University Networks as New Global Actors: New Tools of Ideas and Knowledge Accumulation and Diffusion

First Draft

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Abstract

All the theories of global governance reserve an important role in global decision making to researchers, analysts and analytical organizations. This is hard to object, because in responding to multiple global challenges, powerful Global Actors are all looking for the new solutions and new ideas which can only be produced in specialized academic centers – think tanks, research institutions or universities.

It is well known that universities historically had been the first centers of developing and diffusing knowledge. Many think tanks were also created together with or as a part of universities, like Hoover Institution at Stanford University or Public Policy Institute at Georgetown University. The category of elite universities or “top 300” are extending their influence not only through their think tanks, but also their graduates, that are representing their universities academic schools in their practices. Noticeable examples here may be: Frankfurt School that produced philosophers, Harvard Business School, which is famous for liberal economists, Beijing University graduates that are fitting in grate number of international trade organizations, or Bangalore University whose graduates are working in IT companies all other the world.

But in the communication age with IT opportunities even the strongest universities with established reputations can not compete with university networks that are joining together for the common goal for accumulating and defusing knowledge.

This paper will explore this new phenomenon - universities networks as global actors – through examines several cases: the Intercultural Glossary Project of University of Oslo and the European Wergeland Centre; the European Federation of Schools; the European Master’s Program in Human Rights and Democratization.

The paper will analyze what are the new tools of accumulation ideas and knowledge accumulation and diffusion and what are the advantages of university networks in becoming noticeable global actors.

Research questions

What are university networks? The classification of university networks on certain parameters.
What is knowledge? Knowledge as competencies, intellectual mastering of social environment, intellectual capacity.

How does this knowledge accumulated? Tools?

Literature review, Research projects, conferences,
Knowledge production, Knowledge integration,
Each university do it. Imagine University networks – it is more effective, pull of knowledge

Intellectual communities, as well as even broader term "epistemic communities" were the subject of philosophical self-reflection and heated discussion of ethical grounds of "intellect serving power" since ancient times of "ruler" - "thinker" relationships, providing arguments on "fairness" in knowledge application: to which extent it is done in the "interests of ruler" or in the interests of the broader public. In current times, as knowledge is becoming much more sophisticated and technocratic, there is much more thorough analysis provided on "knowledge reduction", "knowledge utilization" and "knowledge application", or even "boundary work" - of mutual learning and mutual influence - that is happening inevitably between the "knowledge people" and "power-people" when such knowledge is "produced" - by first category - and "consumed" or "applied" by the other.

What should be noted from the beginning is that the exact name of subject of analyses is always changing, as at different point in times there are different actors and, later, agencies, who either do this "knowledge accumulation work" better than the others or just become more visible or more influential in promoting the results of their work. This is how individual philosophers and political consultants were substituted by Academies and Universities and later by new, more specialised policy-consulting institutions, generally referred to as "think-tanks", which had than grown tremendously - both in quantities and in their influence.

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But, what is also becoming an important point of reference, the phenomena of "think-tanks" can only work if applied very strictly, with all the necessary features, characteristic of think-tank and differing this form of academic collective from many others. Therefore, the most general term, that can be applied universally, without confusing the types of academic institutions, and is now been used more frequently - is "knowledge communities".

Why, then, are we now returning back to Universities as knowledge producers?

There are several reasons, that may be also discussed further, but currently are most visible:

1. Universities are, probably, the oldest institutions in Europe, that are "responsible" for accumulating and disseminating knowledge in every possible form.
2. Universities happened to be more stable, than many other forms of intellectual work, been able to "store" the knowledge they produce.
3. Universities are currently overcoming their "closeness" and "brand protection" through creating powerful networks - for both accumulation of knowledge and its distribution, that become completely new and very powerful actors, that are capable of making a significant influence on both public culture and direct policy-making, including this at local, national and global levels.
This makes it extremely important to recognise the potential of those university-based knowledge-networks as future global actors, as heir influence bithmon global lublic opinion anf global governance would only grow.

Prior research on the role of intellectuals in politics - different stages in political context of “reforming Russia”

History of the research interest on the role of intellectuals in politics begins in Russia in the early 1990’s, where both phenomena become visible: with the beginning of competitive politics there was a need for intellectual support for both ruling elite and competing political actors. Depending on the design of the institutional framework, such research was carried out either through independent think tanks and individual academic researchers, or at the new departments at state research and learning institutions, that were specially created for this goal. As the author was lucky to be part of both environments, it allows to trace some major stages of this development.

Stages of research – responding to the challenges of the time

Interest in the think tanks as actors of policy in Russia in the early 1990’s, when a large-scale reconstruction of the State and society required the "intellectual production" responses to the challenges of the time (on country development strategies to educate and rehabilitate citizens), and Soviet academic and party analytical structure, somehow embedded in the now crumbling political system, to meet emerging needs. Against this background, began to appear "new" (independent State) analytical centers. As independent think tanks (think tanks) appeared in the West (more precisely in the United States), there were out there and shown to be effective in both the political and administrative processes and in the development of society, as a whole, it is not surprising that the representatives of similar Russian institutions have turned their sights on the West. And, above all,

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2 Such research communities were created, among others, International Public Foundation for Political and Legal Research "Interlegal" (established in 1989), and, later, at Public Policy Department of the HSE, created in 2000.
the experience was interesting United States where independent analytical centers (think-tanks) were important actors in policy.

**In 1993 year** Interlegal, has organized one of the first studies on development of analytical centers in Russia and their comparison with foreign analytical centers. The study was conducted in collaboration with two leading think tanks United States-the Center for strategic and international studies (CSISS, b13, Washington), United States Institute of peace (USIP). The Russian side took part in the research: Center for comparative political studies (a. i. Kovler, Institute of State and law of the Academy), political and legal research Foundation «Interlegal» (n. y. Belyaev), Indem (g. a. Satarov), political experts and consultants Association (a. Lepekhin), analytical information agency "ex post facto" (g. o. Pavlovsky), Gumanitarno-political research (v. i. Igrunov). The Kenan Institute study sponsored by Washington in 1993. the Conference was held, in which Kenan Institute has prepared and implemented a publication which, together with the Russian authors have participated such famous explorers as Francis Fukuyama, Blair Ruble, James Alan Smith and others.

Increase in the number of "new" think tanks and their formation as an independent and influential political actors during the second half of the 1990 's. required analysis of the real situation in the political system, that was becoming much more complex and required true analyses, when the tools and instruments for it were still lacking/ but there was enough freedom - both political and intellectual – to develop them or to ‘borrow’ from foreign colleagues. This had lasted for about two decades, after which situation started to change dramatically to limiting freedom in every sphere – in politics, in public space, and in intellectual environment – that had another major impact on the quality and performance of intellectuals and analytical community as such. Drastic change of the "external environment" of think tanks in 2000 - increasing authoritarianism of the political regime, restricting political competition and pluralism, further weakening of

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already ineffective democratic institutions and growing involvement of intellectual resource in “political propagandists” - required the study of dynamics of the political role of Russia's think tanks and analytical communities.

If in the 1990-ies research think tanks were new actors in policy-making, it was important to understand how they are comparable with those of Western counterparts (it turned out that quite comparable), then in 2000's interest in the subject "shifted" to the University communities, as “independent think tanks” merely did not have enough resources to survive.

Starting around 2000, analysts were invited to an academic University Wednesday, the leaders of this new direction, "liberal" universities-HSE, nes, MVŠŠÈN, HUMANITIES, etc. New chairs have been created, in which people who had experience of applied analysis. In particular, it was established and the Department of public policy HSE.

Thus, with the creation of the Department of public policy HSE in 2000, our study think tanks moved into scientific and pedagogical practices. So the book, Kenan Institute and other research materials collected, formed the basis of the developed training courses: methods of political analysis, political analysis III: procedure for holding and client experience, public policy Centers, think tanks in public policy: the influence of technology.

2000-2006 years the creation time of the intellectual environment of the Department and the scientific school. There was demanding and unique selection of employees, which resulted in the Department were people who belonged to both the analytical and the University communities have combined a teaching job at the Department with real research and analytical development and expert bodies: N. Belyaeva-Foundation "Interlegal" A.u. Zudin is the center of political technologies, k. Simonov-the center of Russian political conjuncture, R.f. Turovsky-Fund for the development of information policy, I.m. Dzâlošinskij is an independent Institute of communication, A.s. Titkov, Carnegie Moscow Center, etc. Is in turn prepared the ground for the ISSledovanij analytical centres and students Of public policy. The students staged the production practices of analytical structures, broadcast the very
idea of what a "think-tanks", exploring the work of specific expertise structures. Leading role in this played the course analytical centers as subjects of public policy ", by N. Belyaeva.

Thanks to the interest of a group of young researchers of the issue of public policy think tanks was reflected in graduation works, in particular, in the Bachelor's and master's degree dissertations co-author of this article-Zaitsev D.g. Held our getting to know each other as students and young researchers, on the one hand, managing Department and academic advisor, on the other.

The Department has started to attract students, "grown" over the years, from Bachelors to masters, research, and opportunities to provide that the HSE research teams as our domestic grants (including through support for the development of education and science of the State, for example in the form of a national project). In the framework of the national project "education" HSE has an innovative educational program (OPS) "formation of analytical competencies for innovations in business and public administration". The theme of the OPS fully passed into our study and the course of analytical centers.

Close scientific collaboration of sponsors resulted in the September 2006 year, prepared by the US research program "Analytical and expert support strategic decision-making in business and public administration" was supported by the innovative educational program of HSE. This project was completed in 2006-20074.

If the aforementioned periods of "external" conditions conducive to forming research programme studying analytical centres and communities as subjects of public policy, the next stage was marked by a fundamental mismatch of development programmes, Department of public policy and political science faculty of applied HSE. The Faculty decided to pursue the development of such areas as public relations and advertising, analytic competence were malovostrebovannymi Developments of the Chair in public policy, policy analysis were not supported, do not move, frozen, Dean focused on PR and advertising. In

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front Of a "call": either give up areas of teaching and research in public policy studies think tank, the development of analytical skills and narrow their programmes to learning and teaching in the field of civil society; or find another playground. This area became the Russian political science Association (RPMA). The Association supported the Chair in promoting issues of public policy. The Department supported the leaders of "public policy": Ya, Peregudov S.p. Krasin, G.g. divers, L.i. Nikovskâ, A.y. Sungurov, etc. It was an example of solidarity and the consolidation of the political community in advocating the importance of embrace-public policy that led to victory over University bureaucracy. This was opened on Ma HSE "political analysis and public policy, and HAS supported the Research Chair in the study of analytical communities.

*In 2008-2009*, we have initiated and implemented research project "expert and analytical capacity of the Russian political science Association (RPMA)." HAS been claimed by the project and implemented with the support Of Russian political science Association⁵.

Great our achievement has been the successful completion *in the year 2009* the dissertation "think tanks as actors in the political process"⁶ (author: Zaitsev, supervisor-D.g. Belyaeva N.Yu.). The thesis was a kind of culmination and synthesis of the whole experience of our research, but also opened new vistas and avenues for further research on this topic. As *at the end of 2009 year* launched two research projects: "regional analytical community as subjects of the ethics policy, analytical and expert activities at the international, national and regional levels. Both are designed for several years and open up new aspects in studying the role of policy analysts.

**The evolution of the subject and the research findings**

In the 1990-ies with the emergence and development of new research centers in Russia, it was important for us to *meet with foreign experience similar*

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structures as a distinct and influential actors of policies, as well as the first of such practices in Russia.\(^7\)

The accumulation of data on the activities of the new think tanks in the first phase of research enabled us in 2000 during a thorough comparative analysis of think tanks centers as case-studies. During the course of the study, the Russian Center, it was compared with a similar Western analytical structure. Comparative analysis of, in particular, revealed that the resource impact of Western think tanks as political actors has been generally strengthened, which allowed to make recommendations to the Russian Center to enhance its political "weight". Among the most common recommendations of the Russian analytical centres-the need to diversify activities and funding sources to enhance the autonomy of the "think tank" of the Center, to increase openness and transparency, to diversify the ways to promote its analytical product.\(^8\)

Cumulative empirical base of comparative mini research (case studies) of Russian and foreign (mostly Western) think tanks allowed to come on more ambitious research tasks within the framework of our research: building multidimensional universal typology analysis centres, a synthesis of the comparative study of analytical centers in Russia and in the West (mostly in the United States), develop techniques to assess the political status of think tanks as subjects of policies.\(^9,10,11\)

**Networks, University networks classification**

Concept of networks becomes wide spread in different sciences - from computer science and biology to sociology and political science. “Network’ has become a fashionable catch word in recent years - not only in political science but also in a number of other scientific disciplines. Microbiologists describe cells as information networks, ecologists conceptualize the living environment as network systems, computer scientists develop neuronal networks with self-organising and self-learning capacities. In contemporary social sciences, networks are studied as

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\(^7\) Кстати попытки описания зарубежного опыта функционирования американских аналитических центров предпринимались и в советское время: см. например Кобринская И.Я. «Мозговые тресты» и внешняя политика США. М. Международные отношения. 1986.
new forms of social organisation in the sociology of science and technology (Callon 1986), in the economics of network industries and network technologies (Katz and Shapiro 1985), in business administration (Thorelli 1986; Powell 1990), and in public policy (Mayntz, ed., 1983; Marsh and Rhodes 1992; Lehmburch 1991; Benz, Scharpf and Zintl, eds., 1992; Grande 1994; Héritier, ed., 1993). The term network seems to have become 'the new paradigm for the architecture of complexity' (Kenis and Schneider 1991, p.25).

That is why network can be defined very broadly as “an interconnected group of people or objects” or compare with - “a network is any collection of objects in which some pairs of these objects are connected by links”. To make this concept useful for further analysis for more narrow research goals and concrete branch of science or discipline the authors trying to apply this concept by adding adjectives: cable network; computer networks; television network; communications networks; activity networks; social networks; policy networks.

For the purpose of further analysis it is more useful to concentrate on the terms that are used by social scientists and political scientists – like social networks and policy networks. But came from computer science the term “networks” followed by the well-known typology of networks that could be apply for the social researches too (see picture 1).

1. A “star type” is one in which a central unit provides a link through which a group of smaller objects is connected.

2. A “bus-type “ configuration, where each unit in the network is responsible for carrying out its own communications without the aid of a central unit.

3. A “ring configuration” features a network in which each unit is connected to the next two other in a closed loop.

4. A hierarchical network or a “tree network” resembles a star network in that several units are connected to a central. However, these "client" unit also serve as host to next level units. Thus, the hierarchical network can theoretically be compared to a standard organizational chart of a large corporation.

5. Mesh Topology is a net-like communications network in which there are at least two pathways to each node. In a mesh topology, units are connected to each other by point-to-
point circuits. In the topology, one or more units usually become switching centers, interlinking units with others.

6. A fully connected network is a communication network in which each of the nodes is connected to each other.

7. The most easiest - linear topology puts a two-way link between one node and the next.

Picture 1. Types of networks.

Back to social networks, it can be defined as “patterns of interpersonal relationships among individuals based on face-to-face interaction and/or mediated communication. The concept of social networks was introduced by Radcliffe-Brown in 1940. Such networks (based on links rather than individuals) emerge from interaction and can cut across and influence institutions; they can also shape individual behaviour. In sociology and anthropology, kinship and friendship networks have been a key focus; the advent of the internet has stimulated the concept of network societies”12. Indeed this term is important for anthropology and sociology that a more concentrated on studsing networks as social phenomena on micro, meso and macro levels of analysis.

1. At the micro-level, social network research typically begins with an individual, snowballing as social relationships are traced, or may begin with a small group of individuals in a particular social context.

2. In general, meso-level theories begin with a population size that falls between the micro- and macro-levels. However, meso-level may also refer to analyses that are specifically

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designed to reveal connections between micro- and macro-levels. Meso-level networks are low density and may exhibit causal processes distinct from interpersonal micro-level networks.\textsuperscript{13}

3. Rather than tracing interpersonal interactions, macro-level analyses generally trace the outcomes of interactions, such as economic or other resource transfer interactions over a large population.

More closer to the topic of this paper research is a term “policy networks”. Tanja A. Börzel define policy networks as “as a set of relatively stable relationships which are of non-hierarchical and interdependent nature linking a variety of actors, who share common interests with regard to a policy and who exchange resources to pursue these shared interests acknowledging that co-operation is the best way to achieve common goals”\textsuperscript{14}.

“A policy network is one of a cluster of concepts focusing on government links with, and dependence on, other state and societal actors. These notions include issue networks (Heclo 1978), iron triangles (Ripley and Franklin 1981), policy sub-systems or sub-governments (Freeman and Stevens, 1987), policy communities (Richardson and Jordan 1979) and epistemic communities (Haas 1992). I discuss these terms below. All are varieties of networks, so I use ‘policy network’ as the generic term … The term policy network is used in three main ways in the literature: as a description of governments at work, as a theory for analyzing government policymaking, and as a prescription for reforming public management.”\textsuperscript{15}.  

So, it is quite another research goal and research question putted in policy network research that in this paper – more oriented on studding policy changes and the influence of different actors integrated or connected into policy networks – but policy network analysis approach could be useful on a way how it is defined functions or features of policy networks (that usualy used as a base for the typology of policy networks).

**Principles** of policy networks\textsuperscript{16}:

1. Stable between policy actors


2. Non-hierarchical and
3. Interdependent nature

“Modern governance is frequently non-hierarchical. Few policy solutions are simply imposed by public authorities. Governance involves mutuality and interdependence between public and nonpublic actors, as well as between different kinds of public actor, not least in federal or quasifederal polities such as the EU.

Second, the policy process must be disaggregated to be understood because ‘relationships between groups and government vary between policy areas’ (Rhodes 1997: 32). In other words, it makes little sense to talk generally of a ‘strong state’ or ‘corporatist state’ – let alone a ‘strong’ or weak’ international organisation (IO) – because states and IOs are much stronger vis-à-vis affected interests in some policy sectors than in others.

Third and finally, governments remain ultimately responsible for governance, but that is not the whole story. Before policies are ‘set’ by elected political actors, policy choices are shaped and refined in bargaining between a diverse range of actors, including some who are nongovernmental, all of whom have an interest in what policy is chosen. Policy networks can narrow options and shift the agenda by pursuing ‘strategies that generate new political and economic forces’ (Thatcher 1998: 406). Sometimes, they can go so far as to ‘play a role in the determination of their own environment, with repercussions for the fit between political interests, organizational structures and economic objectives’ (Thatcher 1998: 406; see also Dunn and Perl 1994; Peterson 1995b). To cite a specific example, the materialization of an EU social policy regime can be explained in part as the product of collective action on the part of an emergent social policy network to create a more favourable environment for EU intervention (see Falkner 1999)\textsuperscript{17}.

**Internal Features** of policy networks was formulated by Rhodes “simply put, the model assumes that three key variables determine what type of policy network exists in a specific sector:

1) the relative stability of a network’s membership: do the same actors tend to dominate decision-making over time or is membership fluid and dependent on the specific policy issue under discussion?

2) the network’s relative insularity: is it a cabal which excludes outsiders or is it highly permeable by a variety of actors with different objectives?

3) the strength of resource dependencies: do network members depend heavily on each other for valued resources such as money, expertise and legitimacy or are most actors

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self-sufficient and thus relatively independent of one another?

A continuum emerges with tightly integrated policy communities on one end, which are capable of single-minded collective action, and loosely-affiliated issue networks on the other, which find it far more difficult to mobilise collectively. The internal structure of policy networks is usually considered an independent variable, in that the structure of a policy network will help determine policy outcomes. For example, policy communities have more capacity than issue networks to steer or control the policy agenda”¹⁸.

Frans van Waarden in a paper offer another “major dimensions of policy networks are presented as (1) number and type of actors, (2) function of networks, (3) structure, (4) institutionalization, (5) rules of conduct, (6) power relations, (7) actor strategies. Certain popular conventional policy making arrangements (e. g. sectoral corporation, sponsored pluralism, clientelism) are examined in terms of the network dimensions”¹⁹.

University network are the following

**Universities Network** may refer to:

- ASEAN University Network
- Balkan Universities Network
- Matariki Network of Universities
- Mediterranean Universities Union
- Universitas 21
- University Network of the European Capitals of Culture
- World Universities Congress
- Worldwide Universities Network

and there is no special definition or feauters/functions similar common criteria for analysis

**RESEARCH OF KNOWLEDGE AND ITS APPLICATION**

This chapter is about a new agenda for inquiry into the relationships between science and public policy. So far, most research has conceptualised this relationship in terms of knowledge utilisation and downstream impact on the policy process. However, this leads to over-instrumentalisation and serious attenuation of expert advice. Therefore, I propose a new perspective: interaction through boundary work, a concept expressing how expert advice

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simultaneously demarcates and coordinates science and public policy. Research shows that there are many different types of boundary work depending on various types of policy problems. This chapter concludes with a proposal for a multilevel model, which enables us to understand the variety in types of boundary work, and discriminate conditions of success and failure of boundary arrangements and boundary work practices on several levels of analysis.²⁰

An emergent social science of knowledge applications, drawing on a substantial multidisciplinary literature published over the past twenty-five years, signals an inversion of typical scholarly reasoning about the knowledge-society nexus. Whereas most scholarly research thus far has concentrated on conditions believed to affect the production of scientific and professional knowledge, we pose a new problematic: What must we examine in order to comprehend and consciously shape applications of scientific and professional knowledge to the manifold problems facing contemporary societies? To date, approaches to this problematic have proceeded on the basis of four broadly accepted if abstract theses about the nature of contemporary knowledge systems: subjectivity, corrigibility, sociality, and complexity. Within the boundaries supplied by these commonly accepted theses are unresolved controversies expressed in competing visions of complexity, alternative perspectives of causation, rival images of progress, and conflicting criteria of application.²¹

The most often used resource of Wikipedia²² provide the following collective wisdom on understanding of the phenomenon of “Knowledge” as a familiarity with someone or something, which can include facts, information, descriptions, or skills acquired through experience or education. It can refer to the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject. It can be implicit (as with practical skill or expertise) or explicit (as with the theoretical understanding of a subject); it can be more or less formal or systematic. In philosophy, the study of knowledge is called epistemology; the philosopher Plato famously defined knowledge as "justified true belief." However, no single agreed upon definition of knowledge exists, though there are numerous theories to explain it.


²² http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Knowledge
Knowledge acquisition involves complex cognitive processes: perception, communication, association and reasoning; while knowledge is also said to be related to the capacity of acknowledgment in human beings.[2]

Knowledge

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

For other uses, see Knowledge (disambiguation).

Knowledge is a familiarity with someone or something, which can include facts, information, descriptions, or skills acquired through experience or education. It can refer to the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject. It can be implicit (as with practical skill or expertise) or explicit (as with the theoretical understanding of a subject); it can be more or less formal or systematic.[1] In philosophy, the study of knowledge is called epistemology; the philosopher Plato famously defined knowledge as "justified true belief." However, no single agreed upon definition of knowledge exists, though there are numerous theories to explain it.

Knowledge acquisition involves complex cognitive processes: perception, communication, association and reasoning; while knowledge is also said to be related to the capacity of acknowledgment in human beings.[2]


See also: Epistemology

"The eventual demarcation of philosophy from science was made possible by the notion that philosophy's core was "theory of knowledge," a theory distinct from the sciences because it was their foundation… Without this idea of a "theory of knowledge," it is hard to imagine what "philosophy" could have been in the age of modern science."

— Richard Rorty, Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature

The definition of knowledge is a matter of ongoing debate among philosophers in the field of epistemology. The classical definition, described but not ultimately endorsed by Plato,[3] specifies that a statement must meet three criteria in order to be considered knowledge: it must be justified, true, and believed. Some claim that these conditions are not sufficient, as Gettier case examples allegedly demonstrate. There are a number of alternatives proposed, including Robert Nozick's arguments for a requirement that knowledge 'tracks the truth' and Simon Blackburn's additional requirement that we do not want to say that those who meet any of these conditions 'through a defect, flaw, or failure' have knowledge. Richard
Kirkham suggests that our definition of knowledge requires that the evidence for the belief necessitates its truth.\[4\]

In contrast to this approach, Wittgenstein observed, following Moore's paradox, that one can say "He believes it, but it isn't so," but not "He knows it, but it isn't so."\[5\] He goes on to argue that these do not correspond to distinct mental states, but rather to distinct ways of talking about conviction. What is different here is not the mental state of the speaker, but the activity in which they are engaged. For example, on this account, to know that the kettle is boiling is not to be in a particular state of mind, but to perform a particular task with the statement that the kettle is boiling. Wittgenstein sought to bypass the difficulty of definition by looking to the way "knowledge" is used in natural languages. He saw knowledge as a case of a family resemblance. Following this idea, "knowledge" has been reconstructed as a cluster concept that points out relevant features but that is not adequately captured by any definition.\[6\]

Communicating knowledge[edit source] [editbeta]

Los portadores de la antorcha

Sculpture by Anna Hyatt Huntington about the transmission of knowledge from one generation to the next

(Ciudad Universitaria, Madrid, Spain)

Symbolic representations can be used to indicate meaning and can be thought of as a dynamic process. Hence the transfer of the symbolic representation can be viewed as one ascription process whereby knowledge can be transferred. Other forms of communication include observation and imitation, verbal exchange, and audio and video recordings.

Philosophers of language and semioticians construct and analyze theories of knowledge transfer or communication[edit source] [editbeta]

While many would agree that one of the most universal and significant tools for the transfer of knowledge is writing (of many kinds), argument over the usefulness of the written word exists nonetheless, with some scholars skeptical of its impact on societies. In his collection of essays Technopoly, Neil Postman demonstrates the argument against the use of writing through an excerpt from Plato's work Phaedrus (Postman, Neil (1992) Technopoly, Vintage, New York, pp 73). In this excerpt the scholar Socrates recounts the story of Thamus, the Egyptian king and Theuth the inventor of the written word. In this story, Theuth presents his new invention "writing" to King Thamus, telling Thamus that his new invention "will improve both the wisdom and memory of the Egyptians" (Postman, Neil (1992) Technopoly, Vintage, New York, pp 74). King Thamus is skeptical of this new invention and rejects it as a tool of recollection rather than
retained knowledge. He argues that the written word will infect the Egyptian people with fake knowledge as they will be able to attain facts and stories from an external source and will no longer be forced to mentally retain large quantities of knowledge themselves (Postman, Neil (1992) *Technopoly*, Vintage, New York, pp 74).

Andrew Robinson also highlights, in his work *The Origins of Writing*, the possibility for writing to be used to spread false information and therefore the ability of the written word to decrease social knowledge (Robinson, Andrew (2003) *The Origins of Writing* in Crowley and Heyer (eds) *Communication in History: Technology, Culture, Society*, Boston pp 34). People are often internalizing new information which they perceive to be knowledge but in reality fill their minds with false knowledge.

The above points are moot in the modern world. Verbal communication is generally thought to lend itself to the spread of falsehoods as much as written communication. It is harder to preserve records of what was said or who originally said it – usually neither the source nor the content can be verified. Gossip and rumors are examples prevalent in both media. As to the value of writing, the extent of human knowledge is now so great, and the people interested in a piece of knowledge so separated in time and space, that writing is considered central to capturing and sharing it.

Major libraries today can have millions of books of knowledge (in addition to works of fiction). It is only recently that audio and video technology for recording knowledge have become available and the use of these still requires replay equipment and electricity. Verbal teaching and handing down of knowledge is limited to those who would have contact with the transmitter or someone who could interpret written work. Writing is still the most available and most universal of all forms of recording and transmitting knowledge. It stands unchallenged as mankind's primary technology of knowledge transfer down through the ages and to all cultures and languages of the world.

Situated knowledge is knowledge specific to a particular situation. It is a term coined by Donna Haraway as an extension of the feminist approaches of "successor science" suggested by Sandra Harding, one which "offers a more adequate, richer, better account of a world, in order to live in it well and in critical, reflexive relation to our own as well as others’ practices of domination and the unequal parts of privilege and oppression that makes up all positions."[7] This situation partially transforms science into a narrative, which Arturo Escobar explains as, "neither fictions nor supposed facts." This narrative of situation is historical textures woven of fact and fiction, and as Escobar explains further, "even the most neutral scientific domains are narratives in this sense," insisting that rather than a purpose dismissing science as a trivial matter of contingency,
"it is to treat (this narrative) in the most serious way, without succumbing to its mystification as ‘the truth’ or to the ironic skepticism common to many critiques."[8]

Haraway’s argument stems from the limitations of the human perception, as well as the overemphasis of the sense of vision in science. According to Haraway, vision in science has been, "used to signify a leap out of the marked body and into a conquering gaze from nowhere." This is the "gaze that mythically inscribes all the marked bodies, that makes the unmarked category claim the power to see and not be seen, to represent while escaping representation."[2] This causes a limitation of views in the position of science itself as a potential player in the creation of knowledge, resulting in a position of "modest witness". This is what Haraway terms a "god trick", or the aforementioned representation while escaping representation.[9] In order to avoid this, "Haraway perpetuates a tradition of thought which emphasizes the important of the subject in terms of both ethical and political accountability".[10]

Some methods of generating knowledge, such as trial and error, or learning from experience, tend to create highly situational knowledge. One of the main attributes of the scientific method is that the theories it generates are much less situational than knowledge gained by other methods.[citation needed] Situational knowledge is often embedded in language, culture, or traditions. This integration of situational knowledge is an allusion to the community, and its attempts at collecting subjective perspectives into an embodiment "of views from somewhere."[11]

Knowledge generated through experience is called knowledge "a posteriori", meaning afterwards. The pure existence of a term like "a posteriori" means this also has a counterpart. In this case that is knowledge "a priori", meaning before. The knowledge prior to any experience means that there are certain "assumptions" that one takes for granted. For example if you are being told about a chair it is clear to you that the chair is in space, that it is 3D. This knowledge is not knowledge that one can "forget", even someone suffering from amnesia experiences the world in 3D.[citation needed]

Even though Haraway’s arguments are largely based on feminist studies,[7] this idea of different worlds, as well as the skeptic stance of situated knowledge is present in the main arguments of post-structuralism. Fundamentally, both argue the contingency of knowledge on the presence of history; power, and geography, as well as the rejection of universal rules or laws or elementary structures; and the idea of power as an inherited trait of objectification.[12]

Partial knowledge[edit source | editbeta]

One discipline of epistemology focuses on partial knowledge. In most cases, it is not possible to understand an information domain exhaustively; our knowledge is always incomplete or partial. Most real problems have to be solved by taking advantage of a partial understanding of the problem context and problem data, unlike the typical math problems one might solve at school,
where all data is given and one is given a complete understanding of formulas necessary to solve them.\cite{citation_needed}

This idea is also present in the concept of bounded rationality which assumes that in real life situations people often have a limited amount of information and make decisions accordingly.

Scientific knowledge[edit source | editbeta]

The development of the scientific method has made a significant contribution to how knowledge is acquired. To be termed scientific, a method of inquiry must be based on gathering observable and measurable evidence subject to specific principles of reasoning and experimentation.\cite{13} The scientific method consists of the collection of data through observation and experimentation, and the formulation and testing of hypotheses.\cite{14} Science, and the nature of scientific knowledge have also become the subject of Philosophy. As science itself has developed, knowledge has developed a broader usage which has been developing within biology/psychology—discussed elsewhere as meta-epistemology, or genetic epistemology, and to some extent related to "theory of cognitive development".

Sir Francis Bacon, "Knowledge is Power"

Note that "epistemology" is the study of knowledge and how it is acquired. Science is "the process used everyday to logically complete thoughts through inference of facts determined by calculated experiments." Sir Francis Bacon was critical in the historical development of the scientific method; his works established and popularized an inductive methodology for scientific inquiry. His famous aphorism, "knowledge is power", is found in the Meditations Sacrae (1597).\cite{15}

Until recent times, at least in the Western tradition, it was simply taken for granted that knowledge was something possessed only by humans — and probably adult humans at that. Sometimes the notion might stretch to (ii) Society-as-such, as in (e.g.) "the knowledge possessed by the Coptic culture" (as opposed to its individual members), but that was not assured either. Nor was it usual to consider unconscious knowledge in any systematic way until this approach was popularized by Freud.\cite{16}

Other biological domains where "knowledge" might be said to reside, include: (iii) the immune system, and (iv) in the DNA of the genetic code. See the list of four "epistemological domains": Popper, (1975),\cite{17} and Traill (2008;\cite{18} Table S, page 31)—also references by both to Niels Jerne.
Such considerations seem to call for a separate definition of "knowledge" to cover the biological systems. For biologists, knowledge must be usefully available to the system, though that system need not be conscious. Thus the criteria seem to be:

- The system should apparently be dynamic and self-organizing (unlike a mere book on its own).
- The knowledge must constitute some sort of representation of "the outside world" or ways of dealing with it (directly or indirectly).
- Some way must exist for the system to access this information quickly enough for it to be useful.

Scientific knowledge may not involve a claim to certainty, maintaining skepticism means that a scientist will never be absolutely certain when they are correct and when they are not. It is thus an irony of proper scientific method that one must doubt even when correct, in the hopes that this practice will lead to greater convergence on the truth in general.

Religious meaning of knowledge

In many expressions of Christianity, such as Catholicism and Anglicanism, knowledge is one of the seven gifts of the Holy Spirit.

The Old Testament's tree of the knowledge of good and evil contained the knowledge that separated Man from God: "And the LORD God said, Behold, the man is become as one of us, to know good and evil…" (Genesis 3:22)

In Gnosticism divine knowledge or gnosis is hoped to be attained.

In Hindu Scriptures present two kinds of knowledge, Paroksh Gyan and Prataksh Gyan. Paroksh Gyan (also spelled Paroksha-Jnana) is secondhand knowledge: knowledge obtained from books, hearsay, etc. Prataksh Gyan (also spelled Prataksha-Jnana) is the knowledge borne of direct experience, i.e., knowledge that one discovers for oneself.

Jnana yoga ("path of knowledge") is one of three main types of yoga expounded by Krishna in the Bhagavad Gita. (It is compared and contrasted with Bhakti Yoga and Karma yoga.)

In Islam, knowledge (Arabic: ʾilm) is given great significance. "The Knowing" (al-ʿAlīm) is one of the 99 names reflecting distinct attributes of God. The Qur'an asserts that knowledge comes from God (2:239) and various hadith encourage the acquisition of knowledge. Muhammad is reported to have said "Seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave" and "Verily the men of knowledge are the inheritors of the prophets". Islamic scholars, theologians and jurists are often given the title alim, meaning "knowledgable".
In Jewish tradition, knowledge (Hebrew: תעד da'ath) is considered one of the most valuable traits a person can acquire. Observant Jews recite three times a day in the Amidah "Favor us with knowledge, understanding and discretion that come from you. Exalted are you, Existent-One, the gracious giver of knowledge." The Tanakh states, "A wise man gains power, and a man of knowledge maintains power", and "knowledge is chosen above gold".

As a measure of religiosity (in sociology of religion) According to the sociologist Mervin Verbit, knowledge may be understood as one of the key components of religiosity. And religious knowledge itself may be broken down into four dimensions:

- content
- frequency
- intensity
- centrality

The content of one's religious knowledge may vary from person to person, as will the degree to which it may occupy the person's mind (frequency), the intensity of the knowledge, and the centrality of the information (in that religious tradition, or to that individual).

Now we will describe two cases of University Networks, using the following parameters:

Case of FEDE University Network

1. NETWORK PARTICIPANTS

The European Federation of Schools FEDE is an International Non Governmental Organisation (INGO) benefiting from a "participatory status" with the Council of Europe. Creation April 9, 1963 of the FEPE (Federation of European Private Schools). The FEPE is created by 30 schools in Barcelona (Spain). October 31, 1977 - The FEPE becomes The FEDE: European Federation of Schools. Today, the FEDE brings together over 600 independent educational institutions in France, Europe and other countries.

2. NETWORK GOALS AND ACTIVITIES.

From the start, the FEDE set itself two main missions:

Participating in the establishment of a true European educational area,
Defending the freedom of education,
Developing the acquisition of European culture and knowledge, and enabling independent
institutions to be incorporated in a reliable institutional framework are the two main goals pursued by the FEDE.

The European Federation of Schools (FEDE) aims at fundamental goals

- Developing Human Rights and European Culture
- Developing the acquisition of European culture and knowledge
- Allowing independent institutions to fit in a reliable institutional framework

To do so, the FEDE:

- Offers educational and training courses as well as diplomas that meet the growing requirements of European Institutions, student expectations and business needs.
- Organises and energises a network of graduates
- Develops the e-learning offer
- Develops modern services for its member schools

Where can I follow an e-learning training course?
Made available by the European Federation of Schools (FEDE), they bring numerous advantages to teaching establishments:
- Develop an e-learning approach without limits of technical and financial constraints
- Catch up with the leading schools who have already put e-learning in place
- Improve relevant exams
- Make the teachers work richer and more dynamic
- Develop a qualitative synergy

Three utilisation options are offered to member schools of the European Federation of Schools (FEDE)

First option:
Face-to-face pedagogical work remained unchanged; the student may use e-learning in addition to their course in order to improve learning and results.

Second option:
Face-to-face learning is reduced and completed by e-learning. The teacher structures the course and the utilisation of e-learning for optimised learning.

Third option:
Face-to-face courses disappear to make way for predominant e-learning training. The teacher
becomes a tutor and accompanies their students in their learning experience, according to a progression model defined.

Дипломы ФЕДЕ

The European Federation of Schools has created a variety of diplomas designed to meet the needs of both students and companies.

Designed by pedagogical teams and researchers according to European directives, these diplomas are accessible via member schools of the FEDE.

The European Federation of Schools offers over 30 European diplomas from level BAC+2 to BAC+5 based on the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS).

The FEDE offers three levels of diplomas…

European Higher Studies Diploma (DEES)
European MASTER
Preparation for DEES

…in numerous fields:

Communications, management, human resources, marketing, IT, finance, asset management, journalism, tourism, real estate…

All the European Federation of Schools diplomas are based on the European system of transferable credits (ECTS) and can therefore lead to either a first job, or to further education via equivalences.

These European diplomas unite theory and practice thanks to teaching units designed around the chosen speciality and around their related professional skills.

Сертификаты ФЕДЕ

Parallel to European diplomas, The European Federation of Schools (FEDE) provides certificates validating the acquisition of skills and/or knowledge.

These certificates are totally independent from FEDE diplomas and may be obtained in complement to a FEDE diploma.
The European Federation of Schools (FEDE) offers four certificates:
Certificate in Modern European Languages
Certificate in Culture and European Citizenship
Certificate in Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights
Certificate in Professional Skills

EUBAT

The European Business Administration Test (EUBAT) is a three hour computer-based standardised examination designed to test general knowledge of Europe and the European business environment.

Europe is constantly changing and evolving. It is a complex political and business environment because of its diverse cultures and languages, its patchwork of rules and regulations, and its history of political and social conflicts; what we know about Europe today may not be true in the future.
Yet, as largest economic market in the world, Europe cannot be ignored.

Taking the EUBAT gives you the opportunity to demonstrate that you have the skills and knowledge to understand and work within the ever changing and complex business environment that is Europe today.

With more than 731 million consumers the European continent is an economic powerhouse with managed assets of over 25€ trillion ($32.7 trillion) representing one-third of the world’s wealth. The diversity of its businesses and organisations is only surpassed by the diversity of its people who live in more than 47 different countries and speak more than 230 different languages.

Successfully navigating Europe’s diverse cultures, customs, business practices, legal and trade regulation requires a comprehensive set of skills and knowledge. Businesses and organisations around the world need people who are competent in these areas and the EUBAT is a test that can demonstrate that you have these competencies.

The EUBAT is designed to measure the level to which one master’s knowledge of Europe and the skills needed to succeed in doing business with Europe and in European based businesses and
organisations.

The EUBAT satisfies two important needs in the market today. The first by students and working professionals from around the world who seek a convenient way to demonstrate their knowledge of Europe, and the second, by globally focused businesses and organisations that need an efficient and objective evaluation tool to measure specific competencies needed to do business with Europe and in European based businesses and organisations.

The test is in four sections:

Section A – Europe: Shared Values, Cultural Diversity is designed to assess knowledge of European history, civilisation, religions, geopolitics and citizenship.

Section B – European Institutions in an International Context is designed to assess knowledge of European institutions and organisations, their functions and the future of European enlargement.

Section C – Intercultural Management and Human Resources is designed to assess knowledge of intercultural management and human resource management.

Section D – The Business World and the European Environment, is designed to assess knowledge of the European economy, markets, business development, accounting, taxation, subsidies and lobbying.

3. NETWORK LEADER(S) AS ITS STRATEGIC ACTOR

The President

4. LEVEL OF ITS FORMALIZATION

The general meeting, as a decision-making body of the association

The President
The committee
The Executive Board

5. PROCEDURES OF DECISION-MAKING, LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS INVOLVEMENT

General Meeting is the supreme decision-making body in the association. It endorses the strategy of the Federation, appoints the President
The President after his appointment shall automatically be the chairman of the Committee and of the Executive Board, elects the Executive Board and the Committee, approves the annual accounts and management. It is entrusted with all the other duties provided for by these articles of association.

Committee is the body that lays down the strategy of the FEDE, in particular the focus and policy of the association. It shall study any action or initiative that may further the purposes or objectives thereof and shall encourage meetings and contacts between members who, because of the distance between them, are not always able to meet as often as may be wished at the general meeting.

Executive Board is the body entrusted with the operational management of the Federation. It decides on major issues, liaising with members and deals with day-to-day business.

Main functions within the Executive Board
1. The main functions within the Executive Board are as follows:
   - The President, who leads and runs the Executive Board, the Committee, and the general meeting; he assumes the responsibilities inherent to his duties and is in charge, among other things, of relations with official European organisations. He ensures the implementation of the resolutions of the various decision-making bodies and the smooth running of the Federation that he represents in dealings with third parties. He calls the meetings. He may temporarily delegate all or part of his authority and may be represented by a Vice-President or any other member of the Executive Board.
   - One or more Vice-Presidents (maximum of four) responsible for assisting the President according to his instructions and replacing him if need be.
   - The General Secretary who drafts the minutes of the general meeting, the Committee and the Executive Board, the publication thereof requiring the signature of the President. In liaison with the General Commissioner for Diplomas, he ensures the proper organisation of examinations; he maintains contact with the various heads of member schools; he coordinates the activities of the commissions and every year presents a report to the general meeting.
   - Possibly a Deputy General Secretary to assist and replace if necessary the General Secretary in his duties and responsibilities.
   - The Treasurer: he is responsible for the cashflow management, the financial control, the budget and the petty cash and accounting services; he collects subscriptions and periodically presents a
financial report to the general meeting.

- The General Commissioner for Diplomas, responsible for applying the general policy of the FEDE as regards diplomas. He is responsible for the organisation and supervision of the various FEDE European diplomas, presides on such basis over the work of the international commissions, and every year submits an activity report to the general meeting.

2. The attribution of each of the said duties to a particular member of the Executive Board comes under the authority of the general meeting, and should the latter fail to take such a decision, under that of the President who shall distribute the tasks in agreement with the other members of the Executive Board.

6. LEVEL OF OPENNESS FOR NEW PARTICIPANTS FOR JOINING THE NETWORK

Art. 5 Individual members and corporate members
1. The FEDE is open to individuals and institutions that share the views and goals of the Federation, the admission of a new member remains, in all cases, subject to the approval of the association (article 8).

2. The members of the FEDE are basically collective members: schools, institutes and institutions from the private or independent educational system; or representative or category-based associations. Corporate members appoint an individual who will be their representative in any dealings with the association.

3. When several schools are part of the same group, each one has its own representative.

4. Personalities recognised for their merits in the service of education and culture may be welcomed as individual members. Such memberships can also be open to people who previously exercised duties within the Federation and who remain in the esteem thereof.

Art. 6 Member categories
Any member, individual or collective, shall necessarily be part of one of the following categories: full member, associate member, observer, honorary member.

1. Full members are those who show and have shown their commitment to the cause of the association, who take part in general meetings, unless prevented by any major impediment, and who are prepared to make themselves available if need be for any one-off assignments. Only full members may receive a certificate of affiliation and present themselves to third parties as belonging to the FEDE, by using the title "member of the FEDE" or any other equivalent description.

2. Associate members are individuals or institutions that wish to have closer relations with the
FEDE and have been received into the Federation for a probationary period, at the end of which the general meeting may grant them full membership.

3. Members with an observer status include those who work in the areas of teaching or pedagogy in a country that is not a member of the Council of Europe. Any sympathisers delegated by other organisations may also be accepted as observers.

4. Honorary members are individuals allowed to join the association because of particular services rendered to the FEDE or to the causes it supports. They are entitled to present themselves to third parties as "honorary members of the FEDE".

Art. 7 Membership privileges
Regardless of the membership category, each member of the FEDE is invited to any event organised by the Federation and shall benefit from all the information reserved for members or designed to present the FEDE and its members to the authorities and to the general public. When FEDE initiatives or programmes are also open to third parties, the conditions granted to members are generally more favourable than those granted to non-members.

Art. 8 Admission of new members
1. Any person or institution, within the meaning of article 5 paragraph 1, who wishes to belong to the association, must apply for admission to the President. Any candidate for membership is required to pay a registration fee in advance, according to the rate fixed by the Executive Board. The said amount is not refundable, regardless of the final decision.

2. The application form is first submitted to the Executive Board that may immediately grant the candidate the status of associate member (art. 6b).

3. The file is then forwarded, with notice from the Executive Board, to the Committee responsible for taking the final decision.

4. The President and Executive Board are required to ensure that the Committee is able to decide on any membership application as swiftly as possible, as from their date of presentation.

5. The admission of a new member also involves its attachment to one of the categories listed in article 6. In the event of a candidate disagreeing with any decision taken in this respect, he is entitled to withdraw his application within 15 days simply by informing the President thereof in writing.

6. For any other issues, the rights of appeal of any refused or unsatisfied candidates shall be governed by article 26.

7. TYPES OF RECOVERS AND RESOURCE DISTRIBUTION AND CONTROL
The resources of the association shall be made up of subscriptions received from members, donations from third parties, subsidies from public or private bodies, registration fees from candidates, amounts paid by members for services rendered, possible surpluses from initiatives and events organised under the aegis of the association, incomes from FEDE examinations and earnings from the assets of the Federation.

The President, who leads and runs the Executive Board, the Committee, and the general meeting; he assumes the responsibilities inherent to his duties and is in charge, among other things, of relations with official European organisations. He ensures the implementation of the resolutions of the various decision-making bodies and the smooth running of the Federation that he represents in dealings with third parties. He calls the meetings. He may temporarily delegate all or part of his authority and may be represented by a Vice-President or any other member of the Executive Board. One or more Vice-Presidents (maximum of four) responsible for assisting the President according to his instructions and replacing him if need be.

The Treasurer: he is responsible for the cashflow management, the financial control, the budget and the petty cash and accounting services; he collects subscriptions and periodically presents a financial report to the general meeting.

Tab2. Case FEDE University Network: functioning model
Case of ERMA University Network

1. NETWORK PARTICIPANTS

European Regional Master's Degree in Democracy and Human Rights in South East Europe (ERMA), is a unique regional interdisciplinary one-year full time Master programme. It is established in 2000, through the joint efforts of eleven participating universities and research centers, coordinated by the Center for Interdisciplinary Postgraduate Studies of the University of Sarajevo in cooperation with the University of Bologna through its Istituto per l'Europa Centro-Orientale e Balcanica. In 200, this network of universities joined the twelfth member. Thus at present, the network of universities supporting Erma are Participants: University of Bologna (Italy), University of Belgrade (Serbia), University of Prishtina (Kosovo), University of Montenegro (Montenegro), University of Macedonia (Macedonia), University of Zagreb (Croatia), University of Graz (Austria), New Bulgarian University (Bulgaria), London School of Economics (UK), Ruhr-Universitat Bochum (Germany), University of Peloponnese (Greece), National Research University ‘Higher School of Economics’ (Russia).

2. NETWORK GOAL AND ACTIVITIES

Objectives of the action

Overall objective(s): 1. to offer high-level interdisciplinary training at Master level in human rights and democratisation with a regional (South East Europe) focus; 2. to increase and deepen the cooperation capacity of universities and faculty in the region and wider; 3. to continuously enhance the human resource capital available for employment by various institutions active in the region.

The specific objectives are: 1. to organise teaching and training activities and study visits in the framework of the Master curriculum; 2. to establish robust management and structures to oversee the implementation of the programme and its budget; 3. to create a viable academic environment conducive to learning by improving library and technical facilities and by enabling student and faculty mobility.

Target Group

1. The student community (Master level) in South East Europe and the European Union, Caucasus and Russia: these are young BA graduates (usually in the age group 25-35) of
arts and humanities with professed interest in democratisation and human rights in South East Europe. Many of them will have already acquired some working experience before engaging in the Master Programme. This makes the group, consisting of around 30 students in each academic year, a particularly dynamic community where ideas flow freely in Faculty facilitated seminars. The language of instruction is English, which contributes to enhancing the student’s language proficiency increasing their communication skills and their value for future employers;

2. Teaching faculty and research networks from South East Europe and the European Union working in the fields of human rights and democratisation: the programme implementation enhances the cooperation capacity of the partner institutions involved as well as the experience of their teaching faculty. Each academic year, classes and seminars will be taught by around 30 lecturers and guest speakers coming from more than 10 countries in Europe and beyond (including most of the countries in South East Europe). Such levels of cooperation multiplies the academic potential of the region and gives rise to new research projects, conference initiatives and publication activities contributing to the further enhancement of the intellectual product made available to policy-makers;

3. University networks across South East Europe and the European Union: through their faculty involved in the implementation of the programme, universities and research centres in the region enter into a robust partnership network, which is an essential ingredient of the main objectives promoted by the Bologna process, e.g. the approximation of curricula and degree-awarding requirements. Hence the project also fulfils the wider function of bringing closer the regional academic community;

4. Following graduation, the work of our alumni benefits the larger civil society in the region. This is a longer-term effect and requires more time to materialise, but we are already starting to see some preliminary results through our former graduates. Organised in a robust alumni association they have taken up important positions in policy-making, the non-governmental sector, the judiciary and the academia across the region and beyond thereby enhancing the visibility of the Master Programme and its donors. The quality of the alumni organization has also been recognized by the European Commission that has invited representatives of ACIPS to the annual meeting of master programmes in Pretoria.

5. Civil society at large benefiting from the work of our alumni after their graduation.

Final beneficiaries

1. Students and graduates;
2. Participating universities and faculty networks;
3. University lecturers and administrators in the region of South East Europe;
4. Various institutions (governments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organisations, universities, etc.) in need of well-qualified cadres;
5. Society at large.

Estimated results
The main results of projects of this kind are not instant. Instead they create the potential for a long-term sustainable effect by increasing the human resource capital of the region as a whole and, by implication, of the European Union as well as for effective community-building in the future. There are, however, some immediately visible results as well:

1. Sixty (roughly 30 per academic year) well-educated graduates, mostly from the region of South East Europe, acquiring academic knowledge and practical skills in the fields of human rights and democratisation;
2. Increased capacity of university and faculty networks in the region of South East Europe for transnational cooperation and joint teaching and research activities;
3. Increased pool of well-qualified young professionals employable by various institutions (governments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organisations, universities, etc.) active in the region of South East Europe;
4. Community building at the level of our students who represent a variety of backgrounds.

Main activities
The main activities to be undertaken each academic year can be summarised as follows:

1. Lectures, tutorials and study visits in Bosnia and Herzegovina – assessed student work;
2. Assessed internships (work experience) in governmental, non-governmental and intergovernmental institutions in the region of South Eastern Europe;
3. Theses writing and supervision, accompanied by a short seminar programme in Italy, at the University of Bologna’s residential centre in Bertinoro/Santa Sofia/Faenza;
4. The above will be accompanied by Executive Board, Council of Directors and Faculty meetings throughout the academic year in Bosnia and Herzegovina and in Italy;
5. Publication activities – best awarded theses each academic year, the programme’s yearbook, journal of the Alumni Association;
6. Joint activities within the Consortium of Regional Human Rights Master’s Programmes – Intra-programmes mobility, exchange of teaching faculty and students, joint research projects and publications, etc.

3. NETWORK LEADER(S) AS ITS STRATEGIC ACTOR

As regards the practical implementation of the project, it is undertaken by a renowned international Faculty of scholars with a strong common experience in the framework of the *International Network ‘Europe and the Balkans’*, co-ordinated by the University of Bologna’s Institute for Central, Eastern and South East Europe.

The project is implemented under the coordination of the University of Sarajevo (Centre for Interdisciplinary Postgraduate Studies) with the support of the University of Bologna (Institute for Central, Eastern and South East Europe). In that respect, the Project Co-Directors are Professor Zdravko Grebo (University of Sarajevo) and Professor Stefano Bianchini (University of Bologna) with the full-time assistance from two coordinators (1 from Sarajevo and 1 from Italy). This team will be involved in all aspects of the programme’s implementation.

4. LEVEL OF ITS FORMALIZATION

The organizational structure of the Program consists of the following bodies:

- **Council of Directors**
- **Executive Board** (comprised of five cluster leaders, two co-directors, two coordinators and the representatives of the donors)
- **Program Directors** (one from the University of Sarajevo and one from the University of Bologna)
- **Program Coordinators team** (two coordinators and academic tutors)

The main tasks of the Programme Co-Directors are:

a) to represent the programme;

b) to monitor the implementation of the programme;

c) to cooperate with the cluster leaders, coordinate lecture timetables and perform other tasks related to the process of instruction;

d) to deal with issues of non-compliance with the rules of this Statute at the level of their responsibility.

In so doing they receive support from the two programme coordinators, who will be involved in the programme management through coordination of various aspects of programme preparation.
and implementation, and academic tutors who are engaged in the course activities by following the lectures and seminars, recording the attendance of the students, maintaining regular contacts with the Programme Co-Directors, Coordinators and the Faculty members and by having regular consultations with the students during the whole programme duration.

Each of the five teaching clusters within the first term curriculum is lead by a cluster leader (a member of the Programme Faculty) who is responsible for organising the teaching activities for their respective cluster after the approval of the Council of Directors. The cluster leader is also responsible for selecting teaching professors for the cluster lectures, as well as for co-ordinating their activities, including the approval of the respective reader and the evaluation of students.

5. PROCEDURES OF DECISION-MAKING, LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS INVOLVEMENT

The Program shall be administered by the above bodies - Council of Directors & Executive Board - on the basis of mandates defined in the present Statute. The members of the aforementioned bodies can nominate replacements in case of inability to attend. Consortium members can also attend the meetings of the Program.

The Council of Directors is responsible for overseeing the academic content and development of the programme in approving the contents of teaching clusters and the lecturers invited to participate in them. The meetings of the Executive Board and the Council of Directors are attended by representatives of the students (selected by the group itself for each academic year) who share their comments and suggestions for improving the organisation of the course.

Two collective bodies (which meet regularly throughout the academic year) are also set up to provide project oversight and academic coordination.

6. LEVEL OF OPENNESS FOR NEW PARTICIPANTS FOR JOINING THE NETWORK

The Executive Board determines the strategic direction and further development of the programme. It also takes decisions regarding any external partnerships (e.g. the Consortium of Regional Human Rights Master’s Programmes) that the Master Programme enters into.

7. TYPES OF RECOUERSES AND RESOURCE DISTRIBUTION AND CONTROL

The Executive Board also oversees the implementation of the programme’s budget.
Tab 3 Case ERMA University Network: functioning model
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