation on research and doctoral education, and bilateral agreements for individual doctoral candidates. The variations show that there are several viable structures for joint doctoral partnerships. The degree of jointness of partnerships does not relate so much to the quantity of partners in the consortium, but to the extent to which the partners have divided the activities among themselves and the degree to which responsibility for the activities is joint or dispersed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partnerships</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilateral agreements</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consortium of several partners</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous research cooperation</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous other cooperation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.1 5.1.1 Challenges and Opportunities

- When setting up a new joint doctoral programme, partners should be selected very carefully. It is relevant to give consideration to common research interests, the research environment and available training facilities, the number of partners and their sources/background. Judging by the self-evaluation reports and study visits, many partners were chosen as a result of previous cooperation and common scientific interests. The integration of industrial (associated) partners could be important with regard to the financing and sustainability of joint doctoral programmes, as well as doctoral candidates’ future careers. It is important to be clear about the number of partners to be included and also about whether industrial partners should be integrated.

- The study shows that it is a challenge in itself to run a joint doctoral programme with a large consortium of partners without a certain amount of joint responsibility for the programme’s core activity. Having a large number of partners requires a more structured organisation and management. This is not surprising, but it shows how demanding it is in terms of joint management structures to run joint doctoral programmes when several institutions are involved.

- The most important challenges to overcome are the institutional ones and/or national requirements and regulations relating to doctoral degrees. These challenges are very tangible when running joint doctoral programmes and the PhD candidates will sometimes have to comply with several institutions’ rules and regulations, leading to a double workload. This should be avoided.

- When selecting partners, institutions should be aware of the future organisational structure, and the role of each partner in the programme/consortium. The number of partners who need to be involved in
decision-making should be limited. It is important to clearly define and agree on the division of responsibility between the partners.

- Cooperating institutions should be aware of the importance of regular communication within each institution and among partners and of holding frequent meetings (face-to-face or by video conference), as well as the importance of involving both academic and administrative staff in the programme. A clear role should be identified for each person involved.

- Finally, when choosing appropriate partners, institutions should take into consideration that all partners should have a sound financial situation.

- A decision to set up a joint doctoral programme is one of the options the partners can explore for their joint venture. Several consortiums have opted to use cotutelle agreements. By using this form of agreement, it is possible to design special solutions for each candidate, and for the partners involved in training a particular candidate. For example, in one consortium some partners may not be able to award joint degrees. Some of the PhD candidates could nevertheless obtain joint degrees from this programme by using a cotutelle agreement between the institutions that will be directly involved with that particular candidate.

- When developing a joint doctoral programme, partners should be chosen who represent an important add-on and added value for the programme. The core of the programme, be it joint research or joint courses (which is the main reason for the establishment of a joint doctorate programme), could be decisive in relation to the structure of the programme. It is not necessary to have a fully integrated joint programme if the goal is only to organise courses together. One can still organise courses together, but award only one institutional PhD degree. As the study also showed, it is fully possible to establish a joint doctoral programme in which both partners award a degree. The PhD candidates are thus awarded double degrees.
5.2 Research – Formal Training – Courses – Theses – Defence

With respect to the implementation of research, formal training, available courses, theses and their defence, various models can be identified by scrutinising the self-evaluation reports and the questionnaires from study visits. Developing a joint doctoral programme can entail different levels of integration of research and training programmes. The main rule for the organisation of research and/or educational cooperation among partners is that there are various possible approaches. They range from:

- greater autonomy of partners in the selection of topics and interrelated activities, to
- a jointly codified educational/research programme, planned in advance and implemented by all partner institutions.

In this context, it is worth quoting the view expressed by one of the respondents, according to whom ‘common research projects and common courses are important factors in the design of joint doctoral programmes. They constitute the material basis which identifies a group of universities working on the same project. Without a common theme for all the centres, regular meetings and homogenous evaluation criteria, it is quite difficult to concretize a shared course.’

5.2.1 Research and Courses (lectures)

The core of jointness is cooperation on research, the sharing of research facilities and creating and running courses (lectures) together. The programmes that have been explored through the self-evaluation reports and study visits focus on each candidate’s research project, often combining it with mandatory formal training/courses that are only available at this particular institution or that are only offered at partner institutions once they have been developed jointly.

A high degree of integration was found in doctoral programmes where research and educational activities were codified beforehand.

A difference was observed with regard to the nature of research projects (joint vs. individual). Half of the programmes report that they share joint research projects and that the candidates are admitted to a programme with a clear research scope decided by the consortium. This difference is not only due to the degree of jointness of the programme, but also to traditions within the different scientific fields, where hard sciences often tend to be more team-oriented in their research than soft sciences. The study also found a clear connection between the structuring of courses and research and the different funding schemes. EM-funded programmes tend to organise most of the activities jointly, whereas non-EM-funded programmes are more diverse in relation to the jointness of their activities.
How are research projects organized?

In addition to these programmes with a higher level of integration, some programmes are organised separately at each partner university, and there is a **high level of autonomy** in relation to the doctoral candidates' research work and training courses. In some of the cases observed, partners opt for greater autonomy in the choice of activities when they wish to further strengthen already existing relations – the predominant focus being on long-standing scientific cooperation. This partial autonomy can sometimes make it difficult for doctoral candidates to follow the required activities at their home institutions while staying at the partner institution, because similar activities are not offered by the partner institution.

In addition to, or sometimes instead of, joint courses, partners organise an annual joint summer school and/or joint conferences or seminars for all doctoral candidates in the relevant research fields. They also invite guest speakers from partner institutions to give talks and lectures. If there are no joint courses, existing partners are normally kept informed about the activities of the other partner or partners.

Laboratory-based programmes may not include joint courses, since the aim of the research cooperation is to establish new practices and state-of-the-art research methods, and candidates are required to present their own projects.

In many joint doctoral programmes, all activities have to be approved by a Joint Committee/Joint Scientific Board every year. Some programmes are certified for ECTS credits (research activities, courses and seminars, or only the latter), while others do not use ECTS in their joint doctoral programme on the grounds that the doctorate should not be ECTS-certified since it consists of pure research work.

Do you apply credits (ECTS) to the courses?

The study showed that programmes that are organised around research have a tendency to apply institutional rules for the acknowledgement of courses. The EM-funded joint programmes, however, tended to have established joint regulations for the acknowledgement of courses. The choice of partners and the pivotal aims of the joint doctoral programme exert a great influence on the way the research/educational programme is drafted, organised and implemented. Reference to the scientific and didactic programme can be made in general terms in the consortium agreement and more specifically in the individual doctoral agreements for each candidate in the programme.

**5.2.2 Example of Good Practice**

In this study, the highest integration level in scientific and didactic programmes was seen in one specific case. It is worth describing in brief here as an example of good
practices. Candidates enrolled in this doctoral programme enjoy multiple supervision and take part in face-to-face individual and small-group mentoring activities. The latter are integrated with an open learning system and structured individual and collective international mobility among trainees and teaching staff, and candidates have an opportunity to ‘learn by doing’ in both academic and non-academic settings. Synergies are realised in scientific cooperation, not only at the institutional level, but also at the level of individuals or research groups located on different continents. The combination of an international scientific network, a joint doctoral programme and enterprise partners results in an integrated physical and virtual campus that ensures the highest quality in advanced research training. The interlocking system of virtual and physical mobility provides opportunities for extensive fieldwork, applied research and the acquisition of transferable skills. The candidates thus have an opportunity to belong to a joint programme. They all share the same research infrastructure platform, and have flexibility to choose their own research and mobility paths. The programme leads to a joint degree that is awarded jointly by all institutions in the consortium.

### 5.2.3 Theses and their Defence, the Diploma

The thesis committees are largely joint committees in all the joint doctoral programmes studied. Theses are evaluated by a defence or joint committee or an international evaluation board comprising members from at least two partner institutions in addition to external experts. In a few of the programmes, they have opted to appoint a committee from more than two partner institutions, in addition to external referees. Very few programmes organise this at the institutional level alone. Half of the programmes report that they only use professors within the consortium to evaluate theses. Half of the programmes jointly decide the evaluation of theses. However, the thesis committees are supplemented by external competence from outside the consortium.

#### Which rules apply for the evaluation of and requirements for the thesis?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Joint defence committee</th>
<th>Institutional defence committee</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jointly decided requirements and criteria</td>
<td>58.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional requirements and regulations apply</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 14 2 12

The study found that theses are most commonly written in the language of the home university in accordance with the national or local regulations. In other programmes, most of the work is usually presented in English.

The **defence** of the thesis often takes place in public and in front of a defence committee/joint committee/international evaluation board at one of the partner institutions, usually at the home university, in accordance with national and local regulations and rules. This joint defence committee is composed of the candidate’s
supervisors (in most cases two supervisors/tutor and co-tutor) and members appointed by the partner institutions, who may be experts from outside the consortium.

**Quality assurance systems** are reported to be the responsibility of the individual institutions and not a responsibility that is shared by the partners jointly. However, in relation to the supervision and evaluation of theses, most programmes had joint committees and made joint decisions. As reported in the self-evaluations, quality assurance systems do not seem to be jointly developed and implemented, and the evaluation of theses and supervision of candidates is not seen as part of the joint programmes’ quality assurance system.

The study shows that there are diverse options for the diploma/certificate. In about 50% of the programmes, all partners can award a joint doctoral degree. Since there are still some partner institutions that, due to national laws, are unable to award a joint degree, some of the programmes have a mixture of joint degrees and double degrees. All the programmes studied consider themselves to be joint doctoral programmes, and this is stated on the diplomas or on a supplementary document to the diploma.

**What kind of degree does the programme offer?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Degree</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joint degree</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double degree</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional degree only</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixture of all</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study clearly shows that it is perfectly feasible to run a joint doctoral programme without awarding a joint degree and one diploma only. The current legal obstacles prevent some of the programmes from awarding a joint degree. Since many of the doctoral programmes studied are organised individually for each researcher, and the researcher ends up with either a double degree or a single degree with a diploma stating the joint nature of the programme, the study shows that joint doctoral programmes succeed in terms of their jointness without actually issuing a final joint diploma. The collaboration on research is seen as being of greater value to the programmes and the candidates than a diploma stating the competence of the candidate.

Experience from the joint programmes reveals different approaches:

a) Universities award a joint diploma issued in English that is a single certificate and is legally valid in all participating countries.

b) Universities jointly award a diploma plus an additional certificate explaining the joint doctoral programme.

c) Universities award a double degree/mixed degree, where the candidate receives a diploma from each of the institutions at which the he or she has been supervised and/or spent a shorter period conducting research and taking courses. The diplomas are thus interdependent and seen as a representing a joint degree/double degree.
5.2.4 Challenges and Opportunities

- When developing a joint doctoral programme, partner institutions should take the structure of the programme into consideration and clarify:
  - The role of the research project/the role of formal training
  - The ratio between research and training courses in the programme
  - Joint research projects and their development
  - The organisation of common courses, lectures, conferences and seminars
  - Guest speakers from partner institutions
  - The integration of mobility periods into the programme
  - Whether or not ECTS will apply.

- Whether or not partner institutions decide to conduct joint research projects and/or hold joint training courses, the ongoing communication between partners is crucial. The need for continuous mutual exchange of information about activities at each partner institution in the joint doctoral programme should be self-evident.

- When establishing a joint doctoral programme, the partners must identify at an early stage whether the core of the joint activities will be joint research or joint courses, or both. For some partners, joint courses will not be of interest, as some doctoral programmes in Europe do not have courses as part of their doctoral education. If the joint doctoral programme is established with courses as the core joint activity, then there are several accreditation rules that need to be taken into consideration in order for the joint courses to be acknowledged as part of the PhD degree at the home institution.

- In the cases where the institutions within a joint programme have greater autonomy, it may be difficult for the candidates to take part in the activities at the home institution and the partner institutions, since they are neither jointly planned nor mutually recognised. Some candidates thus end up with a double workload, and there is a potential conflict between the didactic programme provided by the home university and that available at the partner HEIs.

- Structuring a joint doctoral programme around joint courses can be a good way of integrating doctoral candidates and an excellent way of developing strong training opportunities for the partners in the consortium. In addition, it is easier to plan mobility arrangements in relation to joint activities such as courses.

- In order to integrate the courses as part of the joint doctoral programme it is important to define which credit system to use and whether courses should be accredited as part of the doctoral training. The important thing is that the decision on how to integrate courses is a joint decision and that the same rule applies to all institutions in the consortium.

- A clear definition of didactic and scientific programmes could make relations more sustainable and bring significant benefits for candidates, the institutions themselves and research areas. Collaborative research and joint supervision are seen as an effective means of developing academic cooperation between
partner universities. It is important to clearly define the aim of developing a joint programme. The study also showed that it is possible to realise the same synergies in training and research through a handful of individual *cotutelle* agreements as through a fully integrated joint doctoral programme.

- Joint training courses for doctoral candidates do not only have to be scientific courses. They can also include activities and training in more generic skills such as language courses, courses in didactics, methodology, training in complementary skills such as solicitation training, presentations skills, personal effectiveness etc. Strengthening candidates’ generic skills, adds further qualifications and increases candidates’ future employability. Partner institutions should define which obligatory training courses will be jointly developed, and it should be defined whether they will be offered at each partner institution or only at certain partner institutions. The issue of (mandatory) mobility would thereby be given much more emphasis.

- The study showed that the writing of theses and their defence often take place at one institution (mostly at the home institution), but with the involvement of a joint committee that includes members from all partner institutions and sometimes experts from outside the partnership. This model seems to be a successful one, and it is used by nearly all joint doctoral programmes the JOIMAN project investigated. However, future partner institutions can discuss and arrive at other arrangements in new joint doctorate programmes.

- The issue of the diploma awarded on the basis of a joint doctoral programme is a diverse one; the problem is due both to legislative constraints and to the interests of the institutions involved in the joint venture. At the moment, as described above, there are different ways of solving it. It will remain a challenge in future to overcome the obstacles in national and local regulations and enable a fully integrated joint degree to be awarded.
5.3 Supervision – Monitoring – Reporting

5.3.1 Supervision

The self-evaluations and study visit reports demonstrate that the supervision of doctoral candidates, as one of the core joint activities of programmes, is often carried out as joint supervision, mostly by two persons under a cotutelle agreement: one supervisor at the home institution and one at the partner institution, i.e. doctoral candidates spend some of the joint doctoral programme period and carry out research and training activities under the supervision of the local mentor.

**Do you apply the individual candidate agreement such as the cotutelle agreement in the programme?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Joint supervision</th>
<th>One institution supervisor only</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>53.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only a few joint doctoral programmes offer their doctoral candidates multiple supervision by teams of three supervisors/tutors from partner institutions from three different countries. This model seems to be fairly rare at present.

**Does the evaluation and defence committee contain external members?**

For some programmes, joint supervision was the basis for the development of the programme. Several researchers had cooperated on research with several doctoral candidates for some years before they decided to structure this cooperation as a joint doctoral programme.

The study shows that there are a few programmes that do not use joint supervision and only have one supervisor for each doctoral candidate. These programmes tend to emphasise joint supervision as a common task that only applies during the training phase and not in connection with the candidate’s research project. Hence, a formalised system of two supervisors was found in fewer programmes than expected.
Many programmes require the doctoral candidates to sign an individual training plan/career development plan and a detailed work plan with a chart and timeline when entering the programme. In addition, they also sign a supervisory contract/supervision agreement with their supervisors. The supervisory contract specifies the arrangements concerning the content of the doctoral programme and summarises all topics relating to research, training and supervision during the whole programme period.

5.3.2 Monitoring and Reporting

The findings from the self-evaluation reports and study visits show that regular monitoring and reporting play an important role in relation to the success of joint doctoral programmes. The types of monitoring and reporting vary, ranging from weekly meetings of doctoral candidates based on a progress report at which they have to present their research activities, to interviews with doctoral candidates conducted every three months by one supervisor to monitor their progress. Other programmes require doctoral candidates to submit a report twice a month to a Scientific Board, which evaluates their work. Other candidates only have to submit a detailed report at the end of each year as an interim evaluation. In such cases, an Evaluation Committee/Evaluation Panel or Monitoring Board appointed by the consortium evaluates the candidate’s progress. Some programmes stated that monitoring activity is a very good opportunity to get to know people involved in the programme. Holding meetings (summer schools for example) twice a year at two of the three partner institutions in a joint doctorate programme is another way of monitoring doctoral candidates’ development. Doctoral candidates present their projects at these events. This gives them an opportunity to discuss their research and improve their projects. One joint doctoral programme in particular is worth presenting in more detail as it has developed several tools for monitoring and reporting. In addition to general tools, such as regular progress reports submitted by the doctoral candidates and oral presentations at meetings, this programme allowed candidates to report progress via video conferences or to submit reports on a web-based system (intranet) owned by the joint doctoral programme. In addition, supervisors/tutors give face-to-face and online evaluations of candidates’ progress. The doctoral candidates themselves also complete evaluation forms for each scientific event they attend.

5.3.3 Challenges and Opportunities

- The joint supervision model involving several supervisors (at least two, but this depends on the number of partners in the consortium, of course) seems to work well. When developing a joint doctoral programme, partner institutions should discuss different models for joint supervision.
The supervision agreement/contract between the doctoral candidate and the supervisors is an important tool and document about which the partner institutions should agree.

A clear division of tasks at the institutional, departmental and individual level is important, especially with regard to the role of supervisor. The supervisor’s role should be clearly defined, enabling supervisors to concentrate exclusively on the supervision of research/training. Many supervisors still have to deal with a lot of administrative issues relating to joint programmes and mobility, which wastes important time and energy that should primarily be spent on research and the supervision of the candidates.

Partner institutions should think carefully about what monitoring and reporting system will be appropriate. First and foremost, they should consider whether or not monitoring/reporting should be a joint activity. When discussing this topic, it will be important to clearly define persons/committees/boards involved in the programme and their responsibilities (this should be related to the role of each partner and the organisational structure of the joint doctoral programme).

The monitoring and reporting tools identified in the JOIMAN WP 4 study showed that partner institutions are developing different types of tools. All of them are used regularly, but at varying intervals. Tools for the presentation of candidates’ research work and for reporting their progress, such via video conferences, web pages etc., could also be considered when planning a programme. The use of online assessment tools could be increased to enable supervisors to support their candidates by giving face-to-face and online evaluations of the candidates’ progress. Partner institutions should decide how often they require reports and assessments from doctoral candidates and which body will evaluate reports and presentations.

With respect to successful, international scientific networking, doctoral candidates should have adequate opportunities for publishing their scientific results. They must be encouraged to give lectures at national and international conferences, but they should also have opportunities to organise scientific meetings themselves. The preferred publishing channel depends on the discipline and the doctoral programmes. Various measures should be implemented in order to adequately support young researchers.
5.4 Organisational Structure

A programme’s degree of jointness can be clearly identified by scrutinising its management structure. All the EMJD (Erasmus Mundus Joint Doctorates) programmes have a fairly similar management structure that is relatively close to the criteria listed in the call for the EMJD. However, the programmes that are not funded by EM (Erasmus Mundus) vary as regards how they run their programmes. Several programmes have a joint board management structure in which only core tasks are decided jointly. Most non-EM programmes have a strong coordinating institution that efficiently manages most of the tasks relating to the core activities. This is one of the similarities between non-EM-funded and EM-funded programmes. Most programmes have a board consisting of members from all the partner institutions. However, while these boards seem to be in charge of the programme at the overall level, they do not appear to be very involved in the actual running of the programme.

Does the programme have one coordinating institution?
Crossed with: Is the programme funded by Erasmus Mundus or not?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EM-funded</th>
<th>Not EM-funded</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>72.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many of the programmes have several different boards or committees that have been assigned different tasks, varying from overall policy/strategy development and coordination to administrative issues, selection and admission etc. The structure of some of the programmes examined is closely related to the size of their networks. For instance, one programme with two partners only has one body with 10 members, while another programme with more than 20 partners has a multitude of bodies that are responsible for different aspects of the programme.

The joint core of the programmes is often concentrated around common courses (lectures and training), as well as common research fields and/or larger-scale projects that involve several doctoral candidates. Decisions on admission, quality assurance and funding of candidates are often left to each partner institution in non-EM-funded programmes.

What is the core joint activity of the joint programme?
Crossed with: Is the programme funded by Erasmus Mundus or not?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EM-funded</th>
<th>Not EM-funded</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research and courses</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Few programmes mention that they have an administrative network for the running of the programme. However the ones that do highlight this as a best practice that is
necessary for the success of the programme. It is clear that programmes that have integrated most tasks relating to the running of the joint programme require more administrative support and competence. The programmes that have not opted for a high degree of jointness in all activities tend to manage the administrative tasks at each institution and only share responsibility for core tasks such as research and courses, tasks that are purely scientific.

Three types of organisational model for developing and running a joint doctoral programme were observed in the study:

- **Decentralised organisation**
  E.g. delocalised doctoral programmes. All the research and teaching activities are offered at the partner university in order to set up a doctoral school there (capacity building programme).

- **Bilateral or multilateral organisation**
  Based on the rules of the cotutelle agreement (joint supervision) between at least two partner universities.

- **A star-like organisation (integrated organisation)**
  All the partners delegate most of the administrative tasks to the coordinating university, but all decisions are taken at consortium level (the partners are branches of the organisation). The selection of doctoral candidates is done at consortium level.

### 5.4.1 Challenges

Several of the joint programmes studied had a steering committee with representatives from all partners and a coordinator of the programme. However, the day-to-day management of the programme was left to the coordinator in many cases, without a clearly defined network of institutional contacts with responsibility for implementing the joint doctoral programme in each partner institution. One of the many challenges relating to organisational structure is when the structure primarily applies to the coordinating university, in which case the management structure largely has to do with the operational level and the day-to-day running of the doctoral programme. It is important, therefore, to have clear administrative roles in each partner institution when running a joint doctoral programme.

In joint doctoral programmes, the doctoral candidates are spread between partner institutions and have few opportunities to meet during the programme period. Consequently, there are very few programmes where the doctoral candidates are strongly involved in the management structure.

Furthermore, there are many challenges related to differences in legislation and tax rules, employment law, scholarships, mobility and accreditation rules. These are general challenges that, taken together, constitute the framework within which a joint doctoral programme must be run. Managing a joint doctoral programme therefore involves overcoming these challenges. Since the solutions to these challenges are strongly linked to how a consortium is composed, and will therefore vary between joint doctoral programmes, it is impossible to present a best practice for overcoming these challenges here. The solutions will have to be found by each particular consortium.
5.4.2 Opportunities

With respect to management structure, some joint programmes have opted for an administrative network as part of the management structure. Using a strong administrative network as a tool for operating the joint doctoral programme means that each institution is involved in the implementation of the programme and can solve the various challenges and constraints more efficiently within the framework for the programme.

A few programmes have involved the doctoral candidates in the management structure through a representation system. One programme had opted for the specific role of an ‘ombudsman’ for the doctoral candidates, an office held by senior doctoral candidates. This provides an opportunity to find solutions for doctoral candidates and make sure that they are represented in the management structure.
5.5 Recruiting/Selection/Admission

When asked about the dissemination of information about their joint doctoral programme, all respondents identified internet and the university’s and/or doctoral programme’s website as the main means of spreading information and recruiting eligible candidates. In addition to websites, almost all programmes also distribute information by e-mail and, to a lesser extent, through other channels such as newsletters, journals etc.

The terms recruiting/selection/admission are used differently by various partners and recruitment is often used as an overall term for:

- **recruiting**: all activities aimed at identifying, informing and encouraging potential candidates to enrol in a particular programme.
- **the application process**
- **selecting**: reviewing applications and selecting those with the best qualifications for the particular programme
- **enrolling**: candidates: registering the candidates on the roll of the university.

Most of the programmes have a special body that is in charge of reviewing applications and selecting the best candidates. This selection committee is, in all cases but one, composed of representatives of all partners. Some of the programmes do not have a body that is exclusively in charge of selection, but, in many cases, one body has several functions and to some extent comprises the same persons and representatives of all partner universities.

By which body is selection and admission conducted?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conducted by a joint committee with agreed upon criteria</th>
<th>EM-funded</th>
<th>Not EM-funded</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conducted by each institution according to institutional rules</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixture of the two models</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As regards the application process, not many respondents described this issue in detail, although the majority stated that an online (paperless) application process is in place, enabling more transparency and equal access to information by all partners.

There were only three examples out of 17 where selection only took place in accordance with the internal rules and regulations of each institution, with no joint procedure whatsoever. However, each of the partner institutions keeps other partners informed about the selection procedure and results, and also about the nature and topics of candidates’ research projects. In some cases, selection is followed by a joint meeting.

One programme stated that a two-step system is used to select candidates. Selection does not mean that the selected candidates will be admitted, as two processes are carried out separately by two separate groups of persons. The
selection is carried out jointly by academics/representatives of all partner universities, and admission offices at home universities are in charge of the admission process. Since there are different ways of applying the rules for admission and selection, it is uncertain whether all the data on admission/selection/recruitment presented in the study actually reflect the same model/procedure for admission.

Around half of the programmes included in this survey stated that the selection procedure and admission are based on a formal interview, at which students have to present a research project. The interview is conducted by at least two professors and, in some cases, via Skype or by telephone. The principal aim of the interviews is to verify the candidate’s linguistic skills and motivation. One such programme includes both a written and oral exam in the selection process. Two of the programmes include pre-selection by home universities based on a CV, motivation letter, draft research plan and at least one reference letter. The final selection is made jointly by all partner universities, however.

5.5.1 Challenges and Opportunities:

- One of the challenges observed is when the selection process does not take place jointly but separately at each partner institution in accordance with the internal rules and regulations of each institution. As doctoral candidates must satisfy the requirements of all institutions involved with regard to qualifications, enrolment, thesis, examination etc., this issue should be discussed and clarified prior to the first selection process.

- Having a two-step procedure for selection and admission/enrolment could prove to be a challenge, both for candidates and for the institutions involved. Selection does not mean that the selected candidates will be admitted, as these processes are carried out separately by two separate bodies: a joint selection committee appointed by the consortium and a formal admission office at each partner institution. Selection is carried out jointly by academics/representatives of all partner universities, while admission offices at the home universities are in charge of the admission process. This procedure means that students selected by the selection committee will not necessarily be enrolled at one of the universities involved. One of the good practices described was to include relevant personnel from admission offices already during the first phase of the selection process or even during the stage when the application procedure and selection criteria are decided.

- One of the good practices described concerns online/paperless applications and evaluation procedures that allow all partners to work remotely and ensure transparency. The process could be supported by an online database that contains all relevant information about the candidates and their application documents, and that is accessible to all partners. Having a centralised model for administrative procedures is an opportunity to share responsibility from the outset of the programme. This could help to avoid having different guidelines and even admission criteria at different partner institutions.
● **Interviews** proved to be one of the good practices. They provide an opportunity to learn more about candidates’ motivation for pursuing a particular programme and also to check their language skills. Tools such as Skype and other video conferencing systems make it even easier to bridge distances or time differences.

● Another useful tool is **a common web portal** for the recruitment process, containing all relevant information about the programme, target group, application process, selection criteria, partners etc. The aim is to centralise and unify admissions information and encourage applications by promoting transparency and consistency in the information provided.
5.6 Legal Framework

Potential legislative obstacles are an important hindrance to establishing joint doctorates, both between EU countries and with non-EU countries. Particular attention must therefore be devoted to dealing with recognition and legal problems relating to joint doctoral degrees.

Normally, the first phase, which leads to the creation and implementation of a joint programme, is very hard because of the bureaucratic difficulties involved in harmonising and streamlining the different procedures in different countries. These difficulties are often hard to overcome, and great effort, perseverance and good will are required to succeed.

After studying JOIMAN's self-evaluations and surveys on joint doctorates in Europe, it has been possible to identify the main legal obstacles institutions have encountered when setting up joint doctorates. They are largely related to the awarding of degrees (joint degree certificate), the academic calendar, visa requirements and the employment of doctoral candidates (contracts, insurance), language, and requirements for admission and tuition fees.

What kind of degree does the programme offer?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joint degree</td>
<td>81.8%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double degree</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional degree only</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixture of all</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The JOIMAN study shows that overcoming legal difficulties that initially hindered the conclusion of a joint agreement required several joint meetings and sometimes years of work and harmonisation, plus a great deal of communication with the respective administrative officers. In addition, from a normative point of view, the main difficulty often relates to the internal regulations and statutes of each institution. With respect to the trends noted in this study, joint doctoral programmes still do not receive sufficient attention. There is much more support at the institutional level, but it seems that it is still left to individual professors to take initiatives, with the problems this entails. Setting up doctoral programmes on the basis of personal initiatives undoubtedly has certain limitations compared with joint programmes supported by the central institution. Such initiatives should be fostered by the central bodies of higher educational institutions.

One difficulty in the creation of joint doctoral programmes has to do with the nature of the partnership and the choice of partners, despite the fact that they are sometimes based on long-standing relationships. This is due to differences in the laws and rules that apply to partner institutions in different countries. The Bologna process has tried to make rules uniform, but these endeavours have had little effect on doctoral programmes. Major obstacles have been found, for example in establishing doctorates with non-EU countries, since their regulations for doctorates can be completely different from those that apply in Europe.
Further problems concern official recognition of a doctoral title in different countries, because each of them has its own rules, which makes it difficult to create and harmonise a joint degree. Particular attention therefore needs to be devoted to quality assurance mechanisms and to addressing the specific recognition issues raised by joint doctoral programmes. Adequate quality assurance procedures should be jointly developed by partners in a joint programme.

The awarding of a single joint degree on behalf of different institutions still entails legal difficulties. Due to legislative constraints and formal regulations, a ‘joint curriculum’ with study periods at multiple institutions currently leads to single national degrees in most cases. This situation is due to the lack of explicit provision in national legislation for the approval of jointly awarded university degrees. A genuine joint degree awarded by several institutions from various countries falls outside the framework of both national and international legislation and leads to recognition problems.7

Language is normally not an obstacle to setting up a doctorate, because most of the activities are carried out in English, but it can be an obstacle to the issuing of the diploma if language requirements are laid down in national law or institutional regulations.

Other problems are related to the different timing of procedures and to the different length of the didactic/teaching courses.

As regards mobility in doctoral programmes, further growth in intra-European mobility presupposes a strong effort by governments and higher education institutions to consolidate and extend inter-institutional arrangements of high quality. This will assure full recognition of study periods and credits earned abroad. As regards extra-European mobility, there may be problems relating to framework conditions, such as conditions for entry and residence for third-country nationals in Europe, work permits and student services. All these problems must be addressed to facilitate access to doctoral studies in European higher education.8

Major problems can also arise in connection with employment contracts. In some countries, it is very difficult to enter into contracts that allow for mobility in relation to another country, while retaining the same rights as an employee with respect to taxes, health insurance, maternity/paternity leave, pensions etc. There may be several obstacles relating to mobility and employment rights in this connection.

5.6.1 Challenges and Opportunities:

- The diversification of the contents and profile of joint doctoral programmes undoubtedly calls for a common frame of reference for European higher education qualifications. This will increase transparency and thereby facilitate mobility among both national and international doctoral candidates. This frame of reference should be flexible enough to allow national and institutional variation, while at the same time being clear enough to serve as a definition.9

All involved institutions and individuals should use already existing organisations and services, such as the EUA Council for Doctoral Education

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7 Prof. Pavel Zgaga, Joint Degrees - Problems and developments, a presentation at the Erasmus-Eudora meeting, Linz, 2004.
(EUA-CDE) or the EURAXESS platform, to obtain assistance and guidance on various legal issues.

- Each university is autonomous in relation to its rules, regulations and statutes, which form the basis for criteria, requirements and prerequisites for local doctorates. However, amendments are possible, provided that they are in line with the internal rules of the institution concerned. Therefore, flexibility and understanding are of the utmost importance if administrative and legal differences between countries are to be harmonised. It is a good practice that the consortium applies the strictest rule as a general policy. Although this may seem difficult, it is much easier with respect to the applicable national regulations to agree on a strict rule than on a less stringent one.

- The quality of joint degree programmes must be assured. The current lack of comparability of different countries’ quality assurance and accreditation systems should not be an obstacle to establishing joint degree programmes. Quality assurance and accreditation agencies should be encouraged to cooperate in order to find alternative methods that solve the problems and lead to full academic and professional recognition of the qualifications.

- Legislative problems can be overcome by sharing a problem with all the partners in the programme and examining the national laws in order to find a way of adjusting the common programme to the national educational framework. At the same time, continuous discussion is required to adapt joint doctoral projects to any absolute requirements of participating universities. On the basis of the regulations of each partner institution and within the framework of autonomy granted to all universities by their governments, universities can approve new regulations on research doctorates, and subsequently amend them to produce regulations that are better suited to international cooperation on doctoral programmes. When drafting an agreement, issues such as funding, rights and obligations and the role of each partner institution should be clearly defined.

- In order to overcome funding limitations, the rectors of partner institutions can sign a General Framework Agreement that commits the institutions financially.

Thanks to the Bologna process, national systems of higher education and related legislation are undergoing a process of harmonisation, and structures are becoming more comparable and compatible. However, European cooperation on legal aspects of education still needs be strengthened with a view to developing comparable criteria and procedures. However, only strong will and shared interests can enable major difficulties to be overcome.
5.7 Entering Employment

One of the aims of this study was to investigate candidates' employability and the extent of cooperation with potential employers. Since many doctoral programmes included in this study have just started and no candidate has graduated yet, it is difficult to evaluate the practical feedback on the job market. However, all respondents seem to agree that the programmes produce added value for both the candidate and future employers, since the candidates gain international research experience and know how to work in an international work environment. Based on the data gathered, there is great optimism about candidates' future employability or job prospects.

Academic research is frequently the main career opportunity in this context. This is especially true in the field of humanistic studies, but also in the natural sciences. According to the data on career and job opportunities for doctoral graduates collected by the Assessment Committee of one university (to which one of the respondent belongs) over the last eight years, approximately 60% of graduates continue their research activity within the university framework, through research grants or similar scholarships in the country or abroad, whereas 40% of them find jobs in different contexts. The coordinator of a programme in medicine, on the other hand, maintains that only a small percentage of graduates are employed in the academic field, whereas a higher percentage are employed at the managerial level in national health services and an even higher proportion work as clinical monitors in the industry, where they largely carry out clinical trials. It would be interesting to further investigate whether, and to what extent, the choice of the academic sector as a preferred career is influenced by the nature and subject area of the doctoral programme.

The acquisition by the end of the programme of competence in at least one additional language was frequently mentioned by the programmes studied as a further asset, helping to ensure that doctoral graduates find adequate and appropriate jobs. Candidates in joint doctoral programmes are also frequently invited to attend national and/or international conferences as guest speakers.

In most cases, discussions have been held and joint decisions have been made by partner universities relating to jobs and career opportunities. Potential employment sectors for doctoral graduates on completion of the joint programme have been listed and evaluated. Exposure to different languages and cultures is deemed to be another advantage, which potential employers take a positive view of. Most respondents also believe that one of the best opportunities for doctoral candidates attending joint programmes lies in their being exposed to prominent international experts in their field of research. This is the result of established cooperation with internationally recognised teams and centres of excellence in both European and non-European countries. Graduates can thus benefit from close relations with partner universities and be offered positions as teachers or researchers in one of the host universities, as was often the case for graduates of one doctoral programme studied. Graduates of joint doctoral programmes seem to have access to far wider options for research than would be possible at the national level.

According to some programme coordinators, the added value of a joint doctoral degree can also be seen from graduates’ high publication activity. They start
publishing already before completing the programme. The constant contact with partner universities seems to facilitate publishing or writing reviews in international and foreign journals. The high profile of doctoral graduates and their intense, high quality, scientific publication activity is deemed to have a positive impact on both the quality and the image of the institution itself. This results in added value for academic staff as well. Another programme, which reports a high integration level, has implemented a dedicated website for access to publications, metadata and other kinds of digital multi-format documentation. The idea is that candidates and graduates will thereby have an opportunity to meet authors and discuss new publications and critical research areas, and that this will further enhance the cross-fertilisation of ideas between senior scientists and early research trainees. However, further investigation of this issue is required, as no reliable results are available due to the fact that no graduates or employers have been included in the survey.

5.7.1 Monitoring of Employability

As regards the potential monitoring of doctoral graduates’ employability, replies varied greatly. In some programmes, the collection of information about employability is only ‘informal’, as it is based on personal conversations and contacts between teaching staff and graduates. Other programmes, on the other hand, have a monitoring system in place, which can involve administrative staff who assists in programme activities collecting information about doctoral graduates’ jobs (this can have a positive effect on the image and profile of the institution, and on academic staff as well). The collection of information can also take place through keeping alumni statistics. As already mentioned, other programmes were unable to indicate an employability rate, since they have just commenced and no candidate has completed a degree yet. None of the programmes examined in this paper seem to be linked to the European Qualification Framework, whereas some respondents were not familiar with the framework at all. A high employability rate has nevertheless been registered where close monitoring of job and career opportunities for graduates is in place.

An example of best practices in this respect is provided by one joint doctoral programme where a career development plan is drawn up for each research trainee. Monitoring continues after the end of the programme via an active alumni organisation. Trainees are thus encouraged to develop a sense of belonging to the doctoral scientific community, through both the alumni organisation and a worldwide thematic network. Graduates’ professional progress is monitored and input is obtained on which skills are most important in relation to the development of future candidates. The aim is to improve their competitiveness and map the various job opportunities that are available both in and outside academia. This is also useful with respect to providing up-to-date career counselling for trainees and graduates. An expansion of graduates’ career opportunities has been registered within and outside academia (e.g. in the media, financial and public institutions or in the development of new enterprises).

Despite the general confidence and satisfaction among respondents, one interviewee expressed doubts about the job prospects of future graduates, which are not always rosy owing to the difficult economic situation that is also affecting universities worldwide.
5.7.2 Cooperation with Potential Employers

With reference to how employability is ensured and how cooperation is established with potential employers, a wide range of best practices has been observed. They include one case where doctoral graduates were offered internships in industry and found jobs in the industrial sector or good positions in other sectors, sometimes even before graduating. Graduates of this programme are in great demand on the international scene and they are all working at the moment.

A best practice recommended by one respondent that was also implemented to a certain extent consists of training researchers in companies, thus helping them to become acquainted with the industrial sector. Another practice is to appoint a ‘Manager’ to be in charge of organising exchanges between the university and employers, since it is crucial to have stable communication with the world of work. In this context, making a list of partner firms is essential with a view to creating internship/research opportunities before the end of the programme. A special role created by one programme is the ‘Brand Manager’, who acts as a go-between, by supporting candidates, keeping in contact with companies and establishing strong links with them.

Other programmes have been able to establish close cooperation with the industrial sector by including companies as partners and ensuring that all candidates are involved with one of them. Firms can thereby take part in the follow-up of the researchers’ work, for example by candidates spending periods in a workplace and not just in academic institutions. In one specific case, a high level of integration was registered in the organisation and implementation of the joint programme. The relations established between academic and research institutions and private companies and the inclusion of training in transferable skills – for which enterprise partners are responsible – as an integral part of the programme, provide research trainees with much wider experience in both methodologies and content, thus enabling them to broaden their career opportunities inside and outside academia. Such cross-cooperation between the private sector and university is rare in this field, and it is an additional asset, since graduates can adopt a transnational perspective and become experts in other sectors. They are thus more competitive in the market.

It is worth underlining the view expressed by one respondent, who believes that opportunities for the industrial sector to support doctoral projects financially should be streamlined and facilitated compared with the present situation.

On the basis of views expressed and practices observed, inter-institutional cooperation is deemed to be the future of doctoral studies. Innovative models for institutional network-based research training are considered to be an opportunity for improving the attractiveness of European institutions and enhancing scientific cooperation within Europe and worldwide.

5.8 Funding

The majority of the joint doctoral programmes are funded by the institutions themselves or, in several cases, by national/government funds. Very few programmes have had the luxury of being funded as a consortium on a joint venture
basis. Even though few funding sources were mentioned by the coordinators (funds from participating universities, sponsorship from institutions and private companies, additional funding from national and international research programmes and European calls such as Marie Curie ITN etc.), no best practice can be identified for how to structure the funding system, including fees, for a joint doctoral programme. This is clear evidence of the rather poor funding opportunities for joint doctoral programmes.

**What kind of agreement is the partnership in the joint doctoral programme based on?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement Type</th>
<th>EM-funded</th>
<th>Not EM-funded</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilateral agreement</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consortium agreement of several partners</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>68.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix of bilateral and consortium</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All EM-funded programmes have a joint funding scheme. However, they also report that institutional funding is necessary in addition in order to run a sustainable programme.

**5.8.1 Challenges and Opportunities:**

- As regards fees, we do not have sufficient data on this matter to see any trends or identify any good practices relating to how to address this issue. This is definitely an issue that needs to be more closely examined as new programmes are developing and new practices developed. The way the fee structure is set up can be decisive for future joint doctoral programmes and whether they are able to overcome some of the challenges of integrating all elements involved in the running of a joint programme.

- There should be strong investment at the European level to support joint doctoral programmes, with particular emphasis on scientific doctoral programmes.
6. Why Joint Doctorates? The Added Value of Collaborative Programmes

‘Fundamental research in pure and applied sciences is a driving force for innovation and it encourages curiosity. [...] No country can excel in fundamental research on its own - it requires collaboration between universities and research centres in the north and in the south, and in almost all cases fundamental research is undertaken by teams of international scientists and engineers.’

Doctoral education in Europe is very diverse. Some countries have organised or are in the process of organising doctoral education in graduate schools, including doctoral candidates and, sometimes, second-cycle students; some countries have developed a different model, organising doctoral education in doctoral and research schools that only include doctoral candidates. Many additional differences still remain in doctoral education at the national level with regard to entry requirements (either formal and informal education), funding systems (including the way national governments finance scholarships, but also the fees candidates are required to pay) and, more generally, with regard to national support for mobility schemes in the third cycle.

While the observed practices show that different countries and universities have different solutions and that institutions have autonomy to develop their own missions and profiles, and thus their own priorities in terms of programmes and research activities, there is a broad consensus that (1) there should be no doctorate without original research, and (2) high quality doctoral programmes are crucial if Europe’s research goals are to be achieved.

The EUA report on doctoral programmes in Europe’s Universities (2007) states that (1) attracting the best doctoral candidates from all over the world, (2) encouraging mobility within doctoral programmes, and (3) supporting European and international joint doctoral programmes, are central to the development of an international strategy. From the point of view of the European Integration Process, joint doctorates can be seen as a powerful tool for making the Lisbon objectives more visible. They are a symbol of European research collaboration, and are therefore more attractive to young early stage researchers. On the other hand, it can be questioned what ‘added value’ a joint doctoral degree awarded at university level brings to a research programme, taking into consideration the differences between doctoral education worldwide and the resulting complexity involved in developing and running a joint doctoral programme.

For these reasons, one of the objectives of the research carried out by the JOIMAN project through the self-evaluation and study visits, was to identify the reasons why institutions are developing joint programmes and what added value a joint doctorate has for the institution, for the research group involved and for the candidates.

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6.1. The Initial Phase of Joint Doctoral Programmes

By asking how the joint programme had been started and what the original impulse behind its creation was, we learned about different approaches to the creation of a joint doctorate. While there are different views on the added value of a joint programme depending on the approach taken, there is general consensus on a number of advantages of joint doctorates, for the institutions involved, for the research team and for the candidates.

Looking at the sample used in the investigation, we can identify two basic approaches:

a) the bottom-up approach, which leads to the establishment of a research network on the basis of cooperation between individual researchers or research groups;

b) the top-down approach, initiated by university leaders as a part of an institutional strategy, sometimes in response to external opportunities (e.g. funds) or policies.

The bottom-up approach is usually part of a departmental strategy or of a research group’s specific interest in the internationalisation of its research and doctoral training. Many of the programmes examined state that the main reason for creating the joint doctorate was to strengthen long-standing research collaboration with specific partners. In this connection, the transfer of shared knowledge gained through research to a teaching and research programme, such as a joint doctoral programme, is seen as particularly important in terms of strengthening the collaboration and the research itself.

The top-down approach can be part of an institutional strategy or it can be part of a wider local, national or international strategy of investment in education and research in a specific discipline, in a specific country or in a specific geographical region.

Was the programme developed through a bottom up or top down process?

![Bar chart showing the distribution of bottom-up and top-down approaches](chart)

The programme coordinators identified the following issues as the main reason for the creation of their programmes:

1. Strengthening research in a specific discipline in order to create a critical mass that is not achievable in a single institution. This is sometimes the case with small, highly specialised institutions that aim to reach the maximum level of excellence in the specific fields they are already specialised in.

2. To increase the number of doctoral students in order to improve visibility, reputation and funding.

3. To reinforce relations with specific partners.

4. Follow international trends and play a leading role in ongoing higher education reforms.
5. Respond to the specific needs of a country’s strategy at the request of a superior governing body or, more simply, implement national strategies for external relations or cooperation and development.

The availability of funds (at the national or European level) for the development of joint doctorates is a factor that gives an extra impulse to the creation of a programme, regardless of the institutional level involved in the creation of the doctorate (institution or department/research group).

6.2. Added Value for the Institution, for the Research Group and for the Research Field

6.2.1 Societal Needs

One of the main added values of joint doctoral degrees, according to the programmes studied, is that a joint effort by the best international researchers in a given field is more able to meet the needs of society and of the labour market – locally, nationally or at the international level. New joint doctoral programmes in Europe are starting to promote the participation of labour market actors in the development and organisation of doctoral programmes, thanks to the interconnections between partner institutions with different doctoral education traditions and as a result of the Erasmus Mundus requirements.

6.2.2 Thematic Research Networks

In almost all areas, the vast majority of researchers are part of an international research network, since the scientific community and research is international by definition. However, research networks can be loosely organised networks, or they can be highly structured and formalised. These structured international networks are usually committed to the provision of joint research and highly specialised joint teaching. In some cases, this experience leads to the development of a joint doctorate programme.

The network experience, when it is transferred from its original research dimension to a more educational setting such as a doctorate, is an excellent opportunity for the institution and for the research group to test and exchange different approaches to a discipline. These networks are usually able to attract high profile doctoral candidates who have a positive impact on the image of the academic staff and of the institution involved.

6.2.3 Strengthening and Structuring Collaborations

In certain cases, joint doctoral programmes are conceived as an attempt to give a stable structure to long-standing research collaborations between institutions in different countries, in order to take the well tested cotutelle experience one step further. On the one hand, this requires a major commitment on the part of the institution, which is also required to support the initiative financially, while, on the other hand, it requires a critical mass of candidates in order to justify the structure of the programme.
6.2.4 Quality

One of the added values of the joint doctoral programmes is the improvement in the overall quality of the teaching and research element of doctorates. The radical internationalisation of science requires new opportunities for training, more mobility among scientists and large-scale services. Joint programmes usually include organising joint learning activities such as summer schools, state-of-the art conferences and seminars, distance-learning activities and joint administration of candidates during the application, selection and monitoring phase. These activities require constant innovation and improvement in the approaches and practices of key actors in the institutions involved. Furthermore, the quality gained through the international collaboration has been used by some institutions to negotiate with national authorities in order to attract additional funds.

6.2.5 Diversity and European Integration

The importance of diversity was clear in the joint programmes studied. Indeed, some of the joint programmes studied have been developed with a certain level of interdisciplinary that can exploit the diversity of the research interests of the academics involved. But diversity, in the sense of enrichment, also has to do with the teaching and research carried out by different educational cultures. Joint doctoral programmes usually target international applicants, recruiting candidates with different profiles and backgrounds, which is enriching for the institution and the programme, and for the candidates themselves.

6.2.6 The Attractiveness of Joint Doctoral Programmes

The attractiveness of the programme in terms of recruiting good candidates is undoubtedly a strong added value of joint doctoral programmes. They are more visible to international candidates and are able to offer more attractive opportunities and, usually, more funds. At the doctorate level, there is strong competition for young researchers in many disciplines, and the scholarship system in place in many EU Countries is not enough on its own to ensure competitiveness. On the other hand, the organisation of a joint doctorate means being included in a network, sharing contacts and joining an international team and being integrated into structured activities. It offers opportunities for young researchers who are considering international careers and increases the visibility of the institutions involved. The attractiveness of such programmes to young researchers increases with the degree of integration of the programme.
6.3. The Added Value for Doctoral Candidates

Some of the above-mentioned added values for the institutions and research groups that organise joint doctoral programmes will also be added values for the candidates, since, by benefitting the educational community, they also have a positive impact on candidates’ learning opportunities. Exposure to diversity, in the sense of different teaching methods/cultures and candidates’ backgrounds, is an added value for the candidates as well, since it allows new ways of carrying out research to be tested. Excellence, fostered by seeking to bring together the best researchers in a given discipline in a joint doctoral programme, clearly has a positive impact on candidates’ learning opportunities.

Due to the limited nature of the sample and to the fact that many of the joint programmes approached are in the initial phase of implementation, the study carried out by the JOIMAN group was not able to study the employment rate and the quality of graduates’ careers. However, it can be noted that the trend in collaborative programmes at doctoral level, especially programmes that aim to attract international funds from the EU or other international funding sources, is to involve the non-academic sector in the development and implementation of the programme. According to the coordinators, this should improve the employability of researchers, also outside the academia. Finally, the awarding of a double, multiple or joint degree could add value for the candidates, as it documents the added competence the candidates acquire from having conducted research in an international research environment.

In addition to those mutual added values – mutual in the sense that they benefit both the institutions and the candidates – the most relevant added value for candidates, according to the views of the programmes approached by JOIMAN, is the valuable experience of mobility.

Indeed, international collaboration and mobility, as well as interdisciplinary and intersectional mobility, are seen as a very important instrument contributing to achieving the goals of the EHEA and ERA. Mobility is an integral part of doctoral training in the joint doctoral programmes and, even if it is not recognised and supported as an ‘added value’ in some cases (for example, where reintegration after a mobility period can be problematic), many doctoral programmes seek to provide appropriate mobility mechanisms in order to enhance the relevant research experience of their doctoral candidates. The doctoral experience is first and foremost an experience of research that advances knowledge and benefits the whole research system. At the same time, doctoral education is individual training that provides access to a research career. This qualification is portable: young researchers can access jobs in their countries of origin, in the host country, or even in third countries, since they are prepared for an international career.

Finally, the doctoral period is a phase of life, involving a cultural, social and economic dimension for young researchers. The intercultural experience of an international PhD, fostered by both the mobility part of the joint programme and/or by the diversity of the candidates, is in itself a factor that changes forever doctoral candidates’ perception of the world. More specifically, they can develop a long-lasting relationship with the university and with the host country or countries, possibly
leading them to continue scientific cooperation there or even settle there permanently.

Clearly, mobility should not be seen as a goal in itself, but as one of the strategic tools of doctoral training, leading to a wider research experience for doctoral candidates in their chosen field, and better research cooperation and networking between institutions.

In general, in a structured doctoral programme, mobility can have a positive impact in terms of:

- Additional scientific and transversal skills and attitudes (openness, entrepreneurship, creativity, tenacity, project management, leadership, language skills)
- Opportunities for collaboration with the business world
- An interdisciplinary experience. It promotes a multi-disciplinary approach to scientific problems, and provides candidates with a scientific culture enabling them to restate the facts in their proper epistemological environment.
- Scientific maturity and independence of candidates
- Sharing experiences and knowledge
- Participation in international partnerships and networks
- Preparation for mobility in the career context and development of an international vision
- Broadening and deepening the knowledge of doctoral candidates in the research domain.

### 6.3.1 Generic competences

According to the most recent literature on doctoral education (EUA papers, Doc-career workshops and the Tuning project), training in generic competences and transferable skills is something that doctoral programmes need. In addition, at the first Doc-Career Workshop, participants were invited to identify similarities and specificities in skills and competences in a range of disciplines (Sciences, Technology and Engineering; Social Sciences and Economics; Biotechnology, Life and Medical Sciences). The workshop resulted in the identification of a group of core generic competences common to all fields that could increase the employability of the learner, also outside the academic context. These competences are related to communication, negotiation and management skills, the ability to apply creative thinking and the capacity to adapt to business contexts and deal with complex and multidisciplinary work.

According to the JOIMAN sample, the development of transferable skills and competences in the context of employability and career prospects in the private and public sectors seems to be reinforced by joint doctoral programmes. This can be explained by a number of factors: on one hand, as explained earlier, joint doctoral programmes can be part of an institutional strategy that should by definition be more sensitive to international trends and developments. In addition, the issue of sustainability usually leads to fund-raising strategies, which, in many cases, require the partners to define a structure that responds to donors’ needs (e.g. Erasmus Mundus requirements). Finally, joint doctoral programmes usually involve an organised critical mass of candidates who are more likely to be trained in transferable skills than individual candidates taking a traditional doctorate.


7. Conclusion

The study found diversity in types of joint doctoral programmes. They were based on different organisational models and largely took two main approaches. Even though the joint programme structures were diverse, the study revealed that the degree of integration (as well as structure of joint doctoral programmes) depends on the main aim of the programme. In some cases, programmes were based on either close scientific cooperation between the partners or on the goal of enhancing research in the home institution. For others, the main aim was to offer joint training courses in an international environment. The degree of jointness of the programmes is thus related to the activities defined as the core of the joint cooperation.

7.1 Useful Tips

The report is based on information collected about 19 joint programmes that have all succeeded in developing and running a programme. They have thus succeeded in overcoming some of the obstacles encountered in the development phase. In many ways, the composition of the partners defines the chances of a programme succeeding, due to funding, legal constraints and capacity in general. However, all the doctoral programmes in the report have in common that they have a strong coordinating institution and a strongly committed network of researchers, upon which the programmes are normally based.

**Supervision.** Supervision of doctoral candidates is always carried out jointly by two persons – one supervisor at the home institution and one at a partner institution. The requirement that a doctoral candidate must sign a training and supervision plan/a career development plan and detailed work plan and/or time frame seems to be quite standard practice.

**Research/courses/theses.** There is a tendency to choose the home institution’s rules for evaluation criteria for theses and the defence of theses. Common research topics and themes form the basis for most of the programmes. Joint courses are quite common in the programmes, and organising annual summer schools for doctoral candidates can be identified as an example of best practice.

**Organisational structure.** All the programmes have a strong coordinator institution that attends to most of the tasks related to the core activities (a star-like organisational model). The structure of a programme is closely related to the size of its network, and the programmes in which most organisational tasks are integrated have a greater need for administrative support. It may be crucial to establish an administrative network consisting of representatives of all partners to attend to day-to-day communication between the institutions and to support candidates, particularly during mobility periods when all the practicalities may represent a huge obstacle. Decisions on admission, quality assurance and the funding of candidates can be left to each partner institution or they can be decided jointly by a joint body such as an executive committee/scientific board. Having a centralised model for administrative procedures ensures transparency and equal sharing of responsibility by all the partners, as well as ensuring that the same guidelines and admission criteria are applied by all partner institutions.
Legal framework. The study shows that the difficulties mainly relate to the joint degree diploma, the academic calendar, visa requirements, the employment of doctoral candidates, requirements for admission and tuition. The study nevertheless showed diversity in how the programmes used their creativity to overcome the obstacles presented by national and institutional legislation. Many countries are included in the study and many kinds of legal constraints apply, but these programmes have nonetheless managed to organise and run joint doctoral programmes and conduct high quality research. The programmes function in spite of these constraints. If these constraints were abolished, the opportunities for strengthening the research outcome of these programmes would be even stronger. Implementing measures at the European level is seen as one of the means of influencing and reducing legal obstacles at the national level.

7.2 Possible Future Steps

Joint doctoral degrees. The higher education institutions that run joint doctoral programmes focus on joint research and the outcome of research as the programme’s goal, in addition to the outcome of producing young researchers. However, even though several programmes point out that they cannot offer a joint degree due to legal constraints, this does not seem to signify a great difference in how the programme is run. A joint doctoral degree, one diploma issued by two or more institutions, may be of a greater importance to the doctoral candidates in the joint programmes. One of the expected added values of joint degrees is an improvement in the employability and qualifications of doctoral degree holders. This was not included in the study, however, and no clear results or recommendations can be presented here. It is certainly one of the most important aspects of joint doctoral programmes that needs to be investigated more closely, particularly from the perspective of potential employers and doctoral candidates.

Joint doctoral education and research. The Bologna process has had a strong impact on the joint programmes, especially at the Bachelor and Master’s level. At the doctoral level, however, the harmonisation of legislation is still limited. This applies in particular to degree structure, employment and visa regulations for third country nationals. There is a strong need to harmonise these rules, although a great deal of responsibility rests with the institutions themselves and with national higher education structures. The study shows that, despite all these limitations and constraints, joint doctoral programmes succeed in their endeavours due to their commitment to research and excellence and to bringing the best doctoral candidates to the forefront of research and innovation. If Europe is going to achieve the goals set for ERA ‘to be the best and most competitive’, it is crucial to create a strong basis for cooperation in doctoral education by enabling the harmonisation of legal regulations, strengthening funding opportunities and strengthening employment schemes for early stage researchers. While the European Commission has passed the Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers, ratification and implementation of the code of conduct varies greatly between higher education institutions and between European countries.

Stronger integration of ERA and EHEA is possible through doctoral education and, in particular, through joint doctoral programmes. However, in order to succeed with this integration, a stronger link between the areas should be emphasised in the European
Framework Programmes for research. By including doctoral training in all European research programmes it would be possible to bring the new generation of researchers to the forefront of research through joint doctoral education. While we are waiting for new solutions to legal constraints, stronger funding and a more unified European policy on joint degrees and employability, we can look to the solutions found by these 18 programmes. They pave the way for new structures and innovative practices in joint doctoral education. One growing field that deserves particular mention is doctoral education organised in close cooperation with industry, and the shifting of doctoral funding from institutional to industry sources and large-scale funding programmes such as EMII and funding structures organised through Knowledge Innovation Communities (KICs). Research and innovation in a knowledge economy are international, interdisciplinary and increasingly intersectional, and this must be reflected in the organisation of doctoral education. The development of joint ventures in doctoral education will become more widespread in the years ahead and change the way doctoral education is traditionally developed and managed.
REFERENCES and FURTHER READING (All links were valid on 23 August 2010)

Policy documents


- **Final Conclusions - Preparing Recommendations for the London Communiqué.** Bologna Seminar on Doctoral Programmes, Nice, 7-9 December 2006. Website: [http://www.see-educoop.net/education_in/pdf/B-6%20NICE_ConclusionsRecommendations_Final_9Jan07.pdf](http://www.see-educoop.net/education_in/pdf/B-6%20NICE_ConclusionsRecommendations_Final_9Jan07.pdf)


EUA studies


- **Doctoral Programmes for the European Knowledge Society.** Report on the EUA Doctoral Programmes Project, 2005. Website:


**Publications and articles**


**Presentations**


**Other useful links**


• EU: Investing in European Research. Website: http://ec.europa.eu/invest-in-research/index_en.htm


• Tuning 3-rd cycle. Tuning Educational Structures in Europe Projects. Website: http://tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/index.php?option=content&task=view&id=210&Itemid=236

• SoReCom Excellence Network/European PhD on Social Representations and Communication. Website: http://www.europhd.eu/html_onda03/01/00.00.00.00.shtml

**Institutional experience**


• Coimbra Group Network Recommendations on Agreement for joint supervision of doctoral studies leading to the award of a joint or a dual doctoral degree, Coimbra Group. Website: http://www.coimbra-group.eu/DOCUMENTS/2010/Co-supervision-final.pdf


• Guidelines for Developing Joint Doctoral Degree Programs, Griffith University. Website: http://www62.gu.edu.au/policylibrary.nsf/binders/7d0526512aa9986b4a256f5b0063ed5a?opendocument

• Handbook for the Creation of CSU/UC Joint Doctoral Programmes, University of California. Website: http://www.ucop.edu/acadinit/uccsu/jointdochandbook030502.htm

• Regulations governing the joint supervision of doctoral theses with a European university at the UB, University of Barcelona. Website: http://www.ub.edu/acad/en/doctoral_programs/regulations/joint_supervision/index.htm