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Institutional Evaluation Programme

## **HIGHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY: TRENDS, CHALLENGES, OPPORTUNITIES**

**Observations and Recommended Actions  
on the Higher Education System  
Based on Seventeen Institutional Evaluation Reports of  
Turkish Universities**



TURKISH INDUSTRIALISTS' AND BUSINESSMEN'S ASSOCIATION



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## Foreword

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*TÜSİAD, in accordance with its mission and in the context of its activities, initiates public debate by communicating its position supported by scientific research on current issues. The following report entitled "Higher Education in Turkey: Trends, Challenges and Opportunities" has been prepared by European University Association (EUA) with the financial contributions of Doğu Holding A.Ş., Eczacıbaşı Holding A.Ş. and Hedef Alliance Holding A.Ş. in alphabetical order.*

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## Contents

<b>PREFACE</b> .....	<b>4</b>
<b>1 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY</b> .....	<b>5</b>
1.1 KEY POINTS WITH REGARD TO THE HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM IN TURKEY .....	5
1.2 CHAPTER SUMMARIES AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	8
<b>2 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND</b> .....	<b>14</b>
2.1 TURKISH HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN ENVIRONMENT .....	14
2.2 SCOPE OF THE PROJECT.....	16
2.3 BACKGROUND ON THE EUA INSTITUTIONAL EVALUATION PROGRAMME .....	16
2.4 PROJECT METHODOLOGY .....	17
2.5 UNIVERSITIES IN TURKEY REVIEWED BY IEP .....	18
<b>3 THE TURKISH HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM</b> .....	<b>20</b>
3.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE TURKISH HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM.....	20
3.2 THE BOLOGNA PROCESS .....	23
<b>4 EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN TURKEY</b> .....	<b>25</b>
4.1 EXTERNAL CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES.....	25
4.1.1 <i>University Autonomy</i> .....	25
4.1.1.1 Autonomy and University Governance .....	28
4.1.1.2 Autonomy and University Budgeting .....	32
4.1.2 <i>Foundation Universities</i> .....	35
4.1.3 <i>Students in University Governance</i> .....	36
4.1.4 <i>Access to Higher Education</i> .....	37
4.1.5 <i>External Accountability</i> .....	39
4.1.6 <i>Inter-Institutional Cooperation</i> .....	41
4.2 INTERNAL CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES.....	42
4.2.1 <i>Institutional Structures and Decision-Making</i> .....	42
4.2.1.1 Mission and Strategy .....	42
4.2.1.2 University-Level Management .....	43
4.2.1.3 Faculty Management .....	46
4.2.1.4 Institutional Structures: Faculties of Medicine .....	48
4.2.1.5 Institutional Structures: Vocational Schools.....	49
4.2.2 <i>The Management of Financial and Human Resources</i> .....	50
4.2.2.1 Financial Management .....	50
4.2.2.2 Human Resources Management .....	52
4.2.3 <i>Teaching</i> .....	53
4.2.3.1 The Bologna Educational Structure, ECTS, the Diploma Supplement and Mobility .....	54
4.2.3.2 Learner-centred Teaching.....	55
4.2.3.3 Relevance of Graduate Knowledge and Skills to Employment .....	56
4.2.3.4 Life-long learning .....	58
4.2.4 <i>Research</i> .....	58
4.2.5 <i>Links with External Stakeholders</i> .....	63
4.2.6 <i>Internal Quality Procedures</i> .....	64
<b>5 CONCLUSIONS</b> .....	<b>66</b>
<b>6 LITERATURE</b> .....	<b>68</b>
<b>7 ANNEXES</b> .....	<b>71</b>
7.1 FIGURES ON HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND ENROLMENT .....	71
7.2 ORGANISATIONS INVOLVED IN HIGHER EDUCATION GOVERNANCE AND REGULATION .....	71
7.2.1 <i>National Bodies</i> .....	71
7.2.2 <i>University Leaders and Bodies</i> .....	72
7.3 ORGANISATION CHART OF HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT BODIES .....	74
7.4 FIGURES ON THE 17 UNIVERSITIES EVALUATED BY IEP .....	75
7.5 PARTICIPANTS IN THE 9-10 MAY 2008 WORKSHOP .....	76
7.6 PARTICIPANTS IN THE 25 JUNE 2008 WORKSHOP.....	77

## Figures

<b>FIGURE 1: MAIN CAMPUS LOCATIONS OF THE 17 UNIVERSITIES EVALUATED BY IEP AND DATES OF EVALUATION.....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>FIGURE 2: THE NATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEM .....</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>FIGURE 3: EXTERNALLY REGULATED ELEMENTS AT PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN TURKEY...</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>FIGURE 4: ASPECTS OF INSTITUTIONAL AUTONOMY .....</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>FIGURE 5: CROSS COUNTRY COMPARISON OF THE EXTENT OF UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY IN 2003 .....</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>FIGURE 6: INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON OF TERTIARY BUDGET ALLOCATION.....</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>FIGURE 7: HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND ENROLMENT IN 2006/07 .....</b>	<b>73</b>
<b>FIGURE 8: HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT BODIES .....</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>FIGURE 9: FIGURES ON THE 17 UNIVERSITIES EVALUATED BY IEP ** .....</b>	<b>77</b>

**Preface**

Intensified global competition, more insistent public demand for accountability, pressures to widen access, stagnating public funding and the global trend towards privatisation of higher education revenues: these are important drivers of change that have created new conditions for higher education. These changes are prompting institutional leaders and governments to examine closely their higher education systems and the institutions that make them up, and to propose reforms to help ensure that national needs are addressed and that the higher education sector contributes effectively to national development.

It is in this context that the European University Association's Institutional Evaluation Programme (IEP) was invited by the Turkish Industrialists' and Businessmen's Association (TÜSİAD) to make a global analysis of the seventeen available evaluation reports on Turkish universities that have been conducted by the Institutional Evaluation Programme between 1998 and early 2007. These institutions volunteered for an institutional evaluation at different times. Although they differ in size, characteristics and geographical location, they face similar challenges, constraints and opportunities. We hope that this report – which highlights the underlying similarities in the seventeen evaluations – will prove useful to institutional leaders and policy makers in Turkey.

On behalf of the authors of this report, I would like to thank TÜSİAD Executive Board for commissioning this project and Nuri M. Colakoğlu, Chairman of TÜSİAD Education Working Group, for contributing to the workshop and seminars that were held in Istanbul in May and June 2008.

Grateful thanks are also extended to the members of the seventeen universities evaluated by EUA, who made the evaluation reports of their universities available for this project. Many of them participated in the May and June workshops. They contributed invaluable information and clarified important issues regarding the Turkish higher education system.

Thanks are also due to Professor Gülsün Saglam, the coordinator of the project, and members of the Coordination Committee Professor Üstün Ergüder, Professor Öktem Vardar and Professor Erdal Emel, who kindly supplied and verified some of the data presented in this report and who served as our liaison with the Turkish universities.

Helena Nazaré  
Chair, IEP Steering Committee



# 1 Executive Summary

The European University Association's Institutional Evaluation Programme (IEP) was invited by the Turkish Industrialists' and Businessmen's Association (TÜSİAD) to analyse the seventeen evaluation reports of Turkish universities that had been conducted by the IEP between 1998 and early 2007. These universities had each approached IEP voluntarily – and financed the evaluation from their own budgets – in order to benchmark their quality against that of universities across Europe. In addition to the seventeen reviews, the present report refers to a number of recent publications on Turkey and higher education in Europe. Three teams of experts from the EUA's Institutional Evaluation Programme pool contributed to the report, including a Coordination Committee that also included members active in the IEP pool. TÜSİAD and EUA signed the contract agreement on 4 April 2008. According to the terms of reference for the IEP analysis, the central aim of this review is to support the development of Turkish universities within a European context. Its specific objectives are to assess the external and internal conditions of higher education institutions in Turkey, and to analyse the strengths and weaknesses that are shared across the sector.

## 1.1 Key Points with Regard to the Higher Education System in Turkey

The Turkish higher education system is at a crossroads. Both educational policy makers and institutional stakeholders, and perhaps also many people in society at large, believe that the system needs to change fundamentally. Expansion has been deliberately supported by the government in order to provide for a young population, and is a dominant factor in the national strategy. The current challenge and opportunity for Turkey is the possibility for progress within a European context. Its responsibility is to ensure that progress and quality improvement on all fronts go hand in hand. There is also an awareness of the need to provide education to ensure modernisation, but this has not been accompanied by either the funds or the structural changes necessary to ensure a high quality of higher education provision.

### *Autonomy and Accountability, External Governance and Diversity*

Turkey is facing a change in its conception of the role of universities in society, just as society in Turkey is changing in response to the influx of new ideas and market forces ushered in by globalisation. A paradigm change affecting the role and function of universities has taken place in Western Europe in the past three decades or so. The effects at universities have been to increase autonomy along with accountability.

In Turkey, autonomous university governance would entail that – within a given national higher education strategy and defined responsibilities to ensure that education is accessible to all members of society – university leaders define the mission and aims of their institutions in accordance with national strategy, and take responsibility for meeting agreed targets. This, in fact, has already been implemented with the recent introduction of the institutional plans that are submitted to the Higher Education Council (YÖK) annually. At the core of the concept of producing institutional strategic plans is that individual institutional plans and targets generate a diversity of institutions and that university leaders are empowered to meet their targets without much interference by national-level regulations. The next step for Turkey would be to reduce the regulatory load imposed by law and YÖK, and to transfer responsibility for administrative and budget management to university leaders. Real autonomy is coupled not only with accountability but also with subsidiarity: within each university, responsibility must also be delegated, and the levels at which responsibility are to be taken must be defined and accounted for.

But if autonomy is to be real, it must be all-embracing. Because all aspects of a university's life are interdependent, any limits on overall autonomy weaken its impact and the benefits that can be achieved. It is thus evident that the imposition of government regulations on universities in Turkey affects strategic aspects of institutional operation. Turkey's higher education autonomy ranked relatively low in 2003, with only partial autonomy for setting academic structure and course content, dismissing academic staff and deciding student enrolment.

Profile building – which leads to diversity within the higher education sector – is a key word in the higher education discussion in Europe. Profile building means that institutions, within a higher education system or internationally, develop specific areas at which they expect to excel because they have the appropriate conditions for developing in such areas, or because they have identified a

strategic need or market demand in these areas to which they believe they can respond. YÖK's detailed regulatory arrangement – together with parliamentary legislation governing internal university structure – must be considered intrusive into university autonomy by today's European standards. This kind of one-size-fits-all legislative corset is not conducive to the development of a specific profile for individual universities and for diversity within the sector.

In practice, universities in Turkey are far from being homogeneous. Several stand out both in excellence and profile, and enjoy a recognition that allows them to draw in top students, academic staff and leadership. If an institution and/or its leadership are well established, they are able (to some extent) to work around the externally set structure. Conversely, however, if the structure could promote diversity, innovation and strong leadership, that would benefit all the universities in the country.

#### *Internal and External Quality Assurance*

Autonomy must be accompanied by responsibility and, therefore, by some form of accountability. This can be achieved by quality assurance procedures, which show that what is being done is good, as well as by good governance with external representation (such as governing boards) to give assurance that what is being judged as good, really is good and useful for society. An effective internal quality assurance system follows all actors and identifies how they meet their responsibilities, and how they can improve their outcomes. But, beyond explicit quality assurance structures, there are other accountability elements at higher education institutions. They range from transparency in the supply of information on the institutions' activities and results, to university advisory boards reflecting on the whole range of activities of an institution.

A 2005 YÖK regulation set up YÖDEK, a body responsible for implementing university quality assurance in the country, mainly by setting quality criteria together with YÖK, and by approving quality assurance agencies. While the system is still in its early stages, YÖK's involvement in quality oversight and its link to both universities and government through its membership, could be a potential cause for concern with regard to the independence of quality judgements, as called for in the "Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area".

The success of quality assurance systems depends on the involvement and commitment of all members of the university community. However, their willingness to contribute to ongoing quality enhancement depends very much on the transparency of the system and on regular feedback on actions taken in response to weaknesses. Internal quality assurance committees are reported to function at all universities, but the system lacks a mandatory external element, which means that an essential feature for making quality assurance effective and external accountability reliable, is missing.

#### *Finance and Funding*

A new law on Public Financial Management, establishing performance-based budgets for state universities, came into force at the beginning of 2006. According to the law, the budget allocation for universities is provided in quarterly instalments based on an agreement between YÖK, the Ministry of Finance and the State Planning Organisation (for the investment budget), and after ratification by Parliament. According to the law, state universities present an annual strategic plan with specific targets, which are monitored and assessed against predetermined indicators. While, in practice, the new law has not been widely implemented, it seems to aim not at rethinking the system from a new viewpoint, but only at changing some elements of the old system. Universities generate their own income from various sources but they are still obliged to follow external regulations on handling surpluses and deficits.

Budgeting can be a valuable management tool for universities if it is a coherent package linked to management autonomy. It can allow university leadership to prioritise resources in order to reach identified institutional targets in accordance with national priorities. Lump-sum budgets and the capacity to raise funds are key elements of institutional autonomy.

An issue in university budgeting discussions in Europe since around 2000 is "full costing". Full cost budgeting means that the total cost in manpower, direct and indirect expenses and incremental costs of each activity in each unit of a higher education institution is identified, and incomes and expenditures are budgeted accordingly. Behind the idea is the need for more accountability and the fact of decreasing public funding for universities and, linked to that, the need for increasingly professionally managed universities able to take individual responsibility for their financial

sustainability. The current change in Turkey to a performance-based funding structure can only be effective if other regulations are relaxed and strategic planning is coupled with the necessary tools to achieve aims and priorities. The use of internal budget allocation plans, with established criteria for allocation, would foster a culture of mutual understanding and responsibility on the part of the university community.

A major setback for universities has been the decision at national level to raise student intake substantially, without providing a corresponding increase in the budget allocation. While higher education spending has increased sharply in the past few years, with the percentage of GDP spent on higher education in 2005 jumping to 1.09 % (from 0.9% of GDP in 1995 and 0.93% in 2004) it falls short of the goal set by the Lisbon Agenda of 2% of GDP on higher education expenditure. For Turkey this means that its budget allocation for higher education needs to continue to expand considerably.

#### *Internal Governance and Decision-Making*

Clearly, the external regulatory framework has an impact on the internal management of higher education institutions in Turkey. It is apparent that the university management structures imposed by external regulation are stifling innovative management. While there were examples of robust leadership and creative initiatives in the IEP review reports, the structure as a whole is not conducive to differentiation and flexible adaptation to external challenges. On the contrary, the official structure is fragmented and acts as a disincentive to inter-faculty cooperation and interdisciplinarity on the one hand, and to much duplication of courses and activities leading to a dissipation of resources on the other. With respect to internal structures and decision making at universities in Turkey, the IEP review reports repeatedly noted the lack of university-wide policies, such as a university-wide quality policy or research policy. Moreover, the external regulatory framework was reported to also stifle human resource management at universities. At the level of individual staff, the additional teaching load required for living expenses precludes a capacity for research.

Both the senate and administrative board in each university are key resources for the strategic management of the university. Rectors should have the capacity to take active leadership positions in chairing each of these. The aim should be to extract maximum strategic development potential from the senate and the administrative board. However, given that the size of the senate is generally too large to be operational, each rector should ensure that there is an active and developmental rectorate management group in existence in his/her university. In Turkey, boards of trustees are a legal requirement at foundation universities. As the higher education system is being reconsidered, policy-makers and universities can look to the model set by the country's foundation institutions and take advantage of their experience by considering the establishment of advisory boards with external members. Such boards could ensure that universities are managed properly and that accountability is assured, without the need for intrusion into university management by government regulations.

Two major concerns about the current faculty arrangement emerged from the analysis of internal structures. One was the how the structure obstructs teaching and conducting research in interdisciplinary areas. The relatively autonomous faculties exist as entities in themselves and there is little stimulus for interaction and initiating common programmes. The other concern was the lack of authority on the part of the central administration to influence faculties on strategic matters. Strong academic self-governance and the internal election of rectors and deans have been identified as impediments to strategic responsiveness of universities in modern societies.

#### *Relevance of Teaching Content and Research to the Needs of Society*

The main teaching method at most universities reviewed is *ex cathedra*. There is merit to transmitting information in a lecture format in some courses and subject areas, but the change to more interactive learning methods has become a necessity in response to mass education and concerns about employability. The acquisition of knowledge and skills is promoted by encouraging students to work on independent problem solving, project-based learning, teamwork, and independent learning assignments. How well are graduates equipped to take on work in the real world? How abstract is the knowledge they acquire at colleges or universities? Can they use that knowledge in real job situations? At Turkish universities there is the perception that students are not equipped with the knowledge and skills they need to enter the job market. Some technically-oriented universities have set up advisory boards composed of industrial stakeholders to collaborate on designing study programmes that are relevant to the job market. These are good initiatives which, if disseminated, could serve as models for other universities in the country.

The relevance of research in Europe in the context its competitiveness in a global economy has been at the forefront of thinking about the European Higher Education Area and European Research Area, and subsequently the Lisbon agenda. Inter-university cooperation in research, is a key to ensuring both the feasibility and viability of research projects.

In Turkey, research indicators have shown an exponential increase in activity over the last few years. The number of masters' graduates increased four-fold, and that of doctoral graduates doubled in the last decade. However, there is still a dearth of lecturers and researchers; and a coherent and forward looking human resource strategy, linking strategies at both national and university levels, is urgently needed.

IEP reviewers found that many universities did not have a research strategy or policy, and (which is not unrelated) that there was no university-level body for coordinating research. They also found that, due to the fragmentary structure of universities, there was a marked lack of interdisciplinarity, and low motivation on the part of the academic staff, due to both their overextended teaching load (necessary for earning additional income) and to the civil servant/tenure status that offers little stimulus for research.

Academic staff salary can be seen as one major stumbling block to research productivity. This means that much of the funding dedicated to this area may well be useless without a national investment in competitive salaries in higher education. The fragmentary structure of universities also affects research productivity. It is one of the obstacles to greater involvement of academic staff in viable projects, where given existing heavy teaching loads, participation would be better distributed in larger, interdisciplinary teams. Another important instrument for promoting viable research is the creation of central coordinating bodies or offices under the authority of the rector or a vice-rector, which already happens in several universities in Turkey. Finally, there is a great need for improving language learning to ensure the competitiveness of graduates in the global labour market in the medium- and long-term.

#### *Links with External Stakeholders*

Technological Development Regions in Turkey have been established in recognition of the economic advantages of research partnerships between universities and industry. Existing, and potential industry-university links have potential for further advantages for universities, such as inviting a governing board to provide critical input into university affairs; training links generating increased practical skills as well as potential employment contacts for students; the involvement of business and industry experts in designing employment-relevant courses, to mention but a few.

Most of the IEP reports pointed out, however, that there was no formal way of collecting information on external interaction, or on the existence of a formal concept and strategy on university priorities that would identify how interaction with external stakeholders could contribute to advancing various university goals.

In conclusion, the rapid expansion of the higher education sector in Turkey makes it pressing to reconsider the system as a whole. Policy makers and university players in Turkey are largely aware of the urgency for revision, as testified by the many studies written or commissioned on the subject, including international ones. This report joins the host of advocates for change. It differs from the other analyses in that it was produced by current or former European institutional leaders, from a perspective that considers both the internal university community and the place of a university in the external world. Yet the main observations are very much the same as those in the other reports.

## **1.2 Chapter Summaries and Recommendations**

### *Autonomy and University Governance*

Autonomy and accountability are self-evident principles related to academic freedom. Autonomy is necessary to allow for diversity across institutions and to improve efficiency in the use of resources. It is also important as a precondition for creativity and innovation to flourish. YÖK has played an important role as a buffer organisation to ensure that higher education is free of political influence, a role it should continue to play in the future. YÖK should be a national-level representative and coordinating body for higher education institutions that makes policy proposals to the government on issues concerning the higher education system and its direction. Its detailed regulatory powers,

however – together with parliamentary legislation governing internal university structure – must be considered harmful to university autonomy. Several Turkish universities stand out both in excellence and profile, but there seems to be a gap between legislative and operational autonomy. If the structure were to promote diversity, then innovation and strong leadership could benefit the universities in the whole country.

- Transform YÖK into a national body that represents higher education to government, proposes higher education policies, coordinates and directs higher education institutions at the system level.
- Revise legislation and YÖK regulations to minimise intrusion into the internal management, structure and other functions of universities.
- Consider the possibility of establishing a Rectors' Conference with an operational-size membership to replace the current dual structure of the Inter-University Council and the existing Rectors' Committee.
- Establish a national strategy to reach Turkey's aims as set down in the Bologna process.
- Strike a balance between consultation-time and decision making. A thorough discussion of proposed changes should take place in the higher education community and society at large. At the same time, once changes are decided, these should follow a set time plan.

#### *Autonomy and University Budgeting*

Funding must be secured for several years, rather than being negotiated annually; and universities must have enough resources to fulfil their aims and objectives. Diversified funding sources provide flexibility of resources and allocation, but a more independent management structure could facilitate a flexible and intensive exploitation of non-state funding sources.

- Match the public budget allocation to enrolment expansion so that it is sufficient to meet targets set down in the institutions' strategic statement.
- Develop further performance-based budgeting.
- Provide state financing as lump-sum budget allocations to universities.
- Deregulate the internal use of revolving funds to allow universities free allocation of internally generated revenues in accordance with internal plans and long and short-term needs.
- Remove time-related restrictions (such as budgetary years) on the use of surpluses.

#### *Foundation Universities*

The rise in private, foundation institutions of higher learning indicates that there is a market need for such establishments in Turkey, even if their overall enrolment is still small compared to the total student population. Arguably, some of the regulations imposed on foundation universities in this country are more intrusive than the need for accountability would call for. The main concern with the private sector lies in the sense of inequality on the part of academics in state institutions and some policy-makers, due to the difference in salary levels between the two types of institutions, which draws staff away from state universities.

- When reconsidering the regulatory framework for universities, reconsider it also with respect to foundation universities.
- Re-examine the general financial situation of academics at public universities, also with respect to the sharp differences in salaries with those at the foundation universities.

#### *Students in University Governance*

Student participation in institutional governance is a pivotal constituent in the Bologna process. At many Turkish universities, students are not generally seen as partners in institutional decision making.

- Organise a nation-wide debate involving both academic staff and students about the role of students in higher education institutions in order to promote understanding of this fundamental concept.
- Implement and practise the participation of students at all levels of decision making, with full voting rights.

#### *Access to Higher Education*

The placement system used by the Student Selection and Placement Centre ÖSYM is widely reported to be extremely stressful for students and their families; and equity outcomes are considered questionable, favouring wealthy families who pay for extensive preparatory courses. The enormous gap between higher education applications and placements is a challenge for higher education and Turkish society; a solution would need to take also social considerations.



- Review the higher education placement system to balance consideration for institutional autonomy and a national access strategy: involve a broad spectrum of stakeholders in working out and discussing a variety of placement models.
- Promote financial equity of higher education access by expanding the current support system in addition to considering a scheme, in discussion with a broad spectrum of stakeholders, for encouraging the establishment of private scholarships.

#### *External Accountability*

YÖK's involvement in quality oversight calls into question the independence of quality judgements. At the same time, the system lacks a mandatory external control mechanism, which would be essential for making quality assurance effective and external accountability reliable.

- Review the three-tier quality assurance system so that the role of the three players, YÖK, YÖDEK and the quality assurance agencies, is rationalised and that they each have a separate and complementary focus in relation to quality assurance.
- Encourage the external quality assurance body or agencies to participate in international events and activities, in order to benchmark their processes against international trends.
- Support other external accountability measures by granting universities as much autonomy as possible to turn to a quality assurance agency of their choice, but also make external quality monitoring mandatory for all universities.

#### *Inter-Institutional Cooperation*

There is great potential to be exploited by encouraging interaction between universities in Turkey, in teaching and in research, but also in sharing resources such as equipment, and in improving national mobility of students and staff.

- Pursue further inter-university cooperation to redress the imbalance of existing university capacity in order to meet the educational needs of the young population.
- Support the use of ECTS as both a credit accumulation and transfer system in order to promote student and staff mobility to other universities not just abroad but also within the country.
- Disseminate awareness about the potential advantages of inter-institutional cooperation in the form of workshops and seminars.

#### *Institutional Structures and Decision Making: Mission and Strategy, University-Level Management*

All universities reviewed had a mission statement; but few of them had comprehensive strategic plans, and even fewer had derived budget or research plans. The implementation of the university's strategic plan is a rector's responsibility, but the current rigid regulatory structure reduces his or her flexibility to take action to address urgent and important issues. The rector does not have the right to choose deans and a management board directly, who, as part of the rector's team, could be important partners in implementing strategy. The current size and composition of senates and administrative boards act against implementing university policy, since the deans and elected members of faculties prioritise faculty and departmental interests. Universities with autonomous decision-making structures should have advisory boards with external members to ensure that the university is managed properly and that accountability can be assured without the need for intrusion by government regulation into university management.

- Involve university members in strategic discussions on the role and profile of the institution, engage all university stakeholders in determining a clear mission that reflects the strengths and aims of the university, and motivate each individual to contribute to carrying it out.
- Develop an implementation plan for the strategy, identifying the university's needs and priorities, setting up a timeline for actions identified, and setting down responsibilities for different actors.
- Base the selection of rectors on merit; and conduct it by a board that represents all stakeholders – university staff and students, external stakeholders – that would guarantee transparency and real competition.
- Reconsider the functions of vice-rectors and assign them oversight over identified strategic areas as well as other spheres of responsibility not necessarily related to academic matters. The number of vice-rectors should be decided by the university.
- Consider setting up a rectorate management board consisting of the rector, vice-rectors and the administrative director.
- Consider advisory boards taking over the supervisory role for individual universities as an option for state universities. Ensure that the advisory board represents all stakeholders:

external society, students and university staff. This is an important counterbalance to the senate, which represents only faculties. Examine experiences with boards of trustees at foundation universities to serve as a possible governance model.

#### *Faculty-Level Management*

Faculties are relatively autonomous, which is not conducive to interaction or to joint or interdisciplinary programmes between units. The central administration does not have the authority to influence faculties on strategic matters.

- Review the internal faculty structure to make decision making more operational, possibly by reducing the number and size of faculty-level bodies.
- Identify leadership tasks at faculties and devolve these to existing heads of units at various levels beyond the tasks assigned to them by law.
- Ensure an internal structure in which staff and students at faculties and research institutes can easily interact for teaching and research projects with a special view to interdisciplinary areas at both undergraduate and graduate levels.

#### *Institutional Structures: Faculties of Medicine*

The Turkish system with regard to university hospitals is different to that in most European countries, where hospitals are completely managed and financed under separate governance and usually under the Ministries of Health. Within the compound structure of Turkish universities, medical faculties and the hospitals affiliated with them, generate considerable income for the university, and consequently have an important voice in the decision making. The other faculties and the university as a whole would benefit not only from the income that supports research, but from synergies in education and research, especially in the growing number and variety of interdisciplinary fields. Moreover, the role of these medical services in the community at large is very important.

- Carefully consider ways of having university hospitals and medical faculties as part of a fully integrated university as regards academic and research work, to further interdisciplinarity.
- Link hospital involvement in the external community with the identity and image of the university as a whole towards both external and internal stakeholders.

#### *Institutional Structures: Vocational Schools*

Vocational schools were established to meet the demand for educating a young population and to contribute to lowering unemployment, but the quality and content of teaching is not in line with employers' demands. Vocational schools within universities could provide better education if there were greater synergy with the whole institution. But independent vocational schools outside universities also would be viable. They could build their own profile, tailor their provision to regional market needs, and uphold business and service links with the external community.

- Consider in the global university strategy how to integrate vocational schools as part of the university.
- Involve vocational school leaders in the decision making in all university-level bodies.
- Via the ECTS credit system, enable recognition of studies to lead into bachelor courses, but also ensure the quality of the vocational programmes by upgrading the staff of vocational schools so that vocational schools can really become the first level of tertiary education.
- Ensure that vocational graduates have employable knowledge and skills by redesigning curricula in collaboration with representatives from business and industry. Using these contacts, ensure that vocational school students have access to practical training in business and industry.

#### *Financial Management*

In spite of the fact that a recent law requires universities to develop strategic plans, with state financing being allocated for identified targets, the overall findings from the IEP review reports were that there was little coherent strategy at institutional level for income generation and distribution.

- Identify a global budget and work out its distribution (beyond the amounts fixed by externally determined formulas) in relation to strategy and priorities, optimising its use and taking into account all university units.
- Explore a variety of internal budgeting models to find the one best suited for the particular university and in the light of European developments.
- Engage the university community in taking joint responsibility for using the budget allocation to promote the institution's development.

### *Human Resources Management*

Given the low civil servant salaries, individual staff members take on additional teaching loads to supplement their incomes; but this reduces their capacity for research. Job security is another factor, which, in the current environment, is a disincentive to innovative teaching and research, since university staff are civil servants and obtain tenure after set periods of time spent in positions. This will become a problem when the large number of young staff will all seek promotion to the top positions simultaneously. Inbreeding is a common trait, with most staff the IEP reviewers interviewed having graduated from the same university. The positions of administrative staff are determined externally, without reflecting internal need. Staff development strategies, training for new positions, and job exchange programmes within a university are seldom practised.

- Make human resource planning and management a part of strategic management based on short, medium and long term goals.
- Set up a differentiated merit system linked to a career plan that allows salary increases based on merit and which includes not only teaching but also research performance and participation in staff development as well as student feedback results.
- Build up staff development strategies, training for new positions, and job exchange programmes within each university.
- Provide staff training in new teaching methodologies and the learner-centred approach to education.

### *The Bologna Educational Structure, ECTS, the Diploma Supplement and Mobility*

The educational structure in Turkey involves a dominantly four-year bachelor, a two-year master and a four-year doctorate. However, the credit system in Turkey relates to contact hours and does not include independent workload, which lies at the foundation of the ECTS system. With credits being based on contact hours, the total workload is much higher than is usual in the European Higher Education Area. The Diploma Supplement is given to all students on request. Awareness of the Bologna process and the need for international involvement was evident throughout the reports. Nevertheless, actual mobility and international activities seemed to vary greatly between universities.

- Review the two-cycle curricula with regard to a workload-based ECTS system.
- Develop a national strategy for promoting student and staff mobility, both within the country and abroad.

### *Learner-centred Teaching*

Mass education and the need to provide large numbers of graduates with employable skills require a change to more interactive learning methods. The acquisition of knowledge and skills is promoted by methods such as involving students in independent problem solving, project-based learning, teamwork, and independent learning assignments. It is vital that the academic staff have ready access to training programmes in the new teaching methods.

- Promote outcome-based learning alongside traditional teaching methods, by revisiting existing curricula to incorporate transmitting skills and competences for the four levels of post-secondary/higher education.
- Set up a university unit, for example in teacher-training faculties, to organise staff development programmes for disseminating the new teaching methods.

### *Relevance of Graduate Knowledge and Skills to Employment*

In Turkey, higher education graduates have a high unemployment rate, which implies that students in many universities do not acquire the knowledge and skills relevant for the job market. Lack of foreign language skills is a special concern, since it limits access to knowledge for future generations. Several universities in Turkey are aware of the employability concern and have begun to tackle it.

- Revise curricula, in consultation with employers, in order to increase employability of graduates and to ensure that students acquire practical and transferable skills to be able to adapt to changing work environments over the longer term.
- Address the issue of language learning at all levels of schooling and higher education, including a large-scale programme to train language teachers.

### *Life-long Learning*

The country's focus at present is to deal with its young population and thus life-long learning has not been among its priorities. Nevertheless, life-long learning is present in most universities, either as a means to generate funding by providing it as a service to the external community or for social reasons, or both. However, credits are not given for these programmes.



- Use ECTS for adult education and community-led programmes in order to promote life-long learning in the community at large.
- Consider life-long learning as a business opportunity that yields valuable financial and social returns, and consequently be more pro-active and market-oriented in relation to life-long learning.
- Integrate life-long learning programmes with vocational programmes.

### *Research*

The relevance of research in Europe in the context of its competitiveness in a global economy has been at the forefront of the Lisbon agenda and subsequently the Bologna process. Universities, traditionally the prime research establishments, are being scrutinised as to the relevance of their research in the market place. In Turkey there has been a rapid expansion over the last two decades or so in investment in R&D, including that in higher education; and universities in this country are advancing very rapidly in their research metrics. However, considering the size of the country, there is enormous potential in Turkey to advance further. There is a shortage of qualified young staff, in part because funding for the current schemes is too low to make them attractive enough. But the greatest obstacles to enhancing research at Turkish universities are a) a lack of comprehensive institutional research strategies based on the universities' overall missions and strategies; b) the fragmentary structure of universities, which impede comprehensive targets and interdisciplinarity, and c) the lack of motivation of the academic staff for doing research. Technological Development Regions provide a good model for universities to link up with business and industry to promote research.

- Set up a university-wide research strategy in accordance with the university's mission, profile and overall strategy.
- Set up a central, university-level office or body under the rector or a vice-rector to coordinate research, ensure interdisciplinarity, and coherence in projects and in the use of resources.
- Promote the establishment of interdisciplinary, problem-oriented research centres reporting directly to the rector.
- Support an increase in public resources devoted to university-based basic (fundamental) scientific research, with funding allocated through national competition.
- Continue to support the national programme to develop centres of excellence.
- Couple R&D funding provided by the government with a reasonable rise in academic salaries to promote research capacity and innovation.
- Create incentives for staff, such as the recognition of achievements through promotion or financial reward, to overcome the low motivation of the academic staff<sup>1</sup>.
- Work on a human resources strategy to handle the bottleneck in new research assistants/PhDs expecting to enter university positions in growing numbers.
- Set up an academic and research staff mobility scheme, and increase support for existing programmes involving PhD students/research assistants both at national level and via bilateral agreements between universities.
- Run quality assurance schemes that encompass research performance and scrutinise interaction among different university units and with external entities, to ensure relevance and interdisciplinarity in research.

### *Links with External Stakeholders*

Fourteen of the reviewed universities provided services to the community by way of hospitals and health centres. Additional community services included lifelong learning programmes, training for companies, and links with business, consultancies and affiliations with techno-parks or similar set-ups. However, in most Turkish universities reviewed there was no formal way of collecting information on external interaction, or on the existence of a formal concept and strategy on university priorities that would identify how interaction with external stakeholders could contribute to advancing various university goals. An Institutional Communications Office could be a viable instrument for strengthening university links with the community.

- Exploit the potential that exists in Turkish universities through their involvement in community services, primarily through health care but also other areas, to a much greater degree.
- Gather information on stakeholder links and identify the advantages of such links.
- Communicate the advantages to external stakeholders as well as to members of the university, in order to strengthen their sense of identity.

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<sup>1</sup> This is due both to their overextended teaching load (needed for generating additional income) and to their civil servant/tenure status, which provides little stimulus for research

- Include stakeholder links in the university strategy, along with plans on how to expand, and improve them systematically.

### *Internal Quality Procedures*

Quality assurance is at the very basis of the Bologna process. YÖDEK was established under YÖK to work out a comprehensive quality assurance system. Most universities in Turkey had been applying various elements of quality assurance internally, but now, in response to national legislation, all universities in Turkey are introducing central quality management. However, it is important to look beyond the individual instruments in such a system and recognise its strategic significance for the improvement of all aspects of the university and the responsible involvement of all members of the university community.

- Allow institutions to develop diverse internal quality assurance systems to serve their individual needs, while providing an overarching framework of minimum standards to ensure national and international comparability. The system must not stifle creativity through excessive bureaucracy.
- Incorporate quality assurance into the university's overall strategy, which would involve a central quality assurance office under the rector or a vice-rector.
- Implement a university-wide quality assurance system, while abiding by YÖDEK guidelines.
- Make all members of the university community responsible for their part in quality assurance, but reporting to the central office.

### *Conclusions*

An agreed mission and vision for higher education in Turkey is an urgent task for the higher education community. Building on it should be a national strategy that should be based on subsidiarity, and that should set timelines and assign responsibilities to actors. It will be important that, once a new higher education strategy has been agreed, and the steps for implementation have been launched, a period of consolidation should follow. The Turkish higher education system has been in constant upheaval for many years. Under ever-changing conditions it is difficult to ask for commitment or to insist on responsibility from those involved.

University leaders must be allowed to develop their capacity for strategic thinking, for devising overarching policies and for motivating the members of the university to exploit their potential. Individual success is a powerful driver, and individual satisfaction is a robust instrument for leaders to push for maximum commitment as well as for openness to consensus-building among members of the university. The success of universities, more than most other organisations, relies on the creativity of its employees. Responsibility with real consequences that the leadership has the power to implement, coupled with individual commitment, initiative and innovation, are what a university environment is about, in Turkey as elsewhere.

## **2 Introduction and Background**

### **2.1 Turkish Higher Education in the European Environment**

The Turkish higher education system is at a crossroads. Both educational policy makers and institutional stakeholders, and perhaps also many people in society at large, believe that the system has now reached the point where it needs to change fundamentally. A number of studies have been done in the last few years analysing the system and offering suggestions for changes. To mention only those available in English, TÜSIAD, the Turkish Industrialists' and Businessmen's Association, produced a report in 2003 entitled "The Restructuring of Higher Education: Basic Principles"; Andris Barblan, Kemal Gürüz and Üstün Ergüder prepared a report on policy recommendations for Turkish higher education that was published earlier this year, and in 2006 the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) prepared a strategy for Turkish higher education until 2025. Other critical analyses, such as a 2006 study by Sachi Hatakenaka, look at specific aspects of Turkish higher education and suggest future action. The World Bank, moreover, recently conducted two studies on higher education in Turkey, in 2005 and 2007.

This is not the first time that Turkey has been at a similar crossroads; there have been three identifiable major changes to higher education in Turkey. Soon after modern Turkey was founded in 1923, Kemal Atatürk, the first president of modern Turkey, initiated fundamental reforms in 1931 to modernise higher education. In 1981, the Law on Higher Education (Law No. 2547), still effective today, provided the legal framework for the sector, established YÖK and made provision for

establishing private, so-called 'foundation' universities. A 1992 law (Law No. 3826) was significant for its political implications, since it changed the rectors' election procedure in order to allow for nominations by the respective universities but without intervention by YÖK. The latter clause was later overturned by the Council of State.<sup>2</sup> In all, the 1981 higher education law "has been changed twenty-five times with permanent amendments, altered in eighty-six clauses; with twenty-three additional permanent articles, and several temporary articles. With these changes the Law is no longer functioning as a founding legislative act. Thus, a new foundation law is necessary."<sup>3</sup> Discussions on a new law have been ongoing for several years.

The expansion of Turkish higher education has been remarkable. Between 1923 and 2004

- the number of universities increased from 1 to 78
- student enrolment went from 2,914 to 1,820,994
- the annual number of graduates increased from 321 to 282,911 and
- the number of academic staff jumped from 307 to 78,804.<sup>4</sup>

In addition to another university established after 2001, 15 were launched with a new law in March 2006. For the academic year 2006/07 the total enrolment had reached 2.419.214 students.<sup>5</sup>

The Bologna progress reports also reveal a dynamic development in Turkey in various aspects of higher education. "Almost all universities have 'continuous education centres' contributing to [lifelong learning] ... The [proposals] on the establishment of national student representatives have been submitted to the Council of Higher Education ... With the 6<sup>th</sup> Framework Programme, Turkey has joined ... The National Team of 12 Bologna Promoters has been formed ... [and] 16 technological development regions ... in the campuses of higher education institutions were established ... ." <sup>6</sup> The number of Technological Development Regions (TDRs) had reached 22 in 2006,<sup>7</sup> and more are reported to have been set up since then.

The current challenge and opportunity for Turkey is the potential for progress in its European engagement. Expansion in the past was deliberately supported by the government in response to demographic trends – there are 20 million young people aged between 10 and 24 and this number is expected to grow until 2020<sup>8</sup>. This is the dominant factor in the national strategy. There is also an awareness of the need to provide education to ensure modernisation, though this has not been accompanied by either the funds or the structural changes necessary to ensure high quality provision<sup>9</sup>. The structural changes revolve most notably around the degree of autonomy of higher education institutions in Turkey. The problem of overregulation turns up again and again in the literature, just as it does without exception in all the IEP review reports.

The representative higher education organisations such as YÖK, the Inter-University Council and the Rectors' Committee, together with the university community, business and industry representatives and organisations such as TÜSİAD, must be at the forefront of defining the role of the university in modern Turkey, in a dialogue with society at large. With the Bologna process and the Lisbon agenda, universities have been assigned a key role in the "knowledge society", where human potential is the driver of modernisation and development. To exploit this potential, the right conditions have to be created so that individual creativity and commitment are encouraged. Autonomy is a self-evident principle in regard to academic freedom. It is necessary to allow for diversity between institutions and to improve efficiency in the use of resources. It is also important as a precondition if creativity and innovation are to flourish. In the field of higher education this means that universities will need autonomy to make their own decisions about internal affairs but in accordance with a national strategy and vision. Turkey has taken huge steps to expand its "knowledge production" in just a few decades by establishing scores of universities to cover large parts of the country.

<sup>2</sup> Barblan Andris, Gürüz, Kemal and Ergüder, Üstün (2008) p. 65

<sup>3</sup> Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) (2006). p. 103.

<sup>4</sup> Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) (2006). p. 48

<sup>5</sup> Republic of Turkey (2007) p.19

<sup>6</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2004-2005

<sup>7</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 68

<sup>8</sup> World Bank, Turkey (2007). p. 3

<sup>9</sup> Ergüder, Üstün; Sevük, Suha; Şahin, Mehmet; Terzioğlu, Tosun; Vardar, Öktem (2003). Executive summary manuscript p. 2

The next step is a qualitative one: not just in the formal sense that quality assurance will be understood and functioning in order to foster a quality culture, but much more fundamentally, in that the definition of the university in Turkey will become at once broader and narrower. Broader in the sense that the university will be understood – by society, and not only by those involved in higher education – not just as a generator of knowledge and research, but as a player in the social and economic development of regions, the nation and the global community. Narrower in the sense that the current all-encompassing and one-size-fits-all approach to legislating for and governing universities will give way to a regulatory environment that will encourage universities to cater to defined publics, and where the individual profile of each university will be able to emerge. Both concepts will have to be recognised and understood by society at large. A dialogue between universities and businesses and industry, communities and society will be established as a permanent feature in this knowledge-based society. Universities, YÖK and the many other organisations involved in higher education, must open up communication channels with society to make this development happen.

## 2.2 Scope of the Project

The European University Association Institutional Evaluation Programme (IEP) was invited by the Turkish Industrialists' and Businessmen's Association (TÜSİAD) to analyse the seventeen evaluation reports of Turkish universities that have been prepared by the IEP between 1998 and early 2007. A new higher education legal framework is under discussion in Turkey. TÜSİAD, an organisation that has already commissioned several reports on Turkish higher education, is interested in gaining a European perspective on several key aspects of the Turkish higher education system in order to provide the universities and the government with background information on the current state of Turkish higher education and to assist in developing a clear national higher education strategy.

TÜSİAD and EUA signed an agreement on the project on 4 April 2008. According to the terms of reference, the central aim of the review is to support the development of Turkish universities within a European context. Its specific objectives are to assess the external and internal conditions of higher education institutions in Turkey and analyse the strengths and weaknesses that are shared across the sector. The review is to examine both external and internal dimensions of the institutions reviewed, specifically:

1. external aspects:

- a) key dimensions of university autonomy
- b) the current accountability processes
- c) inter-institutional level coordination

2. internal aspects:

- a) the extent to which the current institutional structures support effective decision-making and strategy
- b) whether financial and human resources are appropriate for carrying out their mission
- c) teaching: progress in implementing the Bologna reforms; how far does education meet societal needs?
- d) research: institutional research strategies; innovation; inter-institutional cooperation; participation in European exchange programmes
- e) internal quality assurance procedures
- f) links with external stakeholders.

## 2.3 Background on the EUA Institutional Evaluation Programme

The Association of European Universities (EUA) offers its member universities, over 800 members (universities and conferences of rectors) in 46 countries – including 50 Turkish universities –, the opportunity to have their strengths and weaknesses in the area of institutional and quality management reviewed. The reviews are conducted under EUA's Institutional Evaluation Programme (IEP). IEP evaluations are peer reviews; the members of evaluation teams are all current or former rectors, presidents or other leaders of higher education institutions; hence, they are familiar with the challenges university leaders face, and are in a position to ask relevant questions. An IEP evaluation is a tool designed to assist current university leaders in their efforts to improve their strategic management processes and to promote their university's capacity for change. According to its *Institutional Evaluation Programme Guidelines*, IEP asks its Review Teams to "examine the following areas:

- Decision-making processes and institutional structures and effectiveness of strategic planning
- Relevance of internal quality processes and degree to which their outcomes are used in decision-making and strategic planning as well as perceived gaps in the internal mechanisms [and] processes.”

IEP began thirteen years ago and, to date, nearly 250 evaluations in 39 countries (including from outside Europe) have been conducted. The review process is a consultative, supportive and formative one that starts with the specific mission and goals of each institution. The formative nature is underscored by the fact that the cornerstone of a review is the self-evaluation phase, which provides the opportunity to the university community as a whole to understand its institution's strengths and weaknesses as well as the opportunities and threats it faces.

Since 2001, IEP has conducted coordinated institutional evaluations within a country or region with the aim of identifying shared issues and the strengths and weaknesses that are common to the higher education institutions in a country. Coordinated reviews were conducted in Serbia (2001-2002), Bosnia-Herzegovina (2003-2004), Ireland (2004-2005), Catalonia (2004-2008), Slovakia (2005-2008); and Portugal (2006-2009). The current analysis of the Turkish higher education system is thus the seventh such exercise conducted by IEP.

## **2.4 Project Methodology**

The Turkish system review is different from the other coordinated evaluations to the extent that each of the 17 evaluations took place at the request of each university over a period of ten years. The 17 universities in Turkey that have been reviewed by the IEP have agreed to cooperate in this analysis based on their institutional evaluation reports. (The universities are listed in Section 2.5.)

The individual institutions were evaluated by teams composed usually of three, current or former university leaders and a secretary, making up a total of 42 experts from 20 European countries. The evaluations were based on the institutions' self-evaluation reports that described their mission and aims, challenges and opportunities. The teams conducted two site visits to each institution, where they analysed how far the universities were able to overcome their challenges and take advantage of their opportunities in fulfilling their mission and aims.

It should be noted that another four universities were undergoing evaluation by the IEP in 2008 but could not be included in this report since the procedure was not completed. However, some members of the Turkish system review team also participated in the ongoing evaluations and contributed their experiences gained there. Therefore they have brought to this report their appreciation of the fast pace of development in the Turkish higher education system.

For the Turkish review, the IEP set up a panel of three university leaders who conducted evaluations in Turkey and a secretary who prepared the desk research and the report. Members of the panel were

- Professor Jarmo Visakorpi, former rector, University of Tampere, former chair of the Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council FINHEEC, Finland, panel chair;
- Professor Fuada Stankovic, former rector, University of Novi Sad, Serbia;
- Professor Julio Pedrosa, former rector, University of Aveiro and former Minister of Education, Portugal;
- Christina Rozsnyai, programme officer, Hungarian Accreditation Committee, Secretary General, Central and Eastern European Network of Quality Assurance Agencies, Team secretary.

In addition, a contact group of six IEP experts who had participated in institutional evaluations in Turkey was formed. The contact group served to contribute information during all stages of the evaluation process. The members of the contact group were

- Professor Bertrand Weil, former vice-president, University of Paris XII, France,
- Professor Maria Helena Nazaré, rector, University of Aveiro, Portugal,
- Professor Ivan Ostrovsky, former vice-rector, Comenius University, Slovakia
- Professor Jacques Lanarés, vice-rector, University of Lausanne, Switzerland,



- Professor Kenneth Edwards, former vice-chancellor, University of Leicester, UK, former president of CRE (now EUA),
- Professor Noel Whelan, vice president Emeritus, University of Limerick, Ireland, and president of the European University Foundation.

IEP also drew on its experience and contacts with higher education experts from Turkey who made up the Coordination Committee. They were Professor Gülsün Sağlam, former rector of Istanbul Technical University; Professor Üstün Ergüder, director of the Istanbul Policy Centre at Sabanci University; Professor Öktem Vardar, provost of Isik University; and Professor Erdal Emel, vice-rector of Uludag University. The Coordination Committee also included Mr. Nuri M. Colakoglu representing TÜSİAD.

The panel and the contact group attended two meetings in Istanbul on 9-10 May and on 25 June 2008. The May workshop, hosted by TÜSİAD, was attended by TÜSİAD representatives, including the Secretary General Dr. R. Haluk Tükel, and top representatives from the 17 universities reviewed by IEP. It provided an opportunity to discuss with the Turkish institutional leadership issues that were felt to be important to the writing of this report. Thus the purpose of the May workshop was to review progress on the draft report and clarify open issues in five working group sessions, each divided into three working groups. The topics were:

- System governance issues
  - Governance and funding
  - Governance and staff policies
  - Governance and quality assurance
  - Institutional governance and inter-institutional cooperation
- Update on implementing Bologna
- Research issues
  - Research policy and funding
  - Research policy and infrastructure and human resources
  - Research policy and internal and external cooperation
- Access to higher education and international exchange

The workshop brought much new information, especially in light of the most recent developments in Turkish higher education. In some areas the comments of the participants set the preliminary findings in a different perspective and they were revised in this final report. (The list of participants in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop is presented in the Annex, Section 7.5.)

The panel also had an internal meeting in Brussels on 5 June where it reviewed the draft report and Executive Summary to be presented at the June conference. The second Istanbul event on 25 June 2008 was organised so that the IEP panel and the representatives of the 17 reviewed universities could discuss the final draft of the report together with the Coordination Committee. Input from these discussions led to some final changes in the report. (The list of participants in the 25 June 2008 workshop is presented in the Annex, Section 7.6.)

For additional information about individual universities, their respective websites were consulted. General background information on the Turkish higher education system comprised first of all information available from the website of YÖK and Turkey's Bologna National Reports, as well as seven reports related to higher education in Turkey. An OECD publication entitled "Thematic Review of Tertiary Education" (2008) provided international comparisons. Additional literature for benchmarking Turkish practices against European trends included the EUA Trends III, IV and V studies (2003, 2005 and 2007 respectively), an EUA study of four European knowledge regions by Sybille Reichert entitled "The Rise of Knowledge Regions" (2006), and World Bank studies. The full list of the literature consulted is provided in the bibliography at the end of this paper.

Since only one of the universities reviewed by IEP was a private one, its report was used in relation to the higher education system in general. In the analysis of the internal structures of universities, the focus and quoted excerpts from reviews refer to state universities unless otherwise indicated.

## 2.5 Universities in Turkey Reviewed by IEP

Over the course of nine years, EUA (and its predecessor CRE), through its IEP, has evaluated 17 universities in Turkey. These universities had approached IEP voluntarily – and financed the

evaluation from their own budgets – in order to benchmark their quality against that of universities across Europe. Bogazici University was the pioneer in 1999, followed by the University of Marmara in 2002, two universities in 2003, three in 2005, four in 2006, five in 2007, with one in early 2008 concluded before the completion of this report. (A further four universities were being reviewed at the time of the writing of this report and could not be included.)

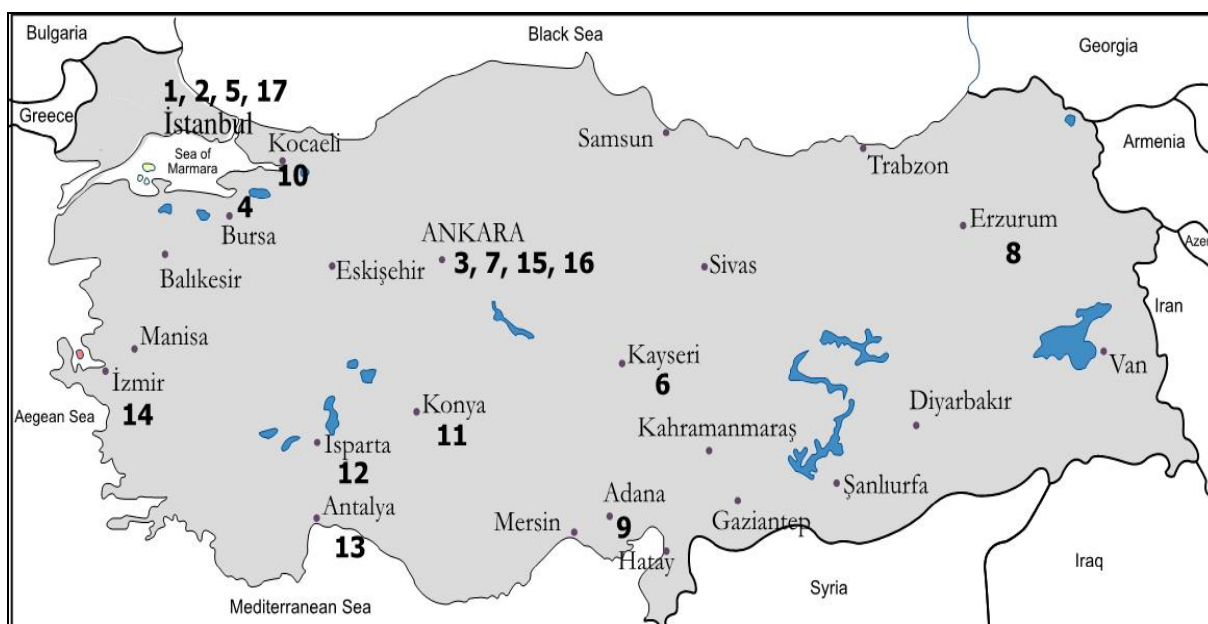
A table in Annex 7.4 provides an overview of the evaluated universities with the date of the IEP review and the date of the university's establishment. For comparability, additional figures from the institution's current websites show the numbers of students, faculties, graduate schools, undergraduate or (high) schools and vocational schools, location and number of campuses.

The date of establishment of the evaluated universities ranges from the 18<sup>th</sup> century to the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The two earliest establishments were Istanbul Technical University, whose forerunner was founded in 1773 – although its university statutes are from 1928 – and Bogazici University, whose forerunner, Robert College, was set up by 2 Americans in 1863, but which became a Turkish state university in 1971. The earliest of the predecessor institutions of Marmara University was founded in 1883. All other institutions were established in the course of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the newest being Yeditepe University, which has been operating since 1996. Yeditepe University is the only private, foundation institution among the 17 reviewed by IEP.

The universities range in size from 11 thousand to 70 thousand students. There is a clear median regarding the number of faculties, with six institutions running eleven faculties. Only Bogazici and Middle East Technical University have less than ten faculties. The largest university among these has 17 faculties. Turkish universities are organised not only into faculties but also into graduate schools and vocational schools, in addition to institutes and research centres in many of them. (For details regarding the seventeen universities please see appendix 7.4).

Geographically, there are two clusters of universities: near Istanbul and around the capital, Ankara. The other universities are spread around the south and there is one in the east of the country. The following map shows the geographic distribution of the main campuses of the 17 universities evaluated by IEP. The dates of their evaluations is found below the map.

FIGURE 1: MAIN CAMPUS LOCATIONS OF THE 17 UNIVERSITIES EVALUATED BY IEP AND DATES OF EVALUATION



**Legend:**

1. Bogazici University (1998 – 1999)
2. University of Marmara (2000 – 2001)
3. Middle East Technical University, Ankara (2001 – 2002)
4. Uludag University (2002 – 2003)
5. Istanbul Technical University (2003 – 2004)
6. Erciyes University (2003 – 2004)
7. Ankara University (2004 – 2005)
8. Atatürk University (2005 – 2006)
9. Cukurova University (2005 – 2006)
10. Kocaeli University (2005 – 2006)
11. Selcuk University (2005 – 2006)
12. The University of Süleyman Demirel (2005 – 2006)
13. Akdeniz University (2006 – 2007)
14. Ege University (2006 – 2007)
15. Gazi University (2006 – 2007)
16. Hacettepe University (2006 – 2007)
17. Yeditepe University (2006 – 2007)

### 3 The Turkish Higher Education System

#### 3.1 Description of the Turkish Higher Education System

Before analysing the 17 IEP review reports and pursuing the aspects of the system identified in the Terms of Reference to this project, it is important to understand the Turkish higher education system in general. The following is a description of higher education taken from YÖK website:

“Together with the change of the Constitution and a new law on higher education in 1981, new provisions were made for higher education in Turkey. Foremost among these was the establishment of the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) to steer important activities of higher education institutions, i.e., planning, organisation, governance, instruction and research. Secondly, provision was made for non-profit foundations to establish higher education [institutions] ... .

The Council of Higher Education is a 21-member corporate public body responsible for the planning, coordination and supervision of higher education within the provisions set forth in the Higher Education Law. Seven of its members are academics elected by the Inter-university Council, seven are appointed directly by the President of the Republic, giving priority to former rectors, and seven are appointed by the government, mostly from among senior civil servants, each for a renewable term of four years. The president of the Council is directly appointed by the President of the republic from among the Council members. The day-to-day functions of the Council are carried out by a nine member executive committee, elected from among its members.

There are two other main administrative bodies in the field of higher education. These are the Inter-university Council, which consists of the rectors of all universities and the one member elected by the senate of each university, and the Turkish University Rectors' Committee, which is made up of all university rectors and five ex-rectors. The Minister of National Education represents higher education in the Parliament and can chair the meetings of the Council but has no vote. Neither decisions of the Council nor those of the universities are subject to ratification by the Ministry.

Higher education is defined as all post-secondary programs with a duration of at least two years. The system consists of universities ... and non-university institutions of higher education (police and military academies and colleges). Each university consists of faculties and four-year schools, offering bachelor's level programs, the latter with a vocational emphasis, and two year vocational schools offering pre-bachelor's (associate's) level programs of a strictly vocational nature. ...

Graduate-level programs consist of master's and doctoral programs, coordinated by institutes for graduate studies. Medical specially training programs equivalent to doctoral level programs are carried out within the faculties of medicine and the training hospitals owned by the Ministry of Health ... and the Social Insurance Organisation ... . Universities, faculties, institutions and four-year schools are founded by law, while two-year vocational schools and departments are established by the Council of Higher Education. Likewise, the opening of a degree program at any level is subject to ratification by the Council.



**Access**

Admission to higher education is centralised and based on nation-wide examination administered by the Student Selection and Placement Centre (ÖSYM) every year. The centre was established in 1974 and affiliated with the Council of Higher Education in 1981. ... The ... Student Selection Examination (ÖSS) consists of verbal and quantitative parts. ... [The] scores are calculated by taking into account the scores of the ... entrance examination as well as the high school grade point averages, with different weights. ...

**Sources of Funding**

The annual budget of each state university is negotiated jointly by the Council of Higher Education and the university concerned with the Ministry of Finance ... and, in the case of the investment budget, with the State Planning Organisation (...DPT). The Council transmits these budgets, together with its own budget, to the Ministry of National Education, and the Minister defends them in the Parliament. The president of the Council is also given the floor at the beginning and the end of the discussion in the parliamentary commission. The result is a line-item budget with very specific earmarked budget figures. In addition to the annual state-provided budget, each university has three more sources of income. First, income from the services provided by the university, such as patient care in university hospitals, and contract research, is collected in a revolving fund. Second, student contributions towards highly subsidised services are collected in a separate fund. Third, each university has a research fund made up of a lump sum grant from the state-provided budget plus a portion of the income from the revolving fund and from earmarked projects given by the State Planning Organisation.

The above-mentioned three funds are also subject to laws, rules and regulations similar to those concerning the state-provided budget, which leave little room to manoeuvre. The major difference between these three funds and the state budget is that any money left in the former is carried over to the next fiscal year while that left unspent in the state-provided budget reverts back to the Treasury. The Scientific and Technical Research Council (TÜBİTAK) of Turkey also supports research projects after evaluating proposals submitted by faculty members. However, such grants are given directly to faculty members, and are thus not included in university income.

**Governance**

The Higher Education Law of 1981 has undergone a number of relatively minor changes since its enactment. The major change came in 1992, when new procedures for the nomination and appointment of rectors were implemented. According to the new procedures, six candidates from among full professors of that or any other university are elected by the assembly of faculty members, which includes all full, associate and assistant professors in that university. From among these six, the Council of Higher Education elects three nominees by secret ballot, and submits their names to the President of the Republic, who appoints one of them as the rector for a period of four years, renewable only once. Deans are appointed by the Council from among three full professors nominated by the rector, while institute and school directors are directly appointed by the rector.

Each department within a faculty is made up of sections. Section heads are elected by faculty members in that section, who, in turn, advise the dean regarding the appointment of the department chairperson. Both academic and administrative staff in state universities have civil servant status and, except for research assistants and assistant professors, have tenure. The numbers of academic and administrative staff posts allocated to each state university are determined by acts of Parliament, while staff appointments at all levels are made exclusively by the universities themselves, and are not subject to ratification by any outside authority. The law only sets forth the minimum requirements for academic promotions and the procedures to be followed in making appointments.

**Private Universities**

There were no private universities in Turkey until 1984. The Higher Education Law No.2547 made it possible for private universities to be established by non-profit foundations; these are sometimes referred to as foundation universities for this reason. ... Private universities come under the supervision of the Council of Higher Education and their programs must be regularly accredited. With the aim of partially defraying the expenditures of private universities, the Ministry of Finance may provide state assistance upon the application of the higher education institution concerned, the endorsement of the Council of Higher Education and the recommendation of the Ministry of National Education. The state assistance to be provided cannot exceed 30% of the amount that is obtained as a result of multiplying the number of formal students studying in the concerned foundation higher education institution with the amount calculated by dividing the total budget allocated that year to state higher education institutions to the amount of formal students. However the distribution of this amount into universities is made according to the total amount of formal students in the university applying the weights of the scores used in the student selection and placement system as shown in the parentheses; quantitative (50%), verbal (20%) and

quantitative and verbal (30%). The Higher Education Council has the authority to raise or reduce these up to half of the ratios. Foundation universities that have provided formal education for a minimum of two years are able to apply to the Higher Education Council with the purpose of receiving state assistance.

In order for state assistance to be provided to foundation higher education institutions, these institutions must;

- a) Have completed at least two academic years,
- b) Grant full-tuition scholarship to a minimum of 15% of its students at a level enabling them to meet their educational expenses,
- c) Grant a scholarship at a level enabling the scholars to meet their training-educational and other expenses for the doctorate students selected by foundation universities, with the purpose of raising teaching staff for each undergraduate programme students are accepted to; and placed in universities, domestically or abroad which are determined by the Higher Education Council and the students to be also monitored by the Council, one student for programmes with a quota of up to 50, two students for programmes between 50 and 100 and three students for programmes with a quota of more than 100 or for the foundation universities to document to the Higher Education Council that they employ as many teaching staff resident abroad of a Turkish nationality for a minimum of one academic year on a contractual full-time status as the amount of such doctorate students,
- d) For the amount of students per teaching staff member employed in the formal education programmes at the undergraduate level of universities on a minimum of one academic year contractual full time status (excepting those employed on the basis of a part time status, assigned for additional teaching loads or commissioned from other universities) to be the equivalent or below the average amount of students per teaching staff in all the State universities calculated according to this basis,
- e) For the foundation university to be in a position in the upper half of a ranking of all State universities according to the basis in terms of the number of publications per teaching staff member employed on a minimum of one academic year contractual full time status (excepting those employed on the basis of a part time status, assigned for additional teaching loads or commissioned from other universities) in the prominent academic journals determined as of the end of the previous year as a result of the evaluation made by the commission appointed by the Inter-University Council,
- f) To have accepted a student in the top 5% according to the quantitative, verbal or quantitative-verbal score weight of the student selection and placement system from among the formal education students placed that year by the Student Selection and Placement Centre and for the foundation university to be in the upper half of the ranking of state universities ranked according to this basis, in the evaluation made by taking into consideration the total amount of students placed in the formal education programmes of the university that year as well as the weights reflecting the relative importance of each score type stated in the second paragraph,

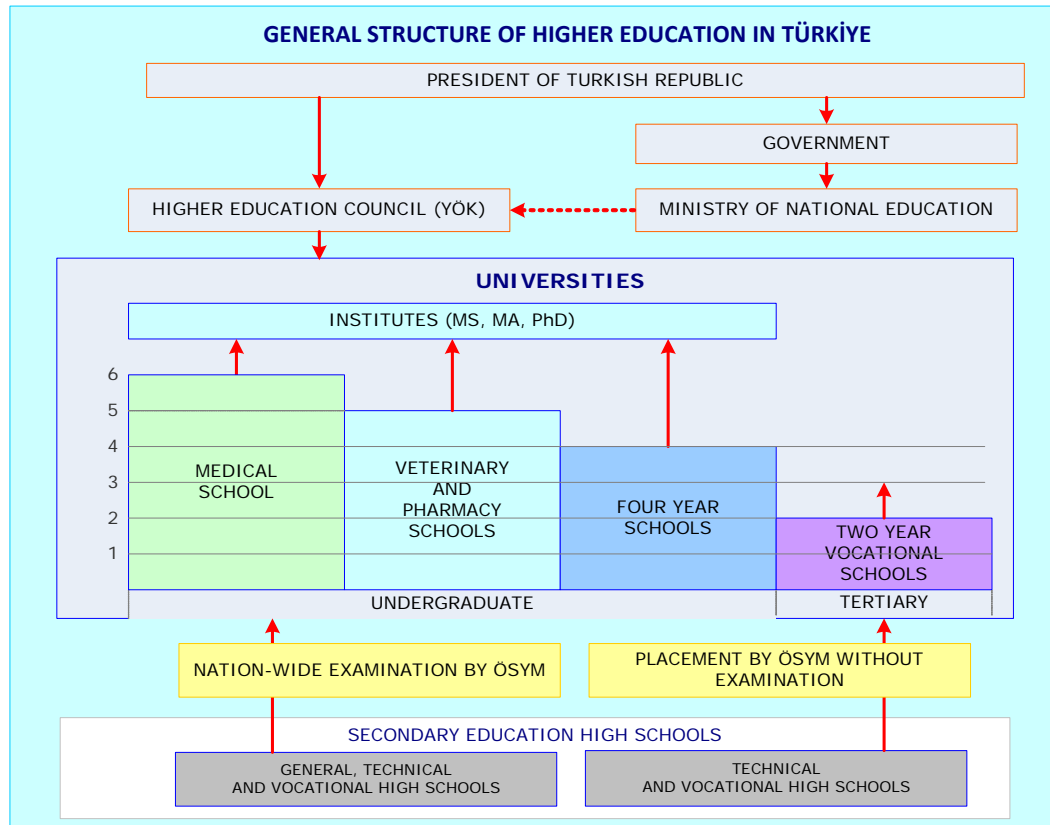
And need to fulfil at least clauses (a), (b), (c) and (d) of these conditions. According to this, the amount stated in the second paragraph will be;

- the total amount of the State assistance for the foundation higher education institutions fulfilling all of the conditions put forward in clauses (a), (b), (c), (d), (e) and (f),
- up to 80% of the State assistance for the foundation higher education institutions fulfilling clauses (a), (b), (c) and (d) as well as either clause (e) or (f),
- up to 60% of the State assistance for the foundation higher education institutions fulfilling only the minimum conditions.

State assistance cannot be made to foundation higher education institutions that do not fulfil the minimum conditions.<sup>10</sup>

The following presents a graphic overview of the educational system as a whole.

FIGURE 2: THE NATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEM<sup>11</sup>



### 3.2 The Bologna Process

Turkey signed the “Bologna Declaration” early on at the second meeting of the European ministers of education in Prague in 2001. What is the Bologna process and what does it mean for Turkey?

The Bologna process was launched in 1999 in Bologna when Higher Education Ministers of 29 countries signed the Bologna Declaration. By 2007, the number of Bologna signatories had reached 46. The Bologna Declaration is an agreement by higher education Ministers in Europe committing to establish the European Higher Education Area by coordinating their policies to make the degree programmes and quality assurance standards in their countries compatible and comparable by 2010. The underlying motive is to make Europe competitive vis-à-vis the United States and Asia by ensuring that knowledge and skills gained in higher education are relevant for employment and for producing competitive research and innovation. In order to achieve this goal, the signatories set three priorities:

- to introduce a system of degree programmes consisting of three cycles (bachelor, master and doctoral), where completion of each cycle would qualify graduates to enter the next cycle;
- to cooperate in working out common or comparable standards for quality assurance;
- to agree to recognise one another's degrees, diplomas and studies, for which they would develop common instruments, namely the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) and the Diploma Supplement.

<sup>11</sup>

Chart supplied by-The Coordination Committee

The idea behind the European Higher Education Area is to establish a critical mass of academics, researchers and students to drive innovation and make Europe competitive. While cultural diversity must be ensured, the national systems must have enough similarities in order to enable students and teachers to move across national systems.

In order to ensure the implementation of the process, the signatories of the Bologna Declaration agreed to meet two years later and to set up what has come to be known as the “Bologna Follow-up Group” (BFUG). In addition to governmental representatives, the European Commission is a full BFUG member. The European University Association (EUA), the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE), the European Students’ Union (ESU, formerly ESIB), and the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) are consultative members, as are the Council of Europe, UNESCO/CEPES, BUSINESSEUROPE and Education International Pan-European Structure. The BFUG (currently led by Belgium, Luxembourg and The Netherlands) is responsible for overseeing implementation until the next ministerial meeting. European ministers of education met in Prague in 2001, Berlin in 2003, Bergen in 2005 and London in 2007. The 2009 meeting hosted by the Benelux countries (Belgium, Netherlands and Luxembourg) at the universities of Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve will decide on the future of the Bologna process.

The Bologna process has expanded into a number of areas to promote the European Higher Education Area. It is also now linked to the “Lisbon Strategy” or “Lisbon Agenda”, which was signed in 2000 by the heads of governments of the European Union during the Portuguese presidency, and which aims to promote growth and employment in Europe in order to transform the European Union into the most competitive economy in the world by 2010.<sup>12</sup> Simplified and re-launched in 2005, it encompasses various strategies and actions, and it has an impact on universities in promoting the employability of graduates, and innovation as the driver for top-level basic and applied research.

The Bologna process covers a large number of activities and projects. To name just the most relevant for universities, the European Commission promotes the mobility of staff and students in higher education via the Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013, the successor to the Socrates/Erasmus programme, and EUROPASS to facilitate student mobility throughout their lives by incorporating lifelong learning attainments and using ECTS and the Diploma Supplement as instruments. Additionally, the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning seeks to set learning outcomes for eight levels of study completion. With regard to quality assurance, the E4 Group (EUA, EURASHE, ESU, and ENQA) drew up the “Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG)”, which set criteria for quality evaluation for higher education institutions and external quality assurance agencies, and launched the European Register of Quality Assurance Agencies. This work began in spring 2008 and will contain a list of trustworthy quality assurance agencies.

Beyond the concrete features of the Bologna process, of which only a selection relevant to higher education was described here, the convergence of ideas propelled by the process has produced common ways of thinking about the values and aims of higher education in Europe. The most fundamental of these are the change in the paradigm of the role and function of universities and their internal stakeholders, university management, academic staff and, above all, students. These are the issues that will be discussed in the sections that follow.

From the various reports produced in Turkey on its higher education system it is apparent that there are many academics and tertiary education experts who are aware of the opportunity to reassess the system’s values and aims as a result of the country’s joining the European Higher Education Area. The change in paradigm, however, has not yet taken place. The challenge at this point is how to disseminate this awareness to the higher education community and society at large, and how to translate awareness into concrete action.

Some changes, however, have been brought about by Turkey’s joining the European Higher Education Area. The two/three-cycle system was already the existing structure before the Bologna process. Regulations have been introduced on ECTS and the Diploma Supplement. Many universities take part in the ERASMUS scheme, facilitating study at other universities in Europe. Access from vocational to bachelor programmes and from bachelor directly into doctorate programmes are

<sup>12</sup> More on the Lisbon Agenda at [http://ec.europa.eu/growthandjobs/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/growthandjobs/index_en.htm)

regulated. A national-level quality assurance mechanism in line with the ESG is beginning to be implemented, and students are being involved in decision-making bodies to some extent. How far these initiatives have been achieved in Turkish higher education institutions will be discussed in this report.

## 4 External and Internal Constraints and Opportunities for Higher Education Institutions in Turkey

### 4.1 External Constraints and Opportunities

#### 4.1.1 University Autonomy

Turkey is facing a change in its concept of the role of universities in society, just as society in Turkey is changing in response to the influx of new ideas and market forces ushered in by globalisation. A brief overview of similar developments in Europe in the thirty years may be useful in order to illustrate that the challenges Turkish higher education is currently facing are not without parallel, if not in time but in the issues they raise.

It has been mentioned that a paradigm change affecting the role and function of universities has taken place in Western Europe in the past three decades or so. The reasons for it are many, but they all have to do with a gradual transformation from a top-down society to a participatory culture, galvanised by the student rebellions in the late '60s and early '70s. Student participation in higher education has increased to the point of mass education, from around 10% to 50% or 60% or more in most countries. State resources were no longer able to cover the cost of higher education for so many young people and, at the same time, the question of limited resources and their efficient use by universities was raised. The effects of all of this on universities have been increased autonomy and accountability.

Autonomy in governance means, very generally, that universities are responsible for managing themselves, securing enough funds to function properly, and fulfilling their education and research functions in a manner and to a degree that is acceptable to society. Discussion on models of governance was at the top of the agenda in higher education management studies in Europe in the '80s and early '90s. These analysed the degree to which government was involved in university management and conversely, how much independence universities had to manage themselves. Often, the influence of other factors and players, such as the market and the internal university community were introduced. The idea that the national, cultural, and political environment influences institutional autonomy also came into play.<sup>13</sup>

Autonomy and accountability are two sides of a coin. External accountability in the form of quality assurance was introduced in the 1980s in order to ensure that society is properly served. The concept of autonomy coupled with responsibility, later broadened to involve management effectiveness (to ensure institutional competitiveness), entrepreneurship (to ensure income by innovative means), and strategic profile building (to ensure that limited resources were concentrated into identified areas of excellence within each university as distinguished from other universities). These changes accompanied a rise in student numbers, and in the numbers and varieties of higher education institutions that cater to more diverse students with diverse needs. At the same time, the half-life of knowledge has been decreasing exponentially and the employment market has also become more diversified. Higher education institutions have had to meet these challenges; the Bologna and Lisbon processes have tried to meet these challenges and define the instruments that would allow higher education systems and institutions to take advantage of them.

While necessarily limited within the scope of this report, the description of Western European developments must be of interest in this context because a similar dialogue seems to be going on in Turkey. The country is aware of the need for change in university governance and educational provision, most probably because it is experiencing similar pressures to those that occurred in Europe earlier. Obviously, the concept of "autonomy" did not emerge overnight, and the understanding of it – especially by the community at large in every country – is an ongoing process. In Turkey, autonomous

<sup>13</sup> A run-down on the historical development of university management analysis is provided in OECD (2008) vol. 1 pp. 58 ff

university governance, as understood in this report, would entail that – within a given national higher education strategy and defined responsibilities to ensure education is accessible to all members of society – university leaders would define the mission and aims of their institutions in accordance with national strategy, and would be responsible for meeting targets agreed with YÖK. This, in fact, has already been implemented with the recent introduction of institutional plans that are submitted to YÖK annually. At the core of the concept of producing strategic plans is not just accountability – although this certainly can be one aspect – but the idea that individual institutional plans and targets generate a diversity of institutions, and that university leaders should be empowered to meet their targets without much interference by national-level regulations. As a policy study for the World Bank noted in 2005, “In a system of more than 70 universities, it is unrealistic to think that accountability for each university can be exercised to a single central body (such as YÖK). This could only be done if all the universities were to operate on the same model so that simple uniform checks could be made in the same way for all universities. This is the very antithesis of autonomy”.<sup>14</sup>

The following figure lists the aspects of university management that are externally regulated in Turkey.

FIGURE 3: EXTERNALLY REGULATED ELEMENTS AT PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN TURKEY<sup>15</sup>

Externally regulated elements
Public universities are state-governed institutions
The state owns their assets and employs their staff
The basic structure of the university management, faculties, staff, and student numbers, salaries, tuition fees is determined by government legislative and budgetary instruments
The responsible body for implementing government legislation is YÖK
Universities do not own their buildings and equipment
They do not have access to independent funding sources
They partly set academic structure and course content: they have to get the approval of YÖK and set it according to the established structure
They only partly employ and dismiss academic staff, who are subject to the National Public Civil Servant Law (Ministry of Justice, 1965), which has some specific references to higher education within its provisions. For example, salaries are decided by the government
The universities only partly decide the size of student enrolment: while they are asked to inform the government of their enrolment quota each year before the selection exam, modifications in this quota can be made by YÖK as needs dictate
They cannot set tuition rates charged to students, as ‘contribution fees’ are set by the government

Universities, however, are free to design their curricula, course contents, grading systems and degree requirements. Teaching methods and grading are decided by individual instructors within the provisions adapted by the individual university or unit.

The next step for Turkey would be to reduce the regulatory load set by law and YÖK, and to transfer responsibility for administrative and budget management to university leaders. Since real autonomy is coupled not only with accountability but also with subsidiarity, within each university, responsibility must also be delegated, and the levels at which responsibility is to be taken must be defined and accounted for. An effective quality assurance system will follow all actors and identify how they meet their responsibilities and how they can improve their activities.

The following figure, without aiming to be a full list, serves to illustrate some pros and cons of external as opposed to autonomous decision making in an organisation.

<sup>14</sup> The World Bank (2005) p. 28

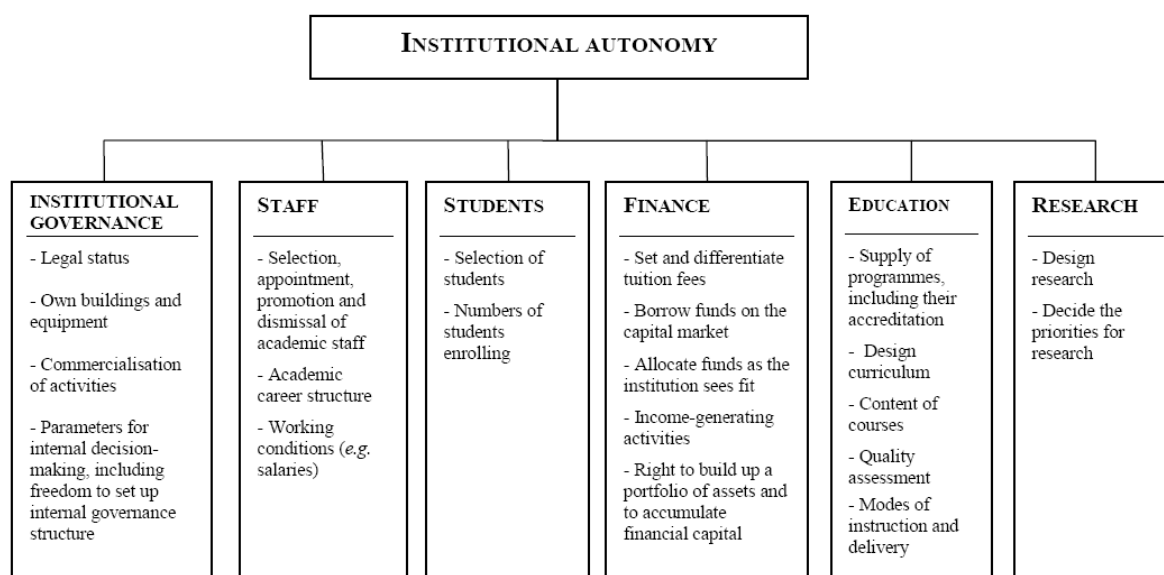
<sup>15</sup> Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) pp. 40-41, citing OECD 2003



FIGURE 4: EXTERNAL VS. AUTONOMOUS DECISION-MAKING

External Decisions Defining Activity	Autonomous Management of Activity
Top-down decision-making	Subsidiarity of decision-making
External responsibility	Own responsibility
Passive execution	Active contribution to shaping execution
Dispersal of resources	Efficiency
Reliance on external instructions	Creativity, initiative
Reactive	Proactive
Satisfaction measured against minimum criteria	Satisfaction measured against success of product
Distancing from activity and institution	Identification with activity and institution
Energies expended on finding loopholes in regulations (to suit local conditions)	Energies volunteered to finding optimal solutions
Stagnation	Responsiveness to change
Homogeneity	Diversity

Beyond autonomy in governance there are various other aspects of autonomy. The following figure shows different areas to which autonomy at universities extends.

FIGURE 4: ASPECTS OF INSTITUTIONAL AUTONOMY<sup>16</sup>

The 2005 World Bank report on Turkish higher education has defined academic/scientific, administrative and financial autonomy.<sup>17</sup> It pointed out that universities in this country have considerable academic/scientific autonomy granted by the Constitution. While this may be true – although the picture is more nuanced as will be seen later – it is important to repeat what the report also underlines, that autonomy limited to one area alone is contrary to the definition of autonomy, since intrusions into connected aspects curtail it. The autonomy of academic staff to define teaching content, for example, is curtailed if the programmes, student numbers and resources are externally defined.

The following sections elaborate upon those aspects of autonomy that stood out most in the IEP review reports. Beyond the obvious issue of autonomy in university governance and – connected to it – budgeting, the issue of private foundation universities relates to autonomy also in as far as these institutions are still overregulated compared to similar establishments in Europe. Moreover, their competitive edge – the repeated charge that they draw away staff from state universities – must be

<sup>16</sup> OECD (2008) vol.1 p. 71

<sup>17</sup> The World Bank (2005) pp. 4-8

seen in the context of the limited autonomy at state institutions. Still, foundation universities are the systemic counterpoints to state institutions and provide an alternative model of institutional governance. Finally, the participation of students in institutional decision making, a key issue in the Bologna process, and access to higher education are conceptual questions that must be addressed on the national level. The two final sections on “External Aspects” will deal with external accountability, and inter-university cooperation.

#### 4.1.1.1 *Autonomy and University Governance*

The Parliament and YÖK not only determine the institutional units of public universities but also their internal faculty / department structure, and the authority of individual positions on the various management levels. YÖK also determines staff numbers – both academic and administrative. University rectors are appointed by the President of the Republic with a pre-selection of nominees by YÖK. Deans are recommended by the rector but appointed by YÖK. Statutes limit the number of vice-rectors to three, although these are appointed by the rector. The rector also appoints the general secretary of the university, the directors of graduate schools and research centres. (A chart on the internal management structure of universities, as determined by YÖK, is provided in the Annex, Section 7.3.)

The evident complexity of university governance in Turkey was noted by review teams in almost all the IEP reports. The following quotes from some reports of the last two years serve to illustrate this point.

“The review team concluded that the actual autonomy of Turkish universities is very limited as the government or YÖK control central elements such as the budget and its allocation, admissions of students and the number of internal allocation of academic and administrative staff.”

“From the discussions we had, we gained the impression that Turkish universities have a low degree of autonomy and suffer under a heavy and centralised bureaucratic system. Apparently the politically imposed homogeneity of the Turkish higher education system does not allow for the reward of the best institutions ... .

During the interviews the following limitations were mentioned:

- University staff members are civil servants. The number of ‘slots’ for academic staff is determined in detail by the government, which seriously limits the flexibility needed to get the best academics.
- Salaries and criteria for promotion and tenure are uniform for the whole university system and decided upon by the state. These salary levels are very low relative to the private Turkish universities or to international higher education levels ...
- The state regulations for additional income generating activities (revolving fund) do not stimulate contract research or other service oriented activities.”

“... the role played by YÖK in the institutional development is crucial. It authorises the creation of new academic departments and new degree programmes and advises government and Parliament on the creation of new faculties. It determines the level of tuition fees and advises government on what percentage of fee income should be covered by state funding. It designates deans from a list of nominees supplied by the rector. It also manages the centralised higher education admissions and student accommodation systems. It therefore effectively controls the rate and direction of expansion of each higher education institution.”

It is thus evident that the imposition of government regulations on universities in Turkey affects strategic aspects of institutional operation. University structure is determined by law, whereby most state universities comprise vocational schools, and undergraduate and graduate instruction, in addition to research units and institutes, and, in most places, music conservatories and hospitals. This can be explained by the role many universities play as regional providers of education and services, with the expansion of the number of universities in recent years into areas away from the traditional learning centres around the Istanbul Metropolitan Area, first of all Izmir, and later Ankara. This is an especially important issue for Turkey, since, according to a draft strategy proposal by YÖK, 42% of academic staff and 39% of undergraduate and graduate students were in the three big cities.<sup>18</sup> The

<sup>18</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 10



structure may well serve this purpose but may not be necessary as a decree from on high that must apply to most universities.

The degree of autonomy given by governments to higher education institutions varies from country to country. The following figure illustrates how much autonomy a selection of countries give their higher education institutions by allowing them to own property and manage their affairs. It shows that, among the countries listed in the figure, Turkey's higher education autonomy ranked quite low in 2003, with only partial autonomy found to be provided for setting academic structure and course content, for dismissing academic staff and for deciding student enrolment. Not much has changed with regard to these aspects, or with regard to the lack of autonomy for each of the items with financial implications.

FIGURE 5: CROSS COUNTRY COMPARISON OF THE EXTENT OF UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY IN 2003<sup>19</sup>

Institutions are free to:							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Own their buildings and equipment	Borrow funds	Spend budgets to achieve their objectives	Set academic structure/course content	Employ and dismiss academic staff <sup>2</sup>	Set salaries <sup>2</sup>	Decide size of student enrolment <sup>3</sup>	Decide level of tuition fees
Mexico	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Netherlands	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Poland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Australia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
United Kingdom	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Denmark	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sweden	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Norway	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Finland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Austria	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Korea (national – public)		●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey			●	●	●	●	●
Japan (national – public)			●	●	●	●	●

**Key:** Aspects in which institutions:

● have autonomy

● have autonomy in some respects

Blank means no autonomy in the specified area of decision-making

Profile building is a key word in the higher education dialogue in Europe. Profile building means that institutions, within a higher education system or internationally, develop specific areas at which they expect to excel, because they have the appropriate conditions for developing in such areas or because they have identified a strategic need or market demand in these areas to which they believe they can respond. Such areas can be horizontal (across teaching and research) or vertical (focusing on specific academic fields). The European Ministers of Higher Education noted the importance of profile diversity in their Berlin Communiqué in connection with qualifications frameworks, and it is often referred to in EUA declarations, such as its Lisbon Declaration.

<sup>19</sup>

OECD (2003) p. 63

“Universities recognise that moving from an elite to a mass system of higher education implies the existence of universities with different missions and strengths. This requires a system of academic institutions with highly diversified profiles, based on equality of esteem for different missions.” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

It is clear that, historically, YÖK has played an important role as a buffer organisation to ensure that higher education is free from political influence. This is a role it should continue to play in the future: it should be a national-level representative and coordinating body for higher education institutions that makes policy proposals to the government on issues concerning the higher education system, financing structure and quality, and it should oversee their implementation. It should do these by working closely with a new Rectors' Conference, whose structure needs to be developed to turn it into an effective body within the expanding system.

However, YÖK's detailed regulatory arrangement – together with parliamentary legislation governing internal university structure – must be considered intrusive into university autonomy by today's European standards. This kind of one-size-fits-all legislative setting is not conducive to the development of an individual profile for universities. It is hard to imagine a higher education system where each institution is equally good in all areas. Striving for excellence in all areas can only result in a dissipation of resources, which could otherwise be focused on identified areas in which the university has the potential to stand out.

In practice, universities in Turkey are far from being homogeneous. Several of them stand out both in excellence and profile, and enjoy a recognition that allows them to draw in top students, academic staff and leadership. The country has high quality research universities and specialised technical universities. The majority, as in all countries, are general teaching institutions of varying quality. One reason many higher education institutions have been able to develop in such different ways in spite of the legislative framework has to do with the history of the universities. Some were established prior to the 1981 law that determines today's structure, while others have been able to find their own way within the ever-changing regulatory landscape. Small and more recent universities also vary in quality, since most of them split off from a “mother” institution and hence reflect that university's tradition. Another factor leading to varying quality and diversity from the centrally set pattern is the strength of a university's leadership. Innovative rectors have, in practice, the room to stake out an individual and specific path for their university, even within the existing framework.

A 2007 EUA conference<sup>20</sup> explored the role of autonomy in universities and the instruments to achieve it. Participants pointed to the difference between autonomy set down in legislation and operational autonomy. Operational autonomy allows institutions to define their mission, academic profile and consequently their shared values; to adapt their internal structure accordingly; to manage and develop their academic and administrative staff. Conference participants concluded that autonomy in both respects gives universities the flexibility for prompt action in response to external conditions and the needs of society. In addition to ensuring flexible management, autonomy also provides a university with the latitude to explore diverse funding sources. In Turkey, there seems to be a gap between legislative and operational autonomy. If an institution and/or its leadership are well established, they are able (to some extent) to work around the externally set structure. A reverse situation, where the structure promotes diversity, innovation and strong leadership, however, could benefit all the universities in the country. More than that, such a structure could steer progress in that direction.

In Turkey, as in Western Europe, the process from changing from an externally determined higher education system to autonomously governed universities cannot be accomplished overnight. University communities and society at large must understand and accept the notion of individual responsibility and, for autonomy to function, they must learn what is required of each individual. That requires dissemination of information and best practice, ongoing training and development for university leaders and staff, international experience, evaluation and feedback.<sup>21</sup>

<sup>20</sup> EUA (2007b)

<sup>21</sup> Implementation of higher education reforms, and arguments for and against their quick introduction, are discussed in: OECD (2008) Chapter “The Challenges of Policy implementation”. vol. 3 pp. 127 ff

The identification of certain societal and national needs on the part of the state must not necessarily entail the state's delineation of the ways and means to attain these needs. The sharp rise in the number of foundation universities in Turkey<sup>22</sup> underlines this point. While these institutions clearly serve a more select student community than state institutions, their less rigid structure – even given the state-set regulatory framework under which they operate – provides them with more flexibility than state universities have to respond to societal needs.

There is a strong movement in Europe towards changing the relationship between universities and the state. Several countries have passed legislation that makes higher education institutions separate legal, financial and managerial entities. Examples include the Netherlands, Denmark and Austria, where governing boards that include non-university members have become the legally responsible bodies of universities. Finland is in the process of changing to such a system, and a new law foresees the changeover of universities from state institutions to independent public service entities within two years. University staff will no longer hold public servant status; institutions will receive lump-sum funding from the state and will be as free to manage and invest their monies as a private company.

In its Graz and Lisbon Declarations, EUA formulated the importance of institutional autonomy in management and leadership by declaring that

“Successful implementation of reforms requires leadership, quality and strategic management within each institution. Governments must create the conditions enabling universities to take long-term decisions regarding their internal organisational and administration, e.g. the structure and internal balance between institutional level and faculties and the management of staff. Governments and universities should enter negotiated contracts of sufficient duration to allow and support innovation.” (EUA Graz Declaration 2003)

“Universities will strive to reinforce further leadership and strengthen professional management.” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

“Autonomy implies control of major assets such as estates, and of staff ... .” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

“Governments are urged to endorse the principle of institutional autonomy so as to accommodate diverse institutional missions and to include academic autonomy (curricula, programmes and research), financial autonomy (lump sum budgeting), organisational autonomy (the structure of the university) and staffing autonomy (responsibility for recruitment, salaries and promotion).” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

Turkish universities have considerable autonomy in organising their research. The main public national organisation that provides research funding is the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK). It allocates funds to universities based on specific indicators and criteria assessed by expert panels. Members of TÜBİTAK sit on national higher education governing bodies. However, neither TÜBİTAK nor YÖK have laid down national regulations governing research and innovation at universities. The constraints on research have to do with a variety of factors that will be discussed in a separate section on this topic, together with other research funding allocation bodies (Section 4.2.4 on Research.) The issue of autonomy impacts on research in as far as the externally determined structures are not conducive to creativity, to focusing resources and to setting priorities.

Many in the higher education community, and especially the Higher Education Council, are becoming aware of the need for change. A 2006 YÖK draft document entitled “Higher Education Strategy for Turkey” sets out a complex set of actions to change the system of university governance.<sup>23</sup> The country’s “Ninth Development Plan (2007-2013)” also deals with higher education as part of Turkey’s developmental strategy. It foresees the restructuring of YÖK into a body responsible for setting standards, coordination and planning. Moreover, universities are to be given administrative and financial autonomy and be stimulated to diversify.<sup>24</sup>

<sup>22</sup> Twenty new private universities were founded between 1995-2003, and five more private and 17 state universities were founded in 2007. Source: Barblan Andris, Gürüz, Kemal and Ergüder, Üstün (2008) pp. 56 and 65. For a cross-country comparison on the share of private enrolment see Figure 2.9 p. 122

<sup>23</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 169 ff

<sup>24</sup> T.R. Prime Ministry (2006) p. 101

While the Ninth Development Plan is very general with regard to higher education governance, and thus makes it difficult to gauge how much liberalisation it in fact foresees, the strategies outlined illustrate the unsettled nature of Turkish higher education today. While the proposed changes may seem influenced by existing practice and traditions, stakeholders – surely even more than the external observer – must be aware of the need to avoid overly radical change so as to ensure the support of a wide base. At the same time, the momentum of change, once decided, must not be lost by an excessively drawn-out implementation process.

#### Recommended Actions 1:

- Transform YÖK into a national body that represents higher education before government, proposes higher education policies, coordinates and directs higher education institutions at the system level.
- Revise legislation and YÖK regulations to minimise intrusion into the internal management, structure and other functions of universities.
- Consider the possibility of establishing a Rectors' Conference with an operational-size membership to replace the current dual structure of the Inter-University Council and the existing Rectors' Committee.
- Establish a national strategy to reach Turkey's aims as set down in the Bologna process.
- Strike a balance between consultation time and decision making. A thorough discussion of proposed changes should take place in the higher education community and society at large. At the same time, once changes are decided, these should follow a set time-plan.

#### *4.1.1.2 Autonomy and University Budgeting*

A new law on Public Financial Management establishing performance-based budgets for state universities came into force at the beginning of 2006. According to the law, the budget allocation for universities is provided in quarterly instalments based on an agreement between YÖK, the Ministry of Finance and the State Planning Organisation (for the investment budget), and after ratification in Parliament. According to the law, state universities present an annual strategic plan with specific targets, which are monitored and assessed against predetermined indicators.

Participants in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop noted that, in practice, the annual plans and their financing were still in the process of being implemented at many institutions. They pointed out, however, that a major setback for universities has been the decision taken nationally to raise student intake substantially, without providing a corresponding increase in budget allocation. While the present section of this report deals with university budgeting in general, with research funding discussed in Section 4.2.4 later on, it was pointed out at the workshop that universities strong in research have access to multiple funding sources available from national and international sources, and are consequently better off financially than those institutions with weak or no research performance.

Universities also generate their own income, called revolving funds, from “endowments, tuition fees, overhead from contract research, use of land owned by the universities, income generating community services like university hospitals and continuing education services ...”<sup>25</sup> The amount raised for these revolving funds has to be disclosed to the Ministry of Finance, which regulates, in accordance with the university plan, what to do with surplus or how deficits are to be handled. The 2005 Bologna Process Report observes that “universities criticise this new application since they lose their flexibility of using income generated by themselves. The implementation of the new law is closely followed by the state universities as it may result in a decrease of the state contribution to the total budget in universities where self-generated income is high.”<sup>26</sup>

Most IEP reviewers expressed concerns also about the rigid budget regulations in the Turkish higher education system. Their comments underline the issue and point to some of the effects of tightly regulated budgeting.

“Universities are subject to rigid procedural controls which involve four restricted spending periods within the year, thus reducing flexibility ... The budget formulation is

<sup>25</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>26</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

based on a line item principle rather than lump sum budgeting, thus limiting operational flexibility. ... No state funding for research is directly provided to universities, as part of the budget.”

“The detailed line-item budgeting system and the cumbersome rules for the use of public funds lead to less efficient utilisation of these funds and to heavy and time-consuming administrative duties.”

The concern about the inflexibility of the regulatory framework remained also in those evaluations that took place after the new regulation was passed, as the following excerpt shows.

“We cannot easily understand how this shift from input-based to performance-based funding can be applied if the university is not in a position to draw and manage a real strategy at central level. This kind of strategy requires, among other things, the establishment of a system of internal allocation of funding to the various Faculties based on their performance.”

The introduction of the new regulations is too recent to determine the effectiveness of their actual implementation at universities. However, given the overall regulatory setting, IEP reviewers were not convinced that the provisions would be sufficient to allow universities to make the best of their budgets in accordance with strategic targets and identified internal needs.

It is evident from the introduction of the new regulations that Turkish policy-makers are aware of a need for change. Yet again, as with the governance issue, the recent regulation seems to aim not at rethinking the system from a new viewpoint but only at changing some elements of the old system. Speaking about national funding for higher education, the 2008 OECD report underlines the need for a strategic and long-term view of what higher education should achieve in a country, and for allocating budgets over several years. “The long-term strategy should include investment plans, schemes to raise additional resources, and identify programmes and policies that should receive priority for new public funds.”<sup>27</sup> A new approach would consider the output needs, such as what an ideal budgeting structure would want to accomplish, rather than being rooted in the existing state of affairs and changing a few features.

Budgeting can be a valuable management tool also for universities internally if it is a coherent package linked to management autonomy. It can allow university leadership to prioritise resources to accomplish identified institutional targets in accordance with national priorities. It can provide incentives to staff for targeted performance, and it can be rationalised provided that it is possible to shift surpluses from one strategic development area to another. Strategic use of funding presupposes, moreover, that funding is secured for several years, rather than being negotiated annually. Additionally, as the participants in the 2007 EUA conference<sup>28</sup> also stressed, the use of public funds must be linked with public accountability, based on an internal quality assurance mechanism. Autonomous budget use is thus a quality management tool for the university.

At the EUA conference the participating university leaders identified lump-sum budgets and the capacity to raise funds as key elements of institutional autonomy, along with the availability of instruments enabling flexible financial management. The following excerpt from an IEP review report on a Turkish university echoes this point.

“It would be helpful if government also introduced more entrepreneurial freedom, transparent cost calculations for teaching and research, [and] funding on the basis of an agreed strategic plan which delivered national and regional priorities. ... [Other solutions would be] assessing faculty/unit/department external income generation potential, [which] involves comparing it with actual performance and setting precise income generating targets for these units as part of their budgets; ... introducing internal performance based budgeting; [and] assessing the effectiveness of existing incentive structures (promotion criteria; share-out of overheads, surpluses) to stimulate entrepreneurial activity.

<sup>27</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 235

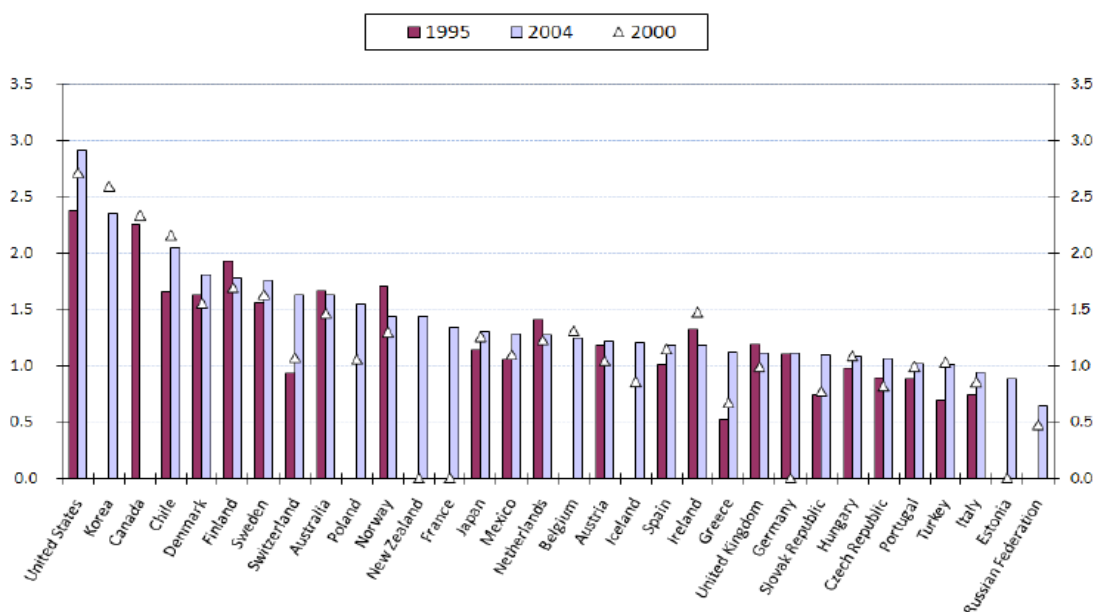
<sup>28</sup> EUA (2007b)



Similarly, the 2008 OECD report supports giving a block grant to institutions who can autonomously decide on their internal allocation, allowing them to be flexible in their use of funds in accordance with strategic objectives and priorities. At the same time, university management should have the autonomy to distribute funds based on strategic needs, rather than just passing them on to institutional units according to a set formula.<sup>29</sup>

In addition to budget allocation structures, universities must have enough resources to fulfil their aims and objectives. According to the OECD, Turkey ranks among the countries where the sharpest increase on higher education spending was observed between 1995 and 2004. Turkey spent 0.9% of its GDP in 1995 and 0.93% in 2004 on higher education. By 2005 the percentage of GDP spending on higher education jumped, however, to 1.09 %.<sup>30</sup> Nevertheless, the Lisbon Agenda sets a goal of 2% of GDP on higher education expenditure, which, for Turkey, means that its budget allocation for higher education needs to continue to expand considerably.

FIGURE 6: INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON OF TERTIARY BUDGET ALLOCATION<sup>31</sup>



Countries are ranked in descending order of expenditure on TEIs as a percentage of GDP for 2004.

Note: For Estonia, Norway and the Russian Federation only expenditure from public sources is considered. For '2004' data, the reference year for Chile is 2005.

In addition to state funding, Turkish universities receive incomes from other sources, including tuition, or contribution, fees. They were introduced in public universities with a 1984 amendment to the Higher Education Law, according to which they may not exceed 25% of the total state expenditure per student.<sup>32</sup> There are advantages and disadvantages to requiring tuition fees for higher education; for society these mostly have to do with equity. (The access issue is discussed in Section 4.1.4.) Nevertheless, diversified funding sources are commendable, since they provide flexibility of resources and allocation. Just as importantly, such funding embeds the university into the external community and provides a link with business and industry. A more independent management structure can facilitate a flexible and intensive exploitation of non-state funding sources. It is important to point out, however, that a more complex financial management requires appropriately trained university leadership and staff. While many universities in Turkey already have leaders who are very capable in flexible financial management, this is not likely to be the case in all – or even most – universities in the country, nor is it in most countries in Europe. It is crucial therefore, that university leaders both are selected with such capabilities in mind and receive up to date training.

<sup>29</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 240

<sup>30</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 79

<sup>31</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 6

<sup>32</sup> Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) p. 94



Recommended Actions 2:

- Match the public budget allocation to enrolment expansion so that it is sufficient to meet targets set down in the institutions' strategic statement.
- Develop further performance-based budgeting.
- Provide state financing as lump-sum budget allocations to universities.
- Deregulate the internal use of revolving funds to allow universities free allocation of internally generated revenues in accordance with internal plans and long- and short-term needs.
- Remove time-related restrictions (such as budgetary years) on the use of surpluses.

**4.1.2 Foundation Universities**

A word must be said about private, foundation universities in Turkey, since they constitute a small but vital segment in the higher education sector. A 1981 law enabled the establishment of foundation universities in the country, which are not-for-profit institutions. Further provisions were set down in a law of 1983, and the first such institutions began operating in 1984. By 2003 there were 24 foundation universities within a total of 77. The enrolment share, however, was still low, at 5.7% of total enrolment in 2005<sup>33</sup>. The number of private higher education establishments keeps growing and the ratio of private to state universities reached 30:85 in 2007.<sup>34</sup>

Turkey's 2005 Bologna Process Report states that "foundation universities have only to conform to the basic academic requirements and structures set forth in the law. Apart from this, they are completely free to manage their own affairs according to rules and regulations adopted by their boards of trustees. The boards of trustees appoint the rectors and deans, but the appointment of the rectors is subject to the approval of the Council of Higher Education."<sup>35</sup>

In comparison to state universities, private ones certainly seem to enjoy a great degree of freedom in structure, administration and financing. Still, there are a number of external controls built into the system, presumably with the aim of protecting the public. According to the law, foundation universities are established by not-for-profit foundations. Like state universities, the establishment has to be approved by YÖK and passed by Parliament. YÖK must approve the appointment of their rectors and deans. These universities can set up their own structure but, given that they are foundations, a board of trustees is mandatory. They have their own budget allocation and can set tuition fees but may also qualify for financial support from the state if certain criteria are met, as described in Section 3.1 above. Among these criteria, there is a legal requirement to provide scholarships for 15% of the students in order to get state financial support.<sup>36</sup> YÖK sets the number of students that can enrol in each undergraduate programme.

At the same time, they must comply with the academic requirements determined by YÖK. Private universities are subject to the quality assurance principles and regulations set by YÖK, which subjects foundation universities to annual external reviews (for state universities, only the internal component of quality assessment has been made mandatory since 2005). Norway is another example where different quality controls are required for private institutions. In Austria, the Accreditation Council was set up to grant accreditation for private universities as a precondition for licence to operate. However, the majority of countries (for example, the Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland and Sweden) have the same provisions for all higher education institutions.<sup>37</sup>

The 2008 OECD report identifies private higher education institutions as a viable alternative to state universities, and an option "to widen the scope of institutional autonomy so as to allow for greater responsiveness (to students, stakeholders, regions) and efficiency in operations."<sup>38</sup> Participants in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop for the Turkish system review concurred with this view, noting the higher degree of autonomy and flexibility of most – if not all – foundation universities in this country.

<sup>33</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2003-2005

<sup>34</sup> Barblan Andris, Gürüz, Kemal and Ergüder, Üstün (2008) p. 65

<sup>35</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2004-2005

<sup>36</sup> Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) p. 95

<sup>37</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 2 pp. 25-26

<sup>38</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 139

The rise in private, foundation institutions of higher learning indicates that there is a market need for such establishments in Turkey, even if their overall enrolment is still small compared to the total student population. While foundation universities cater to very specific student groups with financial means (be it via parental support or their own ability to earn scholarships), they contribute to the variety of choices and models in the system. Arguably, some of the regulations imposed on foundation universities in this country are more intrusive than the need for accountability would call for. Coupled with a reliable quality assurance structure these may be relaxed, especially once the sector matures as a result of the current debate. The main concern with the private sector lies in the sense of inequality on the part of academics in state institutions and some policy-makers, stemming from the difference in salary levels between the two types of institution, which is perceived to be caused by the uncompetitive and nationally regulated salary scale of state university staff.

### Recommended Actions 3

- When reconsidering the regulatory framework for universities, reconsider it also with respect to foundation universities.
- Re-examine the general financial situation of academics at public universities, also with respect to the sharp difference in salaries with those at the foundation universities.

#### **4.1.3 Students in University Governance**

Historically, student participation in institutional governance has been a pivotal constituent of universities in Europe. Acceptance of the notion, however, is not as unequivocal in academia as it may seem. Arguments against it include voicing concerns about the students' lack of experience in making management decisions, potential conflict of interest and the fact that their decisions are not subject to any public responsibility. Others argue that student participation should not cover all areas of decision making but rather that it should depend on the subject matter (quality and services rather than strategy and management). The argument that students lack experience to make decisions in some issues of university governance is offset, on the one hand, by the fact that where students are included in governing bodies, they do not constitute a majority and, on the another, that decision making in such bodies is a collegial affair where those with expertise in given issues are heard.

The 2008 OECD report found that students participate in the governing boards of higher education institutions in all European countries with the exception of Iceland. While the same report, citing a Council of Europe study from 2000, notes that in actual practice student involvement was "limited or even weak"<sup>39</sup>, this has arguably changed with the European Union of Students having gained an active voice in the Bologna process since then. Propelled by the Bologna process, a shift has taken place in Europe, away from the perception of students as pupils to that of partners in all matters related to the university. The concept rests on the conviction that students are adults with a stake in the services provided by universities, whose quality affects their future, and into which they invest their resources. Hence, students are entitled to have a say in shaping these services. Students also accept responsibility in participating in decisions that affect them as university stakeholders, and in their active contribution in the provision of student-related services.

"Students are full members of the higher education community" (Prague Communiqué 2001). "Students are full partners in higher education governance" (Berlin Communiqué 2003). "Students should play their part by serving on relevant committees." (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

At many Turkish universities, students are not generally seen as partners in the institutional decision-making, as can be seen in the three examples from IEP review reports below.

"[The Review Team] has the impression that there is rather lack of information and false perception concerning the real role that the students should play in a modern university."

"The non-participation of students in the decision-making process in the past weakened the decision-making processes in the university, at least in all affairs of teaching and learning, where with no student feed-back to academic staff, the quality of study programmes and of teaching suffered... ."

<sup>39</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 118

“... Students are rarely consulted. In some cases, student representatives exist and can contact the Dean or other authorities but they are not really involved in the governance of the University.”

Turkey has made progress in implementing student involvement as an aspect of the Bologna process. A recent survey by the European Students' Union found that in Turkey, along with a number of other countries, “the student unions are only full members in some of the decision-making bodies, but still consulted in most other bodies working with higher education.”<sup>40</sup> This is corroborated in Turkey's Bologna Process Report for 2007, which states that a regulation was enacted by YÖK in 2005 on student councils at higher education institutions and a national student council. According to the report, the “regulation provides students with a complete bottom-up organisational power ... from the departments/programme/major level at the bottom to the higher education institution and the national level at the top ... .” However, as is explicitly stated later in the report, “... under the existing higher education law, student representatives do not have the right to vote.”<sup>41</sup> This latter comment was corroborated in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop.

#### Recommended Actions 4:

- Organise a nation-wide debate, involving both academic staff and students, on the role of students in higher education institutions in order to promote understanding of this fundamental concept.
- Implement and encourage the participation of students at all levels of decision-making, with full voting rights.

#### **4.1.4 Access to Higher Education**

Turkey has a large young population, but its growth rate is decreasing steadily and shifting to older age groups. The country's total population was nearly 73 million in 2006, when the growth rate was 1.26%.<sup>42</sup> The birth rate is expected to peak in 2010 at 18%, after which a gradual decline in the rate is projected, with an estimated total population of over 90 million for 2025. The population distribution for 2005 was 28.3% of 0-14 year-olds, 65.8% of 15-64 year-olds, and 5.9% of persons aged 65 and over. The projected rates for 2010 are 26.9%, 66.9% and 6.2%, and for 2025, 22.7%, 68.5% and 8.8% for the respective age groups.<sup>43</sup>

These indicators mean that there is an enormous need for higher education provision. Turkey is facing a challenge as it tries to meet the growing demand for higher education while at the same time trying to diversify course offers and ensure higher education quality. Of the 20-29 age group, 10% were enrolled in full-time and part-time studies at public and private institutions in 2005. The figure is up from 5% in 1995 and from slightly under 7% in 2000.<sup>44</sup> At the same time, the entry rate into bachelor-level programmes was around 9% for those enrolling for the first time in 2005, when the OECD average was around 55%,<sup>45</sup> and slightly over 10% of students in Turkey have completed bachelor-level education while the OECD average was 36%.<sup>46</sup> However, total enrolment in higher education grew by an impressive 68% from 2001 to 2006.<sup>47</sup>

Entry into all undergraduate degree programmes is decided by ÖSYM, the Student Selection and Placement Centre affiliated with YÖK. ÖSYM conducts central university entrance examinations and decides on individual placements based on examination results in relation to the students' ranking of institutional choices. The system is widely reported to be extremely stressful for students and their families, and equity is considered questionable because it favours wealthy families with the ability to pay for extensive preparatory courses. The YÖK draft Strategy reveals that in 2005, the examination placed roughly 11% students into bachelor, and about 10% into vocational programmes out of 1.85

<sup>40</sup> ESIB (2007) p. 24

<sup>41</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>42</sup> OECD (2007b)

<sup>43</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) pp. 53-55

<sup>44</sup> OECD (2007a) Chapter C. Indicator C2: Who participates in education? Chart C2.4

<sup>45</sup> OECD (2007a) Highlights. p. 41

<sup>46</sup> OECD (2007a) Highlights. p. 14

<sup>47</sup> Based on figures in Enrolment Table, Annex 8.1

million applicants.<sup>48</sup> A number of negative effects of the entrance system have been identified. These include the fact that students concentrate on preparing for the examination in their final years of secondary school and fail to develop either social or problem-solving skills. Also, they are affected psychologically because of both the associated stress and the fact that they very often do not get into the field of their first choice. As a result, the concept of equal opportunity only applies to those who have been successfully placed, while the vast majority who fall out are left behind. The YÖK Strategy notes that “almost nothing is done about unequal opportunity.... [and that] concerns...should be directed to unequal opportunity in secondary education and Student Selection Examination.”<sup>49</sup> Conversely “about 16% of the students placed by Student Selection and Placement Centre do not enrol to the higher education institutions” and that the non-enrolment rate “is especially high at associate [i.e. two-year vocational] degree programs”; but even so, the total number of students has increased 2.1 times in last 12 years.<sup>50</sup>

The growth in higher education has been commendable in Turkey, and it is certainly an enormous challenge to meet demand for higher education equitably. The YÖK draft Strategy proposes a new examination system to ensure equal opportunity that would target several attainment levels, from secondary school completion examinations to basic level selection (both for specified vocational and bachelor programmes), to course-level selection (for specific fields), and to special talent examinations (for another set of specified fields).<sup>51</sup> Whatever the placement model, it is evident that the current placement system is in need of revision.

Student placement, however, is only one aspect of access to higher education. Another is tuition fees, and their existence seems to be an accepted financing instrument in Turkey, although at public institutions it is referred to as a “contribution fee”. Its amount is determined per educational programme and can be quite low (the equivalent of 55 USD for distance education, 140 USD in two-year vocational courses, 425 USD in medicine for the academic year 2007/08<sup>52</sup>). However, “private universities charge tuition fees generally much higher than the income range of an average Turkish family, thus they can attract only a small number of students.”<sup>53</sup> There are several advantages to tuition fees, both from a societal aspect and for the university. For the university, tuition fees provide a source of income as well as a commitment to provide quality service to the paying student. For society it can be seen as an individual contribution to a service, an investment for the future, and a payment for a service the quality of which can be expected. To be successful in any society, tuition fees must be coupled with a functioning scholarship and student loan system to ensure social equity in higher education. There does not seem to be a structure supporting a variety of private scholarships in Turkey, even though there is a marked expansion of links between universities and business and industry. Such a scheme could hold enormous potential if it were supported on the national level with appropriate incentives, such as tax breaks for contributing organisations. Turkey’s 2007 Bologna process report states that a survey by the loan-granting Higher Education Credit and Dormitory Authority YURTKUR found that 50.6% of higher education students questioned received loans to help with tuition fees and 56.7% received study loans in 2005. In 2006, close to 724 000 out of 2.35 million students had been awarded grants and loans.<sup>54</sup> Students in private universities cannot apply for loans from YURTKUR, but there is a 10% student quota for scholarships that private universities must grant by law.

#### Recommended Actions 5:

- Review the higher education placement system to balance consideration for institutional autonomy and a national access strategy: involve a broad spectrum of stakeholders in working out and discussing a variety of placement models.
- Promote financial equity in higher education access by expanding the current support system in addition to considering, in discussion with a broad spectrum of stakeholders, a scheme for encouraging the establishment of private scholarships.

<sup>48</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) Annex 10, Table 14, p. 215

<sup>49</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 12

<sup>50</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 9

<sup>51</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) pp. 16-17

<sup>52</sup> Barblan Andris, Gürüz, Kemal and Ergüder, Üstün (2008) p. 81

<sup>53</sup> Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) p. 27

<sup>54</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

#### 4.1.5 External Accountability

Autonomy must be accompanied by responsibility and, therefore, by accountability in some form. This can be achieved by quality assurance procedures to show that what is being done is good, as well as by good governance with external representation (such as governing boards) to give assurance that what is being judged as good, really is good and useful for society. The external accountability of universities means that they have responsibility for the quality of their education, research and services and their efficient use of public and private funds, which they demonstrate in a transparent way by involving experts who are not connected to the university. The Trends V Report surveying higher education in Europe in 2005/06 found that over three quarters of responding institutions felt that their national quality assurance system supported institutional autonomy, up from 50% in the Trends III Report from 2003.<sup>55</sup> Two conclusions can be drawn from this trend: 1) that a reliable internal quality assurance practised by institutions themselves generates enough confidence in governments and society to relax external control; and 2) conversely, that institutions have a greater sense of responsibility for internal accountability if they have the autonomy to manage their own affairs. This is reflected in the EUA Glasgow Declaration that emphasised the significance of autonomy in relation to institutional quality.

“Universities stress the link between a systematic quality culture, the scope of autonomy and funding levels, and call on governments to acknowledge that greater autonomy and adequate funding levels are essential to raising the overall quality of Europe’s universities.” (EUA Glasgow Declaration 2005)

Already in 2003 the Berlin Communiqué noted that almost all signatories to the Bologna Declaration have established quality assurance systems in their countries. Such systems include internal aspects, where higher education institutions set up structures, usually under central leadership, that manage various quality assurance exercises and feed back the results to the leadership. National systems usually also include external quality monitoring by quality assurance agencies. The “European Standards and Guidelines”,<sup>56</sup> which were adopted by the European Ministers in Bergen in 2005, establish three sets of standards for quality assurance: 1) for institutions to apply internally, 2) for agencies to apply to institutions that they evaluate, and 3) for quality assurance agencies to apply to their own internal quality assurance.

Beyond explicit quality assurance structures, there are other external accountability elements at higher education institutions. They range from transparency in the supply of information on the institutions’ activities and results, to university advisory boards reflecting on activities of an institution.

In Turkey, YÖK issued a directive in 2005 to introduce “Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions”: The directive “determines the principles for evaluating and improving the quality of educational, instructional and research activities and administrative services at higher education institutions, as well as approval and recognition of their level of quality through an independent external assessment. External assessment is recommended but not compulsory.”<sup>57</sup> External assessment, although only recommended, is to be carried out every five years in compliance with the European Standards and Guidelines. Since in 2006, universities have been tasked with carrying out their internal assessments once a year, and with preparing their strategic plans while taking into consideration their self-assessments.

The YÖK regulation also resulted in the establishment of YÖDEK, the Commission for Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions. The task of this Commission is to organise and run assessments at higher education institutions, and to grant operating licences for national quality assurance agencies to be set up. The 2007 Bologna Process Report for Turkey names four agencies that had applied to YÖDEK for licence as “independent national accreditation agencies”.<sup>58</sup>

Examples of such “meta-accreditation” systems, as they are sometimes called, exist in Europe. Germany is one example, where the Accreditation Council has so far accredited six accreditation

<sup>55</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) p. 57

<sup>56</sup> Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (2005)

<sup>57</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>58</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007



agencies. It is these agencies which carry out the accreditations of bachelor and master programmes. On its establishment in 1999, the Council was additionally commissioned to accredit programmes “in cases where that is called for”.<sup>59</sup> This activity, however, was not feasible and was removed from later regulations. Another example is NVAO, which accredits agencies conducting programme assessment in the Netherlands and Belgium (Flanders). The difference between the two systems is that, in Germany, the agencies make the accreditation decision, while NVAO itself makes the accreditation decision based on the agency assessment. In both examples, however, the national/multi-national body sets framework standards, on which the agencies build their own criteria and procedures.

While the two-tier system is not exceptional in Europe, the three-tier structure launched in Turkey is. Here, YÖK sets a framework of requirements and oversees YÖDEK, which accredits agencies that organise quality evaluation procedures. Accreditation of universities at state level is not foreseen.

Apart from the complexity of the structure, which seems to characterise all of Turkish higher education governance, the system raises concerns as regards the independence required by the European Standards and Guidelines. Standard 3.6 of the European Standards and Guidelines states that

“Agencies should be independent to the extent both that they have autonomous responsibility for their operations and that the conclusions and recommendations made in their reports cannot be influenced by third parties such as higher education institutions, ministries or other stakeholders.”<sup>60</sup>

YÖK’s involvement in quality oversight, and its link to both universities and government through its membership, could be a potential cause for concern with regard to independent quality judgements. This applies whether the outcome is an accreditation decision or an evaluation judgment. Moreover, the lack of a mandatory external control mechanism means that the system is missing an essential feature that makes quality assurance effective and external accountability reliable

Given the recent introduction of the quality assurance system in Turkey, there is little evidence of any effects in the IEP review reports. One example recounts the reviewers’ feedback from their interviews with members of the university and remarks on the drawbacks in this lack of external programme evaluation.

“While there was a gradual move towards external accreditation of some programmes (such as in Engineering), there was generally no process of external peer review of new programmes, or those undergoing modification as a result of annual monitoring. The University, therefore, had no means against which to measure itself in this respect and to demonstrate transparently its standing against national and international standards through peer involvement.”

However, reports do mention other external quality assurance practices. This is an indication that, in spite of the extensive external regulations governing Turkish universities, some institutions or faculties have made use of the possibility to demonstrate their quality, especially in areas where this was seen as a competitive advantage. At four of the evaluated institutions, engineering faculties or degree programmes have been evaluated by ABET, the Accreditation Board of Engineering Technology (an internationally recognised body in the field based in the United States). Other cases where external evaluations of specific disciplines were undertaken were also mentioned, such as the Engineering Accreditation Board (MÜDEK). Established in 2002 under the Council of Deans of Engineering Faculties, it “has provided a model beginning in our country for the establishment of a national quality assurance system in fields of engineering. As of date, MÜDEK has a portfolio of 60 trained assessors and in 2003-2004 10 engineering programs in 8 universities have been subject to MÜDEK Assessment Process.”<sup>61</sup>

Moreover, the IEP reviews of 17 universities in the country, conducted between 1999 and 2007 (and another four in 2008), can also be considered external evaluations fulfilling the demand for accountability to internal and external stakeholders.

<sup>59</sup> Akkreditierungsrat (1999/2000.) p. 5

<sup>60</sup> Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (2005) p. 25

<sup>61</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 119



Recommended Actions 6:

- Review the three-tier quality assurance system so that the role of the three players, YÖK, YÖDEK and the quality assurance agencies, is rationalised and that they each have a separate and complementary focus in relation to quality assurance.
- Encourage the external quality assurance body or agencies to participate in international events and activities, in order to benchmark their processes against international trends.
- Support other external accountability measures by granting universities as much autonomy as possible to turn to a quality assurance agency of their choice, but also make external quality monitoring mandatory for all universities.

**4.1.6 Inter-Institutional Cooperation**

Cooperation between Turkish universities is mentioned in few IEP review reports, but at the 9-10 May 2008 workshop, university representatives reported that, in general, such cooperation was quite good. They noted that many examples exist of such cooperation in the fields of teaching and research. The websites of some of the 17 universities reviewed by IEP also indicate some ties with domestic institutions. Nevertheless, the overall impression is that there is great potential to be exploited through increased interaction between universities in Turkey, in teaching, research, and to improve domestic mobility of students and staff.

One case where inter-institutional cooperation was notable was a network of five new universities in neighbouring regions in the south-eastern part of the country. The ADIMA network operates under a formal agreement for the purpose of collaborating in both educational and research projects. Moreover, two examples of research collaboration were mentioned, one with a nearby research centre and another with a university in the area. There seemed to be some cooperation in research, although mainly with establishments abroad.

The missed opportunities when interaction among universities is not exploited is formulated in one review report as follows,

“The university needs ... information and knowledge on existing experience in Turkey and elsewhere on examples of best practices. We noticed that there is no benchmarking culture at the university. We also noticed little systematic use of external references. We also noticed little shared knowledge of the university reality.”

One of the cornerstones of the European Higher Education Area is inter-institutional cooperation, albeit on the international level. Domestic cooperation offers similar advantages, namely the exchange of information and experiences via networking, and a kind of benchmarking one's own practices against those of others, which results in improved quality. In collaborative projects there is the additional advantage of using the added intellectual and physical capacity of partners, such as teaching and research staff on the one hand, and laboratories and equipment on the other. Student and staff mobility is one of the features of cooperation promoted in the Bologna process.

“Mobility of staff, students and graduates is one of the core elements of the Bologna Process, creating opportunities for personal growth, developing international cooperation between individuals and institutions, enhancing the quality of higher education and research, and giving substance to the European dimension. ... We are pleased that in many parts of the world, the Bologna reforms have created considerable interest and stimulated discussion between European and international partners on a range of issues. These include the recognition of qualifications, the benefits of cooperation based upon partnership, mutual trust and understanding, and the underlying values of the Bologna Process.” (London Communiqué 2007)

The 2008 OECD report also identified some rationales for cooperation among higher education institutions. It noted that such cooperation reinforces the strengths of the institutions and builds critical mass for conducting high-quality research, where networks and centres of excellence can promote areas of national priority. It found that cooperation improves cost-effectiveness and rationalises funds, by encouraging the sharing of infrastructures and avoiding duplication of teaching provision in a

region; and conversely, that cooperation promotes better services to regions by offering a diversity of programmes.<sup>62</sup>

#### Recommended Actions 7:

- Pursue further inter-university cooperation to redress the imbalance of existing university capacity in order to meet the educational needs of the young population.
- Support the use of ECTS as both a credit accumulation and a transfer system in order to promote student and staff mobility to other universities not just abroad but also within the country.
- Disseminate awareness about the potential advantages of inter-institutional cooperation in the form of workshops and seminars.

## **4.2 Internal Constraints and Opportunities**

This section of the report discusses the internal aspects of universities in relation to university decision making and management. It is difficult to separate internal and external spheres of university management, more so in the Turkish system than elsewhere because of the low institutional autonomy. The issues dealt with in this particular section are those areas where university leaders have room to manoeuvre even within the given regulatory system.

### **4.2.1 Institutional Structures and Decision-Making**

The first subsection covers decision-making structures at the institutional and faculty levels. Medical schools and vocational schools are dealt with separately because they hold a special place in almost all Turkish universities, and have an impact on the institutional structure and on university management.

#### *4.2.1.1 Mission and Strategy*

All universities reviewed by IEP had a mission statement – some drawn up in preparation for the review – and many of these universities post theirs on their websites. The mission statement is thus understood at most universities as what it should be: the philosophical foundation of what the university strives to be, grounded in its strong points and capacities, and addressing the university's role vis-à-vis its internal and external stakeholders. There is a danger that a mission statement is "prosaic, being at a level of generality which makes understanding by stakeholders problematic, implementation unsatisfactory and monitoring difficult", to quote the authors of one review. Alternatively, there is the challenge of setting aims that are too grandiose. To quote an IEP review,

"We believe that one single university can only afford a few fields in which excellence according to international standards can be achieved. The challenge for management should be to find a balance between striving for comprehensiveness in providing as many programs and being involved in as many research projects as possible on the one hand and aiming at excellence on the other. This is the old dilemma of quantity versus quality"

A university's mission statement is the cornerstone of its operation, and each of its elements must thus be linked to its strategic statement. The elements should be implemented and can serve as starting points for benchmarking activities. A strategic statement translates the university's main objectives into planned actions with timelines and identifies responsibilities. The operating plans of the university's organisational units should be derived from the strategic statement and involve all levels, from management to the individual. The mission and strategic statement form the basis for plans for specific areas of focus, such as budget, research and academic activity. Finally, the internal quality assurance system should be linked to the benchmarks set there. While all universities reviewed had, as noted, a mission statement, few of them had a comprehensive strategic statement and even fewer of them had derived budget or research plans.

There were also several universities that set down in their mission their goal of becoming a leading research university on an international scale, while neglecting their potential excellence in teaching and their role in society. On the strategic side, the aims expressed seemed to cover the university in general without differentiating between areas of excellence involving specific players, while defining

<sup>62</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 106

the roles of others. Fragmentation was a frequent observation in the IEP review reports with respect to university structures. A mission with a derived strategic statement and derived operational plans are the managerial tools that can form a university into a single and coherent entity.

#### Recommended Actions 8:

- Involve university members in strategic discussions on the role and profile of the institution, engage all university stakeholders in determining a clear mission that reflects the strengths and aims of the university, and motivate each individual to contribute to carrying it out.
- Develop an implementation plan for the strategy, identifying the university's needs and priorities, setting up a timeline for actions identified and setting down responsibilities for different actors.

#### *4.2.1.2 University-Level Management*

Clearly, the external regulatory framework has an impact on the internal management of higher education institutions in Turkey. In relation to the management and decision-making structures, national regulations determine that rectors can only recommend, but not appoint, faculty deans; limit to three the number of vice-rectors; and establish the post and powers of the general secretary as the manager of all administrative units. Institutional structure and size also have a bearing on strategic and management decisions of a university. Here, the number and type of academic units, i.e., faculties and departments, are also determined externally, as are the number and types of positions, including tenured ones, and the number of enrolled students. Furthermore, the appropriation of financial resources is pre-set.

The standard university structure as set down by YÖK consists of the rector, appointed by the President of the Republic, as the top decision-maker. He or she may appoint up to three vice-rectors and delegate certain tasks to them but, although they sit in the senate, they are not part of the decision-making structure. The senate is the governing body of the university, its main function being to decide on academic and research strategy. It is chaired by the rector and includes the vice-rectors, deans, the academic secretary and faculty representatives. Faculty deans are recommended by the rector but appointed by YÖK, and the rector appoints the general secretary as well as the heads of graduate schools and research centres. An administrative board, chaired by the rector, and including the deans and professors elected by the senate, oversees the implementation of senate decisions and discusses administrative and budgetary issues.

The participants at the 9-10 May 2008 workshop believe that rectors should be chosen differently. Selection should be based on merit and made by a board, rather than election, which often leads to populism. They also noted the importance of the rector being able to choose his or her team, including deans, who could be important partners in implementing strategy. A management board to assist the rector could be a useful part of a well-functioning university management structure. Participants also noted that vice-rectors have an important role in transmitting information from faculties to the rectorate, but that they otherwise have little power. The legal limit of three vice-rectors was deemed insufficient for all but small institutions; their role should be functional but the actual function should not be fixed by law. Nor should all vice-rectors be academics: their background should depend on their function. Vice-rectors should have a legal basis for authority and autonomy and should report directly to the rector. The current size and composition of senates and administrative boards were considered a hindrance to implementing university policy, since the deans and elected members of faculties prioritise faculty and department interests over university needs.

It is apparent that these prefixed external structures stifle innovative management. While there were examples of robust leadership and creative initiatives in the IEP review reports, the structure as a whole is not conducive to differentiation or to flexible adaptation in the face of external challenges. On the contrary, the structure is fragmented and acts as a disincentive to inter-faculty cooperation and interdisciplinarity on the one hand, while enabling much duplication of courses and activities, leading to a dispersal of resources, on the other. With respect to internal structures and decision making at universities in Turkey, the IEP review reports repeatedly noted the lack of university policies, such as a university-wide quality policy or research policy.

Both the senate and administrative board in each university are key resources for strategic management of the university. Rectors should be able to take active leadership positions in chairing

each of these. The aim should be to extract maximum strategic development potential from the senate and the administrative board. However, given that the size of the senate is generally too large to be operational, each rector should ensure that there is an active and developmental rectorate management group in his/her university. It is a prime responsibility of each rector to create, foster, and develop such a rectorate management group. The rector should also have the structural capacity to implement the university's strategic plan, but should also have the flexibility to address short-term important and "burning" issues, and to take full advantage of one-off serendipitous opportunities for his or her university.

Minute regulation often results in complacency at all levels. At rector level there were examples where the opposite was true, with the rector making enormous efforts to find creative solutions within the given constraints. Yet taking the university body as a whole, it is difficult to stimulate individual action and responsibility in such a setting.

The following examples from IEP review reports illustrate the drawbacks of the complex and confined internal structures.

"University follows the general model applied to all Turkish universities; at the central (institutional) level, we can identify three bodies: The Rector, the Senate and the Administrative (Executive) Board. Similar three-body structures exist at the level of the Faculties and at the level of the Departments as well. The review team considers this structure as rather complex, both vertically and horizontally, because it includes relations with a variety of units the precise tasks and roles of which are not clearly defined and/or perceived. [To comply with] the real demands for a modern, international, comprehensive university, the Rector needs visible structures, mechanisms and explicit processes to support decision making."

"... since all these mechanisms are informal or ad hoc or opaque in the system of power of the University, the Rector is the only visible and well identified centre of power in the University."

The next two examples describe the limits of the managerial powers of vice-rectors, while at the same time offering suggestions on how to use this position more effectively.

"... Vice Rectors have no line management responsibilities over academics working within their spheres of influence. All heads of academic units report to the Rector directly. Thus, for example, the goals for research or quality enhancement could not be furthered by the direct intervention of the responsible Vice Rector, but had to be steered by astute leadership and committee chairmanship or membership. Vice Rectors had no direct line management authority over administrative staff and units supporting their particular remits. By law, such line management is through the General Secretary."

"It seems that, on examination of the roles and portfolios of vice-rectors (at present 3), they each operate as controllers of various bureaucratic units and as 'pastor' for a group of faculties, centres, schools ... they could assume responsibility for the specific administrative units, support the particular portfolio – but in oversight, not detailed control; chair the Senate Committees and other committees/boards relevant to their portfolio."

Finally, to illustrate the problems encountered with university senates in the current structure, IEP reviewers pointed out the following.

"Senate and many of the committees are very large and [the university] will need to ensure that it retains the ability to be responsive and innovative in the face of the many challenges confronted by European Universities in a global competitive market."

"The Senate has two significant weaknesses that do not leave place for exercising actual power. The first weakness has to do with the huge number and the inhomogeneity of its members, while the second weakness has to do with its federal-type composition."

It can be seen that the overregulated institutional structure in Turkey is a hindrance to the development of its universities in the context of a complex European higher education system where competitiveness means differentiation, and change means flexibility. Positive examples, such as the following from one report, show that individual initiative and strategic thinking are possible in the Turkish system, even within the given external limitations.

“[The university] has, over the last few years, engaged in wide-ranging internal discussions aimed at defining objectives for the University and creating development plans. Exercises have been very successful in involving the whole University and producing some important changes in culture.”

In Europe, the literature on higher education governance is grounded in the seminal notion of a triangle that was developed by the education researcher Burton Clark in 1983.<sup>63</sup> According to this model, three forces influence the functioning of a higher education institution: the professional/collegial, the government/managerial, and the market. Which of the three forces have a greater effect on a given institution or system depends on the conditions and may vary in time. Various other typologies have been constructed building upon this foundation, with different management approaches worked in, but the underlying feature is the degree of tension between market forces and the traditional Humboldtian concept of an organisation of academic oligarchs (also a term coined by Clark). “Market” forces in the university context are to be understood as not just the financial challenges higher education institutions must be able to handle due to budget constraints. More broadly, the concept implies that universities must meet a multitude of expectations beyond teaching and research. The emergence of Clark’s typology indicates the influence of market factors on Western European universities in the 1980s, which Turkey is currently experiencing. The development was accompanied by a reduction in government influence on universities’ internal management and the increasing appearance of management-oriented university leaders. The growing managerial steering approach was coupled with a reduction in the influence of the collegial-academic bodies, while governing boards with external stakeholder members were brought in to ensure a balance of power with the rector or president.<sup>64</sup> In the management-oriented model, the new university leadership should be able to

- ensure the implementation of legal reforms that lead to more autonomy and accountability
- develop a strategic vision
- diversify funding streams
- establish strategic partnerships
- work with governing boards
- represent the institution
- communicate externally and internally

Internal university governance structures, as observed in the 2008 OECD report, typically include a governing board, in addition to the head of the university and the senate, and administrative, faculty and department leaders. “Within this complex structure, the governing board plays a crucial role. Typically, it has responsibility for setting the mission and goals of the institution, the approval of its policies and procedures, the appointment, review and support of its president [i.e. rector], the oversight of its resources, as well as an informed understanding of its programmes and activities. In setting the strategy and direction of the institution, it is a key actor in translating public policies and orientations in actual institutional practice and policy implementation. It is thus important in fulfilling its mission, that the governing board be in a position to have regard to the public interest.”<sup>65</sup>

In universities with autonomous decision-making structures, boards of trustees or governing boards whose members include external stakeholders are necessary to balance the power of the rector and to ensure that the university is managed properly. They are also important for assuring accountability without the need for interference by government regulation into university management. Their scope includes a control function over certain aspects of the university, and to complement the senate, which, because members predominantly come from faculties and other academic units, focuses mainly on academic matters. Beyond the governance function, governing boards provide a link with the external community. The accountability function of advisory boards is necessarily less pronounced

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<sup>63</sup> Clark, Burton R (1983)

<sup>64</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 111

<sup>65</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p- 113



than with governing boards, but both can provide feedback on graduate success in employment and promote acceptance of the university as a player in society. Importantly, such boards can be assigned a quality assurance function by acting as an external feedback and control mechanism.

Some IEP reviews point to the lack of authority of governing boards in relation to the limited autonomy of higher education institutions in Turkey, as seen in the following excerpt,

“... the limited powers of autonomy in relation to the creation of a governing board were felt to be very constraining. While the University has created an Advisory Group ... the government rules prevent this from having responsibility other than purely an advisory role.”

In investigating institutional autonomy and accountability, the above-mentioned 2007 EUA conference identified governing boards as strategic instruments at autonomously managed institutions. In addition to establishing the obvious link between the university and external stakeholders, “[governing boards] reflect increased emphasis on professionalism of university leadership, offer potential for increased effectiveness / efficiency and accountability to the public; [and] lead to increased leadership credibility that balances decreased democracy / collegiality”.<sup>66</sup>

In Turkey, boards of trustees are a legal requirement at foundation universities. As the higher education system is being reconsidered, policy-makers and universities can look to the model at the country's private institutions and take advantage of their experiences by considering the establishment of advisory boards with external members to ensure that each university is managed properly and that accountability can be assured without the need for interference by government regulation into university management. The participants at the 9-10 May 2008 workshop deemed the board-of-trustees model an efficient one for institutional governance, financial management and generating funding. At the same time, some participants expressed concerns with possible political influence into state institutions if external stakeholders were called in to govern them.

#### Recommended Actions 9:

- Base the selection of rectors on merit and conduct it by a board that represents all stakeholders – university staff and students, external stakeholders – that would guarantee transparency and real competition.
- Reconsider the functions of vice-rectors and assign them oversight over identified strategic areas as well as other spheres of responsibility not necessarily related to academic matters. The number of vice-rectors should be decided by the university.
- Consider setting up a rectorate management board consisting of the rector, vice-rectors and the administrative director.
- Consider advisory boards taking over the supervisory role for individual universities as an option for state universities. Ensure that the advisory board should represent all stakeholders: external society, students and university staff. This is an important counterbalance to the senate which represents only faculties. Examine experiences with boards of trustees at foundation universities to serve as a possible governance model.

#### *4.2.1.3 Faculty Management*

Traditionally, faculties in universities in Europe have had the independence to decide on academic matters, both in relation to organisation and content. This appears to be the practice in Turkish universities today, although within the limitations set by external regulations. As noted, deans are recommended by the rector but appointed by YÖK. Such an arrangement seems to indicate that deans enjoy managerial independence from the rector. A quote from an IEP report illustrates the role of deans in the university structure.

“Deans are ... key figures at institutional as well as at Faculty levels; all communications between heads of department and the Rector, for example, have to pass through them ... they are appointed by YÖK ....”

<sup>66</sup>

EUA (2007b)



Faculties have an organisational structure similar to that of the university, with a faculty board for academic issues and an administrative board for administrative management. Undergraduate programmes are under the supervision of faculties, which also manage the research infrastructure and support services of the faculty. Research institutes or centres operate independently from faculties and are responsible for running graduate and post-graduate education.

From the IEP review reports, two major concerns regarding the current faculty arrangement emerged. One was the way the structure blocked teaching and research in interdisciplinary areas. The relatively autonomous faculties exist as entities in themselves and there is little stimulus for interaction and initiating common programmes.

“Another problem that the review team identified during its meetings is the strong segmentation of studies, most of them strictly disciplinary based. Only few transversal offerings of courses and little exchange of competences between Faculties could be identified ...”

The other concern with regard to the self-governing faculty structure was the lack of authority on the part of the central administration to influence faculties on strategic matters.

“The traditional autonomy of faculties and departments with respect to education and research limits the willingness of faculty members to enter the debate about the profile of the university as a whole.”

“This organisation... will come under pressure when more focused choices of policy have to be made. This will put high demands on the academic leadership and on the internal support for decision-making processes ... the involvement of the university community in decision-making processes will need particular attention.”

Central-level management has been identified in previous sections of this report as a requisite for strategic leadership and the efficient and focused administration of decisions. It was noted as having emerged in Western Europe from the traditionally collegiate structure where university members constituted a community of more or less equal academic decision-makers. Strong and independent faculties, sometimes even as independent legal entities, were a feature of universities in many countries in Eastern and Central Europe, such as Poland, Slovakia or the Czech Republic. Various factors contributed to this development, most markedly that the traditional academic power was perceived as democratic when these countries were living under Soviet-dominated regimes and market forces came into play only after the emergence of democratic structures. Related to this was the fact that central management had no role to play in such a structure, and the office of the rector was largely ceremonial. Finally, there were no market forces and, therefore, no development took place to challenge the traditional “collegial model”. Even after regime change, it took more than a decade for amendments to higher education laws, such as in Slovakia in 2002, to establish universities as the legal entity and to invest the rector with power to manage the university. Here, too, a governing board with members of the external community were set up to balance the power of the rector, as well as to provide a link with external stakeholders.

Elsewhere, too, strong academic self-governance and the internal election of rectors and deans have been identified as barriers to the strategic responsiveness of universities in modern societies. “High levels of faculty autonomy result in a structural tendency to adopt a path of least resistance rather than to take strategic decisions that involve making choices between faculties or giving different priorities to their plans. It also limits central university resources in favour of maximising faculty allocations.”<sup>67</sup> While identifying a number of countries where, in practice, the collegial model continues, the 2008 OECD report notes the decreasing tendency among countries to retain this arrangement, and a growing power of governing boards.<sup>68</sup>

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<sup>67</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 115

<sup>68</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 115

Recommended Actions 10:

- Review the internal faculty structure to make decision making more operational, possibly by reducing the number and size of faculty-level bodies.
- Identify leadership tasks at faculties and devolve these to existing heads of units on various levels beyond the tasks assigned to them by law.
- Ensure an internal structure in which staff and students at faculties and research institutes can easily interact for teaching and research projects with a special view to interdisciplinary areas at both undergraduate and graduate levels.

*4.2.1.4 Institutional Structures: Faculties of Medicine*

Many Turkish universities were established with the strategic aim to act as both mass-education centres and service providers for the various regions. Within the compound structure of Turkish universities, medical faculties and the hospitals affiliated with them play special roles and as such deserve separate mention.

Fourteen of the 17 universities reviewed by IEP had medical faculties and these operated or were affiliated with major hospitals and/or health centres serving the regional community. As such they generate considerable income for the university and consequently have an important voice in the decision making. As one IEP review report puts it,

“Faculty of Medicine has a strong position (and therefore great influence) since it is linked to one of the largest hospitals in the country and provides the main part of [the university’s] internal research budget (revolving funds).”

In the generally fragmented university structure, the independence of the medical centres is not unusual. However, considering that in most cases these generate over 90% of the revolving funds and that the revolving funds make up some 50 to 60% of the universities’ total budget, it is clear that these faculties play a dominant part in university management. The Turkish system with regard to university hospitals is different to most European countries, where hospitals are completely managed and financed under separate governance and usually under the Ministries of Health. Therefore, universities do not usually earn money through their hospitals, while the hospitals cover the additional salaries of medical teachers, whose function is to both teach and provide medical care. Given the situation in Turkey, it is natural that the majority of the revolving funds coming from hospitals goes into additional salaries of those teachers who work in health care. Several reports noted that while the great majority of the revolving funds generated by health services went back into them to cover their expenditures and upkeep (as well as 15% for taxes), there was a certain percentage (5% was identified and this seems to be a legal requirement) that was channelled into research also at other faculties. However, a certain overhead for administration costs to universities is necessary since it is the university that also administers the hospitals.

It would be to the advantage of these universities if central management could reconsider the role of the medical education and service provider units within a global concept of the university and an overarching strategy. The other faculties and the university as a whole would benefit not only from the income that supports research but from synergies in education and research, especially in the growing number and variety of interdisciplinary fields. Obviously, moreover, the role of these medical services in the community at large is very important. It is one of the major links of the university with society and external stakeholders that can serve as a model for interaction in other areas, such as business and industry as well as with cultural projects.

Recommended Actions 11:

- Carefully consider ways of having university hospitals and medical faculties as part of a fully integrated university as regards academic and research work to further interdisciplinarity.
- Link hospital involvement in the external community with the identity and image of the university as a whole towards both external and internal stakeholders.

#### 4.2.1.5 Institutional Structures: Vocational Schools

The status of vocational schools is entirely different to that of medical faculties, but the underlying concern, here too, reflects the fragmentary organisational structure of universities in Turkey. Fifteen of the 17 reviewed universities operate vocational schools, varying from one to 25 such schools within a single university.

Among the advantages for the concept of a university as one entity is cost-effectiveness, achieved by avoiding overlapping and duplication of educational offers. An integrated institution provides synergies for common programmes and projects involving diverse units, and thus stimulates creativity and individual initiative and leads to an institutional identity which can also be exploited in the long run, e.g., via alumni. In Turkey, substantively integrated vocational schools would profit from such synergies, while contributing to the diversity of offers by the university. Moreover, vocational schools can provide a good structure for offering lifelong learning programmes, which is also a key feature of the Bologna process. For this to be successful, the governing structures of universities would have to be rethought so as to involve vocational schools in an organic way.

Vocational schools, which in 2006/07 represented roughly 20% of higher education in Turkey,<sup>69</sup> were established to meet the demand for educating a young population and to contribute to lowering unemployment. How far the latter requirement is met with respect to graduates from these programmes was not the object of the IEP reviews, but there was a general impression that the quality and content of teaching was not in line with employers' demands. The concern was corroborated in several other reports and studies. The fact that vocational school entrants are not required to take the rigorous entrance examinations needed for admission to bachelor programmes clearly must affect the quality of incoming students, and hence the quality of the education provided. In this respect these schools meet a social demand that should be the objective of general education. Often vocational schools are located away from the university campuses, and this fact, together with concerns over quality and a general negative perception, prevents vocational schools from being considered as organic parts of the universities, as highlighted in an IEP review report,

"Students of the Vocational Schools are not a real part of the student community of the [university], ... many people in the [university] consider the existence of the Vocational Schools as a weakness (or even as a threat) for the University ... ."

Under these circumstances it is difficult to call for the true integration of vocational schools into the university. In fact, apart from political considerations, there seems to be no argument for requiring a single model with vocational schools as sub-entities of universities. Fully-fledged vocational schools that can build their own profile, tailor their provision to the regional market needs, and uphold business and service links with the external community could provide the kind of education that is expected but cannot be provided in the current structure. Turkey's 2007 Bologna Process national report comments that a new "Authority for Vocational Competencies" was established by law in 2006. It has the responsibility of administering "the standards of vocational qualifications obtained through informal/non-formal and formal education, and training below the higher education level (including short cycle qualifications)."<sup>70</sup> More to the point, there seems to be a need to reconsider the basic university structure at the national level, where vocational schools should be given a separate place within a diverse system that meets a variety of needs. It seems questionable whether the purpose of vocational schools is best served within university structures in all cases. This possibility has, in fact, already been noted in Turkey, since the YÖK draft Strategy notes five vocational schools affiliated with foundations established in accordance with Law No. 4702, and points out that this law allows for the establishment of vocational schools without university affiliation.<sup>71</sup>

Whatever the structure, however, it is urgent to raise the quality of vocational programmes in Turkey, so that vocational schools can really become the first level of tertiary education. In addition, the implementation of a suitable quality control mechanism should provide the oversight needed to ensure the transition between cycles. Turkey's 2007 Bologna Process national report notes that students passing a central examination can enter from the vocational school to a bachelor programme after

<sup>69</sup> 482.208 students out of a total of 2.419.214. Source: Republic of Turkey (2007) p.19

<sup>70</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>71</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 67

“successfully completing a deficiency programme of at most one year”.<sup>72</sup> Structurally, the transition between levels has thus been regulated, but the quality of the content of vocational school programmes is an impediment to progression for graduates from these schools.

#### Recommended Actions 12:

- Consider in the global university strategy how to integrate vocational schools into the university so as to form an organic part of it.
- Involve vocational school leaders in the decision making in all university-level bodies.
- Via the ECTS credit system, enable recognition of studies to go into bachelor courses, but also ensure the quality of the vocational programmes by upgrading the staff of vocational schools so that these can really become the first level of tertiary education.
- Ensure that vocational graduates have employable knowledge and skills by redesigning curricula in collaboration with representatives from business and industry. Using these contacts, ensure that vocational school students have access to practical training in business and industry.

### **4.2.2 The Management of Financial and Human Resources**

Much has been said in this study about the intricate external regulatory framework governing universities in Turkey. With regard to finance, Section 3.1 described the funding sources for universities and 5.1.1.2 dealt with the issue of autonomy and budgeting at the national level. It was noted that the state budget is allocated in relation to staff positions and other indicators, and that there is a separate investment budget allocation; while universities generate their own income collected in revolving funds. The regulations determine which budget is to be used for what type of activity and what part of surplus income can or cannot be carried over to the next budget year. The IEP review reports from 2007 speak of a budget allocation system that is neither manageable nor stimulating, even after the introduction of a new budget law.

With regard to human resources, again, regulations determine the number and level of staff positions broken down to faculty level. Academic and non-academic staff are civil servants with set salary levels, which are widely considered as low, and compel capable staff to take multiple jobs or leave for better paying foundation universities. Associate and full professors have tenure, which, coupled with the lack of incentives, has, in many cases, led to complacency.

Within these established limitations most IEP review reports comment similarly on the restrictive effect on university management and strategic development, and describe some concrete implications. At the same time there are indications of individual initiative in the internal use of financial and human resources, as will be seen in the next two subsections.

#### *4.2.2.1 Financial Management*

Only in some of the universities reviewed by IEP was the leadership able to identify possibilities for financial tactics and translate them into action. While the revolving funds were reported to be very bureaucratic not just in their allocation but also administration, they were nevertheless recognised as a resource that allowed for some independent use of monies. It was most commonly spent on research and international activities of staff. In one case an internal system for funding research projects on a competitive basis was set up. Several universities had links with business and industry via techno-parks or similar schemes, which generated additional income. The perceived drawback seemed to be that these funds were fed back – in accordance with national-level regulations – almost exclusively into the university units that produced them, creating tensions with less money-generating departments and faculties.

Medical faculties seemed to be exempt for the financial constraints at least as regards the amount of money they had available, since the incomes generated from community health services for the most part remained within the facilities. Moreover, medical faculties receive additional resources from the Ministry of Finance.

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<sup>72</sup>

Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

In spite of the fact that a recent law requires universities to develop strategic plans, with state financing being allocated for identified targets, the overall findings from the IEP review reports were that there was little coherent strategy at the institutional level for income generation and distribution. The deficiency was noted in the following observation:

“For the review team, the need of a central structure which will have a global view and control of all financial issues, including financial data system, is quite obvious if the university wants to integrate its financial policy into its strategy, or if it wants to use financing as a tool for implementing its strategy and achieving its goals.”

The managing of internal resources is undergoing a transformation in many countries in Europe. With universities receiving a smaller proportion of their incomes from the state, university leadership has to become less dependent on government and more capable of generating and managing its own income. University leaders need to be skilled in entrepreneurial management. They need to be capable of strategic thinking and planning, with the ability to use resources as management tools which can lead to greater commitment at all levels of the university to achieve set goals in teaching and research.

“Full costing” has been an issue in university budgeting discussions in Europe since about 2000. Full-cost budgeting means that the total cost in manpower, direct and indirect expenses and incremental costs of each activity in each unit of a higher education institution is identified, and incomes and expenditures are budgeted accordingly. At the 9-10 May 2008 workshop it was noted that several universities in Turkey also have explored the concept of full costing. One participant pointed out that there is a need to create incentives for universities to implement full costing and to present this as an alternative funding model to administrative and academic staff.

The model holds enormous challenges for a sector that has not been used to looking at its activities from a financial point of view and in an itemised way. Success stories with implementing full costing have been reported, such as at the University of Liège in Belgium, which began exploring this model in 1999.<sup>73</sup> Proposing one model for other institutions should be done with extreme care, however, as an ongoing EUA project revealed. Launched by EUA in 2007 and supported by the European Commission, Directorate General of Education and Culture, the project sought to gather examples of good practice in cost accounting from higher education institutions in Europe, with an emphasis on full-cost financing. The project should be completed by autumn 2008. Preliminary findings indicate, however, not only that there are many budgeting models in use in universities across Europe, but that the concept of full costing is highly varied as well. Among the recommendations of the EUA Experts Conference was, again, the call for national governments to grant institutions the autonomy to act independently while also keeping in mind the benefits of coordinated national action. Individual institutions, for their part, should be aware that their funding system can serve as integrated strategic tool to steer the institution.<sup>74</sup> Behind the idea, as revealed both in Liège and with the EUA project, is the need for more accountability and the fact of decreasing public funding for universities; and, linked to that, the need for increasingly professionally managed universities able to take individual responsibility for their financial sustainability.

Coupled with the considerable reduction of external regulations, universities should be free to set strategies and also be given the flexibility and the means to achieve them. The current change in Turkey to a performance-based funding structure can only be effective if other regulations are relaxed and strategic planning is coupled with the necessary tools to achieve aims and priorities. The use of internal budget allocation plans, with established criteria for allocation, would foster a culture of mutual understanding and responsibility on the part of the university community.

National-level management training programmes for university leaders, and/or financial and technical support for participation in international programmes of this kind, should be provided. The mind-set that replaces a top-down regulatory system with a motivational scheme for all levels of the higher education community should be cultivated. Moreover, as the use of state funds for part of the universities' income will continue, it should be coupled with a system of accountability, which will also be required for using income from private sources.

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<sup>73</sup> Coignoul, F. (2007)

<sup>74</sup> EUA (2008)



Most IEP review reports echoed the need for a university-wide financial strategy and internal allocation policy, and there were suggestions for institutional approaches where leaders could find room to manoeuvre within the externally imposed regulatory framework, in order to advance their institution's resource management. A defined and transparent allocation model would allow the university leadership to rationalise its resources, optimise their use and set priorities, in line with strategic goals. It would also engage the university community in taking joint responsibility for the institution's development.

“Clarifying [the financial allocation] processes and making explicit the main criteria of resource allocation would create a culture of mutual understanding of the needs and resources of the different academic fields and research activities. This would give transparency to what seems now rather obscure to most of the university members. A ‘global consolidated budget’ or balance sheet combining the ... revenue streams and offering a complete overview of incomes, expenditures and allocations would be helpful...”

#### Recommended Actions 13:

- Identify a global budget and work out its distribution (beyond the amounts fixed by externally determined formulas) in relation to strategy and priorities, optimising its use and for all university units.
- Explore a variety of internal budgeting models to find the one best suited for the particular university and in the light of European developments.
- Engage the university community in taking joint responsibility for using the budget allocation to promote the institution's development.

#### *4.2.2.2 Human Resources Management*

At the level of individual staff, much energy is exerted in taking on additional teaching loads, either within the university in “second education” programmes or at other institutions, in order to supplement incomes. The statutory minimum is ten hours of teaching a week, and additional hours are remunerated. In one case a teaching load of 35 hours per week was reported. The teaching overload has had an effect on research capacity and motivation. Beyond striving for their own financial advancement, university staff often seemed to lack a clear idea on how to generate additional income other than by teaching additional hours.

The external regulatory framework was reported to also stifle human resource management at universities. At the level of individual staff, the additional teaching load for income generation reduces their capacity for research. Job security is another factor, which, in the current environment, is a disincentive to innovative teaching and research, since university staff are civil servants and on tenure track after set periods of time spent in positions. Civil servant status means low pay but full job security since dismissal can be contested in a court of law. While there are provisions for promotion to associate professor and professor titles set by YÖK, “teaching staff members who do not hold an academic title [are] awarded promotions by the individual institutions according to the civil servant law”.<sup>75</sup> Stagnation is reinforced by the national-level position allocation, which leads to faculties holding onto positions that become vacant by filling them as quickly as possible, irrespective of whether the position is actually needed. Inbreeding is a common trait, with most staff the IEP reviewers interviewed having graduated from the same university. In some institutions the structure leads to an ageing staff, where young staff members are able to enter a position only when older professors retire. There are other universities where the staff is young, but the number of full professors still exceeds that of junior positions. The viable pyramid distribution common in Europe cannot be expected to be achieved under these circumstances, when the large number of young staff all seek to advance to the top positions at the same time. The positions of administrative staff are also determined externally, and do not always reflect internal need, nor allow for reassignment when conditions require it.

The IEP review report excerpt below illustrates the concerns regarding human resource management.

<sup>75</sup>

Mizikaci, Fatma (2006) (2006) (2006) p. 88



“In addition ‘new blood’ policies to enrich the staff base and to enable a stronger focus on changing needs are limited. The appointment of Professors and Associate Professors is almost universally from within the University rather than from appointment from outside, since the former creates no additional burden on state finances. Similarly the appointment of younger assistant professors, lecturers and research assistants is governed by the government’s manpower planning considerations rather than those of the University itself. State higher education staffing policies clearly limit the autonomy of [the university] to steer change through its own staffing strategies towards meeting wider goals.”

Staff development strategies, training for new positions, and job exchange programmes within a university are concepts that many universities did not seem to be aware of. Given the demand for new teaching methodologies and a learner-centred approach to education promoted in the European Higher Education Area, this should be an issue of immediate concern for many universities in Turkey. Nevertheless, there are examples of good practice with respect to staff issues among Turkish higher education institutions, as the following quote shows.

“[The university] has also established a dynamic and already successful policy in terms of staff promotion and career development, using transparent procedures. At the same time, the [university] has introduced clear mechanisms for allocation of administrative staff, based on a global view of human resources and on concrete assignment of tasks and a clear job description.”

The Turkish 2007 Bologna Process National Report mentions a 2006 YÖK “Regulation on Amending the Regulation on Promotion and Appointment to Assistant Professorship, Associate Professorship and Professorship” to allow for the hiring of foreign academic staff. It is a commendable initiative in addressing the issue of internationalisation at Turkish universities. However, it was most likely passed to facilitate staffing the universities or programmes that the country has set up under bilateral agreements, e.g., with the State University of New York<sup>76</sup> or the German-Turkish University in Istanbul.<sup>77</sup> Of course it does not answer the fundamental question of structural autonomy with respect to staffing and promotions.

#### Recommended Actions 14:

- Make human resource planning and management a part of strategic management based on short, medium and long term goals.
- Set up a differentiated merit system linked to a career plan that allows salary increases based on merit and which includes not only teaching but also research performance and participation in staff development as well as student feedback results.
- Build up staff development strategies, training for new positions, and job exchange programmes within each university.
- Provide staff training in new teaching methodologies and the learner-centred approach to education.

#### **4.2.3 Teaching**

Much has been said in this report about the fragmented character and lack of a cohesive and overarching central management at universities in Turkey. In the context of teaching, as well as research, it should be noted that while a central concept and strategy about a university’s present state and future course are indispensable for its development, the faculties and research units themselves must continue to play a key role in this development.<sup>78</sup>

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<sup>76</sup> SUNY (2008)

<sup>77</sup> Diehn, Timur (2008)

<sup>78</sup> One of the findings of the EUA 2002/03 Quality Culture project was that institutions have to establish a balance between the central leadership’s and the faculties’ responsibilities in decision-making. Institutional and faculty strategies must be coordinated. See(EUA (2005a) p. 36

#### 4.2.3.1 *The Bologna Educational Structure, ECTS, the Diploma Supplement and Mobility*

The structure of education into consecutive cycles, along with the instruments of an internationally readable credit transfer system and the Diploma Supplement, are the foundations for mobility of students in higher education and cornerstones of the Bologna process.

The Higher Education Strategy for Turkey proposed by YÖK cited the Bologna Process Stocktaking scorecard for Turkey for 2005, where implementation of the two-cycle system was graded as excellent, and the implementation of the Diploma Supplement and ECTS as very good.<sup>79</sup> The educational structure in Turkey, including also the third cycle, involves a three or four-year bachelor, a two-year master and a four-year doctorate. ECTS credits are being issued with 180-240 points for bachelor and 90-120 points for master degrees<sup>80</sup>, and together with the Diploma Supplement (issued free of charge on request in English, French or German) they have become mandatory for all higher education institutions since the academic year 2005/06.<sup>81</sup> Turkey's Bologna Process national report notes that by 2006, thirteen universities in Turkey had been awarded Diploma Supplement labels.<sup>82</sup>

In Turkey, bachelor-level programmes appeared from the 1960s with the founding of four-year higher schools alongside the longer university-level programmes, and today the consecutive bachelor-master structure does not seem to be a problem. Indeed, already in Trends III, the first of the Trends Reports in which the country was included after signing the Bologna Declaration in 2001, it appeared as having implemented its degree structure in accordance with the Bologna process.

As far as the ECTS-based credit system is concerned, however, there may be obstacles to internal mobility where credit accumulation and transferability were not fully understood. In the Trends V Report, almost 75% of institutions in the Bologna-signatory countries reported that they used ECTS for credit transfer and 66% for credit accumulation.<sup>83</sup> Turkey is among the countries that have reported that they award degrees/diplomas only on the basis of accumulated credits.<sup>84</sup> But the report also notes that in many countries "incorrect or superficial use of ECTS is currently still widespread. Such usage hinders the re-structuring of curricula, and the development of flexible learning paths for students..."<sup>85</sup> This concern is corroborated with regard to Turkey in the IEP review reports, about half of which mentioned the application of ECTS, but noted that in most cases it seemed to be used merely as a credit point assignment based on contact hours.

"Implementing ECTS based on contact hours, and not on student workload, and implementing the Diploma Supplement as a simple list of the students' performance in the various courses taught, without any reference to the competences acquired, are typical examples of non-genuine implementation of the Bologna Process. This kind of implementation distorts the characteristics of the Bologna reforms."

The Bologna process national report for Turkey underlines this observation. It notes that the credit system at all higher education institutions was, at least up to 2006, based on contact hours, and that credits assigned per semester equal "the weekly lecture hours plus half of the weekly laboratory or practicum hours" for each course.<sup>86</sup> If this is the case, as the IEP reviewers have also found, the claims that Turkey's multi-cycle programme structure is Bologna compatible are debatable. The 4+2 (+4) structure with 180-240 contact hours for bachelor and 90-120 contact hours for master degrees is in fact a much higher load than is usual in the European Higher Education Area. When considering this concern together with the lack of skills and competencies to ensure the employability of graduates from all but the best universities, it appears that the curriculum structure and content are in need of reconsideration.

<sup>79</sup> Bologna Process Stocktaking, Report from a Working Group Appointed by the Bologna Follow-up Group, Bergen, May 2005, p. 104, cited in: Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 50

<sup>80</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 45. The dominant duration for bachelor programmes was reported to be four years.

<sup>81</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 51, also in: Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>82</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>83</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) p. 7

<sup>84</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) pp. 39-40

<sup>85</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) p. 7

<sup>86</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

The exploitation of the ECTS system to its full potential would be all the more feasible in Turkey since, with its large universities, the various types of education, most notably the vocational schools and lifelong learning programmes, could be interlinked with the undergraduate and (post)graduate education using the ECTS instrument. An IEP review report describes the significance of a credit accumulation and transfer system for the educational structure of a university, pointing to the significance of

“the use of credit accumulation for lifelong learning, adult and part-time study; the use of credits as a tool of interdisciplinarity and cross-faculty programmes, which students perceive to be virtually impossible at present. This could either operate in a structured way or as a free study choice ...; [there could be] the use of credits to eliminate course duplication – shared modules across degrees, rationalisation.”

Regarding the Diploma Supplement, the Trends V Report found that Turkey was among those countries where less than 20% of responding institutions said they issue such a document to all graduating students. The report notes that not even half of the respondents issue Diploma Supplements to all their students.<sup>87</sup> It may be assumed that with its mandatory use since 2005/06 the next Trends report will find that Turkey will have advanced in this area.

It should be noted in relation to the Bologna process that many of the IEP review reports note the existence of Erasmus/Socrates exchanges for students and some staff. Since Turkey's EU candidacy status it has become eligible to participate in the programme from the 2004-2008 period onward.<sup>88</sup> The awareness of the Bologna process and the need for international involvement appeared to be pervasive throughout the reports. Altogether, in 2005 slightly over 52 000 Turkish students were reported to have been studying abroad, 47.500 in OECD countries.<sup>89</sup> Nevertheless, actual mobility and international activities seemed to vary greatly across universities. The general lack of language proficiency noted by IEP reviewers indicates that language teaching as well as mobility of students and of staff are key strategic concerns for Turkey.

#### 4.2.3.2 *Learner-centred Teaching*

Two other – very important – concerns with respect to teaching in higher education institutions in Turkey emerge from the IEP review reports. These concerns are not particular to this country, however, but continue to be under discussion also on the European level. One is the change of focus from teaching to learning; the other is the relevance of education to the job market.

“A particular effort needs to be made to motivate and train academic staff to work with such a student-centred paradigm. Students and their representatives must be involved in working through the consequences of these new approaches.” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

The main teaching method at most universities reviewed is *ex cathedra*. There is merit to transmitting information in a lecture format in some courses and subject areas. Nevertheless, the change to more interactive learning methods has become a necessity in response to concerns about mass education and employability. The acquisition of knowledge and skills is promoted by encouraging students to work on independent problem solving, project-based learning, teamwork, and independent learning assignments. To be able to implement this type of outcome-based teaching, learning outcomes have to be defined for each of the levels of degrees, from associate to bachelor to master to doctoral.

In Europe, the most commonly referred to level descriptions are the Dublin descriptors first developed for bachelor and master levels in 2002 by a group of experts under the Joint Quality Initiative. Their report from 18 October 2004 entitled “Dublin Descriptors for Short Cycle, First Cycle, Second Cycle and Third Cycle Awards” incorporates the previous descriptors with new ones worked out for short-cycle, also known as “post-secondary”, and doctoral education.<sup>90</sup> Level descriptors, also referred to as “generic descriptors”, set down what knowledge and skills a graduate at each level or cycle should

<sup>87</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) p. 7

<sup>88</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>89</sup> OECD (2007a) Chapter C. Indicator C3: Who studies abroad and where? Chart C3.8

<sup>90</sup> [www.jointquality.nl/ge\\_descriptors.html](http://www.jointquality.nl/ge_descriptors.html)

have; these are known as “learning outcomes” or “exit competencies”. At the first level, those with short-cycle certificates would be expected to have a general knowledge about their field of study so as to understand the basic literature in the field and to be able to use their knowledge at work under supervision, to be able to communicate about the field with peers and have acquired the basis for further study in the field. Progressively acquired knowledge and skills would lead all the way to the third, doctoral, level, where PhDs would have acquired knowledge of the field in a systematic and comprehensive way, would master the skills and research methods common in the field, would be able to use these critically and without guidance and advance them further with original contributions to the field.

An IEP review report comments on the lack of awareness regarding learning outcomes as follows,

“There does not seem to be consistency across the faculties as to what are the essential common differences between bachelors and masters in terms of exit competencies, learning outcomes etc. ... the same applies to student workload.”

Still, some positive examples of progressive initiatives were also found, albeit in the early stages, but indicating that the concept was taking root. They could serve as models of best practice for other universities.

“The EUA Team recognised that the implementation of a student centred learning strategy was in its early stages.”

“Positive developments within the University in terms of teaching/learning processes are apparent and can best be perceived in the improvement of teaching performance and compliance with the Bologna process as concrete aims. A next step will be the development of concrete measures such as flexible programmes with continuous innovation, interdisciplinary programmes, improvement of teaching performance, infrastructure, quality of staff and their didactic approaches. Monitoring student progression should also not be forgotten.”

Again, Turkey is by no means alone in tackling the new educational paradigm, as the Trends V report shows. The move from a teacher- to a learner-centred educational approach is proceeding slowly in Europe. “Institutions and their staff are still at the early stages of realising the potential of reforms for these purposes.”<sup>91</sup>

In addition to looking to models in the implementation of new learning approaches, it is vital that academic staff have ready access to training programmes, and that they are motivated to participate in such programmes. Many review reports noted that staff development seemed to be an unfamiliar concept in many – albeit not all – universities, and one that should be included in the overall university strategies. Teacher training faculties are generally well positioned to provide this type of training, which can be offered not only to internal staff but also in the framework of lifelong learning courses for the external community.

#### 4.2.3.3 *Relevance of Graduate Knowledge and Skills to Employment*

Related to outcome-based teaching and learning is another issue in the European dialogue on higher education, namely its relevance to the job market. How well are graduates equipped to take on work in the real world? How abstract is the knowledge they acquire at colleges or universities? Can they use that knowledge in real job situations? The Bologna process continues to address this issue.

“We urge institutions to further develop partnerships and cooperation with employers in the ongoing process of curriculum innovation based on learning outcomes” (London Communiqué 2007)

In Europe, the importance assigned by higher education institutions to graduate employability has grown by 11% since 2003, with 67% of respondents to the Trends V questionnaire considering it “very

<sup>91</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) p. 7

important”.<sup>92</sup> The concern that ran through many – but not all – of the IEP reports of Turkish universities was the perception that students were not equipped with the knowledge and skills they needed to enter the job market. It was echoed in many interviews with students and employers.

“External stakeholders strongly emphasise the need for students to be encouraged to have more placement and training opportunities in companies. Students ... pointed out the need for more experimental and problem-led learning”

“There are 4.5 million jobs on offer and 5 million unemployed. This suggests a mismatch between training and professional needs”

In fact, in 2005 about 6% of 25-29-year-olds in Turkey whose education was below the upper secondary level were unemployed and not in education, while the figure was around 9% for those with upper secondary and post-secondary attainment and as high as 12% for those with higher education. According to OECD, in 2005 only Greece and Italy topped Turkey in the unemployment rate for higher education graduates, but in these three countries and New Zealand (which had a low unemployment total overall), the proportion of unemployed higher education graduates to those without higher education was the reverse: In the other countries surveyed, higher education offered a much better chance for employment than lower levels of schooling.<sup>93</sup> While more recent Turkish official statistics<sup>94</sup> were reported to show a greater differentiation in unemployment rates of university graduates between different fields, there were several universities where the leadership had become aware of the employability concern and had begun to tackle it.

Not surprisingly, among those reviewed by IEP, some leading universities in Turkey seem to be most advanced in addressing this issue. In fact, one working group in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop reported that the relationship between educational programmes of the universities and both the job market and industrial partnerships was quite good in Turkey. However, this does not seem to be the case in general with respect to employability, as reported by the other working group on the subject, and this position is corroborated by the IEP reports as well as by the available data and the literature. At the same time there is a sharp increase in formal relationships between universities and industry. One working group pointed out that some technically oriented universities have set up advisory boards composed of industrial stakeholders to collaborate on designing study programmes that are relevant to the job market. (See also Section 4.2.4 on research.) These are good initiatives which, if disseminated, could serve as models for other universities in the country.

The issue of foreign language proficiency must be noted again in this context (see also under the discussion about mobility in Section 4.2.3.1). University leaders, staff and many students in Turkey appear to be conscious of the fact that there is a great need for improving language learning. Remarkably, in two state universities and a private one among the 17 universities reviewed by IEP, the language of teaching is English only, while twelve offer some courses in a major European language. Among all universities in Turkey there are twelve foundation universities in addition to the two state institutions where instruction is in English and one where French is the language of teaching.<sup>95</sup> In addition, as noted in the introduction to this report, Turkey has agreements with the State University of New York for dual-diploma programmes, and a German university will begin operations in 2009 with the support of the German Academic Exchange Programme, DAAD. Nevertheless, many of the IEP reviews remarked on the lack of language proficiency experienced during their visits with university staff and students. The draft Strategy of YÖK reached a similar conclusion when it noted, “surveys indicate that about 60% of academic staff have foreign language problem and about 42% of them have never visited abroad”.<sup>96</sup>

At system level, this should best be addressed in general education, since students at a younger age are more readily able to acquire another language. That would require a stepped-up and significantly funded national programme for language teacher training. In higher education, it is essential that all graduates have some knowledge of a major foreign language, to enable them to both have access to

<sup>92</sup> Crosier, David, Purser, Lewis and Smidt, Hanne (2007) p. 32

<sup>93</sup> OECD (2007a) Chapter C, Indicator C4: How successful are students in moving from education to work?  
Chart C4.1

<sup>94</sup> Source: TURKSTAT Household Labour Force Survey 2006-2007

<sup>95</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2004-2005

<sup>96</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 9



a wider body of knowledge and international literature in their fields through the electronic media, and to continue advancing their knowledge and skills as these become outdated in the span of their career. Therefore, in order to advance the population of Turkey into a knowledge society, language teaching should be addressed on a national scale.

#### Recommended Actions 15:

- Review the two-cycle curricula with regard to a workload-based ECTS system.
- Develop a national strategy for promoting student and staff mobility, both within the country and abroad.
- Promote outcome-based learning alongside traditional teaching methods by revisiting existing curricula to incorporate transmitting skills and competences for the four levels of post-secondary/higher education.
- Set up a university unit, for example in teacher-training faculties, to organise staff development programmes for disseminating the new teaching methods.
- Revise curricula, in consultation with employers, in order to increase employability of graduates and to ensure that students acquire practical and convertible skills to be able to adapt to a changing work environment over the longer term.
- Address the issue of language learning at all levels of schooling and higher education, including a large-scale programme to train language teachers.

#### *4.2.3.4 Life-long learning*

“The validation of non-formal or informal competences is not applicable in Turkey for access to first cycle degrees due to the lack of a favourable legal framework. It is not in the strategic agenda of higher education in the foreseeable future.”<sup>97</sup> Thus reads the country’s 2007 Bologna Process report on the subject of life-long learning. The issue was not a topic of the IEP review reports, but the 9-10 May 2008 workshop included a working group on life-long learning. Participants found that the country’s focus at present is to deal with its young population and thus life-long learning was not among its priorities. Nevertheless, in addition to the country’s one open and distance learning university, which was not the subject of any of the 17 IEP reviews<sup>98</sup>, life-long learning is present in most universities. They offer such programmes either as a means to generate funding by providing them as a service to the external community, or for social reasons, or both. Offerings are invariably demand-led. On the other hand, participants commented that the fees charged were too high to be affordable by as many people as would otherwise be interested in taking courses. They also noted that the programmes do not lead to an award of credits.

#### Recommended Actions 16:

- Use ECTS for adult education and community-demanded programmes in order to promote life-long learning in the community at large.
- Consider life-long learning as a business opportunity that yields valuable financial and social returns and consequently be more pro-active and market-oriented in relation to life-long learning.
- Integrate life-long-learning programmes with vocational programmes.

#### **4.2.4 Research**

The relevance of research in Europe in the context of its competitiveness in a global economy has been at the forefront of the Lisbon agenda (as adopted by the European Council in 2000 and revised in 2005). Universities, traditionally the prime research establishments, are being scrutinised as to the relevance of their research in the market place. How responsive are they to serving European needs for competitiveness in applied research output? And how do they balance practising profitable applied research with their traditional duty toward theoretical, basic research, which, as the foundation for applied research, is equally indispensable for the economy of a country and Europe, if not in the short-term in the long-term.

<sup>97</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>98</sup> The university was undergoing evaluation by an EUA IEP team at the time of this writing



“Strategic management approaches ... will reinforce the pooling of research expertise within the university and create working processes that maximise the opportunities offered by European and national research funding instruments ... . While individual talent remains at the heart of the research process, team building of critical mass in areas of university strengths and the optimisation of the creation and use of research infrastructures will remain crucial to success. The increased costs of research (including scientific infrastructure) will intensify the need to identify priorities.” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

In relation to research performance and competitiveness, the 2008 OECD report has identified similar areas of focus, noting that higher education institutions in member countries have been undergoing a reform in governance in recent years in four main directions, namely by:

- focusing research on areas identified as priorities
- changing funding mechanisms to improve the quality of research,
- emphasising the evaluation of research and
- building critical mass

The report further notes that “In some countries these shifts have been accompanied by efforts to widen the channels of funding, with attempts to increase the links between universities and industry and to make universities more responsive to industrial needs by making them more dependent on business funding of research. These changes have multiple sources and objectives, but a central motivation has been the aim of increasing the innovation effectiveness of R&D [at higher education institution].”<sup>99</sup> Moreover, inter-university cooperation in research is a key to ensuring both the feasibility and viability of research projects, and has been addressed as such by the European Ministers of Education, as was noted in Section 4.1.6 on Inter-Institutional Cooperation.

In Turkey there has been a rapid expansion in the last two decades or so of investment in R&D, including that in higher education. In fact, the higher education sector share of R&D was 68% in 2005 (when the OECD countries averaged 18%!). A 2004 figure shows the share of researchers in higher education being around 74%,<sup>100</sup> the highest among the OECD countries and an indication that higher education institutions are the major research organisations in the country. The expenditure on R&D in Turkey was 0.76% of GDP in 2006 at around 3 billion USD, with 46% coming from the private sector. The budget of TÜBİTAK for 2005-2007 (two years) was 1.9 billion YTL.<sup>101</sup>

Turkey is advancing very rapidly in its research metrics. Two universities are mentioned in the “Academic Rankings of World Universities” (known as “Shanghai rankings”). The University of Istanbul ranked in the top 403-510 category of universities for 2007, with a Social Science Index (SCI) of 30.5. Hacettepe University was ranked among the top 401-500 in 2005.<sup>102</sup> The number of articles in journals referenced in the Science and Social Science Citation Indices has increased by a factor of 30 in some fields in two decades, raising the country rank from 43<sup>rd</sup> to 19<sup>th</sup>.<sup>103</sup> Of course, considering the size of the country, there is enormous potential in Turkey to advance further. While the country’s 2007 Bologna Process report points out that the number of master’s graduates increased four-fold and that of doctoral graduates doubled in the last decade, it notes that there continues to be a dearth in lecturers and researchers. This concern is reflected also in the draft Higher Education Strategy by YÖK, which notes that “...even if Turkey decides to make R&D expenses in such a level, it will not be able to make an expense of such amount because of the bottleneck in the number of the research staff.”<sup>104</sup>

Turkey has begun to address this issue. The “Integrated Doctorate Program” of the Turkish Academy of Sciences (TUBA) has provided support for doctorate students to study abroad, and the programme has achieved an 87% retention rate. Another scheme mentioned involves sending research assistants

<sup>99</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 2 p. 137

<sup>100</sup> OECD (2008) vol.2 pp.137, 138 and 152 respectively

<sup>101</sup> R&D expenditure and TÜBİTAK figures are from a speech by TÜBİTAK president Nuket Yetis at the 17<sup>th</sup> annual Meeting of the Turkish Science and Technology Council on 16 May 2008 in Ankara. Cf. Yetis, Nuket (2008)

<sup>102</sup> Academic Ranking of World Universities. [www.arwu.org](http://www.arwu.org)

<sup>103</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>104</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 125

from developing to developed universities for their doctorate studies (3,340 research assistants were involved in the project in 2005/2006, out of a total of 20,736 non-medical research assistants in state universities at the end of 2005). The Strategy points out, however, that while the number of students grew 22% between 2002 and 2005, that of research assistants (in effect PhD students) was only 0.4%.<sup>105</sup> While the number of PhD students funded by TÜBİTAK was said to have increased four-fold from 2005 to 2006, the participants in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop also stressed the dearth of qualified young staff. They pointed out that funding for the current schemes is too low to make them attractive enough. It echoes back to the problems discussed under “Human Resources” (Section 4.2.2.2) and underlines that a coherent and forward looking human resource strategy, linking to a national as well as universities’ strategies, is urgently called for.

Yet in research more than in any other area, IEP reviewers found ample positive examples of such activity being supported and conducted productively. Many had running projects funded by TÜBİTAK; DTP and EU Framework collaborations were mentioned in several universities. Some universities had set up central units to coordinate research and many universities had an impressive record in some fields. For example, reviewers of one university were positive about their findings regarding research, by noting that there existed

“...an internal system for funding research projects on a competitive basis. This structure (a high commission and three specialised commissions) seems to work well and in an independent way, and control of the final results is also under the remit of the high commission. [The University] mainly relies on the individual research initiatives of the academic staff, but has formulated broad priority areas ...”

Nevertheless there were three dominant concerns running through many of the IEP review reports on the subject of research, and most of them were observed also in those cases where research activity was found to be strong. IEP reviewers found that:

- many universities did not have a research strategy or policy, and (which is not unrelated) no university-level body for coordinating research,
- due to the fragmentary structure of universities there was a marked lack of interdisciplinarity, and
- there was low motivation on the part of the academic staff due both to their overextended teaching load (necessary for earning additional income) and to the civil servant/tenure status that does not offer much stimulus for research.

The disproportionate teaching load of academic staff was also identified as a barrier to research in the YÖK draft strategy report.<sup>106</sup> The following example from an IEP review report, although referring to a university with pockets of good research practise, sums up these concerns.

“Not all departments give evidence of research activities. ... [There is] no explicit research strategy or mid- and long-term priority setting has been identified. ... Most academics have such heavy teaching loads (due to lack of qualified staff and the need to gain extra income to increase low salaries) that not much time is left for research... There are no incentives yet in the system to support the development of the collective research capacity. The application to research funds is a direct and individual process, which does not leave much room for collaborative approaches nor for sustainable research structures.”

Where positive practices do exist, the structural concerns may still persist as a brake to productivity and lead to a duplication of resources, as seen in the following example.

“An impressive production and good rate of publications can be monitored in some fields, but among the various Faculties and Centres we also found unequal development of high level research. We also identified good motivation for staff to get involved in research activities and a rich variety of initiatives, but, at the same time, a high level of dispersion and a variety of overlapping or poorly articulated structures as well. ... We understand that individual research or project-based research is conducted independently in the

<sup>105</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 11

<sup>106</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 64

Faculties/Departments or in the Research Centres. ... Our impression is that individual research activities are quite common at the university, and we should note here that individualism in research results in most cases in a deficit of visibility for research, inside and outside the university. ... [The university should] take into account all kinds of research activities, together with the corresponding results, in the promotion process for academic staff ...”

At another university, where a central commission and administrative office for research was set up, and where the rector had introduced academic promotion criteria for teaching staff including participation in European or central research, the reviewers still noted,

“However, there were currently clear disincentives for staff to engage in activity other than teaching given that additional teaching brought financial rewards whereas research ... brought no tangible benefits to the individual researcher.

Academic staff salary can be seen as one major stumbling block to research productivity. While the currently large share of higher education in the nation's R&D will drop proportionally as other establishments take up an increasing share of this domain, higher education will continue to play a dominant part for decades to come. Therefore, much of the funding dedicated to this sector may well be useless if it is not accompanied by a national investment in competitive salaries in higher education. If linked with the requirement to meet set quality standards, such an action could help overcome a number of other hurdles, such as the lack of language proficiency and international contacts, which were pointed out in several IEP reports.

The fragmentary structure of universities affects also research productivity. It is one of the obstacles to greater involvement of academic staff in viable projects where given existing heavy teaching loads, participation would be better distributed in larger, interdisciplinary teams. Many universities have set up graduate schools or research centres, which are able to ensure interdisciplinarity in some areas. As research centres and graduate schools report directly to the rector, it would appear possible to simulate greater cooperation here. Another important instrument for promoting viable research is central coordinating bodies or offices under the authority of the rector or a vice-rector, which already happens in several universities in Turkey.

Establishing centres of excellence and acknowledging them by dedicated funding and support schemes is a key mechanism for focusing available material and human resources on identified strategic areas of research and development. The participants at the 9-10 May 2008 workshop pointed out that focused funding exists in practice in Turkey, where some 10% of universities were said to receive some 60% of funding from the DPT. What seems to be lacking in many except the country's top universities is a coherent and coordinated strategy behind the practice, and funding is instead allotted on a project-by-project basis.

Turkey responded to the need for centres of excellence when it enacted a law in 2001 that establishes Technology Development Regions involving university campuses. The scheme sets attractive conditions for private R&D establishments, including tax exemptions for a number of years. According to the draft Strategy by YÖK, 22 universities had established such TDR affiliations across the country by early 2006, and the number is reported to have grown since then. However, the long-term success of the initiative was not clear yet,<sup>107</sup> even though, with the exception of two earlier and one recently reviewed university, IEP reports noted the links with Techno-parks, Technopolises, or Technocities. Nevertheless, TDRs may be one among a variety of schemes of which the best will prove viable in the long run.

TÜBİTAK is the central organisation for disbursing state funding for research in Turkey. Participants in the 9-10 May 2008 workshop, citing TÜBİTAK website data, reported that it funds 30% of R&D in the country for both universities and business and industry, and allocates research funding to universities on a competitive basis. Other sources are the State Planning Organisation (DPT) and the Ministry of Finance, and a programme started by the Ministry of Industry and Commerce called SANTEZ for university-industry partnership. Several further schemes and funding sources were mentioned in the workshop. One is BAP, the Commission for Scientific Research Projects at a university, which

<sup>107</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 68

receives a core grant from government to which it has to add 25% of its private R&D income (revolving funds) and which must structure its own competitive research funding schemes in accordance with its research priorities and mission. BAP resources were said to be used primarily for initiating research teams and activities primarily for young researchers. TÜBİTAK is also responsible for coordinating the funding in Turkey from EU Framework Programmes, for which it set up a National Coordinating Office in early 2003.<sup>108</sup> However, although the number of approved proposals has risen from 10.5% to 18.7% since 2002, the overall number of projects is still very low, as reported by one workshop participant. It should be noted that participants also criticised TÜBİTAK for its funding allocation system, based on the fact that TÜBİTAK supports its own research institutes from the same government financing as from which it allocates funds to universities.

In Turkey, placements in citation indices and academic rank seem to persist as prime indicators for judging research excellence in many universities or faculties, as mentioned in several IEP review reports. This traditional view is not uncommon in Europe, although the recognition of the importance of research relevance and participation in research projects as income generators and indicators of university excellence are increasingly widely known and accepted. "In spite of the new importance of technological and scientific (pre-commercial) innovation in the minds of policy-makers, the scientific community and code of professional honour is still largely predicated on the recognition of scholarly pursuit as expressed in academic peer-reviewed publications. But researchers increasingly need and seek industry funding to realise their research projects. More and more often, research projects are co-defined by businesses and universities to ensure mutual benefit."<sup>109</sup>

Having said that, it is nevertheless important to note in connection with research that universities are the leading institutions in all countries where fundamental research is taking place. Fundamental research, as the foundation for applied research, must be supported in order to ensure that the foundations of new knowledge are continuously advanced and that basic knowledge is transmitted to the next generation. While practical, applied research is not just an economic driver but also a generator of new ideas, fundamental research, though without short-term tangible results and with a high rate of residual output, is the basis for much applied research. Therefore, a financial scheme that supports fundamental research, obviously using income from profit-making projects, including the revolving funds, should be a priority for the central management of a university. Allocation based on defined and transparent criteria can ensure the acceptance of the scheme by the entire university community.

#### Recommended Actions 17:

- Set up a university-wide research strategy in accordance with the university's mission, profile and overall strategy.
- Set up a central, university-level office or body under the rector or a vice-rector to coordinate research, to ensure interdisciplinarity, and coherence in projects and in the use of resources.
- Promote the establishment of interdisciplinary, problem-oriented research centres reporting directly to the rector.
- Support an increase in public resources devoted to university-based basic (fundamental) scientific research, with funding allocated through national competition.
- Continue to support the national programme to develop centres of excellence.
- Couple R&D funding provided by the government with a reasonable rise in academic salaries to promote research capacity and innovation.
- Create incentives for staff, such as the recognition of achievements through promotion or financial reward, to overcome the low motivation of the academic staff
- Work on a human resources strategy to handle the bottleneck in the ever-growing numbers of new research assistants/PhDs expecting to enter university positions.
- Set up an academic and research staff mobility scheme and increase support for existing programmes involving also PhD students/research assistants both at national level and via bilateral agreements between universities.
- Run quality assurance schemes that encompass research performance and scrutinise interaction among different university units and with external entities to ensure relevance and interdisciplinarity in research.

<sup>108</sup> TÜBİTAK 7<sup>th</sup> Framework Programme [www.fp7.org.tr](http://www.fp7.org.tr)

<sup>109</sup> Reichert, Sybille (2006) p. 16

#### 4.2.5 *Links with External Stakeholders*

Each of the IEP review reports noted the involvement of the universities with the external community to various degrees. As mentioned earlier, 14 of the universities reviewed provided services to the community by way of hospitals and health centres. Additional community services included lifelong learning programmes, trainings for companies, and links with business, consultancies and, in case of 14 of the 17 reviewed universities, affiliations with techno-parks or similar set-ups. The fact that the share of universities in R&D was 68% in 2005<sup>110</sup> and that 22% of R&D in Turkey was financed by industry in 2004<sup>111</sup>, as was mentioned earlier, would corroborate university activity in this regard.

Among OECD countries, four main areas have been identified in which universities have regional significance in relation to R&D: creating knowledge bases and thereby contributing to innovation, developing human capital, disseminating, and serving as a knowledge repository. The 2008 OECD report points out that “Innovation involves interactions and knowledge flows between actors, so geographical proximity can be an important part of the innovation process. Technology transfer and collaborative relationships between local firms and local [higher education institutions] fosters interactive learning and knowledge diffusion. Regions also have specific training requirements, particularly at the vocational level.”<sup>112</sup> Seen from another angle, in a study of “knowledge regions”, the peer reviewers of one region identified five aspects of research contributing to regional innovation: “research capacity; research quality; research applicability; effective infrastructure for knowledge transfer; and knowledge absorption capacity in the economy.” The author of the study points out that “Universities can contribute to the first four out of those five aspects.”<sup>113</sup>

The TDRs in Turkey (cf. Section 4.2.4) have been established in recognition of the advantages that cross-fertilisation between universities and industry can bring for research and economic output. Existing and future links hold potential for further cooperation and advantages for universities, such as inviting a governing board to provide critical input into university affairs; training links and thus increased practical skills as well as potential employment contacts for students; the involvement of business and industry experts in designing employment-relevant courses; and much more. In many OECD countries, governments have provided incentives for higher education institutions and communities to interact, “ranging from funding incentives to regulations to quality assurance monitoring criteria. But another policy-lever lies in the direct involvement of external stakeholders in [higher education institutions] governance.”<sup>114</sup> In the latter case, the OECD report notes the importance of avoiding conflict-of-interest issues.

Five IEP review reports also noted that universities maintained contact with their alumni, while three others were planning to establish systematic contact. Thus they seemed to have recognised the potential for involving alumni for funding (two universities supported specific actions, such as scholarships, in this way), but also as an instrument for quality assurance.

Most of the reports pointed out, however, that there was no formal way of collecting information on external interaction, or on the existence of formal concept and strategy on university priorities that would identify how interaction with external stakeholders could contribute to advancing various university goals.

“A problem, which urgently merits attention, is the lack of shared knowledge of what is going on across the university with respect to external relationships. There are a significant number of initiatives taken up by individual academics, faculties or institutes. A stocktaking of all these initiatives is necessary, not only once, but as a systematic data collection. The full knowledge of all of these initiatives could translate into an asset.”

“It was apparent that many of these close and cooperative associations were based upon personal relationships. Whilst this is clearly important and is to be welcomed it is nevertheless the case that they are fragile, being totally person dependent. The EUA Team proposes that if the University is to develop sustainable partnerships over the long

<sup>110</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 2 p. 139

<sup>111</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 2 p. 160

<sup>112</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 2 p. 169

<sup>113</sup> Reichert, Sybille (2006) p. 42

<sup>114</sup> OECD (2008) vol. 1 p. 120



term and implement this part of the Strategic Plan effectively, the University should establish more formal mechanisms. These should be designed systematically to consolidate partnerships and enable the University to identify stakeholder needs and respond effectively.”

In a 2006 report, Sachi Hatakenaka came to a similar conclusion when discussing education in relevance to employment, saying that “It is clear that neither universities nor MYOs [vocational schools] have adequate linkages with employers – and indeed broader external stakeholders.”<sup>115</sup> This identifies a weakness that runs through many of the sections in the present study: the lack of formal structures and comprehensive strategies that would identify strengths and weaknesses, and channel this information into a strategy. An Institutional Communication Office could be a viable instrument for strengthening university links with the community.

#### Recommended Actions 18:

- Exploit the potential that exists in Turkish universities through their involvement in community services, primarily through health care but also other areas, to a much greater degree.
- Gather information on stakeholder links and identify the advantages of such links.
- Communicate the advantages to external stakeholders as well as to members of the university, in order to strengthen their sense of identity.
- Include stakeholder links into the university strategy along with plans on how to expand and improve them systematically.

#### **4.2.6 Internal Quality Procedures**

Quality assurance is at the foundation of the European Higher Education Area. In the course of European-level discussions it became clear that while there are external quality assurance measures applied by national or other quality assurance agencies, their purpose should be to ensure that higher education institutions implement their internal measures in a reliable way. At the same time, institutions should have quality assurance mechanisms to ensure their own quality. Quality assurance is more than a compilation of diverse quality measurement instruments. Its most far-reaching significance is in its role as a strategic tool for university leaders to identify their institution’s strengths and weaknesses and consequently their priorities and profiles.

Thus, the Ministers who signed the Bologna Declaration committed themselves to attaining several objectives, including the “Promotion of European cooperation in quality assurance with a view to developing comparable criteria and methodologies.” (Bologna Declaration 1999)

They reaffirmed recently that “Since the main responsibility for quality lies with higher education institutions, they should continue to develop their systems of quality assurance.” (London Communiqué 2007)

In response, EUA stated that “Quality processes should encourage a culture of risk-taking which attaches greater importance to success than to failure, in order to produce an institutional milieu favourable to creativity, knowledge creation and innovation. Universities reconfirm their commitment to continuous quality development and improvement in all aspects of their institutional mission. Institutional quality processes should be based on and adequately reflect institutional values and mission... ” (EUA Lisbon Declaration 2007)

Given that the national quality assurance system has only been established in Turkey recently, with the first mandatory internal assessments conducted in 2006/07, there was understandably little evidence in the IEP reviewers’ reports on structured quality assurance practices. In fact, many reports noted the need for a comprehensive quality assurance strategy overseen by the top leadership of the university, even if at the time of the 2007 reviews universities had central quality commissions in compliance with the law. In particular, there were a few universities where central quality management offices had already been established prior to the national mandate. Moreover, there were various quality assurance elements applied at least in some faculties in most universities. They included, most

<sup>115</sup> Hatakenaka, Sachi (2006) p. 44



commonly, student evaluations of teaching; but also satisfaction surveys for students, staff and alumni; quality evaluation guidebooks; and SWOT analyses. In addition, engineering departments at four universities had undergone evaluation by ABET, and evaluations by such diverse agencies as the Maritime Organisation, an Architectural Accreditation Board and others were also noted. Three reviews mentioned that faculties had introduced TQM or ISO 9001 as internal quality management methodologies.

The comments by IEP reviewers, while noting the positive initiatives, also pointed out that a successful system needs a comprehensive, university-level approach, as is seen in the following quotes.

“We were impressed by the great number of student questionnaires we found in our documentation. In almost every faculty we visited some type of feedback from the students is regularly organised. However, each faculty seems to use its own procedures and questionnaires which makes comparison of outcomes impossible.”

“A global concept about quality is still to be elaborated. Some actions go toward quality development (evaluation of teaching, train the trainers, creating feedback loops with various stakeholders, etc), but in the view of the EUA team, these interventions are not systematic enough and the results insufficiently used ... . The evaluation of teaching by students would appear to vary widely between faculties.”

In her 2006 study on higher education in Turkey, Sachi Hatakenaka stressed that the country should adopt a quality assurance system in consideration of its future needs that would recognise the diversity of its institutions.<sup>116</sup> It is unclear at this point how far the quality criteria defined by YÖDEK take into consideration the individual capacities and profiles of the various institutions.

The success of quality assurance systems depends on the involvement and commitment of all members of the university community. However, their willingness to contribute to ongoing quality enhancement is very much dependent on the transparency of the system (how clear and fair are the criteria for measuring quality) and regular feedback on actions taken in response to weaknesses (Are actions taken when weaknesses are identified? Are members of the community informed about these actions? Are they effective and if not, what is done about it?). Again a quote from an IEP review to illustrate this point,

“Some faculties carry out student evaluations, which do not seem to be particularly popular because students do not see any evidence of their impact.”

While in response to the national legislation, all universities in Turkey are introducing quality management, it is important to look beyond the individual instruments in such a system and recognise its strategic significance for the improvement of all aspects of the university and the responsible involvement of all members of the university community. At the 2007 EUA conference<sup>117</sup> cited in Section 4.1.1.1, participants stressed the importance of involving the university community in the quality assurance process, with emphasis on the process rather than just the outcome of evaluations. Ownership, the concept that all members of a university must be involved and their input systematically channelled into the process, is crucial for the success of establishing a quality culture.

That is also the main conclusion of the EUA Quality Culture project, which ran from 2002 to 2006 and involved 134 higher education institutions from 36 European countries (including six from Turkey) working in three rounds in a total of 18 networks. Successful quality assurance at universities requires the precondition that all the stakeholders have to contribute to the process and must be empowered to do so. That entails the autonomy and responsibility of central management to steer and coordinate university pursuits; the involvement of the academic and administrative staff, students and external stakeholders in the quality of activities; and an effective, ongoing flow of communication and follow-up actions with the contribution of all involved. Beyond the general observation about the preconditions for an effective quality culture at universities, the project also identified a number of practical tools on how to develop quality and what the possible areas of contribution by the various actors could be.<sup>118</sup>

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<sup>116</sup> Hatakenaka, Sachi (2006) p. 44

<sup>117</sup> EUA (2007b)

<sup>118</sup> EUA (2006)

As was mentioned in Section 4.1.5 on External Accountability, the European Standards and Guidelines adopted by the Ministers in Bergen in 2005 are a fundamental quality assurance instrument in the Bologna Process. But, beyond their purpose of ensuring comparability of quality processes at universities across Europe, in Part 1 they set down a list of standards for higher education institutions against which they should measure their internal quality assurance practices, and provide guidelines on what each of the standards should look at. The Turkish national quality assurance body YÖDEK is working on the basis of the European Standards, as stated in the country's Bologna Process national report for 2007. However, institutions themselves can refer to the booklet as an aid in setting up their internal systems.

As a final remark, it is important that universities have efficient data collection systems. The lack of such a system leaves a university without the ability to assess its activities and to remedy weaknesses through actions. As one IEP review report aptly noted, "The university does not know what is going on in its different units. Thus, the university is better and doing more than it knows." Databases are needed to conduct surveys and analyses of institutional trends such as drop-out rates that reveal where action should be taken.

"[The University] needs such a global information system in order to have accurate indicators to evaluate the objectives."

#### Recommended Actions 19:

- Allow institutions to develop diverse internal quality assurance systems to serve their individual needs, while providing an overarching framework of minimum standards to ensure national and international comparability. The system must not stifle creativity through excessive bureaucracy.
- Incorporate quality assurance into the university's overall strategy, which would involve a central quality assurance office under the rector or a vice-rector.
- Implement a university-wide quality assurance system, while abiding by YÖDEK guidelines
- Make all members of the university community responsible for their part in quality assurance, but reporting to the central office.

## **5 Conclusions**

This report on the higher education system in Turkey is based on the evaluations of 17 universities conducted by the Institutional Evaluation Programme of EUA. From the time of the last evaluation up to the writing of this paper, the number of universities in the country has grown from 93 to 115. Thus the 17 universities that form the core of this report may be less representative of universities in Turkey than they were when most IEP evaluations were conducted. Moreover, these particular institutions have sought this form of external, international evaluation while the others – probably for perfectly valid reasons – did not. Therefore, this does not enable conclusions to be drawn about the workings of the other universities in the country. As noted, however, the findings described here are not only based on the 17 reviews, but were corroborated in the discussions at the 9-10 May 2008 workshop with Turkish university leaders and heads of quality management, and by the literature on the issues under discussion. What stands out clearly from the evidence gathered is that, in this rapid expansion of the higher education sector, it is all the more pressing to reconsider fundamentally the system as a whole. Policy makers and university actors in Turkey are widely aware of the urgency for revision, as testified by the many studies written or commissioned on the subject, including international ones. This report joins the host of advocates for change. It is different from the other analyses in that it was produced by current or former European institutional leaders, from a perspective that considers both the internal university community and the place of a university in the external world. Yet the main observations are very much in line with those in the other reports.

One observation that appears again and again – in the literature, in the IEP review reports, from Turkish university members – sums up the main limitation to university development in the system, and this is the "lack of autonomy". No external analysis of an educational sector can neglect to consider the historical and current environment in which the system developed to its present stage. The authors of this report are sensitive to the issues that gave rise to the current structure and that influence the present and foreseeable circumstances under which Turkish higher education functions and will function. It is clear that the Higher Education Council plays a crucial role in the sector. It

should continue to play this role in the sense that it steers and represents universities on the system level.

What needs to change is the regulatory system that today is largely implemented by YÖK. For this to change, it is important to break away from the mind-set that is running the current system. The draft Strategy produced by YÖK has a host of solutions to various issues, but it is very much grounded in the current reality. While promoting increased autonomy it still strongly interferes with universities' internal administration. A real change needs to come from a defined mission and vision for higher education in Turkey – which considers the sector's place in the national and international community in the future, and which is agreed upon by the higher education community at large. The means to attain the mission and vision are based on subsidiarity, the concept that all matters are handled by the lowest competent actor.

At the core of change is a true understanding of autonomy. Autonomy, coupled with responsibility (a responsibility with real consequences resulting from decisions and actions) is self-regulatory. The external framework only stakes out the main goals and milestones, while building in controls that ensure that all actors continue to work towards the common goals and vision. Responsibility is something each and every player in the university community must be granted, and not just for the individual's every-day tasks – say, teaching and research – but for working toward the vision that he or she has contributed to defining.

Building on the agreed mission and vision for higher education in Turkey will be a national strategy, with timelines and responsibilities based on subsidiarity assigned to actors and. Importantly, once a new higher education strategy has been agreed upon and the steps for implementation have been launched, a period of consolidation should follow. The Turkish higher education system has been in constant upheaval for many years. Under ever-changing conditions it is difficult to ask for commitment and insist on responsibility from the actors.

University leaders must be enabled to develop their capacity for strategic thinking, for devising overarching policies and for motivating the members of the university to realise their potential. Individual success is a powerful driver, and individual satisfaction is a robust instrument for leaders with which to derive maximum application of effort as well as a readiness for consensus building among members of the university. More than in most other organisations, the success of universities relies on the creativity of its employees. Responsibility with real consequences that the leadership has the power to implement, coupled with individual commitment, initiative and innovation, are what a university environment is about, in Turkey as elsewhere.

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## 7 Annexes

### 7.1 Figures on Higher Education Institutions and Enrolment

FIGURE 7: HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND ENROLMENT IN 2006/07

Number of Universities 2007 <sup>119</sup>	
Public	85
Private	30
TOTAL	115

First Year Enrolment (2006-2007 academic year) <sup>120</sup>	
First Cycle (4 year programs)	176.194
Short Cycle (2 year programs)	113.291 (without entrance exam) 78.205 (from entrance exam)
Open University	222.819
TOTAL	590.509

Registered Students (Total enrolment) (2006-2007 academic year) <sup>121</sup>	
First Cycle (4 year programs)	937.317
Short Cycle (2 year programs)	482.208
Open University	845.411
Master's Level	108.683
Doctorate Level	33.711
Medical Specialist	11.884
TOTAL	2.419.214

### 7.2 Organisations Involved in Higher Education Governance and Regulation

#### 7.2.1 National Bodies

**Parliament** adopts laws including those governing higher education, ratifies the establishment of universities (state and private) and faculties proposed by YÖK

**President of the Republic** chooses seven and appoints all YÖK members including its president; approves rectors

**YÖK**, Council of Higher Education, which, according to Turkey's Bologna Process National Report 2005, "is the fully autonomous supreme corporate public body responsible for the planning, coordination, governance and supervision of higher education within the provisions set forth in the Constitution (Articles 130 and 131) and the higher Education Law (Law No. 2574)." It sets numbers of administrative and academic staff positions, sets minimum requirements for position levels and appointment procedures (universities have autonomy in filling positions); has approval powers on university budgets, approves rectors' appointments at foundation universities, ratifies new degree programmes at all levels, approves enrolment numbers at undergraduate level. It has 22 members elected for a once renewable four-year term (7 appointed by President of the Republic, 7 by UAK and approved by President of Republic, 8 by the government and approved by President of Republic; the president of YÖK is appointed by President of Republic)

**Executive Board of YÖK**, nine-member, full-time body elected from members of YÖK to carry out the day-to-day activities of YÖK

<sup>119</sup> Barblan Andris, Gürüz, Kemal and Ergüder, Üstün (2008) p. 65

<sup>120</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p. 56

<sup>121</sup> Republic of Turkey (2006b) p.19

**YDK**, the Higher Education Supervisory Board, on behalf of YÖK, it supervises and controls universities, their units, teaching staff and activities to ensure conformity with national objectives. Five of the 10 members are professors (appointed by YÖK), three members are from the Supreme Court, Council of State and Court of Accounts and one member is from the Ministry of Education.

**UAK**, Inter-University Council (sometimes translated as **Inter-University Board**), members are rectors and university representatives elected by university senates (state and private); advisory to YÖK, establishes doctoral requirements and regulations and requirements for promotion to associate professor positions

**Rectors' Committee** consists of present and five former rectors, advisory to the President of YÖK

**Minister of Education** has devolved authority over universities to YÖK, whose meetings s/he may chair but has no vote. Has delegates in several higher education bodies

**TÜBİTAK**, the Scientific and Technical Research Council allocates funding to university research projects after evaluating them

**ÖSYM**, Student Selection and Placement Centre affiliated to YÖK and requiring its approval on actions, conducts central university entrance examinations and decides on individual placements for all undergraduate degree programmes

**Ministry of Finance**, with YÖK: annual budget of each state university is negotiated jointly; but via public finance laws the Ministry regulates the universities' annual budget, procurement and auditing of all expenditures.

**DPT**, State Planning Organisation, together with YÖK and the Ministry of Finance participates in negotiation of university investment budget

**YÖDEK**, Commission for Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions: "Regulation on Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement at Institutions of Higher Education" (adopted by YÖK after its publication in the Official Journal No. 25942 on September 20, 2005) established YÖDEK, a nine member body elected by UAK and one student appointed by the national student union; "The commission is responsible for maintaining and organizing the activities related to academic assessment and quality improvements at higher education institutions within the provisions set forth by the regulation".<sup>122</sup>

**MUDEK**, Engineering Evaluation Board applied for certification to YÖDEK for accreditation rights

**KALDER**, Turkish Society for Quality, conducts institutional evaluation based on the EFQM model

**YURTKUR**, Higher Education Credit and Dormitory Authority administers state grant and loans for students as well as dormitory placement

### 7.2.2 University Leaders and Bodies<sup>123</sup>

**Rector**, appointed by the President of the Republic from among candidates holding the academic title of professor, selected by the teaching staff members of the university upon the announcement of departure of the currently serving rector. The term of office is four years, at the end of which a rector may be re-appointed by the same means, for a maximum of two terms of office

**Vice-Rectors**, appointed by the rector for 4 years. Maximum 3 vice-rectors permitted by law.

**Deans**, appointed by YÖK from among three full professors nominated by the rector, while institute and school directors are directly appointed by the rector.

**Head of Department**, administers departments; is appointed for three years from among full-time professors in the department; if none, from among the associate professors; if none, from among the assistant professors. The appointment is made by the dean upon the recommendations of the division heads in the case of faculties, in the case of schools of higher education attached to the faculty, by the dean upon the nomination of the director, and by the rector upon the nomination of the director in schools of higher education attached to the office of the rector. Chairs departmental assembly and department board.

<sup>122</sup> Bologna Process National Report 2005-2007

<sup>123</sup> From Bologna Process National Report 2004-2005

**Senate**, consists of the vice-rectors, the deans of each faculty, a professor elected for a term of three years by the respective faculty board and directors of the graduate schools and schools of higher education attached to the office of the rector.

**University Administrative Board**, consists of all faculty deans plus three professors elected by the senate. Both the senate and the board are chaired by the rector, and in general are advisory in nature, except for academic staff appointments at the full and associate professor levels, which are finalised by the university administrative board.

**Faculty Board**, consists of three full and two associate professors and one assistant professor elected by all the faculty members in the respective ranks, plus all department chairpersons in that faculty.

**Faculty Administrative Board**, consists of three full and two associate professors plus one assistant professor elected by the faculty board. The dean chairs both boards. Institutes and schools have two similar boards each.

At the department level, the

**Departmental Assembly**, consists of all department faculty members.

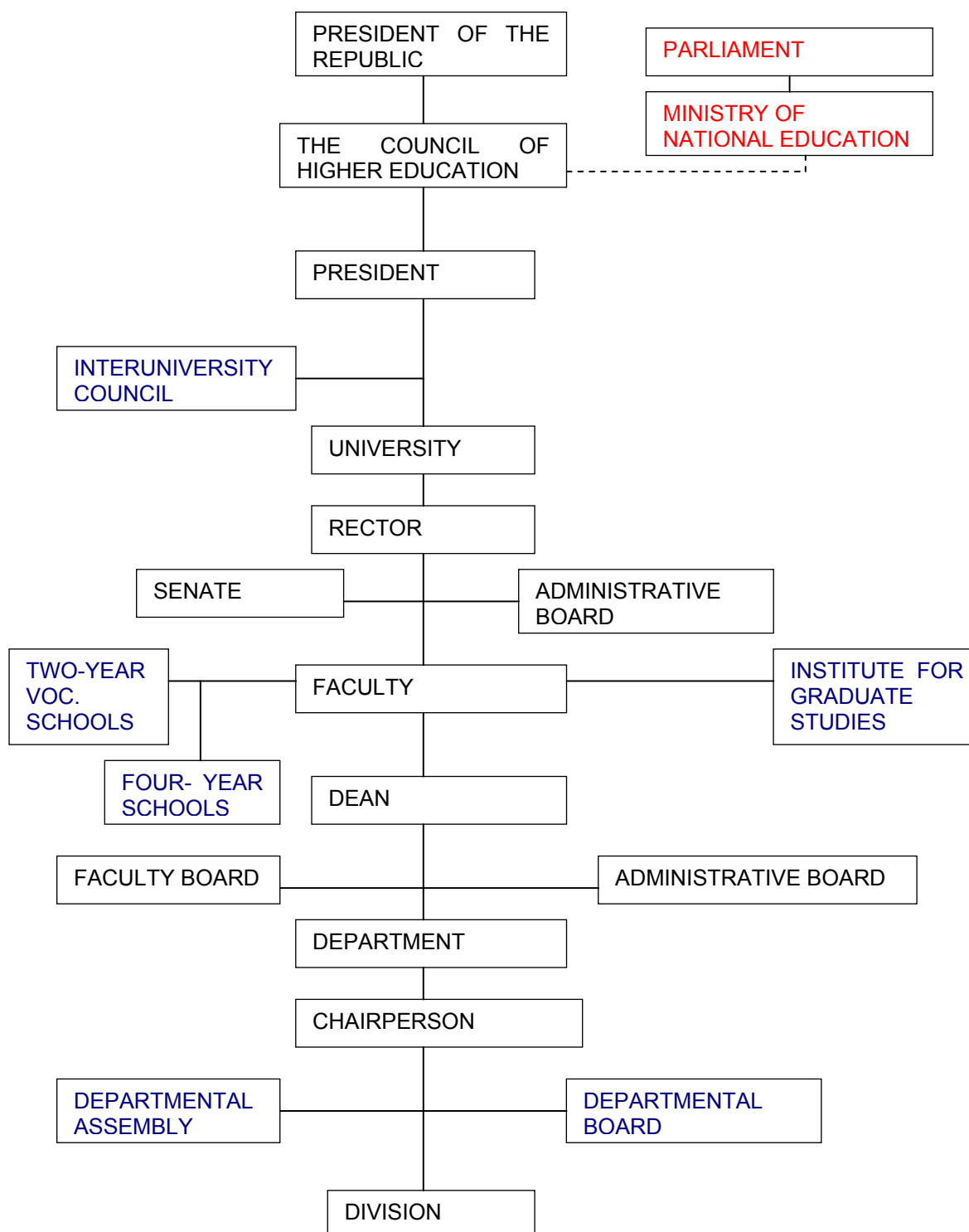
**Department Board**, consists of division heads.

**Academic and administrative staff**, have civil servant status, professors and associate professors have tenure.

**BAP**, Commission for Scientific Research Projects at universities.

### 7.3 Organisation Chart of Higher Education Management Bodies

FIGURE 8: HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT BODIES<sup>124</sup>





#### 7.4 Figures on the 17 Universities Evaluated by IEP

FIGURE 9: FIGURES ON THE 17 UNIVERSITIES EVALUATED BY IEP \*\*

	Akdeniz	Ankara	Atatürk	Boğaziçi	Çukur-Ova	Ege	Erciyes	Gazi	Hacettepe	ITU	Kocaeli	Marmara	ODTÜ	Selçuk	Süleyman Demirel	Uludağ	Yeditepe
IEP report date	Nov. 2007	Nov. 2005	July. 2006	Aug. 1999	July. 2006	Sept. 2007	April 2005	Nov. 2007	July. 2007	March 2005	Sept. 2006	May 2002	April 2003	Sept. 2006	Dec. 2006	Sept. 2003	July. 2007
Year established	1982	1925 (State Univ. 1946)	1957	1863 (State Univ. 1971)	1973	1955	1978	1926 (State Univ. 1982)	1954	1773 (State Univ. 1946)	1992	1883 (State Univ. 1982)	1956	1975	1992	1975	1996
F/S/VS/In/RC/C*	11F/4S/10VS/4IN/30RC/1C	14F/3S/6VS/9IN/21RC/1C	14F/5S/9VS/6IN/16RC	4F/2S/1VS/6IN/23RC	11F/3S/1C./9VS/3IN/31RC	11F/5S/1C./7VS/8IN/26RC	14F/5S/6VS/5IN/12RC	17F/5S/11VS/6IN/40RC	13F/3S/1C./13IN/6VS/35RC	12F/1S/1C./1VS/5IN/14 RC	11F/7S/1C./19VS/3IN/14RC	13F/5S/4VS/11IN/33RC	5F/1S/1VS/5IN/35 RC	15F/4S/1C./22VS/4IN/16 RC	11F/2S/16VS/4IN/28RC	10F/2YO/1C./14VS/3IN/16RC	12F/6IN/1S/1VS/6EM
Student Nos.	20.146	44.900	42.000	11.000	32.700	42.700	22.255	70.000	25.800	19.000	43.183	50.092	22000	60.000	33.000	44.048	15000
Campus Nos.	4	5	15	7	1	1	3	3	2	5	2	9	1	3	3	4	2
Main location	Antalya	Ankara	Erzurum	İstanbul	Adana	İzmir	Kayseri	Ankara	Ankara	İstanbul	İzmit	İstanbul	Ankara	Konya	Isparta	Bursa	İstanbul

\* No. of faculties F/ Schools S/ Vocational Schools VS/ Institutes IN/ Research Centres RC/ Conservatory C

\*\* Most universities have up-to-date English websites, but some had somewhat older figures.

**7.5 Participants in the 9-10 May 2008 Workshop**

INSTITUTION	NAME	TITLE
Akdeniz University	Prof. Oğuz Kerim Başkurt	Rector Advisor
Gazi University	Zeynep Süzen	Lecturer
Atatürk University	Prof. Ziya Yurttaş	Rector Advisor
Yeditepe University	Prof. Nilüfer Eğriçan	Vice-Rector
Süleyman Demirel University	Fatih Ecevit	Lecturer
Süleyman Demirel University	Prof. Vecihi Kırdemir	Deputy Rector
Süleyman Demirel University	Ass. Prof. Pakize Kırdemir	Lecturer
Erciyes University	Prof. Faik Bilgili	Chairman of International Office
Ankara University	Prof. Ömer L. Gebizlioğlu	Deputy Rector
Çukurova University	Prof. Nejat Erk	IEP Rapporteur
Ege University	Prof. Haluk Baylas	Deputy Rector
Ege University	Prof. Fazilet Vardar Sükan	Director of the Centre of Science and Technology
Kocaeli University	Prof. Sezer Komsuoğlu	Rector
Kocaeli University	Prof. Ayşe Sevim Gökarp	Deputy Rector
Marmara University	Prof. Canan Çetin	Lecturer
Marmara University	Prof. Arif Güllüoğlu	Lecturer
Middle East Technical University	Prof. Neziğ Güven	Rector Advisor
Istanbul Technical University	Prof. Birgöl Tantekin Ersolmaz	Lecturer
Istanbul Technical University	Prof. Ömer Usta	Lecturer
Selçuk University	Prof. Kürşat Turgut	Deputy Rector
Hacettepe University	Prof. Sevil Gürğan	Deputy Rector
Hacettepe University	Prof. Selda Önderoğlu	External Affairs Coordinator
Uludağ University	Prof. Erdal Emel	Vice-Rector/IEP Member
Süleyman Demirel University	Prof. Fatma Göktepe	IEP Rapporteur
IEP	Fuada Stankovic	Panel Member
IEP	Jarmo Visakorpi	Panel Member
IEP	Julio Pedrosa	Panel Member
IEP	Christina Rozsnyai	Panel Member
IEP	Jacques Lanares	Contact Group Member
IEP	Helena Maria Nazaré	Contact Group Member
IEP	Bertrand Weil	Contact Group Member
IEP	Noel Whelan	Contact Group Member
IEP	Ivan Ostrovsky	Contact Group Member

INSTITUTION	NAME	TITLE
Coordination Committee	Prof. Üstün Ergüder	IEP Member
Coordination Committee	Prof. Gülsün Sağlamer	EUA Board Member
Coordination Committee	Prof. Öktem Vardar	IEP Member
Coordination Committee	Prof. Erdal Emel	IEP Member
Coordination Committee	Nuri M. Çolakoğlu	Chairman of TÜSİAD Education Working Group
TÜSİAD	Dr. Haluk R. Tükel	Secretary General
TÜSİAD	Ebru Dicle	Deputy Secretary General
TÜSİAD	Berna Toksoy	Social Policy Research Department - Head of Department
TÜSİAD	Şeyda Dağlı	Social Policy Research Department - Specialist

#### 7.6 Participants in the 25 June 2008 Workshop

INSTITUTION	NAME	TITLE
Akdeniz University	Prof. Oğuz Kerim Başkurt	Advisor to Rector
Gazi University	Prof. Fatma Çiğdem Güldür	University Lecturer
Atatürk University	Prof. Ziya Yurttaş	Advisor to Rector
Yeditepe University	Prof. Nilüfer Eğrican	Vice Chancellor
Süleyman Demirel University	Fatih Ecevit	University Lecturer
Erciyes University	Prof. Faik Bilgili	Director of International Office
Çukurova University	Prof. Nejat Erk	University Lecturer
Kocaeli University	Prof. Ayşe Sevim Gökalp	Vice Chancellor
Marmara University	Prof. Canan Çetin	University Lecturer
Marmara University	Prof. Arif Güllüoğlu	University Lecturer
İTÜ	Prof. Ömer Usta	University Lecturer
Hacettepe University	Prof. Selda Önderoğlu	Coordinator of International Relations
Uludağ University	Prof. Erdal Emel	Vice-Rector/IEP Member
IEP	Fuada Stankovic	Panel Member
IEP	Jarmo Visakorpi	Panel Member
IEP	Julio Pedrosa	Panel Member
IEP	Christina Rozsnyai	Panel Member
IEP	Helena Nazaré	Contact Group Member
IEP	Ken Edwards	Contact Group Member
IEP	Tia Loukkola	IEP Secretariat
Coordination Committee	Prof. Üstün Ergüder	IEP Member
Coordination Committee	Prof. Gülsün Sağlamer	EUA Board Member
Coordination Committee	Prof. Öktem Vardar	IEP Member
Coordination Committee	Prof. Erdal Emel	IEP Member
Coordination Committee	Nuri M. Çolakoğlu	TÜSİAD Education Working Group Chairman
TÜSİAD	Ebru Dicle	Vice Secretary General
TÜSİAD	Berna Toksoy	Head of The Social Policy Research Department
TÜSİAD	Şeyda Dağlı	The Social Policy Research Department-Specialist

