**Hogeschool van Amsterdam**
University of Applied Sciences

# TRENDS, ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

**HANS DE WIT**

# Trends, Issues and Challenges

in

# Internationalisation

of

# Higher Education

*Hans de Wit*

# Contents

# Research and Resources

*An Overview and Analysis of International Education Research and Resources*
Hans de Wit and David Urias

# Publications and References

*Publications on Internationalisation of Higher Education,
by Hans de Wit, 1993-2011.*

*References*

*About the Authors*

# Preface

With pleasure we present an overview of recent publications by professor (lector) in internationalisation of education, Hans de Wit, from the *School of Economics and Management of the Hogeschool van Amsterdam, University of Applied Sciences.* This overview includes his complete Public Lecture, titled: *Law of the Stimulative Arrears? Internationalisation of the Universities of Applied Sciences, Challenges and Misconceptions,* held on April 6, 2011.

This selection of articles published in recent years by Hans de Wit, both as author and co-author, in international books and journals provides an overview of conceptual thinking and trends, challenges and misconceptions with respect to internationalisation of higher education, all main topics expressed in Hans de Wit's Public Lecture. This publication, together with the school's research programme and the international symposium (including the proceedings) organised by Hans de Wit's research group on the occasion of the public lecture, illustrate how the School of Economics and Management and its Research Centre, the *Centre for Applied Research on Economics & Management* (CAREM), implement internationalisation as a key strategic dimension both in teaching and in research.

Hans de Wit addresses one specific but crucial dimension of international orientation: the internationalisation of education. How do we prepare our students for a professional career which is increasingly international as a result of the global knowledge economy we are part of. His work and that of his research group, concentrates on the role of education in this global knowledge economy, the internationalisation of the curriculum, and the intercultural and international competencies of teachers and students involved.

The professorship of Hans de Wit is embedded in the *Centre for Applied Research on Economics & Management* (CAREM) of the School of Economics and Management. In its research programme titled *Innovation and Participation in the Knowledge Economy,* the present four professors of CAREM outline the current demands that the economy places on our teachers and future graduates, and combine their expertise to approach this dilemma from a research point of view. The research programme is based on the central notion that our economy is evolving in the direction of a knowledge economy, with important implications for companies, consumers, employees, local and national governments and education. Innovation is necessary to keep up with the competitive world we live in. At the same time, the knowledge economy offers new opportunities giving fresh input to innovation.

The research programme consists of four central themes: innovation of services, human resource management and leadership, the economy and management of cities, and internationalisation. This last theme is recurrent through all themes of the research programme, as innovation and participation cannot be studied without the notion of globalisation of our society, in particular in a multicultural and international region such as Amsterdam. The economy of the city of Amsterdam has a strong international orientation, even more so than The Netherlands as a whole. The research programme of CAREM reflects that strong international focus of the city, the university and the school. The *Hogeschool van Amsterdam and its School of Economics and Management* have therefore made inter-

nationalisation one of their key priorities for the coming years. The themes addressed in this publication by Hans de Wit offer us valuable insights into the way we can incorporate internationalisation, both in education, research and policy, thus increasing more mutual awareness and enlarging chances of success.

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# Law of the Stimulative Arrears?

## *Internationalisation of the Universities of Applied Sciences Sector: Misconceptions and Challenges\**

*Hans de Wit*

*T*he Law of the handicap of a head start as Jan Romein describes in his essay in 1937 *De dialectiek van de vooruitgang* (The dialectics of progress) is generally quite well known. This law states that a head start or progression in a particular domain has a restricting influence on further development and innovation. The obverse of this law described by, among others Erik van der Hoeven in 1980, is generally less known: the law of the stimulative arrears. In this Public Lecture I want to test this latter lesser-known law against the higher professional education sector and its internationalisation. To what extent, in the context of a European higher education area, is the higher professional education sector capable of catching up the assumed arrears in relation to the European higher education in general, and to other universities of applied sciences in particular? The area of debate in which this needs to take place is larger than ever before, as a result of the world-wide knowledge economy. Innovations today appear at a greater speed than they did in the times of Jan Romein and Erik van der Hoeven. Slowing down almost seems no longer a viable option, to prevent falling even further behind the rest. On the other hand, adequate reactions could result in sudden large leaps to make up the arrears.

First I will describe in a broad outline the changes and challenges rgarding the internationalisation of European higher education. Then I will examine nine existing misconceptions about the internationalisation of the higher education sector, particularly but not exclusively within the HBO sector (universities of applied sciences). Next I will discuss the specific developments in the internationalisation of universities of applied sciences within The Netherlands along with the accompanying threats and opportunities. After that I will examine the position of the HBO sector in The Netherlands in comparison to universities of applied sciences elsewhere in Europe, in order to answer the question of whether the law of stimulative arrears is applicable to the HBO sector in The Netherlands and its internationalisation. Finally I will present the research carried out as professor with my research group Internationalisation, on the internationalisation of higher education, in particular the universities of applied sciences and the School for Economics and Management at the The Hogeschool van Amsterdam (HvA)**,** University of Applied Sciences, as part of the Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management (CAREM) and the research programme 'Innovation and Participation in the Knowlegde Economy' of the School.

## Internationalisation of higher education, changes and challenges

Internationalisation in European higher education has developed over the last twenty years from a marginal point of interest to a central factor. As I recently described in a polemic essay with Uwe Brandenburg, *The end of Internationalization*,:

> 'Over the last two decades, the concept of the internationalization of higher education is moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the very core. In the late 1970s up to the

mid-1980s, activities that can be described as internationalization were usually neither named that way nor carried high prestige and were rather isolated and unrelated. (…) In the late 1980s changes occurred: Internationalization was invented and carried on, ever increasing its importance. New components were added to its multidimensional body in the past two decades, moving from simple exchange of students to the big business of recruitment, and from activities impacting on an incredibly small elite group to a mass phenomenon.' (Brandenburg and De Wit, 2011)

This process is also described as mainstreaming of internationalisation.

In my thesis in 2001, I described the internationalisation of European education as a positive development: more explicit, coordinated, interactive and proactive; more strategically focused on multilateral partnerships; continuing professionalization; more focused on the world outside Europe; more attention given to internationalisation of the curriculum; and more attention towards to the quality assurance of internationalisation (De Wit, 2002, p. 71). Besides this, I pointed to possible tensions in and counter reactions to this development, such as an imminent resistance to a supposed denationalising effect of internationalisation, and related to that the possible development of a new form of local and regional identity, and the increasing influence of competition and market processes as driving factors in internationalisation (ibid., p. 71-72).

Trends as mentioned above are still relevant ten years later. Unfortunately this also applies to  the abovementioned adversities, which have become more prominent in particular over the last few years.

In the first place we see a growing  tendency to criticise the European unification and cooperation, despite the  achievements of the Bologna Process[1] and the  European programmes for education and research. Whereas at the same time, ironically, stronger appeals are made to European values versus other cultures. Even though this development is more prevalent in different sectors of our society, especially in politics, economy and culture, the effects also start to become visible in education. The recent protests in various countries against  the austerity policy in higher education and increases in tuition fees, although mostly  a  national concern, have a strong anti-Bologna (and therefore an anti-European) accent, also fed by the unjust arguments put forward by authorities that these measures are being enforced by (the goals of) the Bologna Process. We also see that a more stringent approach towards immigration as it is being argued currently, threatens to  have a  negative impact on the growing demand and worldwide competition for highly-educated knowledge migrants and top talent. See for instance the contribution of Steven Brakman and Arjen van Witteloostuijn in the Dutch newspaper *NRC Handelsblad* of 27 December 2010,  titled '*Xenofobie is desastreus voor de Europese economie, Europa moet meer migranten binnenlaten om de economie aan de praat te houden, als ze maar hoogopgeleid zijn*' ( Xenophobia is disastrous for the European economy, Europe should allow more migrants in to keep the economy going, provided they are highly educated).[2]

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[1] In 1999, 29 European ministers signed the Bologna Declaration, in which they agreed to match their national higher education systems on a number of crucial points. In 2011, 47 nations have associated.

[2] This is only one of many articles that, over the last few years have called for focus on the subject of 'skilled immigration' and the global competition for top talent and knowledge migrants as a result of the ageing population and the need for higher-educated people in the knowledge economy. See for instance  *Westerse landen moeten vechten om talenten (Western countries have to fight for talents)* by professor Gunnar Heinsohn of the Bremen University (in the Dutch national paper *de Volkskrant*, 25-2-2008) and Ewald Engelen, *Wees een goed koopman, waardeer de migrant* (Be a good salesman,

In the second place it is indisputable that competition and market processes have more and more influence on the manner in which internationalisation is implemented. In the words of Jane Knight:

> 'Internationalization of higher education is being fundamentally changed in reaction to and support of the competition agenda and market orientation. (…) What is certain is that it brings new opportunities, risks, benefits and challenges. (…) The double role of internation-alization in furthering both cooperation and competition among countries is a new reality of our more globalized world.' (Knight, 2010, p. 216)[3]

The globalisation of our society and the dynamic role of higher education in it, is an important reason for this development (De Wit, 2010, p. 220).

Ulrich Teichler (2004), Peter Scott (2005), Philip Altbach (2006), Hans de Wit (2008), Jane Knight (2008), Felix Maringa and Nick Foskett (2010) and others have described in detail the complex relations between globalisation and internationalisation in higher education. The distinction between internationalisation and globalisation is not categorical, according to Peter Scott. They overlap and are interrelated in all possible ways (Scott, 2005, p. 14). In Frans van Vught *et al.* it is stated that

> 'In terms of both practice and perceptions, internationalization is closer to the well-established tradition of international cooperation and mobility and to the core values of quality and excellence, whereas globalization refers more to competition, pushing the concept of higher education as a tradable commodity and challenging the concept of higher education as a public good.' (Van Vught *et al.*, 2002, p. 17)

Uwe Brandenburg and De Wit comment that with this distinction internationalisation is often too easily regarded as 'good' and globalisation as 'bad'.

> 'Internationalization is claimed to be the last stand for humanistic ideas against the world of pure economic benefits allegedly represented by the term globalization. Alas, this constructed antagonism between internationalization and globalization ignores the fact that activities that are more related to the concept of globalization (higher education as a tradable commodity) are increasingly executed under the flag of internationalization.' (Brandenburg and De Wit, 2011)

In the Bologna Declaration of 1999 and the Lisbon Strategy of 2000[4] the two dimensions of internationalisation meet: cooperation and competition. On the one hand both

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appreciate the immigrant) (*NRC Handelsblad*, 7-11-2010). Recently also Jo Ritzen brought this subject to attention in his book *A Change for European universities* (2010). This is a topical subject elsewhere as well. John Douglass and Richard Edelstein (2009) of the Centre for Studies in Higher Education (Berkley) in their report *Whither the Global Talent Pool* estimate that the United States should double their number of international students from 625,000 in 2008 to 1.25 million in 2020. Recently Japan set the goal of having 300,000 international students by 2020. With this, they will be confronted with increasing competition for higher-educated employees from emergingeconomies in the rest of Asia, in Latin-America and Africa. Recently China set the target of having 500,000 internationals students; Singapore 150,000 by 2015; and Taiwan 30,000 in the coming four years.

[3] Marijk van der Wende speaks in this respect of 'a change in paradigms from cooperation to competition' although she correctly argues here that 'not surprisingly most continental European countries pursue a cooperative approach to internationalization, which in terms of international learning and experience is more compatible with the traditional value of academia' (Van der Wende, 2001, p. 255).

[4] The long-term strategy which should have made the European Union in 2010 the strongest economy in the world. The goals have by no means been met yet and 'the strongest economy' as a final goal has been toned down considerably.

processes emphasise that there should be more cooperation resulting in a European area for higher education and research: 'A Europe of Knowledge'. On the other hand, there is strong emphasis on the argument that this cooperation is required in order is to cope with the competition from the United States, Japan and, increasingly, China and other emerging economies.

Although the successes under the terms of Bologna are indisputable, in particular in the field of the Bachelor-Master introduction and the credit points system ECTS, there is still a long way to go for higher education in Europe. However, the signs are not encouraging given the economic and financial crisis and the political developments sketched above. As Jo Ritzen states, and with him other European professionals in higher education, in the manifest '*Empower European universities*':

> 'Europe is in many respects in a crisis: a financial crisis, one of sustainability and one of demography. For universities there exists also an intellectual crisis, as the complexity of the present world – and how to cope with it – is insufficiently transmitted through teaching to the next generation. We believe that universities are an important force to address these crises and to find new ways to surmount them.'

The signatories plead for attention on three matters: increase mission differentiation, focus on innovative education and research, *and* reinforcement of internationalisation (Manifesto, 2010).

It is in this changing context that the internationalisation of Dutch and European higher education should be regarded: an increasing need for European cooperation together with an increasing worldwide competition for knowledge migrants and top talent. Both developments, however, are under pressure from national political and economic factors.

## Nine misconceptions concerning internationalisation

Internationalisation knows many motives and approaches. The developments described above have strengthened this diversity even more. Whereas before mainly political and social-cultural motives were the dominant tone, we see a shift to economic grounds for internationalisation, and also a stronger accent on content-related considerations (De Wit, 2002 and 2008). Where approaches are concerned, a shift from a more activity and motivation based approach to a combination of process and competence based approach would be most logical. After all, the described tendency towards the mainstreaming of internationalisation assumes a more integral process-based approach of internationalisation aimed at a better quality of higher education and the improved competencies of staff and students.

Reality is less promising however, despite the fact that the international dimension takes an increasingly central role in the policy documents of institutes for higher education, in national and European position papers, and in the reports of organisations such as OECD, UNESCO and the World Bank. Still there is a predominantly activity-oriented or even instrumental approach towards internationalisation. This leads to major misconceptions about what internationalisation actually means. Below I will describe nine of these misconceptions, whereby internationalisation is regarded as synonymous with a specific programmatic or organisational strategy to promote internationalisation, in other words: where the means appear to have become the goal.[5]

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[5] For a survey of programmed and organisational strategies for internationalisation, see De Wit,

## 1. Internationalisation is education in the English language

The influence of the English language as a medium of communication in research has been dominant for a long period of time. More and more articles, books and reports are being published in English and publication in English has become synonymous with worldwide academic production. Also, over the past twenty years there has been a tendency in higher education to teach in English as an alternative for teaching in one's mother tongue. Elsewhere (De Wit, 2002, p. 183-192) I have described this development in detail, in particular regarding higher education in The Netherlands. Additionally, this tendency is growing in other European countries, such as Scandinavia, and more recently Germany, France, Italy and the Central and East-European countries. In Asia we see a similar development in non-English speaking countries like South Korea as well.

It would appear, however, that this trend has gone too far in some respects. In 2002 (ibid., p. 191-192) I already referred to '*the hazard of arrogance*' by Nana Reinhard, i.e. the reinforcing effect on those who have English as their mother tongue to even further abandon the idea of learning foreign languages than is already the case, and also to the '*utter undeserved preferential treatment of English native speakers*' by Abraham de Swaan. But there are more unintended negative effects. Increasingly, education offered in the English language is regarded as the equivalent of internationalisation, which results in a decreasing focus on other foreign languages; in an insufficient focus on the quality of the English spoken by students and teachers for whom English is not their native language; and thus leading to a decline in the quality of education.

The following argument can be heard too often in Dutch higher education: 'We have internationalised, because our education and research is carried out in English.' This makes an instrument – teaching in English as a means to improve the communication and interaction between students and teachers with different language backgrounds – into a goal. This frequently leads to absurd situations, whereby a Dutch teacher communicates with only Dutch students in bad English, just because that is the way it should be done for internationalisation's sake. In Anglo-Saxon countries we see that there is little to no focus at all on the quality of the English of international students. Their sheer presence and teaching in the English language is seen as sufficient to conclude that there is an international class and, thus, there is internationalisation. And if there is any promotion of English or another foreign language at all then it remains limited to some credit points, isolated from the intrinsic application.

Add to this the decreasing writing and presentation skills of students in their own language, then it becomes evident that clear choices should be made for both the promotion of language education (Dutch and English and where possible a second foreign language) in primary and secondary education, as well as for the promotion of language education in higher education. It is also desirable to have a more functional and selective approach towards teaching in English and learning a second foreign language, as well as fully integrating the quality improvement of English into the study content.

## 2. Internationalisation is studying or staying abroad

Study or internship abroad as part of your home studies is often regarded as the equivalent

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2002, p. 121-125. Two of these nine misconceptions ( 4 and 7) are in line with the five myths as described by Jane Knight in 'Five Myths about Internationalization'(2011, 14, p. 14-15): foreign students as internationalization agents; the international reputation as a proxy for quality; international student agreements; international accreditation; and global branding.

of internationalisation. In particular the European Commission's policy to stimulate this manner of mobility has contributed to this instrumental approach over the last 25 years. But also national authorities, institutions and their programmes primarily draw their inspiration from this for their internationalisation policy. And this applies to universities of applied sciences in particular, as Bernd Waechter concluded in 1999, in a study on the internationalisation in this sector in eighteen European countries:

> 'For most authors, internationalisation and student mobility are quasi-identical. This throws an illuminating light on the dominance of this activity in the overall spectrum of international cooperation. Any other activity (…) appears marginal by comparison.' (Waechter, 1999, p. 185)

This does not mean that study or internship abroad is harmful for students and that initiatives such as the European exchange program ERASMUS should not be appreciated. Over the last decades mobility has been a significant motive behind internationalisation of education in Europe. We can question, however, the imbalanced and over-simplified approach to mobility as being the same as internationalisation. As well, it can be said that mobility is merely an instrument for promoting internationalisation and not a goal in itself.

This instrumental approach reappears, for instance, in the 2009 communiqué of the Ministers of Education of the Bologna countries:

> 'Mobility is important for personal development and employability, it fosters respect for diversity and a capacity to deal with other cultures. It encourages linguistic pluralism, thus underpinning the multilingual tradition of the European Higher Education Area and it increases cooperation and competition between higher education institutions. Therefore, mobility shall be the hallmark of the European Higher Education Area. We call upon each country to increase mobility, to ensure its high quality and to diversify its types and scope. In 2020, at least 20% of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad.' (Communiqué, 2009)

In this text all kinds of, in theory highly commendable, assumptions are expressed about the added value of mobility: personal development, employability, diversity, intercultural communication, multilingualism, cooperation and competition. It is quite possible that one or more of these assumptions will be realised by mobility, but there is no guarantee that mobility will make that happen. Therefore mobility needs to be better embedded in the internationalisation of education. It should be specifically assessed as to whether these added values are developed in the student and more innovative reflection is required on alternative ways of achieving these added values, for instance by the use of virtual mobility. Simply stating a goal in numbers (20% according to the European Ministers or 25% according to the goals of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science of The Netherlands (OCW), or 100% according to some institutions/programmes) is minimally effective and has little to do with internationalisation, if the abovementioned condition of embedding and testing has not been met.[6]

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[6] A proper illustration of the misconception that internationalisation would be synonymous with mobility is RAAK-international's programme (SIA, 2010). Although the assessment criteria include the link between research and the internationalisation policy of the University of Applied Sciences or school, and the number of enduring international partner relations, the mobility goals for students and teachers are, after all, the core of the assessment regarding its international dimension. A goal which does not naturally result from the research partnership as intended in the programme.

It is important to mention yet another aspect of this misconception as if mobility were an internationalisation goal in itself. Let us suppose that a goal of 20% or 25% mobility would be met – in reality this is still a distant goal for most countries and institutions –, still, this represents only a limited number of students, and, therefore, limited internationalisation. At the end of the nineties this gave cause for the origin of the European movement *Internationalisation at Home*, which advocates a strong focus on all students, not only on those that are mobile, and also on the internationalisation of the curriculum and the learning process. This is how the movement wants to put an end to the misconception that mobility and internationalisation are synonymous (Beelen, 2007).[7]

## 3. *Internationalisation equals an international subject*

A third misconception that continues to surface persistently is that internationalisation is synonymous with providing training with an international content or connotation: European Studies, International Business or Music.

The United States has traditionally promoted internationalisation of the curriculum for a long time. Under the *Title VI of the Higher Education Act* after 1960 multidisciplinary regional studies and foreign language centres were subsidised by the Federal Government, mainly motivated by the role of the United States as the new leader of the world (De Wit, 2002, p. 27). In the Cold War the support for these kind of programmes increased, and after the fall of the Iron Curtain a new section was added to the *Title VI*, aimed to support 'Centers for International Business Education and Research'. As Holzner and Greenwood state, the national interest was supplemented with – but certainly not replaced by – the competition paradigm (in: De Wit, 2002, p. 29).

In Europe, regional studies are considered more as mainstream education, building on the study of our colonial past. Here too we have seen the development of International Business Programs, European Studies and similar studies increase strongly over the last number of years , motivated by worldwide competition and market processses as was the case in the United States. Increasingly, precisely these kind of studies are provided in English. Within the institutions and schools that offer these programmes, the prevailing opinion seems to be that in this manner internationalisation has been properly implemented. Without meaning to overlook the valuable contribution of these kind of programmes, again, it is too simplistic and instrumental an argument to declare regional studies synonymous with internationalisation. The 2010 pilot of twenty programmes by the Dutch Flemish Accreditation Organisation (NVAO) for the certificate 'distinguished feature for internationalisation' is illustrative for this opinion. The various educational programmes in the pilot held the opinion that their vision and learning outcomes are international simply because they provide an international subject, without having an adequate intended or realised vision on internationalisation and intercultural and international learning outcomes. In many cases however, there is no question of a clear definition and assessment of these outcomes (NVAO, 2011).

## 4. *Internationalisation implies having many international students*

A fourth misconception on internationalisation is the assumption that having many international students equals internationalisation. Without denying that the combination of local and international students in the lecture-room can make a significant contribution to

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[7] For a further description of this movement and its goals, see for instance Nilsson and Otten (red), 2003.

internationalisation, also in this case, having international students is not sufficient in itself. Unfortunately, countless examples can be given of programmes that are oriented exclusively towards international students or where international students are being added as an isolated group (and then often a dominant delegation of one or two nationalities, such as Chinese or Germans). Many Dutch programmes have set up student quotas per nationality particularly as a result of negative experiences with Chinese students in the nineties. Also, a stricter English test for Chinese candidate-students has been introduced, but many programmes continue to struggle with the integration of local and international students in and outside the lecture-room. It is a widespread, and not exclusively Dutch, problem that local and international students do not integrate easily and that students are inclined to seek the company of their compatriots. There is a lot of focus – mostly in vain – on more integration outside the lecture-room. Yet, it is absolutely essential to have students of different nationalities and cultures work together in class, because this will lay the foundation for the development of intercultural interaction and global citizenship. Only if there is sufficient focus on this cooperation will the presence of international students be of any significance.

Recently though, there has been a shift from quantity to quality in international student recruitment. This is connected to the earlier described phenomenon of the focus on top talent and knowledge migrants. In *University World News* of 24 January 2010, the Danish Minister of Education stated that with the continuance of free higher education the risks and costs of a massive stream of weaker and mediocre international students would be very high, thus the reason why Denmark introduced higher tuition fees for non-EU and non-EER students. Linked to this policy is a scholarship programme to recruit top talent for Denmark. A comparable approach has been chosen in The Netherlands with the introduction of high, cost-effective tuition fees for non-EU and non-EER students, linked to a knowledge scholarship. Here, however, the knowledge scholarships have disappeared in the lump sum budget of the institutes. Also in countries like Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom we see a shift from quantity to quality, whereby the immigration service awards points to the education level of knowledge migrants and top talent.

## 5. *Having a few international students in the classroom makes internationalisation into a success*

The other side of the preceding misconception happens as well. In particular many international programmes operating in the English language within the HBO, have developed a very distorted proportion between the number of Dutch and the number of international students.[8] Whereas extra selection requirements in English language skills, motivation and previous training do not apply for the Dutch students, they do apply for the international students. Partly as a result of the increasing national and international competition for international students, the proportion between Dutch and international students in these programmes becomes more and more unequal, so one can hardly speak of an international classroom setting. This creates a snowball effect: the more disproportionate the numbers, the less appealing it becomes for international students to enrol in these programmes. Frequently heard reasons that play a role for international students in quitting are the quality of English of the Dutch students and teachers, and the lack of interaction with them.

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[8] It should be noted that this is being compensated in the border region by the strong growth of the number of German students, who, beside the Dutch students, account for a second dominant group. According to Nuffic's Mobility Monitor , German students will account for 44% of the number of international students in 2010. (Nuffic, 2010)

Conversely, this development has a negative effect on the internationalisation of mainstream, non-English-language programmes. The Dutch students with a certain, whether or not motivated, international interest, preferably enrol in the international programmes which means interest in the mainstream education offered in Dutch dwindles. The focus is more on the international programmes because they are simply better equipped to offer international content, language skills, cooperation and exchange. Fortunately this dilemma is more and more recognized, also within the School of Economics and Management of the HvA, and one can note a growing focus on the selection of Dutch students for the international programmes and internationalisation of mainstream educational programmes in the Dutch language.

Also in the mainstream programmes the presence of a small number of international students creates tensions. Should the courses be taught in English if there are only one or two international students in the lecture-room ? How can the integration of Dutch and international students be realized in such distorted proportions? This reinforces the tendency even more to place international students in separate international programmes, and consequently the internationalisation of the mainstream programmes lags behind. Institutions and schools should react with creative and innovative solutions, such as the development of international minors, employment of virtual international partnerships, and so on.

## 6.   There is no need to test intercultural and international competencies specifically

A sixth misconception assumes that students acquire intercultural and international competencies naturally if they study or do their internship abroad or take part in an international class. This misconception is closely related to the previous misconceptions about mobility, education in English and the presence of international students. For, if these kind of activities and instruments are considered synonymous with internationalisation, then it is obvious to assume that intercultural and international competences will therefor also be acquired.

Once again, reality is more complicated. It is not guaranteed from the very start that these activities will actually lead to that result. After all, a student can completely seclude himself from sharing experiences with other students and other sections of the population in the country he visits, and therefore exclude himself from their culture. As stated, a much heard complaint is that students insufficiently integrate during their stay overseas for studies. Another complaint is that the lecturers do not take enough advantage of the benefits that students have to offer in terms of cultural diversity, knowledge and types of education. The Veerman Committee for reform of higher education in The Netherlands also states that students should be equipped to act in an international environment (Veerman Committee, 2010, p. 29). The abovementioned NVAO pilot project amongst twenty programmes oriented towards the certificate 'distinguished feature of internationalisation', clarified that there is hardly any explicit description and assessment for intercultural and international learning outcomes. This implies that there should be a clearer focus on this matter, this is one of the research projects of the research group Internationalisation.

## 7.   The more partnerships, the more international

A seventh misconception on internationalisation is the focus on partnerships: the more partnerships, the more successful the internationalisation. Jo Ritzen stated in *Transfer* magazine slightly provokingly:

'There should come an end to the exchange circus whereby deans sign 200 partnerships.' (In: Van de Meent, 2010, p. 10)

In 2002 I recorded a trend towards more multilateral and strategic partnerships  (De Wit, 2002, p. 193-206). Globalisation, competition and market processes have reinforced this development towards strategic partnerships.

> 'Strategic partnerships in research, teaching and transfer of knowledge, between universities and of universities with business and beyond national borders, will be the future for higher education, in order to manage the challenges that globalisation will place on it. Cooperation for competition and competition for cooperation, this will be driving higher education globally in the years to come.' (Stockley and De Wit, 2010, p. 60)

This tendency towards strategic partnerships often gets stuck in intentions however, and particularly in the HBO sector. The majority of partnerships remains bilateral, and in many institutions and schools the number far exceeds the two hundred sighed by Jo Ritzen. As a matter of fact, some institutions and schools seem to  have more exchange agreements than the number of students and teachers being exchanged. For some time, universities have had a policy aimed at the rationalising of existing partnerships in favour of a more limited amount of strategic partnerships, along with the participation in selective networks. As I have indicated earlier, not always with great success, there is still a lot of trial and error (De Wit 2002 and 2004).

If the HBO institutions decide to adapt also a strategic partner policy, they will be confronted with even more problems. It is not always clear to them who exactly are their international counterparts, and certainly not on an institutional level. And the driving factor of research partnership is lacking as a fundament. I return to this dilemma later.

## 8.    *Higher education is international by nature*

In particular at universities and among their researchers the general opinion is that they are international by their very nature, and thus there is no need to stimulate and guide internationalisation. Thereby, references are made to the Renaissance, the time of the philosopher Erasmus (ca. 1467-1536), whom the European exchange programme is named after. As I explained elsewhere, this historic reference ignores the fact that universities mostly originated in the 18th and 19th century and had a clear national orientation and function (De Wit, 2002, p. 3-18). I refer here to, amongst others, Neave (1997) and Scott (1998), who both speak of an 'inaccurate myth'.

Internationalisation does not come naturally in universities and universities of applied sciences, but it should be introduced. That is why the rather widely accepted definition of internationalisation by Jane Knight, based on years  of comparative research that we partly executed together for organisations such as the OECD and the World Bank, speaks of an integration process. Internationalisation is

> 'the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.' (Knight, 2008, p. 21)

This goes for universities of applied sciences even more than for universities. As Liduine Bremer and Bernd Waechter mention:

> 'It is often claimed that the university is international by its very nature. While the reality in many institutions might sometimes fall short of this bold statements (…) the so-called non-

university sector of higher education cannot look back on a similar international tradition.' (Bremer and Waechter, 1999, p. 11)

## 9. *Internationalisation is a goal in itself*

Most of the abovementioned misconceptions see an activity or instrument as synonymous with internationalisation, whereas in fact their goal is merely to contribute to its realisation. The last, also fairly prevailing misconception regards internationalisation as a goal in itself and therefore it is in line with the misconceptions mentioned earlier.

As described above in Knight's definition of internationalisation (2008, p. 21), however, internationalisation is a process to introduce intercultural, international and global dimensions in higher education to improve the goals, functions and delivery of higher education, and with that to improve the quality of education and research. If internationalisation is regarded as a goal in itself then it remains ad hoc and marginal.

Above, I have paid attention to nine misconceptions on internationalisation, because they stubbornly keep existing in higher education and especially in universities of applied sciences. For a better understanding of the challenges and opportunities for the internationalisation of the Dutch HBO it is important to recognise that these misconceptions are still fairly common there.

## The international dimension of universities of applied sciences in The Netherlands and Europe, challenges and perspectives

Little systematic study has been carried out on the internationalisation of universities of applied sciences in Europe and in The Netherlands. The one and only extensive European analysis dates from over twelve years ago: *Internationalisation in European Non-University Higher Education* (Waechter, 1999). In their introduction to this study Bremer and Waechter state that this relatively young sector, the lack of a research tradition, its more practical and professional orientation as well as the schoolish nature of it, and the more local mission and orientation of thesector, can all be considered main explanations for the arrears in internationalisation of the European non-academic higher education. The most important explanation would be the structural arrears in this sector with regard to the academic sector (ibid., 1999, p. 11-12). Marijk van der Wende further explains the problems with differences in and recognition of professional qualifications, and the diversity of the sector (Van der Wende, 1999, p. 209).

Although the study did not reach clear and univocal conclusions of whether the image of an 'internationalisation deficit' at the universities of applied sciences was correct, the image didarise that the volume of international activities lagged behind. As mentioned before, student mobility was the most dominant activity, almost the equivalent to internationalisation, followed at a distance by teacher mobility. Internationalisation of the curriculum was a marginal activity, with the exception of the education offered in English. There were few available international sources in the field of lifelong learning, while policy and organisation were mostly ad hoc and unsystematic. Traineeships for students abroad and with international companies did occur, but without a systematic approach. English is the dominant second foreign language, followed by the language of neighbouring countries. There was little to no trend of decreasing focus on the knowledge of foreign languages. Partnerships were poorly developed and especially oriented towards neighbouring countries or the Anglo-Saxon world (Waechter, 1999, p. 181-190).

The picture of the Dutch HBO, as described by Arjen van Staa, did not deviate much

from the above study (Van Staa, 1999, p. 117-130). The Dutch HBO did have a relatively large number of programmes in English already, in particular at the Bachelor-level and in economics and management (Van der Wende, 1999, p. 211).

Thirteen years later it can be concluded that steps forward have indeed been made with reference to the internationalisation of the HBO sector, in any case the problem of the name has been solved as there seems to be European agreement about the name 'Universities of Applied Sciences'. But the pilot by NVAO on 'distinguished feature internationalisation' demonstrated, amongst other things, that arrears compared to the universities have barely been made up, and that the programmes of the universities of applied sciences scored relatively lower than the academic programmes, especially on the points vision/mission/policy and intercultural and international learning outcomes (NVAO, 2011).

Rather than making a comparison with the internationalisation at academic institutions, it is relevant to look at the specific function of the HBO sector itself and the implications for its internationalisation, and in particular for relations with the professional field. More than for universities, this relation with the professional field should be the underlying motive  for internationalisation. Leggott and Stapleford state:

> 'In the twenty-first century international labour market the development of employability skills and attributes through adopting international perspectives is essential to the enhance-ment of the employment prospects of students.' (Leggott and Stapleford, 2007, p. 133)

However, in particular the SME sector (Small to Medium-sized Enterprises), where the greater part of the HBO graduates find employment, is insufficiently prepared for the worldwide knowledge economy. According to a 2006 study, SME-companies experience intercultural and language barriers when they operate abroad (CILT, 2006). International investments by Dutch SME-companies remain behind the EU-average, thus losing numer-ous opportunities. A study by the research group *Internationalisation and the International Professional field* at the Hanzehogeschool Groningen, mentions the lack of intercultural competencies of their staff, insufficient knowledge of countries and markets, and  inade-quate linguistic skills as important impediments for the SME-sector (Hanzeconnect, 2008).

A recent survey amongst recruiters of European companies made clear that, beside sec-tor-specific and computer skills, they find it equally important for graduates to have so-called 'soft skills': suitability to work in a team (98%), adaption to new situations (97%), commu-nication skills (96%), and knowledge of foreign languages (67%). Almost 50% of the inter-nationally active companies mentioned knowledge of foreign languages as the main skill for the future. Sector-specific traineeships are also regarded as very important. A growing number of European companies recruit abroad, because they seek top talent (European Commission, 2010). In Janson *et al.* (2009, p. 172) it is noted that doing a part of one's study abroad might have become less unique, but employers and students still find it important. Teichler sees both strong horizontal relations between international study, experience and international work, as well as vertical relations, although not as strong and consistent, between  international experi-ence and career success (Janson *et all.,* 2009, p. 282).[9]

Furthermore universities of applied sciences in The Netherlands have an increasing intercultural student population – 14% of the student population in 2010 against universi-ties 13%, but  in the cities of Western Holland HBO-institutions like the HvA have consid-

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[9]    See also the studies of Lore, Brennan & De Weert, 2007; and of  Allen and Van der Velden, 2007

erably more than 14% – which, on top of the requirements from the professional field, also has consequences for the management of intercultural and international competencies.[10] As Martha Meerman and Lonneke Putten in their study *Opleiden in de multiculturele samenleving* (Educating in the multicultural society) state:

> 'If the population and consequently the labour force changes, this has consequences for the professional field for which the HBO trains its students. If the Dutch population changes colour, this has repercussions on the student and teacher population in the institutions. (Van Putten and Meerman, 2006, p. 9)

A growing number of HBO-institutions are aware of this. The HvA, for instance, states in the Policy plan internationalisation 2010-2014:

> 'The global knowledge economy requires both its graduates and its research to be equipped for the international and intercultural professional field and society. At the same time the increasing competition between traditional and upcoming economies and demographic factors result in an imminent shortage of highly skilled employees and researchers who can operate in this worldwide labour market. The globalisation of economy and society manifests itself in increasing immigration, thus, introducing international and intercultural diversity within our borders, and also in the student and teacher populations.' (Hogeschool van Amsterdam, 2010, p. 6)[11]

This goes in particular for the HvA in relation to the University of Amsterdam and the city of Amsterdam, with its international and intercultural character and composition. With regard to this, the '*OECD/IMHE Reviews of Higher Education in Regional and City Development Amsterdam*' (OECD/IMHE, 2009) poses the following points of interest:

- Make a greater effort to integrate the Amsterdam immigrants in education, labour and society.
- Generate a sufficient number of higher-educated graduates for the professional field.
- Focus more on lifelong learning.
- Make Amsterdam appealing to global talent.
- Develop Amsterdam into an education hub with the city as a main attraction.
- Improve the link between research and the demand from the professional field.
- Develop an internationalisation policy that corresponds better with the international potential of the city and its higher education.

The OECD/IMHE-report concerning Amsterdam's position in the global knowledge economy offers the HvA an extra dimension, namely the position of the HvA within the global city Amsterdam with its international and intercultural orientation. Fellow-professor Willem van Winden has indicated in *Kennis van de Stad* (Knowledge of the City, his Public Lecture delivered on 10 February 2010) five roles in which the HvA can contribute to the Amsterdam knowledge economy: creating human capital, liveliness provider

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[10] Until recently, internationalisation and interculturality in higher education were two separate entities. The need to further connect these two subjects has recently been brought to attention in the United States. Olsen *et al.* says about this matter that 'one should not be subsumed into the other (…) the two areas have much they can substantively contribute to each other. Indeed, neither area is complete without consideration of what the other brings to bear in terms of understanding and living effectively with difference.' (Olson *et al.*, 2007)

[11] See also Meerman *et al.*, 2009, about teachers and the multicultural professional education.

(quality of life), source of new activities (start ups), knowledge partner (and especially also lifelong learning) and as a partner and catalyst in urban planning (Van Winden, 2010).

Summarizing, this implies that internationalisation in the HBO should be driven by the relation with the professional field and the worldwide knowledge society to which it belongs.

## The position of the Dutch HBO in the '*Europe of Knowledge*'

Earlier I indicated that one of the misconceptions regarding internationalisation is that this would be a goal in itself. The main purpose of internationalisation is the quality improvement of education and research, and in particular the preparation for the intercultural and international society in which students, teachers and graduates are expected to function. Therefore, and to answer the question whether the law of the stimulative arrears offers perspective for the internationalisation of the Dutch HBO, it is necessary to look at how the Dutch HBO relates to the European developments in the higher education sector, and in particular to the other universities of applied sciences. In other words, is the Dutch HBO ready for an active role in the 'Europe of Knowledge' or have its arrears reached such an extent that they cannot longer be solved? Last year I wrote critically on the subject, in particular on research, in *Havana*, HvA's weekly (De Wit, 2010), and on the website *ScienceGuide*. I will recapitulate it briefly here.

Whereas universities characterise research per definition as international, it seems that the opposite idea exists at the universities of applied sciences. International expertise and contacts do not appear to be an essential part of the selection procedure, and research, as part of the internationalisation policy, is scarcely out of the egg. This is in contrast to the universities of applied sciences in, for instance, Scandinavia and Germany, where there is much greater focus on international research. The number of teachers with a doctorate is considerably higher there than in the HBO.[12] So, it is only appropriate that The Veerman Committee writes:

> 'The HBO, which compared on international level accounts for a relatively large part of higher education, lacks a strong basis of applied research and knowledge development. Research in the HBO needs to be expanded.' (Veerman Committee, 2010, p. 25)

What limits the focus on more international research partnership within the HBO? To begin with, the emphasis is so much on cooperation with the local professional field, that there would be no time or room for international cooperation. On top of that, a lot of practically-oriented research is stated not to be able to have an international dimension by its very nature. Research partnership still seems insufficiently embedded in the international cooperation of universities of applied sciences, so the necessary network of contacts is lacking. On top of that, the HBO-institutions lack a clear idea of who exactly are their strategic foreign partners. Professors are being judged on their partnerships in the professional field particularly and not on international partnerships. Access to European research

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[12] There is little hard data available, but according to *Onderzoek aan hogescholen* ( Research at Universities of Applied Sciences) of The Netherlands Association of Universities of Applied Sciences (2010, p. 14)  at the Dutch HBO in 2009 there would be 486 professors of whom 71% having a doctorate (268 FTE), 2.361 teacher-researchers of whom 11% having a doctorate (639 FTE research time) and 601 registered PhD students (261 FTE research).  This is negligible on a total workforce of 40,000 and 30,000 in FTE.

subsidies would be harder for the HBO than for the universities, partly caused by the lack of a supportive infrastructure for such applications.[13]

All these observations are correct in theory, but they can no longer be an excuse for not working on international research partnership. In other words, also when it comes to research, local and international are inextricably bound up with one and other.

RAAK-international (Regional Attention and Action for Knowledge circulation, a fund scheme initiated by the Dutch Ministry of Education, Cultural Affairs and Science) is meant as a boost for more international, practically-oriented research in the Dutch HBO, and at the same time it is an indication that, evidently, it is not possible to get this off the ground without this special focus. On top of that, one can question the way in which this international dimension is implemented, i.e. in particular by way of mobility of students and staff (see also endnote 6) . The Netherlands Association of Universities of Applied Sciences has taken the initiative to start the European Network for Universities of Applied Sciences (UASNET) and the project EDUPROF (Educating the new European Professional in the Knowledge Society). In this project The HBO sector works together with ten European partner umbrella organisations on a European dimension in the field of practically-oriented research. Unfortunately, both the actual cooperation within the UASNET as well as the effect it has on the institutions remains an uphill battle.

Dutch universities rank high up in the European and international level. It should be questioned, however, – even though there is no accurate ranking for universities of applied sciences available as of yet – whether the same applies to the Dutch HBO. There are definitely a number of specific sectors – art education, physiotherapy, nursing – and niche programmes such as car engineering at the Hogeschool Arnhem Nijmegen,where the Dutch HBO has a good reputation internationally partly because there is no comparable academic education available. In broad lines though one should be apprehensive about the Dutch HBO still being far behind many other European universities of applied sciences, in particular those of Scandinavia and Germany. The Dutch HBO does not score badly in terms of international cooperation, however, it is particularly on the subjects of research, master programmes, and teachers with a PhD or Master, that the HBO falls behind.

Does the law of the stimulative arrears offer perspective to take the Dutch HBO, like the universities, to the top of the European and international level? In other words, is the HBO capable of making great leaps forward in the years to come in the sphere of research, Masters, quality of teachers, and preparing the students for the challenges of an intercultural and international knowledge society? Especially at this turning point, the chances of making up arrears should not be estimated too positively. Implementation of the recommendations of the Veerman Committee, particularly regarding selection, research, Masters and titles would mean a step in the right direction. The development of a professional doctorate for HBO-teachers would also mean a large step forward, since it links more naturally to the practically-oriented research than the forced, and little successful, stimulation of obtaining a doctoral degree. Also, HBO-institutions can do their share in making up the arrears by giving priority to teachers' quality, internationalisation of the curriculum, international traineeships, virtual mobility, international minors, developing and assessing of intercultural and international competencies, and international practically-oriented research.

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[13] According to recent research of Nether (2011), the European programmes do, in fact, offer room for practically-oriented research by Universities of Applied Sciences, provided there is enough ambition, policy and strategy.

## The Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management: its research agenda, and the research group Internationalisation

The professorship Internationalisation of Education is part of the Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management (CAREM) of the School of Economics and Management. The professorship engages in two programme lines, and their interconnection in the internationalisation of education: the requirements of the global knowledge economy to be met by economics and management schools and, in a broader sense, the HBO-education, and the economic dimension of higher education in the international knowledge economy.

Internationalisation is a strategic driving force within the School of Economics and Management, because both the professional field for which it qualifies students, and also any relevant new knowledge for the school, are pre-eminently international. The professorship's purpose, in coherence with the other professors and the research programme of the school, 'Innovation and Participation in the Knowledge Economy' published by CAREM (2011), is to implement this more specifically, and furthermore to serve as an example to the rest of the school, HBO-wide, and on a European and international level. Contribution, through research, to the realisation of the internationalisation ambitions as formulated by the school in its plan for 2012, is of main importance for the professorship. The focus will be on: defining international and intercultural competencies for graduates (international career prospects); and partly for that purpose, developing relevant educational approaches and learning processes, and the developing and executing of education (special programmes for excellent students, honours course, minors); knowledge transfer to other teachers and researchers (professionalisation); relating these concepts to the wider context of international education, and introducing the experiences into the policy of the HvA, the HBO and wider (contextualisation); and implementing the acquired expertise in the training and research programmes of the School of Economics and Management (implementation).

Until recently there was only one other professorship, Internationalisation and International Professional field, at the Hanzehogeschool Groningen. Its goal was to contribute to the realisation of the internationalisation ambition of the Hanzehogeschool Groningen through research, education, and European and worldwide networks. That professorship ended in 2009, at the same time as the start of my professorship at the HvA. Also in 2009, at the Hogeschool The Hague the professorship International Cooperation started, mainly oriented to the role of universities of applied sciences in developing cooperation. Despite the interfaces between both professorships and the cooperation with members of the research group of the professorship at the Hanzehogeschool and with the professor and his research group at the Hogeschool The Hague, their focus differs from my professorship. There are no other professorships that specifically engage in the subject internationalisation of higher education; there are, however, a number of professorships at other universities of applied sciences where the emphasis is on interculturality. At the Dutch research universities there is no systematic focus on research on the internationalisation of higher education, except as an area for special attention at the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) of the Twente University. Furthermore applied research is carried out at the Knowledge and Innovation Directorate of Nuffic. My professorship also cooperates with these two units. The same applies to research centres abroad, among which the Center for International Higher Education of Boston College in the United States, the Interna-

tional Center for Higher Education Research of Kassel University Germany, the Centre for Academic Practice and Research in Internationalisation of Leeds Metropolitan University in the United Kingdom, the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore in Milano, Italy, and the University of South Australia in Adelaide, Australia.

Preceding, I have indicated interfaces with two of my three fellow-professors: Martha Meerman (Differentiated Human Resource Management) and Willem van Winden (Knowledge economy of Amsterdam). Together with these two professors and with professor Jesse Weltevreden (E-Commerce), and supported by Lucy Kerstens and Gudy Koning, we constitute CAREM, the research centre of the School of Economics and Management. We strive towards executing our research activities in cooperation with one another. Again here internationalisation is not a goal in itself. The research programme *Innovation and Participation in the Knowledge economy* is a good example of this cooperation.

Over the last one and a half years the research group Internationalisation has developed into a dynamic research group, with active participation by teachers from the School of Economics and Management, the Hanzehogeschool Groningen and Nuffic. Several members are working on a PhD. For a short time now, students have also been participating in the research of the knowledge network, including a student from the School, a student from the Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam and a PhD student of CHEPS from Norway. Research is carried out on the implementation of the internationalisation policy of the School of Economics and Management, and on students' and teachers' opinions and visions on internationalisation. Also research is planned on visions from the professional field, in particular from the SME. And research is carried out on defining and assessing intercultural and international competencies.

The research group is active in the Excellence Programme and is working on a honours course. Furthermore, within and outside the School and the HvA, lectures, seminars, workshops and trainings are carried out in the field of internationalisation. The professorship and the research group want to serve as an expertise centre for the internationalisation of education for the school of Economics and Management, the Hogeschool of Amsterdam and beyond.

I would like to conclude by thanking the Board of the Hogeschool van Amsterdam, the Dean and the Management Team of the School of Economics and Management, and my colleagues of CAREM and the research group for their confidence in me as a professor.

# Trends and Issues in Internationalisation of Higher Education

# The End of Internationalization *

*Uwe Brandenburg and Hans de Wit*

*O*ver the last two decades, the concept of the internationalization of higher education is moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the very core. In the late 1970s up to the mid-1980s, activities that can be described as internationalization were usually neither named that way nor carried high prestige and were rather isolated and unrelated. The exception was joint international research which, however, has never seriously become part of the internationalization fashion. In the late 1980s changes occurred: Internationalization was invented and carried on, ever increasing its importance. New components were added to its multidimensional body in the past two decades, moving from simple exchange of students to the big business of recruitment, and from activities impacting on an incredibly small elite group to a mass phenomenon. In our view, it is time for a critical reflection on the changing concept of internationalization.

## From substance to form

Gradually, the why and what have been taken over by the how and instruments of internationalization have become the main objective: more exchange, more degree mobility, and more recruitment. Even the alternative movement of "internationalization at home" of the late 1990s has shifted rapidly into this instrumental mood.

This development coincided with the dawn of a second, rivaling term: globalization. In fact, it seems that both terms act like two connected universes, making it impossible to draw a distinctive line between them. Today, internationalization has become the white knight of higher education, the moral ground that needs to be defended, the epitome of justice and equity. The higher education community still strongly believes that internationalization by definition leads to peace and mutual understanding, which was the driving force behind programs like Fulbright in the 1950s. While gaining its moral weight, its content seems to have deteriorated: the form lost its substance. Internationalization has become a synonym of "doing good", and  people are less into questioning its effectiveness and what it is meant to be: an instrument to improve the quality of education or research.

## The devaluation of internationalization

On the other side, globalization is loaded with negative connotations, and is considered more predominant than internationalization. This formula sees internationalization as "good" and globalization as "evil". Internationalization is claimed to be the last stand for humanistic ideas against the world of pure economic benefits allegedly represented by the term globalization. Alas, this constructed antagonism between internationalization and globalization ignores the fact that activities that are more related to the concept of globalization (higher education as a tradable commodity) are increasingly executed under the flag of internationalization, as the increasing commercialization at the conferences of NAFSA: Association of International Educators, the Asia Pacific Association for International Education (APAIE) and the European Association for International Education (EAIE) illustrate.

## Internationalization: from innovation to tradition

What this attitude in effect did was that it exacerbated the devaluation of internationalization and the inflation of defensive measures. Nowadays, we tend to be advocates rather than pioneers of internationalization, we are no longer the spearhead of innovation but defenders of traditions. This creates the danger of self-depreciation and defensive self-perception. In effect, it means that we are holding firm to traditional  concepts and act on them while the world around us moves forward. We – and the authors explicitly add themselves to the group of "we" – lament about the loss of real mobility and the commercialization of HE in general and its international component in particular. But at the same time we lose sight of innovative developments such as the emergence of the digital citizen for whom mobility can be at least as much virtual as real.

## A new dawn? The post-internationalization age

But how can we resume the active role and gain ownership of our own fate? The main points are the following:

    a. We have to move away from dogmatic and idealist concepts of internationalization and globalization.

    b. We have to understand internationalization and globalization in their pure meanings - not as goals in themselves but rather as means to an end.

    c. We have to throw off the veil of ignorance and ask ourselves: why do we do certain things, and what do they help in achieving the goal of quality of education and research in a globalised knowledge society? We also have to regard mobility and other activities as what they really are: activities or instruments, and therefore by definition not goals in themselves.

    d. We should carefully reconsider our preoccupation with instruments and means and rather invest a lot more time into questions of rationales and outcomes.

Though we need more philosophy we also need more sense of reality. We cannot continue to take for granted that certain types of mobility and other international activities (such as exchanges and study abroad) are good in themselves and other types (such as recruitment and transnational education) are bad. We have to dig deeper, place them within a new set of values and rationales and  make sure that we really achieve what is meaningful.

The future of higher education is a global one and it is our job to help preparing the higher education world for this. Therefore, what we need are people who understand and define their role within a global community, transcending the national borders and  embracing the concepts of sustainability, equity of rights and access, advancement of education and research, and much more. But essentially, we need to re-affirm the core role of universities: to help understand this world and to improve our dealing with it. What we need is a common commitment at the institutional and personal level of how we and our students will be  prepared to life and work in a global community. Possibly we have even to leave the old concepts of internationalization and globalization and move to a fresh unbiased paradigm. The most important in any case is to rethink and redefine the way we look at the internationalization of higher education in the present time.

# Global Competition in Higher Education

*A Comparative Study of Policies, Rationales and Practices in Australia and Europe\**

*Tony Adams and Hans de Wit*

## Introduction

*O*ver the past two decades, competition has become a central preoccupation in higher education, and has moved from the national to the regional and international arenas. The global knowledge economy has not only forced higher education to respond to this development but also has stimulated nations and institutions to become important actors and competitors. It is, however, an overestimation to argue that this is true for all institutions of higher education and in all countries and continents in the same way and at the same time.

A comparison of Australia and Europe illustrates the diverse ways higher education responds to an increasingly international competitive environment. The higher education subsector in Australia and in the United Kingdom had, by the mid 1980s, shifted from aid to trade in their international orientation. In continental Europe, this shift has been less radical, taken more time, and occurred via a shift from aid to cooperation and exchange first, before moving toward competition.

In this article we explain the rationale behind these different approaches, and the main trends, opportunities and risks that are present. We analyze the development of international competition in higher education in the two continents within the context of the worldwide changing dynamic in internationalization of higher education.

## Globalization and internationalization

The landscape of international higher education has been changing over the past 15 years (de Wit, 2002 and 2008; Knight, 2008). The international dimension and the position of higher education in the global arena are more dominant than ever in international, national and institutional documents and mission statements. Higher education is increasingly influenced by globalization but is also becoming a more dynamic actor in the global knowledge economy. Globalization and the role of higher education in it are linked by: (a) an increasingly unmet demand for higher education in the world; (b) growth in the number and types of new "for profit" providers in addition to public universities; (c) "not for profit" private universities; and (d) the emergence of new, innovative, cross-border delivery.

Ulrich Teichler (2004), Peter Scott (2005), Philip Altbach (2006), Hans de Wit (2008a) and Jane Knight (2008), and others address the complex relationship between globalization and internationalization of higher education. According to Peter Scott (2005) "the distinction between internationalisation and globalisation, although suggestive, cannot be regarded as categorical. They overlap, and are intertwined, in all kinds of ways." (14) Altbach (2006) defines globalization as "the broad economic, technological, and scientific trends that directly affect higher education and are largely inevitable in the contemporary

world," where internationalization "refers to specific policies and programmes undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to support student or faculty exchanges, encourage collaborative research overseas, set up joint teaching programs in other countries or a myriad of initiatives" (123).

Teichler (2004) states that "globalisation initially seemed to be defined as the totality of substantial changes in the context and inner life of higher education, related to growing interrelationships between different parts of the world whereby national borders are blurred or even seem to vanish." But according to Teichlar, in recent years the term 'globalization' has been substituted for internationalization in the public debate on higher education, resulting at the same time in a shift of meanings; he notes that "the term tends to be used for any supra-regional phenomenon related top higher education and/or anything on a global scale related to higher education characterised by market and competition" (24). Teichler defines internationalization as "the totality of substantial changes in the context and inner life of higher education relative to an increasing frequency of border-crossing activities amidst a persistence of national systems, even though some sign of 'denationalisation' might be observed" (22-23).

Frans van Vught et all (2002), meanwhile, state that "in terms of both practice and perceptions, internationalization is closer to the well-established tradition of international cooperation and mobility and to the core values of quality and excellence, whereas globalization refers more to competition, pushing the concept of higher education as a tradable commodity and challenging the concept of higher education as a public good" (17). For Jane Knight (2008),

> *'globalization* is the process that is increasing the flow of people, culture, ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economy across borders, resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world. Globalization affects each country in different ways and can have positive and/or negative consequences, according to a nation's specific history, traditions, culture, priorities, and resources. Education is one of the sectors impacted by globalization. (xi)'

*Internationalization* for Knight is "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (xi) Even though different accents are made, one can say that globalization is a social, economic and political process to which higher education responds, and in which it is an actor, while internationalization is the way higher education responds to and acts in it.

According to Teichler (2004) there is a growing emphasis within higher education on marketization, competition, and management, something also stressed by others. Reinalda and Kulesza (2005), for instance, note that

> 'since the end of the last century, a shift in higher education has taken place from the public to the private domain, parallel to an increase in international trade in education services (…). These developments enhance the significance of the education market as an international institution, but also contribute to changing the structure of that market. In doing so, an increase in worldwide competition is being revealed.(99)'

Several authors call for more attention to social cohesion and to the public role of higher education as an alternative force to its growing emphasis on competition, markets and entrepreneurialism. Rajani Naidoo and Ian Jamieson (2005) state: "the forces unleashed on higher education in the present context have propelled universities to function less as institutions with social, cultural and indeed intellectual objectives and more as produc-

ers of commodities that can be sold in the international marketplace" (39). These concerns also came to the surface in the response of higher education organizations around the world to the inclusion of education in the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) of the World Trade Organization (WTO).

Notwithstanding these concerns, internationalization of higher education is influenced by the global knowledge economy, and is moving from a cooperative to a more competitive approach. Knight (2008) concludes that the following two components are evolving: (a) *internationalization at home* – activities that help students to develop international understanding and intercultural skills (curriculum-oriented) and that prepare students to be active in a much more globalised world; (b) *internationalization abroad*: all forms of education across borders, including circulation of students, faculty, scholars and programs.

Ultimately, a competitive higher education subsector requires a strong focus on 'at home' and 'abroad'. The following comparison of Europe and Australia will illustrate the increasing attention to these two components and the strong interconnection between them, as well as the increasingly competitive character of internationalization.

## Internationalization and Competition in Europe

Higher education in Europe in the first decade after the Second World War was not very international. The focus was on the reconstruction of its countries after the great depression followed by the impact of the Second World War on society and economy. What little international dimension existed was primarily the circulation of elite degree-seeking students in developing countries to the colonial and imperialist powers they were linked to: the United Kingdom, France, Germany, and, to a lesser extent, countries like Belgium and The Netherlands.  In addition, governments signed cultural and scientific agreements to exchange small numbers of students and staff.

In the 1960s, another international dimension in higher education emerged: technical assistance, or development aid. The changing relationships between the former colonial powers and the developing world required a different approach. In addition to the traditional circulation of the elites, scholarship schemes provided wider opportunities for students from developing countries to study in Europe, primarily in the countries with which they had traditional cultural and linguistic ties (such as Germany, France, and the UK; which up until now have continued to be the main receivers of international students, after the US) and/or political links (such as the USSR). At the same time, capacity and institution building programs offered academic expertise and material support to the higher education subsector in developing countries. This trend was quite widespread, though most noticeable in Scandinavia, The Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and Germany.

The international dimension of European higher education in the 1960s and 1970s was still marginal, and dominated primarily by the circulation of students from developing countries to Europe, some outwards circulation of students and scholars from Europe to the US, and by development aid. In the 1980s, two different shifts occurred in Western Europe. The "benevolent laisser-faire" policy (Barron 1993, 50) and "humanitarianism and internationalism" (Chandler 1989, viii) that characterized the previous decades did not completely disappear, but were bypassed by new policies. In continental Europe a shift took place toward more controlled reception of degree-seeking international students and toward cooperation and exchange (i.e., student and staff mobility), while in the UK there was a shift to active recruitment of fee-paying international students.

The decision in 1979 by the British government to introduce full-cost fees for foreign students (a move from "aid-to-trade") resulted in a more competitive higher education subsector. In continental Europe the introduction of full-cost fees and higher education as an export commodity remained anathema. On the continent a different move took place, from aid to cooperation and exchange. Under the impetus of the European Commission, programs were designed to stimulate cooperation in research and development (R&D), and in education. From the early 1970s, in Sweden and Germany, and later elsewhere, programs were developed to stimulate cooperation and exchange; most countries had international academic agreements and were involved in the Fulbright Program with the United States.

During the 1970s, the European Commission started to stimulate R&D cooperation, and in 1976 introduced a pilot program known as the "Joint Study Programmes Scheme" to stimulate academic mobility, but the impact of these programs was marginal. In the 1980s, these initiatives at the national and European level contributed to the creation of the so-called Framework Programs for R&D in 1984, and the European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) in 1987. The driving rationales behind these initiatives were both Europeanization and strengthening Europe's position in the global economy.

Although the United Kingdom, as a member of the European Union, was involved in these developments, its participation in the educational programs has been marginal. There was, and remains, a tension between the more competitive approach to recruitment of fee-paying students (a focus on degree-seeking student circulation) and the subsidized programs of the European Commission, based on the principle of exchange (a focus on mobility as part of the home degree). The reputation of British higher education, its extended network of Commonwealth countries, the dominance of English as a first or second language, and the financial necessity to recruit full-cost students from abroad placed British higher education in a position to be a competitive player in the international student market, as well as in the cross-border delivery of education, just behind the United States.

By the end of the 1990s, first in The Netherlands and Scandinavia and later in Germany and France, a shift to higher education as an export commodity began to emerge. Although several countries--Denmark, The Netherlands, Sweden, and Finland--have or are planning to introduce full-cost fees for non-EU international students, the main drive has not been income generation, as was the case in the United Kingdom.

Most of Europe, in particular the larger economies of Germany, France, Italy, Spain, and Scandinavia, have zero or low tuition fees for domestic and international students. At the national and European level, the drivers have been increasing competitiveness of higher education in the global knowledge economy, and the establishment of a national/European brand and status of higher education, society, and economy.

More recently, global competition for highly skilled manpower has become a strong pull factor in international student circulation. The graying societies of Europe compete globally for top talent to fill the gaps in their knowledge economies. Migration and circulation of the highly skilled, and global competition for talent are terms that are becoming more dominant rationales. At the institutional level, rationales such as international classrooms, intercultural and global competencies, recruitment of top talent students and scholars, and institutional profile and status, are setting the scene.

In 2002-2003, there were 1.1 million foreign students enrolled in higher education in the so-called EURODATA region (comprised of the 27 EU nations; the four European

Free Trade Agreement members of Switzerland, Iceland, Lichtenstein, and Norway; as well as Turkey). Of these, 46 percent are nationals from within this group of 32 countries, while 54 percent are from outside. More than 60 percent of these students study in the three main countries: the United Kingdom, Germany, and France. France is a different destination country than the others, as only 28 percent of students are European and 51 percent are African students. As far as outward mobility is concerned, only 575,000 students, or 3 percent were studying abroad in 2002-2003, of which 81 percent were in another EURODATA country and 13 percent were in the United States (de Wit 2008b, 184-193).

Cross-border delivery of education is a major and growing market for the United Kingdom but is still marginal in continental Europe. But, as a destination market, Central and Eastern Europe as well as Southern Europe are experiencing an increasing presence of foreign programs and providers.

The Bologna Declaration of 1999 and the Lisbon Agenda of 2001 are manifestations of the need, and joint efforts by governments, the private sector, and higher education to reform higher education in Europe toward becoming more competitive in the global knowledge economy. Van der Wende (2001) speaks of a change in paradigms from cooperation to competition, although as she writes: "Not surprisingly most continental European countries pursue a cooperative approach to internationalization, which in terms of international learning and experience is more compatible with the traditional value of academia" (255). In a benchmarking exercise about the internationalization strategies of five European universities, de Wit (2005) encountered clear differentiations between universities, in particular universities from the United Kingdom, Northern Europe, and Southern Europe.

Although there is an increasing emphasis on economic rationales and competition, the changing landscape of internationalization is not necessarily developing in similar ways everywhere in Europe. Internationalization strategies are filtered and contextualized by the specific internal context of the university and its national embeddedness (Frolich and Veiga 2005). The recent emphasis on competition for talents, as well as the reforms undertaken by the Bologna Process, have brought continental Europe and the United Kingdom closer in their approaches. At the same time, the United Kingdom and the rest of Europe are increasingly concerned by the coordinated approach to international student recruitment and cross-border delivery of education in Australia.

## Internationalization and Competition in Australia

In January 1950, foreign ministers representing seven Commonwealth countries (Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan, and the United Kingdom), met to form the Colombo Plan. The plan was a cooperative venture for the economic and social advancement of the peoples of South and Southeast Asia, leading to international students coming to Australia as part of that country's bilateral aid program. Prior to this period, international students were regulated by Australia's then racially-based immigration policy, with country-by-country concessions to allow students to enter Australia (Back and Davis 1995, 123). It is estimated that prior to World War II there were no more than 500 international students enrolled in Australian universities.

In 1974, the Australian government abolished university fees, including those for international students, and established a quota of 10,000 international students at any given time. The so-called "White Australia policy" had also been abandoned. The quota was

replaced in 1979 in favor of unofficial country-by-country quotas and an Overseas Student Charge levy amounting to 10 percent of the real cost of an international student's education (Back and Davis 1995, 123). This percentage was increased over time, with the balance of the student's fee coming from the Australian aid budget.

By the mid 1980s, this first phase of Australian international education could be described as aid-based (sponsored students) with private international students paying up to a third of the notional real fee (subsidized students) and the remainder of the fee coming via the aid program. There was little emphasis by institutions on student mobility and developing international links. During this period, many aspiring academics and researchers undertook higher degree studies overseas, often in the United Kingdom, United States, or Canada.

In 1984, the Australian government received the report of the Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Program, which argued that education was an export industry within which universities could compete for students and funds. This fundamental change – accepted by the government, and signaling a second, commercially-based phase – caused anguish among academics, administrators, the community, and diplomats, with criticism coming to Australia mainly from Southeast Asia (Back and Davis 1995; Cuthbert, Smith, and Boey 2008).

A minimum fee was set by the Australian government for each discipline, and rules were established to ensure that international students were not cross subsidized by the taxpayer. Australia continued to provide significant numbers of scholarships within the Asian-Pacific Region through the bilateral aid program. International student numbers grew from 16,782 in 1986, to 34,401 in 1991, as universities established the infrastructure to recruit and support international students (Back and Davis 1995, 127). In some cases, the entire international dimension of the university was owned and controlled by the university.

International offices were created with a range of commercial and non-commercial activities, but the focus was firmly on the recruitment of fee-paying international students, and for providing services to those students. This infrastructure gradually became the basis for a wider interpretation of international education. Tony Adams (1998) notes that by 1991-1992, Australian universities "had begun to seriously internationalise other aspects of university life" (5). The need to internationalize the experience of students and staff, to internationalize the curriculum, and to support international students together began to be seen as increasingly important, for reasons similar to those in Europe.

There was no "roadmap" to guide international staff on how to recruit international students; administrators and academics learned the skills as they went. An entrepreneurial spirit prevailed, with the appointment of agents, the establishment of academic pathways and English-language preparation programs, the creation of tertiary-level diplomas and transnational programs, and the addressing of pastoral and academic needs of incoming students. Dennis Blight, former CEO of the International Development Program (IDP) of Australian Universities noted that Australian Universities are vigorously competitive. Australia's colour and splash in the market place has been important to success but not the keys to its competitiveness. The key factors are business like attitudes, and a willingness to invest in market and product development (Blight 1998, cited in Adams 2004).

This all contributed to a vibrant export scenario in universities and "technical and further education" (TAFE) colleges, as well as the rapidly growing private sector, but mistakes were made, and the Australian government began to see risks to Australia's repu-

tation. Following the collapse of a number of private colleges, and concerns over the practices of unscrupulous and naive operators, the Australian government introduced the *Educational Services for Overseas Students (ESOS) Act* to regulate the activities of both private and public educational providers.

The Act, now in its third iteration, is a powerful piece of consumer protection legislation that deals with the marketing, recruiting, teaching, and supporting of international students. Australian Education International (AEI), a branch of the Australian Ministry of Education, administers the Act and provides generic marketing and government-to-government services through a series of offices globally. AEI also provides a comprehensive range of recruitment statistics, both in the public domain and for subscribing educational providers (see www.aei.gov.au), and has carried out major branding studies around Australia's value proposition. These studies have consistently identified lifestyle, safety, proximity to Asia, and "value-for-money" as key elements of Australia's "brand."

The development of an Australian government interest and policy framework that existed in no other country was the beginning of a public-private partnership between national and state governments, public and private educational institutions, professional and industry associations, and commercial stakeholders (such as agents and health-care providers). This both facilitates the activity and protects educational standards and student consumers, and has been a major contributor to Australia's success.

The Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) developed and published country-by-country student visa requirements through a five level assessment framework (DIAC 2008). DIAC also administers the Skilled Migration Program. A controversial "outcome" of the International Student Program is that international students contribute to Australia's skilled migration needs.

Transnational programs grew in parallel with international student recruitment to Australia. These were generally established by entrepreneurial individuals and departments, without capital injection from the home university, and without external funding. They consisted of an Australian university and a host partner (often a professional association or private college with access to physical facilities) twinned together to operate all or part of a degree program in the host country (Adams 1998).

During the 1990s, universities moved to strategize these programs and to introduce strict approval processes, as well as significant quality assurance mechanisms. The Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA), which carries out five-year audits of university academic operations, has--because of consistent criticisms of the quality of transnational programs--focused a significant portion of its activities on them. Since AUQA findings are in the public domain, these quality audits have materially impacted program quality and the surrounding academic and administrative processes.

IDP is the major single source of students to Australian institutions via its agency activities. It commenced in 1969 as a government-funded organization to strengthen teaching and research in Southeast Asia and later the Pacific. IDP was gradually transformed into a "not-for-profit" company wholly owned by Australia's universities with three major business arms: (a) recruitment of international students, (b) English language testing through its shareholding in IELTS, and (c) management of international aid projects. By 2006, IDP had further transformed itself into a "for-profit" company with 50 percent equity held by commercial interests and 50 percent by universities. IDP has also undertaken major industry research particularly in terms of global student circulation over a 12-year period.

Recruitment agents, not only IDP, have been important to the growth of the interna-

tional student program in Australia, accounting for nearly 60 percent of beginning students in the university sector and higher levels in some other sectors. The two major destination cities, Sydney and Melbourne (and, to a lesser extent, other state capitals), have became international student hubs for local agents with branches in Asia, private English and diploma pathway colleges, and city-based private campuses of universities, some not otherwise present in the city or state. Australian Education International (AEI) research (2008a, 5) has shown that 35.5 percent of beginning international students come through study-pathway programs, a major difference between Australia and other export-based countries.

By the mid-1990s, most Australian universities had begun to formalize their international strategies and to bring them within the overall university strategic framework. As part of this activity, the non-commercial components of internationalization began to receive greater attention, in particular the development of cooperative linkages and networks, internationalization of the curriculum, and student mobility.

One early aspect of internationalization in universities and the activities of IDP was participation in aid development projects. The emergence of commercial project companies, partly through the operation of the Australia-United States Free Trade Agreement, means that this activity has all but disappeared.

The Australian Universities Directors Forum (AUIDF), an informal grouping of international directors, carries out annual benchmarking of university international activities, primarily of university international marketing and recruiting costs and performance (and, less frequently, student mobility). These benchmarks have become important ways in which university international offices can judge aspects of their performance against industry norms, and have contributed materially to the professionalism of the activity. In its 2007 mobility study (Olsen 2008), using a comparable methodology to studies such as Open Doors, the AUIDF calculated the number of international study experiences (10,718) as a percentage of the graduating cohort of the 37 participating universities. It showed that 5.4 percent of completing undergraduate students had an international experience, and that there were several universities above 10 percent (with one at 18 percent). The study also reported that 60 percent of outgoing experiences had university financial support, 4 percent by the government-based University Mobility in the Asia Pacific (UMAP) scheme and 13 percent by OS-HELP (a government-based loan scheme). The amount of scholarship support provided by universities was approximately US$8 million. Although not comparable to the massive support provided by EU initiatives such as ERASMUS, it shows a clear commitment by universities.

By November 2008, there were some 538,000 international students enrolled in Australian institutions (AEI 2008b). These included 183,000 in universities, 173,000 in private and public vocational education programs, 122,000 in English language programs, and 31,000 in schools. This amounted to export income of some A$ 14 billion (US$ 10 billion) making education the third export industry in Australia, and accounting for some 6.5 percent of total student circulation globally (OECD 2007). In addition, there were over 60,000 students enrolled in Australian universities in offshore locations, 42 percent in China and India. Within higher education, international students comprise 19 percent of enrollments, the highest portion of any OECD country (Sushi 2008).

The program has not been without its critics, largely around English language issues, the skilled migration program, concerns about the lack of social inclusion of students, sustainability, and teaching and learning issues (Birrell 2006; Marginson 2008; Ross 2009).

In addition, a number of universities have decided to move to zero growth of international students, given concerns about the ability to absorb more than 20-25 percent of the university's load from international students.

It has been suggested that international education in Australia has progressed through three phases (Sushi 2008). The first phase (aid funding) progressed from the 1950s to the mid 1980s; the second (high growth) progressed from 1987 to the early years of the new millennium through recruitment of fee-paying students; and the third phase, a more balanced and sustainable approach, has now commenced. This is both a reflection on, and a response to, issues that are also influencing Europe.

Universities have developed significant programs in student and staff mobility, institutional collaboration, and research. International education in Australian universities has become multi-dimensional and has been increasingly encouraged and supported by government attitudes and policies. An appropriate definition of this third phase might be as follows: international education in Australia is centered on trade in educational services, both onshore in Australia and transnationally, with rigorous government intervention in terms of consumer protection and quality assurance.

## Conclusion

The most striking trend over the past 40 years is the increase in the number of globally circulating students, from approximately 250,000 in 1965 to 2,500,000 in 2005. UNESCO (2006, 34) observes a first wave in the period 1975-1985 with an increase of 30 percent (from 800,000 to 1,000,000), a second wave between 1989 and 1994 (with an increase of 34 percent), and a third wave between 1999 and 2004 (with an increase of 4 percent). The most striking recent development is that the traditional destination countries for international students, The United States, United Kingdom, Germany, France, and Australia face increasing competition from countries like China, Singapore, and Malaysia. Countries that send large numbers of students abroad increasingly also become recipients of international students.

Global competition for highly skilled manpower is becoming a strong pull factor in international student circulation. The graying societies of Europe are competing with North America, Australia, and Japan for top talent around the world, all of which need to fill the gaps in their knowledge economies. At the same time, they have to compete with the emerging economies in Asia, Latin America, and Africa, who perhaps need such talents even more.

The cross-border delivery of higher education, with programs, projects and providers moving across borders instead of students, is an important growth market for Australia and the United Kingdom, while continental Europe lags behind. The number of students in offshore activities for both the United Kingdom and Australia are increasing more rapidly than onshore.

Within this context, the internationalization of education in Europe and Australia has, by different paths, time scales, and degrees, moved to a closer set of priorities and actions than formerly. In Europe, trade in educational services is becoming important within its culture of cooperation and mobility (although much more strongly in the United Kingdom than in continental Europe). In Australia, there is a growing balance between trade-dominated activity and cooperation and mobility.

Issues that have historically been part of Australian international education, such as the appointment of agents and developing country marketing plans, are now becoming

increasingly important in Europe, while cooperative activities that have been dominant in Europe, for example, the mobility of domestic students to better prepare them for life in a globalized society, have become important in Australia. Our comparison of Australia and Europe illustrates the diverse way higher education responds to the increasingly more international competitive environment. The higher education subsector in Australia and the United Kingdom had by the mid-1980s shifted from aid to trade in their international orientation. In continental Europe this shift has been less radical, taken more time, and occurred via a shift from aid to cooperation and exchange first, before moving toward competition.

* Tony Adams and Hans de Wit. (2010). Global Competition in Higher Education, a Comparative Study of Policies, Rationales and Practices in Australia and Europe. Pp. 219-234. In Laura M. Portnoi, Val D. Rust, and Sylvia S. Bagley (Eds.), *Higher Education, Policy, and the Global Competition Phenomenon*. Palgrave Macmillan, USA.

# Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe and its Assessment

## Towards a European Certificate*

*Hans de Wit*

## Introduction

What is meant by the internationalisation of higher education? Over the years, many definitions and practises have been in use (see for instance De Wit, 2002, 109-116; Knight, 2008, 19-22), most of them being either curriculum or mobility related. The most commonly used definition is by Jane Knight: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education." Knight states that internationalisation (Knight, 2008) revolves around two basic components: *internationalisation at home* (rather curriculum-oriented) and *internationalisation abroad.* These components do not exclude one another, but are intertwined in policies and programmes.

Over the past 25 years, the internationalisation of higher education in Europe has become more central on the agenda. Increasing competition in higher education and the commercialisation and cross-border delivery of higher education, have challenged the value traditionally attached to cooperation: exchanges and partnerships. At the same time, the internationalisation of the curriculum and the teaching and learning process (also referred to as 'internationalisation at home') has become as relevant as the traditional focus on mobility. *Internationalisation has become an indicator for quality* in higher education. And there is more debate about the *quality of internationalisation itself*.

The changing landscape of internationalisation is not developing in similar ways in higher education throughout Europe and the world as a whole. There are different accents and approaches. Internationalisation strategies are filtered and contextualised by the specific internal context of the university, by the type of university, and how they are embedded nationally. Internationalisation strategies are shaped at the programme level by the different relationship these programmes have to the market and society. An internationalisation strategy can be substantially different for a teacher training programme than for a school of dentistry or a business school. And as a result of the Bologna Process more and more internationalisation strategies may be different by level: PhD, master and bachelor.

## Calling for assessment

The growing importance of internationalisation in higher education on the one hand and the diversity in rationales, approaches and strategies of institutions and programmes on the other hand, call for an *assessment* of the quality of internationalisation at the programme and the institutional level and a system of *certifications* as to define the progress and status of the internationalisation at the programme and institutional level. The rationale for a system of certificates for internationalisation was described by a Flemish Working Group as being too much about the 'why' and too little about the 'how' and the quality indicators

to be used. According to them important questions about visibility, transparency, focus and demonstrated quality still are not answered, and that is why they look for instruments to do so. (Joris, 2009 )

Deardorff, Pysarchik and Yun (2009) state: "with globalisation driving the demand for global-ready graduates, it becomes crucial for administrators to assess these outcomes of *internationalisation to determine exactly what our students are learning through these efforts and how effective our programmes are in achieving the stated learning outcomes."*

This contribution gives an overview of the debate on quality and benchmarking of internationalisation of higher education, against the background of the initiative taken in 2010 by the Dutch-Flemish Accreditation Organisation (NVAO) to introduce a pilot scheme among 20 Dutch and Flemish degree programmes to assess their level of inter-nationalisation. This pilot is seen as the foundation for the development of a *European* label 'distinguished feature internationalisation' on the initiative of the 'European Consortium for Accreditation' (ECA).

## Assessment of internationalisation strategies

In 1999, the OECD published a book edited by Jane Knight and Hans de Wit with the title *Quality and Internationalisation in Higher Education*, where an instrument and guidelines were provided for assessing internationalisation strategies based on a number of pilot reviews in institutions in different parts of the world. Two issues were considered at that time relevant: the question of the added value that internationalisation contributes to higher education, and the quality of the internationalisation strategies itself. (see also Knight, 2008, 40).

The Occasional Paper edited by De Wit ten years later focus on the theme *Measuring the success of what we do (EAIE, 2009)*. Its introduction states that measuring success is becoming an increasingly urgent item on the agenda as professionals in internationalisation. The international ranking of higher education institutions is a widely debated example of how measurement has started to influence our profession in a way that differs from the past. The call for accountability by students, faculty, deans, the management of higher education institutions and national governments, as well as the call for quality assurance, is an important issue on the agenda of higher education, in general, and this includes the internationalisation process, programmes and projects. Accreditation, ranking, certification, auditing, and benchmarking have become key items on the international higher education agenda.

Several initiatives to develop tools and instruments for measuring internationalisation have been taken in different countries over the past years, following the 'Internationalisation Quality Review Process' of 1999. Regretfully, they all measure input and/or output and not outcomes. According to Hudzik and Stohl (2009), outcomes are "usually most closely associated with measuring goal achievement and the missions of institutions (…) and are the really important measures." Deardorff, Pysarchik and Yun (2009) find that the assessment of outcomes is possible and that workable frameworks are available. Instruments dealing with Intercultural Competences are more oriented to outcomes and several tools exist, primarily in the USA.

Quality assurance in general terms refers to the policies, attitudes, actions, and procedures necessary to ensure that quality is being maintained and enhanced. (Woodhouse, 1999). Woodhouse identifies four different approaches: general accreditation, specialised or profession accreditation, audit or review, and quality assessment. Most of the instru-

ments fall in the category of audits and reviews and focus on 'How good are you at achieving your stated objectives'. Most combine self-assessment with external peer review and some have an award incentive attached to it.

Benchmarking is another instrument that is used in assessing the quality of internationalisation. Comparison and identification of best practices are two additional elements that form key aspects of benchmarking exercises, and the exercise itself is also focused on improvement. Also for benchmarking one needs a list of measures or indicators.

As principle guidelines, the 'Internationalisation Quality Review Process' has learned that the following are crucial:

- Focused on two aspects: progress (measured by quantitative and qualitative measures) and quality (measured by opinion of those who do the assessment)
- Measured according to the objectives and targets set by the institution
- Focused on both organisational and programme strategies
- More oriented to evaluating the process than the outcomes or impact
- Pointed to where improvement is desirable and necessary
- Accepting that there is no ideal or optimal measurement profile
- Focused on how the different elements work together in an integrated and strategic manner
- Need to take place on a regular basis and over a period of time as to reinforce the process. (Knight, ibid, 44-45)

One can add to that list also that the quality review of internationalisation requires a commitment and involvement at all levels: leadership, faculty, students and administrative staff.

Brandenburg et all (2009) make in the context of assessment an interesting distinction between internationalisation (a process with a focus on improvement) and internationality (a description of the present state of internationalisation).

Last but not least, the diversity of the context is most relevant. As mentioned before, there are different types of institutions; different disciplines within one institution; different levels of education; and different institutional, local, national and regional cultures and environments. Instruments for assessment have to recognise this differences and to be able to contextualise the internationalisation process. The key questions of assessment of internationalisation are: why are you doing it, how do you do it, and what do you want to reach with it. These questions have to be placed in their specific context.

As said in the introduction, diversity (in terms of  types of institution, discipline, programme, level and approach) has to be taken into account when developing a list of measures or indicators. As Joris ( 2008) states, on the one hand the material must be sufficiently relevant to design an instrument that can be used for all kind of different purposes, on the other hand it has to serve as a self-assessment instrument to make results visible and measurable, and to serve as benchmarks and allow benchmarking. He observes the importance of context and the need to compare only what is truly comparable. The value of an indicator and its relevance must be defined by the context in which it is used. Hence, most instruments, following the example of the 'Internationalisation Quality Review Process', use the term 'Guidelines' or 'Outline', from where the institution or the programme can select those measures which are relevant in their context. What they also have in common is that they are more directed to the assessment of institutional strategies than to programmes. This is also the case with the recent publication 'Internationalisation and Qual-

ity Assurance', edited by Adinda van Gaalen which addresses as central question "how can we assure the quality of internationalisation of an institution." (2010, iv) As rationale they all have primarily what is cited above for the IMPI project: *"The project aims at providing HEIs with insight into their performance and means for improvement."*

## Towards a European Certificate for internationalisation?

From the present overview, some issues come clearly to the forefront:
- There appears a need for quality assessment of internationalisation strategies in higher education
- Around the world, in particular in the USA and Europe, several instruments have been developed over the past 15 years to assess that quality
- They use more or less the same programmatic and organizational categories for assessment
- They are focusing on input and output assessment
- They are mainly taking place at the institutional level
- They address the state of the art and/or the process for improvement
- With preference some form of benchmarking as to create comparison and best practice is appreciated .

At the same time, one can observe that:
- Institutions are reluctant to ongoing assessment of internationalisation strategies, as this is a time consuming process
- In the present world of branding and ranking, an instrument without some kind of certification is not considered a high priority
- Assessment of institutional strategies denies the diversity of strategies for disciplines and programmes and the different levels within them
- Increasingly, institutions and programmes distinguish between a minimum requirement of internationalisation, applicable to all students and all programmes, and a maximum requirement, applicable to programmes and students with a high international and intercultural focus
- Internationalisation is becoming more mainstream in het higher education agenda, as in the present global knowledge economy internationalisation is strongly linked to innovation, interdisciplinarity and interculturality, and
- Increasingly a link has to be made to learning outcomes for students.

Based on these observations, it appears advisable to develop a system of *certification of internationalisation at the programme level*. This certification should be able to distinguish the quality of a programme's  internationalisation. The following characteristics should be taken into consideration:
- The use of different assessment levels in order to indicate the state of internationalisation (what has been achieved so far) and to provide incentives for improvement (where is it heading to or what is attainable)
- The certification is available at least at the level of the programme or a combination of programmes (bachelor and/or master; schools/faculties)
- The assessment procedure is not focused on a specific activity but is comprehensive towards internationalisation (the why, how and what of internationalisation)
- It should focus on how internationalisation contributes to the overall quality

by focusing on qualitative indicators (vision, content, provisional elements and outcomes) while using quantitative indicators (e.g. staff mobility figures) as supporting elements

- It should be with preference a regional (European) or international certificate, as the purpose is to position it in a comparative international context
- The assessment should be done by a team which combines expertise on the subject, on quality assurance and on internationalisation, and should include international expertise and the student perspective
- Given the global knowledge economy and the diverse society we live in, both intercultural and international competencies should be addressed
- As much as possible, the assessment should be combined with accreditation of the programme, as to avoid extra workload and costs.

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* Hans de Wit. 2011. *Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe and its assessment, towards a European Certificate.* Q&A 3, NVAO, Forthcoming. An extended version has been published as Hans de Wit, 2010. Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe and its assessment, trends and issues. NVAO, The Hague.

# The Increasing Relevance of Institutional Networks*

*David Stockley and Hans de Wit*

*A*ssociations, consortia and networks are quite common in the academic world. In recent years, academic organisations have become increasingly international in nature as a result of the globalisation of our economies and societies. The emergence of new international academic organisations is directly related to the growing importance of the internationalisation of higher education and the impact of globalisation on higher education. International inter-organisational arrangements result from changes in the production of knowledge and in changes in the regional and global environment in which higher education institutions and the production of knowledge take place. The growth of associations, consortia and networks in higher education in the second half of the twentieth century and in particular in the last decade, is a reflection of the globalisation of society and the response of higher education to this process. Ulrich Teichler (1996: 89) states: "We find increasing common elements between international networks of higher education institutions on the one hand and decreasing elements of national systems." Eric Beerkens (2001) mentions as inter-organisational drivers: changes in the production of knowledge, changes in resource dependencies, and ongoing expansion in opportunities for information exchange and communication. As international drivers for crossing national boundaries he mentions demands for international linkages from traditional groups within the university, the increase in opportunities for transnational education, and the call for a more utilitarian perspective of universities. As Hans van Ginkel (1996) observes, networking has been one of the key words in higher education for the last fifteen years, and increasingly networks are of an international rather than a national character.

Common themes running through the global changes in higher education are those of global competition and cooperation. It is becoming increasingly difficult for individual universities to compete:

> 'Institutions are recognizing the need to partner with one another, at home and abroad, and with corporations, non-governmental organizations, and community groups to better serve students, enhance research, and meet public needs. Such alliances help institutions undertake new activities or extend their current ones by combining resources. Cooperation can help institutions compete, enabling them to accomplish with others what they could not do alone.' (Kinser & Green, 2009)

Similarly, the 2009 report *UK Universities and Europe: Competition and Internationalisation* recommends *inter alia* that UK universities should adopt and implement collaborative partnership models for internationalisation and that universities should establish small consortia to develop and implement internationalisation strategies.

There are external pressures to form networks: governments encourage universities to cooperate locally and internationally on the grounds of greater efficiency (synergies) and the benefits to be gained from institutions of different types coming together. For example, universities and technical colleges form networks to facilitate academic pathways for students; libraries share resources nationally and internationally (saving money, allowing specific libraries to specialise) and researchers share expensive technical facili-

ties via national and international networks. Cooperation and competition by strategic partnership is for that reason stimulated by regional and national governments. A small and concrete example is the European Union/Australia Cooperation in Higher Education and VET Project which began in 2003 with the aim of promoting understanding between the peoples of Europe and Australia and of improving the quality of their human resource development. The core requirement of this Cooperation is that there must be a consortium of European and Australian higher education institutions working together. But here we focus on networks and partnerships at an institutional level.

Major bilateral and multi-lateral funding agencies such as the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank frequently demand international consortium bids for projects. Such consortia can be formed on a case-by-case basis; however there are significant advantages in having an existing network of expertise and experience and in being able to submit project bids at short notice and with a relationship of trust and communication already established.

Though the extent of networking and the motivations may be different, cooperation between universities has always existed in some form. Traditionally, institutions of higher education establish their international linkages with a partner institution abroad via bilateral agreements, memoranda of understanding and letters of intent. These agreements have the character of arrangements for educational co-operation (student and/or faculty exchanges, joint degree programmes, curriculum development), research co-operation, international development projects, etc. Sometimes these agreements are quite concrete; sometimes they are more an expression of intent. They are made either at the level of departments, centres or schools, or at the institutional level. The recent rise of multilateral associations, consortia and networks in higher education reflects the multilateral character of the process. What is new, is globalisation and the intensity of competition for the best staff, students and resources plus the technology to aid global cooperation.

This does not exclude the role of partnerships from the perspective of social responsibility. The final document of the UNESCO World Conference in Paris, 2009, pays a lot of attention to this role of partnerships:

> 'Institutions of higher education worldwide have a social responsibility to help bridge the development gap by increasing the transfer of knowledge across borders, especially towards developing countries, and working to find common solutions to foster brain circulation and alleviate the negative impact of brain drain. [...] International university networks and partnerships are a part of this solution and help to enhance mutual understanding and a culture of peace. [...] Partnerships for research and staff and student exchanges promote international cooperation. The encouragement of more broadly based and balanced academic mobility should be integrated into mechanisms that guarantee genuine multilateral and multicultural collaboration. [...] Partnerships should nurture the creation of national knowledge capabilities in all involved countries, thus ensuring more diversified sources of high quality research peers and knowledge production, on regional and global scales.'

## Different types of networks

There are different types of networks and partnerships. Guy Neave (1992) distinguishes between pro-active and reactive consortia. The fundamental purposes of the first type are to limit competition between the partners by co-ordination, and to seek greater external resources by 'cornering' a portion of the market. The driving factor of the second type is more efficient co-ordination in order to be able to take advantage of proposals for linkages

coming from outside. Neave links the first type to market oriented countries such as the UK, USA and France, which seek the import of foreign students, and the second type with, for instance, the ERASMUS programme. Suggesting that consortia are "a further stage in the intensification of international linkages between institutions of higher education", he describes them as the fifth point of a continuum: mono-disciplinary bilateral linkages, exchange partnerships, network partnerships, multidisciplinary networks, and consortia. Although Neave is correct to identify pro-activity and reactivity as factors of relevance for consortia, they are not an adequate basis for a typology. His five–stage typology of inter-institutional co-operation is a simple analysis of international co-operation and exchange in education, but does not clarify the notion of consortia.

Without meaning to make a judgement on the use of terms by various international academic organisations, it might be useful to distinguish between three types of international, multilateral organisations in higher education: academic associations, academic consortia and institutional networks. Van Ginkel (1996) arrives at a similar typology for Europe: associations, institutional networks, inter-university co-operation projects/ joint European projects, and university–enterprise training partnerships (the last two are included in academic consortia in the typology here).

## A. *Academic Associations*

An academic association is an organisation of academics or administrators and/or their organisational units (departments, centres, schools, institutions), united for a common purpose, which is related to their professional development (information exchange, training, advocacy, and so on). This type of organisation is quite common and has a long history in higher education, even at the international level. This is particularly true for those associations that are based on individual membership, and are single purpose, academic and discipline based, and faculty driven.

Institutional, multipurpose, management–based and leadership–driven associations and the individual, administrative associations are a more recent phenomenon. Examples of institutional associations are the International Association of Universities (IAU) and the Programme on Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE). Examples of the individual, administrative type of organisations are the International Association of University Presidents (IAUP) and the European Association for International Education (EAIE). An example of an individual-based association that became institution-based is the Association of European Universities (CRE), originally the Association of European Rectors.

## B. *Academic Consortia*

An academic consortium is a group of academic units (departments, centres, schools, institutions) which is united for the single purpose of fulfilling a contract, based on bringing together a number of different areas of specialised knowledge. In principle, its lifespan is limited by the terms of the contract. Such groups can be either faculty or leadership driven, but with a strong faculty commitment in the case of consortia with an academic purpose. Examples of academic consortia are the Joint Study Programmes in the ERASMUS scheme (in the area of teaching); consortia in the Framework programmes for Research and Development of the European Commission (research); and consortia tendering for Technical Assistance projects (service).

The multilateral Joint Study Programmes in the ERASMUS scheme were discipline–based, faculty–driven agreements, focused on student and staff exchange and cur-

riculum development. Their success was mainly the result of the existence of external funding from the European Commission and their strength was more in student exchange than in the other two areas. As soon as these programmes were forced to integrate with the leadership–driven institutional agreements in the new SOCRATES programme and the money coming from the European Commission was reduced, many of them came to an end. This was also true for research– and service–oriented consortia which were project based and externally funded.

Academic consortia can develop into institutional networks when the success of their joint contract becomes the basis for more structural and multipurpose co-operation between the partners. An example is the Utrecht Network, a network of institutions which originated in a consortium for a Joint Study Programme of the ERASMUS programme. International academic consortia are a rather common phenomenon in higher education, in particular in research. They appear to come and go according to the needs of the different partner institutions to make use of their partners' complementary skills, experiences and facilities. As the example of the Joint Study Programmes demonstrates, external funding is a crucial factor for their success. Academic consortia are and will continue to be the most common form of international organisation in higher education, and increasingly as part of academic associations or institutional networks.

## C.   Institutional Networks

An institutional network is a group of academic units (departments, centres, schools, institutions) which is united for, in general, multiple – academic and/or administrative – purposes, is leadership driven and has an indefinite lifespan. While academic consortia are usually 'single mission', institutional networks tend to have a 'general framework objective', as noted by Neave (1992: 65).

Although they are less focused on objectives and goals than associations or consortia, owning to their multipurpose character, it is this type of organisation that seems to be emerging most recently. There is a trend towards leadership–driven multilateral institutional networks, mostly within the European Union but also elsewhere and recently also examples of an international nature emerge.

The European networks resulted mainly from the success of the Joint Study Programmes. The Coimbra Group, an institutional network of the two oldest universities in each of the countries of the European Union, was the first of these networks. Later there followed the Network of Universities in the Capitals of Europe (UNICA), the Santander Group, the Utrecht Network, the Santiago de Compostela Group, the European Consortium of Innovative Universities, the European Consortium of Universities of Technology, and others. They differ from the discipline–based networks in the sense that they are leadership driven (top–down) and multipurpose. Student exchanges, staff exchanges, administrator exchanges, joint tenders and joint research co-operation are the activities that these networks most commonly undertake. Although these networks are strongly driven by European Union funding, they have extended their membership to the rest of Europe as well. Others have a more interregional scope. Examples are the ALMA Scheme, uniting the Universities of Aachen (Germany), Liege (Wallonia, Belgium), Diepenbeek (Flanders, Belgium) and Maastricht (The Netherlands); and the European Confederation of the Universities of the Upper Rhine (EUCOR). Some of these networks do not limit themselves to the academic community but are networks including Chambers of Commerce, industry or local government.

One can find institutional networks also in other regions of the world, such as the Association of East Asian Research Universities (AEARU); the Asociación de Universidades Grupo Montevideo (AUGM), a group of twelve universities in Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay; the Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano (CSUCA), a consortium of Central American universities; and the College of the Americas, an inter-American network of institutions co-operating in interdisciplinary teaching, research and continuing education.

In the USA, institutional networks or consortia are mostly regionally based American consortia, even though they are oriented to international co-operation. Examples are the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities Inc. (MUCIA) of ten universities in the mid-west; the Consortium for International Development (CID) of twelve western public universities; the Illinois Consortium for International Education (ICEI); and the Texas Consortium. The first two focus on tenders for development assistance contracts; the others are examples of networks for study abroad and international curriculum development. Some of these consortia seek partners abroad, such as ICEI and the Utrecht Network in Europe.

In Australia, examples are the Group of Eight (Go8) and Innovative Research Universities Australia (IRUA).

Some networks have a cross-regional character, such as the University of the Arctic, in which universities from Northern Europe and Canada work together.

Recently, new international networks have been emerging, some based on existing regional networks – such as the combination of ICEI and the Utrecht Network – others as new initiatives. Examples of the later are Universitas 21, an initiative of the University of Melbourne, the International Alliance of Research Universities (IARU), the International Network of Universities (INU) and the Academic Consortium for the 21st Century (AC21). The UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme could also be called a global network programme, but it is a UNESCO – initiated project of programmes directed at discipline – oriented co-operation. The same can be said of the United Nations University in the area of research.

Universitas 21, established in March 1997, is an international association of comprehensive research-intensive universities. The first director of the Universitas 21 Secretariat, Chris Robinson (1998: 96), described it as "an active, effective association, small enough to permit high levels of commitment, familiarity, collaboration and interoperability between the member institutions, yet large enough to capture the benefits of international diversity. The underlying concept is of a small, tightly knit association of kindred institutions with immense potential to secure and improve international opportunities and positioning for its members." In addition to the activities that are common in other networks, Universitas 21 strives for benchmarking and development of new teaching and learning technologies, modalities and delivery systems. Universitas 21 is an example of an institutional network which crosses national and regional borders to better prepare its members for the competitive global market. Transnational/borderless education creates new incentives for global institutional networks or bilateral and multilateral alliances. Universitas 21 has a commercial arm associated with online programme delivery, namely U21 Global; U21 Global is operated through Universitas 21 and Manipal Education which is a private (for profit) education provider in India: and ebook publishing with Melbourne University Publishing and originally (and controversially) with Thomson Publishing,

The networks vary in size, perceived prestige of membership, geographic spread and date of establishment, yet the type and range of activities is remarkably similar. Santander has 34 members across 15 European countries; IARU has ten (highly prestigious) members across eight countries; INU 11 in nine countries; ECIU ten in ten European countries plus three non-European associate members; AC21 has 19 members in nine countries with a strong Asian membership, especially from China, and Universitas 21 has 21 (prestigious) members across 14 countries. All have been founded within the last 20 years and most within the last decade, a clear indication of how international higher education networks have become more common and more necessary in recent times. AC21 has partners in industry as part of the network's mission to develop cultural and technological exchange via partnerships with local regions and industry. The Go8 and IRUA in Australia were founded as political lobby groups to further the interests of similar and like-minded universities.

The range of missions and staff and student activities are very similar: to enhance global understanding, often via teaching and research on global themes/problems (the environment, health and ageing,  global citizenship, etc.); to collaborate in research; to undertake benchmarking of various activities (research, internationalisation, libraries etc.); student seminars on global themes (for example, INU has annual seminars on "global citizenship" at Hiroshima University coinciding with the commemoration of the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima); joint academic programmes (such as joint Masters programmes where students at member universities spend one or two semesters studying for credit at partner network universities); senior staff meetings to discuss themes of common interest (for example: quality assurance, innovation and strategic planning, research management, teaching and pedagogic improvement and education policy development, including acting as a pressure group with national governments). Other activities include: student internships, summer schools, seeking donor funds to support network activities, joint bidding for international and national projects, and generally working to strengthen the position of the individual members of each network.

In sum, these networks are dominated by universities selected for their similarity in type, ranking and strategic mission and complemented in a few cases by membership of commercial or industry partners. Research excellence is a stated criterion for membership in a significant number of the examples.

## Success and failure factors

Networks and partnerships generally cover a range of activities, most commonly one or more of the following:
- student exchange
- academic and administrative staff exchange
- research cooperation
- researcher exchange
- benchmarking
- delivery of transnational education
- joint bids for international projects
- joint curriculum development
- joint or double academic programmes
- shadowing programmes
- short course programmes

- developmental projects in a third country
- relationships with the private sector

If institutions in the past had many bilateral arrangements and were involved in trial and error network efforts, recently one can observe a trend to rationalisation of partnerships and a focus on a small number of strategic partners and networks. These tend to focus on joint branding, recruitment, joint degrees, twinning arrangements, and benchmarking: cooperation to be able better to compete.

Although institutional networks in higher education appear to have become rather popular, not many success stories can be told as yet. What are the factors that are relevant to the success or failure of such networks?

Beerkens (2001) mentions size, scope, nature of integration and intensity as critical dimensions of international inter-organisational arrangements. Van Ginkel (1996: 100) states, "Unclear choices and reluctant commitment to networking will result in the loss of identity." He notes the following characteristics of successful strategic alliances, based on his experience with strategic alliances of the University of Utrecht with private multinationals in research co-operation: congruence of missions, the will to invest through budget allocation and extra resources, appointment of liaison officers to bridge the differences in culture between the partners, strong agreement on methodology and quality standards; agreement on intellectual property rights, and taking time getting to know each other.

Working within networks is indeed not easy. The African Studies Centre at Michigan State University in 2009 published a checklist, *Best practices for international partnerships with higher education institutions in Africa*, and this provides a useful starting point for what is needed for a successful partnership – and network. The checklist states as necessities:
- clarity of goals
- consortium linkages
- understanding each other
- providing internal funding (not relying solely on external funding)
- building for the long term (5 – 10 years)
- broad support and ownership within the partner institutions
- joint decision making
- written agreements
- transparency of funding

Kinser and Green (2009: 16) list the following "success factors for partnerships" (noting that they are talking of "partnerships" and we of "networks", but there is much in common):
- arrangement is driven by "studied self-interest" or mutual benefit
- there is faculty buy-in (use of incentives)
- adequate and long term resources are provided
- arrangement is based on a sense of urgency and opportunity
- partners are not economic competitors
- partners are not geographic competitors
- partners have complementary strengths
- partners are at comparable levels of perceived quality
- partnership enables activities that cannot be undertaken alone

- leaders cultivate strong relationships with each other
- purpose is clear and limited
- goals are simple and achievable
- internal and external community understand the partnership and why it is being sought
- there is agreement regarding communications (that is, an internal and external communication strategy is essential)
- the partnership is reviewed periodically in a structured way

Roger Prichard (1996: 5) also provides an overview of factors for successful networking, relevant for institutional networks:

1. "Long–term relationships have to be built." This implies that a lot of time and energy has to be invested in making the network objectives and goals known and accepted within and among the member institutions. This also implies that time is needed to establish and build good person–to–person relationships, at both the level of the leadership of the institutions and at the level of the academics involved in the projects.
2. "It is important to pick winners." Many projects are created on an *ad hoc* basis, by brainstorming at leadership assemblies and are based on superficial assumptions instead of well–thought–out plans. Picking winners can be stimulated by awards and by well–funded plans.
3. "Cultivate sufficient resources to enable the programme of work, and any obvious spin-off programmes to succeed." Successful projects need investment, both in time and money, of those involved. This is often ignored in the design of projects. Clear plans and awards can help to overcome this threat.
4. "Network projects need to have limited and realisable goals, appropriate to the level of development of the institutions." This aspect is frequently ignored in networks, resulting in failure and frustration among the members. Formulation of clear goals for the short, mid and long term is essential for success.
5. "The projects must be built around people in the institutions with relevant experience and interest to make a medium to long term commitment." Given the fact that many projects are designed by the leadership of the institution and lack guaranteed commitment of the relevant persons in the institutions, they have a tendency to fail. Again, awards and plans are helpful instruments for making project commitment a success.
6. "In building networks, specific areas should be targeted, not the whole operation." Many institutional networks live by their institutional nature and not by the sum of objectives, goals, projects and targets.
7. "To get the network off the ground, it is important to have some project champions in key institutions who will keep the project moving forward." If there are no project champions, it will be difficult to convince others in the institution to commit themselves to projects of the network.
8. "Set up a network listserve to keep as many participants in frequent contact as possible." Communication is important, but only if one has something to tell.

Prichard also provides some warnings, 'don'ts', that are relevant to institutional networks:

a. "Don't develop a network without significant involvement of the people who will be key players in the network." Given the fact that the institutional networks are

leadership driven, this is a crucial factor in the success or failure of the network.
   b. "Don't take a short term perspective." Many networks look only at the possibilities and sources available in the short term and do not survive the fact that these opportunities will disappear.
   c. "Don't try to do too many things at once." Networks try to satisfy the interests of all their members and end up with a long list of things to accomplish, without having the guarantee that the organisation can handle all these suggestions.
   d. "Don't have too many players." Experience shows that networks tend to expand their membership too fast to be representative and to cover the political, regional and individual interests of their members. Too many players are a danger for any network. In addition, the selection of members is not always based on criteria related to the mission and objectives of the network.

One should add to these warnings the following (de Wit, 2004):
   e. Base the mission of the network on more than a geographical or historical identity. Such an identity does not provide a sufficient basis for successful partnership in a network.
   f. Emphasise the complementarity of the partners, not only the commonality. Institutional networks are based on commonality – oldest universities, research universities, regional focus – and tend to neglect complementarity, which is the basis of success for a network. Co-operation only makes sense when both similarities and differences in operational skills and areas of specialised knowledge are recognised and used.
   g. Recognise potential discrepancies between the partnership of the institution in a network and the partnership needs at the decentralised level. An institutional network cannot and does not need to cover the whole institution. Accept the fact that departments, centres and schools have their own networks, that these do not always overlap with the institutional network and that for that reason there is no interest in being involved in network activities.
   h. At the same time, the choice of institutional network should cover enough interest at the decentralised level to create commitment. A network that only exists in the heads of the institutional leaders will not have sufficient ground for survival.
   i. The cost of the network organisation should not become the main driver for maintaining the network and place the organisation into direct competition with its members. When network organisations become too big and require overhead costs from contracts, this is a real danger.
   j. Be aware of the differences in structure, funding and culture among the partners. If the network is not aware of this diversity, this will create misunderstanding of the objectives and goals of the network as a whole and of the projects planned within the network.
   k. Be aware of the potential tensions between the interest of the founder and/or centre institution of a network and those of the other members. There are cases of networks in which the founding/centre institution has bilateral relations with each of the members without real links between the other members. Teather (2000) calls this the 'hub-and-spokes model' or 'single node network'.
   l. Do not organise the network around external funding but around institutional funding, with external funding as an additional resource (see also Van Ginkel, 1996).

Networks by definition are more complex than bilateral partnerships because they involve more partners; nevertheless, they are based on the same principles, albeit expanded. Networks must entail a spirit of cooperation and have in mind a common goal which will benefit all members. Such benefit may be tangible outcomes, for example, more research funding, higher quality students or external donations, or less tangible outcomes such as prestige and branding. Whatever the goal, it must be shared and (to some degree) achievable. Moreover, the goal of the network must be congruent with the missions and ambitions of the individual members. This suggests that there must be across the membership both a common starting point and a common goal; that is, networks of universities of widely differing prestige, ranking and quality are unlikely to be successful as the goals will be different and there is no common starting point – unless the stated goal is for some universities to raise the standard of other members.

There must be a real value to creating a network and staff within individual members must be able to see that value, especially since it is often said that academics owe their first loyalty to their academic discipline, and next to their department, with the university *per se* a distant third. Personal experience by one author in a network confirmed the difficulty of securing staff awareness and ownership of network activities, and most difficult was establishing theme and problem based joint research agendas across the network which fitted with individual research interests. Once a definite purpose has been identified, there is the task of identifying appropriate partners (academic and commercial); of course, it is probable that the purpose and the partners are two processes running hand in hand from the outset.

Next comes identifying the true costs of network involvement, including the costs of not being involved ("lost opportunity costs") and the expected returns; that is, a cost–benefit analysis which covers both concrete and intangible (hidden) costs and benefits. Difficult but necessary is the identification of likely sources of conflict, particularly when dealing with diverse national and institutional cultures within a network. What is the real agenda of each member of the network? Are there different agendas *within* member institutions and different expectations of success? This concern is heightened if there are business partners involved in the network; commercial partners are likely to have shorter timelines for seeing returns and certainly may become impatient with the lengthy and cumbersome decision-making processes within universities. Universities are lateral structures where power may be largely symbolic rather than executive and where many individuals and departments may see no value in a central strategic direction. The personal experience of one of the authors in a commercially-oriented network of universities, a private language college, a technical college and a business partner is that the business partner was continually frustrated by the risk-averse nature of universities and by the lengthy and discursive nature of academic decision-making, while the universities were deeply cautious with respect to commercial considerations and to the business partner's desire to see short-term profit. A lack of trust was a major factor in the failure of this network. To reiterate – and it is a *cliché* – there must be institutional ownership of the network or it is doomed.

Networks require a central secretariat and communications function which can co-ordinate network tasks and this requires a resource commitment by the network members. Network activities – student seminars, executive meetings, newsletters, administrative aspects of academic cooperation – cannot be simply an "add on" to existing member activities: if this is the case, little or nothing will happen. The central secretariat will need to construct an annual work plan, based on the directions and decisions of the network executive, and will be responsible for monitoring the plan and providing the infrastructure

necessary for its completion. Providing resources (in cash or in kind) to a central administrative function, perhaps rotating across network members, is an essential part of individual institutional commitment to a network. If a member is not prepared to do this, then one can question their commitment to the network.

Several other issues will have to be dealt with in relation to the further development of networks and alliances in higher education, such as:

1. *Exclusiveness/elitism in partnerships*
   On the one hand the formation of networks leads to exclusiveness, in particular those who incline to stay small and look for alliances of the top institutions or disciplines. On the other hand, this can lead to elitism and exclusion of institutions and regions. This can lead in turn to the danger of a divided higher education space. This dilemma of, on the one hand, more competition and smaller alliances, and on the other the need of inclusion, is a concern that clearly needs attention but is not to be solved easily.

2. *The issue of diversity versus harmonisation*
   Related to the first issue, there appears to be broad consensus on the need to maintain a diverse space of higher education and that networking should reflect that diversity.

3. *The importance of the new technologies*
   The role of the new technologies and their use by universities is seen as most important, although it is not debated as much as the issue of languages. There appears to be a general agreement that there should be given more attention to the use of information technology in networking. However, there is also a strong feeling that virtual networking cannot replace real contact.

4. *The role of the university in the debate on ethical issues for our societ*y
   Concern is expressed that networks will focus more on the Sciences, Business and Engineering disciplines, and on issues such as competitiveness, branding and marketing, and less on the Humanities and Social Sciences and on social development concerns. Universities have to play a key role in the debate on ethical questions and citizenship concerns. The global space of higher education should also examine these issues, a fundamental part of the tradition of academic institutions. (See the UNESCO World Conference 2009 final document, cited above).

5. *The role of the different stakeholders in networks*
   Networking should not be exclusive as far as different stakeholders are concerned, both within the universities: leadership, faculty, students; and between the universities and the outside community: NGOs, the private sector, governments, the European Union. More attention should be given to the opportunities that networks of a broader diversity of stakeholders provide.

6. *Institutional versus academic/disciplinary networking*
   There is a rather broad consensus that the emphasis in networking should be on academic/disciplinary collaboration. Institutional networks can be useful in facilitating co-operation at the disciplinary level. However, the emphasis should be on academic collaboration, even in these networks.

7. *Branding of networks versus branding of institutions*
   The discussion regarding whether networks should be institutional or disciplin-

ary leads to the question of whether the emphasis should be on the network or on the institutions. There is broad consensus that the institutions should continue to be the key brands in the competitive market and that networks should be the added-value factor.

8. *Small versus big networks*
   There appears to be agreement that smaller networks are more effective than big networks, but at the same time it is recognised that this can lead to elitism and exclusiveness (see point 1).

9. *The added value of networks to the institution*
   Networks should not only be based on a feeling of partnership, of being connected, but there should be an emphasis on the added value, the complementarity, the network will bring to the institution (de Wit, 2000).

There is no uniformity of position on all of these issues - in itself a reflection of the diversity in our academic community. However, these issues could be guidelines for follow-up discussions and actions. Based on the experiences described above, one can say that institutional networks should at the minimum be conscious of the following elements:

- mission of the network
- description of the purposes, objectives and goals of the network
- geographical focus
- size of the network
- composition of the membership in relation to the mission and purposes
- relation between the founder and/or centre of the network and other members
- relation between leadership commitment and commitment within each of the institutions
- financial resources, including membership fees, external and internal project funding
- organisational structure
- mechanisms for evaluation of the network and its activities

## The future of networks and partnerships

Can these regional and international institutional networks become the key to the next stage of internationalisation, in which not only the mainstream activities and programmes of the universities but the whole of the institution becomes international? Can we expect that universities will finally follow the same path that banks, industry and even nation–states have followed over the past century: move into joint ventures, merge across borders, share their human resources and create common products? According to Magrath (2000: 255) the transnational linkages of universities will move from 'cottage industries' to 'multinational consortia' as a consequence of globalisation, and in particular the digital and information technologies. It seems a logical, unavoidable step, but all networks are a long way from such a concept of internationalisation, and still have a strong activity orientation. According to Robinson (1998: 92):

> 'globalisation means that major universities have to be systematically and essentially international in character and function. However, it is clear that no institution, however strong or prestigious it may be, can continue to be entirely successful operating on its own. […] Universities seeking to respond to these challenges can contemplate several different approaches to internationalisation. They can adopt strategies involving the international expan-

sion of a single institution through the establishment of off-shore campuses. Alternatively, an existing institutional 'brand' can be franchised to agencies in other countries. Or, there is an option that already has proven itself in other multinational industries: a consortium organised as a network.'

Peter Scott (1998: 129), addressing the question 'What is likely to emerge?', also sees a diverse pattern:

'Probably not, despite the evident power of the Murdochs and Gateses, global universities designed by News Corporation or Microsoft. […] But nor are global universities to be simply extensions of existing universities, in which international activities have simply been given greater prominence. So perhaps the most likely outcome is a highly differentiated development – of a few world universities (or, more probably, of world-class elements within them); of networks of existing universities that trade in this global market place while maintaining their separate national identities […]; of the growth of hybrid institutions that combine elements of universities with elements of other kinds of 'knowledge' organization […]; of the emergence of 'virtual' universities organized along corporate lines […]; and, inevitably, of a few global universities on a News corporation or Microsoft pattern.'

There are and will be institutions of higher education which, deliberately or not, are oriented to the local environment and for which the international dimension will stay incidental, individual or at most consist of a combination of unrelated activities, projects and programmes. Others will not evolve further than having a separate internationalisation strategy, without affecting the functions of the institution. Only a few global players will emerge, old institutions but also new providers of higher education, making use of the opportunities which new technologies and the global market provide. Coalitions, networks, consortia or alliances among institutions of higher education, and between them and industry, are and will be increasingly important factors in ensuring a role in this global arena.

As Robinson and Scott note, this century will see such a differentiated development of new models of higher education. As Van Ginkel (1996: 97) states, universities that want to be global players must focus their attention on the fields in which they are excelling and therefore have "to find co-makers, other universities as well as other role players in society, in order to keep offering a broad variety of good courses and good research. It is this type of networking, the connecting of the best within reach, the linking of university services to societal change that needs our attention."  Davies (1997) also observes an increasingly likely substantial importance of inter-institutional alliances as a lever in institutional change for marketing, new interdisciplinary connections and regional and international services.

This century will see international mergers and joint ventures of institutions of higher education, first at the inter-regional level, later also at the global level. At the same time, more and more faculties and schools will combine their efforts in consortia and alliances, beyond such institutional mergers and joint ventures. This will be the result of the principle that partnerships at the institutional level cannot always and completely match the needs at the decentralised level.

Even though institutional networks at present seem to be rather weak, lacking commitment at the departmental and school level and not very effective in their operations, they are more likely to be the motor for future mergers than the discipline–based networks,

consortia and alliances. Only the central leadership is able to make the radical decisions needed to move away from fragmented activity–oriented co-operation to real mergers and joint ventures. It is only a question of time before such decisions are made.

Strategic partnerships in research, teaching and transfer of knowledge, between universities and of universities with business and beyond national borders, will be the future for higher education, in order to manage the challenges that globalisation will place on it. Cooperation for competition and competition for cooperation: this will be driving higher education globally in the years to come.

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* David Stockley and Hans de Wit (2010). 'Global trends in higher education and the significance of international networks', in *Advancing Australia-Europe Cooperation in International Education.* Proceedings of a joint IEAA-EAIE Symposium. IEAA-EAIE, 'Advancing Europe-Australia cooperation in higher education', Sydney, 11-12 October 2009. *(reduced version)*

# Student Mobility

# International Students and Immigration

## The Netherlands Case in a European Context*

*Hans de Wit*

## Abstract

*In a context of economic crisis and increased anti immigration politics, international students and skilled immigration are high on the political and educational agenda in The Netherlands as well as other European countries. There is an increasing tension between short term anti-immigrant tendencies and budget cuts for research and development on the one hand, and the long term need for skilled immigration to stay competitive in the global knowledge economy on the other hand. In the past, rationales for attracting international students were either trade, aid or cooperation, global competition for highly skilled manpower has become a strong new pull factor in international student circulation, and policies are developed by The Netherlands and other European countries to stay competitive.*

## Introduction

*T*he topic of international students and skilled immigration is a key issue in European and Dutch politics. The debates on the positive and negative dimensions of the multicultural society, immigration and the economic and financial crisis have a direct link to international students and skilled immigration needs. In Ireland, the international education strategy 2010-2015 to make Ireland "internationally recognised and ranked as a world leader in the delivery of high quality international education" by among others increasing the present number of international students in the coming 5 years by 50%, is under pressure as a result of the budgetary crisis. (Investing in Global Relations, 2010.p. 12) In the United Kingdom, the plans of the current government to introduce restrictions on immigration and the plans for higher national student fees will have an impact on the number of international students from outside (immigration) and inside the EU/EFTA countries (higher fees) as well as on the potential emigration of UK students (lower fees in neighbouring countries). In Germany, when prime minister Andrea Merkel proclaimed the collapse of the multicultural society and a push for stricter immigration laws arose, the minister of Economic Affairs, the business sector and the higher education sector warned instantly for the danger of lack of skilled labour. In Switzerland there is a high concern that recent anti immigration referenda results will have a negative impact on skilled immigration and attractiveness of the country for international students. And in The Netherlands, Sweden and Italy similar fears exist due to the rise of anti immigrant nationalist politics. There is an increasing tension in Europe, including The Netherlands, between short term anti-immigrant tendencies and budget cuts for research and development on the one hand, and the long term need for skilled immigration to stay competitive in the global knowledge economy on the other hand. Forecasts for the EU indicate that where the number of low skilled workers will decline in 2020 from 28% now to 19% ,medium skilled workers will increase from 48% to 50%, and high skilled labour will increase from 26% to 31%. (Sean McDonagh, 2010) At the same time, in Europe in the next 12 years the age group between 16 and 29 will drop from 90 to 81 million. Restrictions in immigration and greater barri-

ers for access to higher education for national and foreign students will make Europe less attractive for international students.

## The European context

Higher education in Europe in the first decade after the Second World War was not very international. The focus was on the reconstruction of its countries after the great depression followed by the impact of the Second World War on society and economy. As far as there was an international dimension, it was primarily by the circulation of degree seeking students from the elites in the developing countries to the colonial and imperialist powers they were linked to: the United Kingdom, France, Germany and to a lesser extent countries like Belgium and The Netherlands.

In the sixties another international dimension in higher education emerged, technical assistance (development aid). The changing relationships between the former colonial powers and the developing world required a different approach. In addition to the traditional circulation of the elites, scholarship schemes provided wider opportunities for students from developing countries to study in Europe, primarily in the countries they have had traditional cultural and linguistic ties with (Germany, France and the United Kingdom which over all these years up until now have continued to be the main receivers of international students after the United States of America) and/or political links (Soviet Union). At the same time, capacity and institution building programs offered academic expertise and material support to the higher education sector in the developing countries. This trend was quite widespread, The Netherlands being a prominent example of this focus on aid.

In the 1980s, one can observe in Western Europe two different shifts. The "benevolent laisser-faire" policy (Barron, 1993, p. 50), and the "humanitarianism and internationalism" (Chandler 1989, p. viii) that characterised the previous decades did not completely disappear but were bypassed by new policies. In continental Europe a shift took place towards more controlled reception of degree seeking international students and to cooperation and exchange (student and staff mobility), and in the United Kingdom a shift to active recruitment of fee-paying international students.

The decision in 1979 by the British government to introduce full cost fees for foreign students (a move from aid to trade) resulted in a more competitive higher education sector in that country. In continental Europe the introduction of full-cost fees and higher education as an export commodity at that time remained an anathema. On the continent, a different move took place, from aid to cooperation and exchange. Under the impetus of the European Commission, programs were designed to stimulate cooperation in Research & Development and in education. From the early 1970s in Sweden, Germany and later elsewhere, programs were developed to stimulate cooperation and exchange and most countries had international academic agreements and were involved in the Fulbright Program with the United States.

During the 1970s, the European Commission started to stimulate R&D cooperation, and also introduced a pilot program, the 'Joint Study Programmes Scheme' (1976), to stimulate academic mobility, but the impact of these programs was marginal. In the 1980s, these initiatives at the national and European level contributed to the creation of the so-called Framework Programs for R&D (1984) and the 'European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students' (1987), better known as ERASMUS. Driving rationales behind these initiatives were: Europeanization and strengthening of Europe's position in the global economy.

Although the United Kingdom as a member of the European Union was involved in these developments, its participation in the educational programmes has been marginal. There was and remains a tension between the more competitive approach to recruitment of fee-paying students (a focus on degree seeking student circulation) and the subsidised programmes of the European Commission, based on the principle of exchange (a focus on mobility as part of the home degree). The reputation of British higher education, its extended network of Commonwealth countries, the dominance of English as first or second language, and the financial necessity to recruit full-cost students from abroad placed British higher education in a position to be a competitive player in the international student market, as well as in the cross-border delivery of education, just behind the United States of America.

By the end of the 1990's, first in The Netherlands and Scandinavia and later in Germany and France, a shift to higher education as an export commodity began to emerge. Although several countries – Ireland, Slovakia, Denmark, The Netherlands and Sweden – have introduced full-cost fees for non-EU international students in recent years, the main drive has not been income generation, as was the case in the United Kingdom.

Most countries of Europe, in particular the larger economies of Germany, France, Italy and Spain as well as Scandinavia, have zero or low tuition fees for domestic and with the exception of the countries mentioned above do not differentiate between EU-students and other international students. At the national and European level rationales such as increasing competitiveness of higher education in the global knowledge economy and establishment of a national/European brand and status of higher education, society and economy in the world, have been the drivers.

More recently, global competition for highly skilled manpower has become a strong pull factor in international student circulation. The greying societies of Europe compete globally for top talents who need to fill the gaps in their knowledge economies. Skilled migration, circulation of the highly skilled, the global competition for talent, are terms that are at present becoming more dominant as rationales for international competition in higher education. At the institutional level rationales such as international class rooms, intercultural and global competences, recruitment of top talent students and scholars, and institutional profile and status, are setting the scene.

In 2002-2003, there were 1.1 million foreign students enrolled in higher education in the so-called EURODATA region (comprising the 27 EU nations, the four European Free Trade Agreement members Switzerland, Iceland, Lichtenstein and Norway, as well Turkey. Of these 46% are nationals from with this group of 32 countries, compared to 54% from outside. More than 60% of them study in the three main countries: United Kingdom, Germany and France. France is a different destination country than the others, as only 28% are European and 51% are African students. As far as outward mobility is concerned, only 575,000 students, or 3% were studying abroad in 2002-2003, of which 81% in another EURODATA country, and 13% in the United States. (De Wit, 2008, p. 184-193)

More recent data indicate that in 2006-2007 there were 1.5 million international students in these 32 countries, a growth of 36.6 % and compared to 1998-1999 of 49.9%. The percentage of international students compared to national students has increased from 4.5 % in 1998-1999 via 5.8% in 2002-2003 to 6.9% in 2006-2007. At the same time, the percentage of the students from within the 32 European countries increased to 50.9%, plus 3.6% from other European countries.

The Bologna Declaration of 1999 and the Lisbon Agenda of 2001 are the manifesta-

tions of the need to reform higher education in Europe into the direction of a more competitive player in the global knowledge economy. Although there is an increasing emphasis on economic rationales and competition, it would be too simple to state that the changing landscape of internationalization is developing in similar ways everywhere in higher education in Europe. There are different accents and approaches. Internationalization strategies are filtered and contextualized by the specific internal context of the university and their national embeddedness. But it is also a fact that the recent emphasis on competition for talents, as well as the reforms undertaken by the Bologna Process have brought continental Europe and the United Kingdom more closer in their approaches than before. The Netherlands is a clear example of a mixed policy of cooperation and competition with regard to international students and immigration.

## The Netherlands

As mentioned above, The Netherlands has moved from an focus on aid via a cooperation and exchange priority to a more competitive approach with respect to international students and immigration. This mixed policy with shifting emphasis is the result of external factors in combination with local changes in higher education and immigration policies.

The number of international students in Dutch higher education has increased over the past years in absolute numbers, although in percentage of overall students has stabilised at 7.4%. The increase over the past five years has been particularly in research universities, 6.3% to 9.3% (an increase of 9.000 international students) and less in the universities of applied sciences, 5.8% to 6.4% (an increase of 5.000 international students). The main country of origin in 2009-10 was Germany (42.5 % of all international students) at a substantial distance, followed by China (10%), Belgium (5% ), Spain (3.9% ) and France (3.6%). In that year 64.4% of the international students came from other EU and EFTA countries, compared to 35.6% from the rest of the world. The Netherlands is the host country with most German students, before the United Kingdom with 17% of outbound German student mobility. (Nuffic, 2010)

Three quarter of the international students are enrolled in bachelor's degree programmes, although in research universities the focus is increasingly on master and phd programmes. As far as fields of study are concerned Economics is for the research universities the most popular study, with agriculture having the strongest presence of international students compared to Dutch students. For applied sciences universities, Economics also has the strongest presence of international students while Art and Culture maintain a strong ratio of international versus Dutch students. Maastricht University, one of the 13 research universities in The Netherlands and on the border with Germany and Belgium, is the leading university in number of international students, followed by four universities of Applied Sciences (also all four close to Germany) and then Delft University of Technology. The market share of The Netherlands is 1.3% of the global market in 2007, an increase of 0.6% compared to 2000. As far as outbound mobility is concerned, 2.5% (15.000) of the Dutch students were studying abroad in 2006-07 and the trend is a gradual increase each year.(Nuffic, 2010)

It is still unclear what the impact of the introduction of full cost fees for non-EU/EFTA students will mean for the inflow of international students to The Netherlands. Given that two third of the international students in The Netherlands come from EU/EFTA countries, the impact will be not as negative as was the case in Denmark. A member of Dutch Parliament recently even suggested to make recruitment of international students a

means to increase income for universities, a rather naive suggestion in the current global competition for international students and the high tuition fees.

There are no concrete data on international phd students and researchers in the Netherlands. A recent guess is that one third of the phd students in The Netherlands is foreign, a rapid growth over the past 15 years, primarily from Western Europe and Asia. OECD data indicate that half of the foreign knowledge workers in The Netherlands come from Europe, and the other half primarily from South and East Asia, followed by North America.

Since 2007, it is possible for international students to stay in the country for a year after completion of their studies in order to find a job, and since 2009 highly qualified foreigners can apply for a residence permit for a maximum of one year to find a job or to start a business. There are also tax incentives for knowledge immigrants and returning expats in areas where there is lack of Dutch candidates. And migration policies are adapted to make immigration for lower skilled immigrants more difficult and for highly skilled immigrants more easier. There are no data yet to see how effective these measures have been. Also, little is known about the language factor. Although some studies indicate that the fact that Dutch persons speak and understand English and that an increasing proportion of Dutch higher education offer is in English (in particular at the master and phd level) is a pull factor, other studies question the level of English of Dutch graduates and faculty. Also, some studies indicate that The Netherlands is not attractive enough for international and returning Dutch researchers. Other studies though conclude that The Netherlands is still more attractive than other European countries, such as the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Denmark and Belgium, because of the relatively good salaries, career prospects and knowledge infrastructure. It is still too early to tell what the implications will be of migration and higher education plans of the new conservative government that came into power in 2010. In combination with the economic crisis one cannot be optimistic that these plans will result in a more consistent and attractive climate for international students and skilled immigration.

# Student Mobility Trends in Latin America*

*Isabel Cristina Jaramillo and Hans de Wit*

*S*tudent mobility has become one of the most important activities for the higher education subsector worldwide. The number of students moving around the world has more than doubled over the past twenty years and it is expected to grow even more in the next decade. Global competition for top talent in the present knowledge economy is an extremely important factor, especially considering the shortage of local talent in developed societies and in emerging economies such as Brazil.

The flow of Latin American students out of the region is increasing, but not approaching what mobility represents for other regions in the world. Even fewer students choose to come to pursue studies in the region itself than leave it. What is the participation of Latin America as a region in this global scenario? What are the challenges it faces? These are some of the questions addressed in this chapter, not an easy task given the heterogeneity of the higher education systems and the lack of transparent information that the governments and the institutions themselves provide.[1]

## Characteristics of Higher Education in Latin America

Latin America is a diverse and complex region. It refers to those countries where the Spanish and the Portuguese languages prevail, and is normally identified by the countries that span from Mexico all the way to Argentina, including Cuba and the Dominican Republic. Latin America and the Caribbean are therefore one big region composed of nearly 8,910 institutions of higher education. Of these, only 1,231 (13.81 percent) are universities (IESALC/UNESCO 2008).

Although we must speak of a diverse region, it has also some common historical factors which provide opportunities which until recently have been underused by lack of a common regional approach to higher education. Latin American universities inherited several of such common characteristics that distinguish them from universities elsewhere.

The first institutions of higher education were established in Santo Domingo in 1538 and in Mexico and Peru in 1551. At the time, the Old World had only 16 such institutions, and there were none in what is now the United States. The establishment of these institutions responded to the need to evangelize and to offer educational opportunities that were more or less equivalent to those in Spain. The organization of national universities in Latin America was inspired by the tradition of the University of Salamanca, while the university Alcalá de Henares can be considered as the model of the Catholic university. This co-existence of national and private universities of a primarily Catholic character dominated the higher education landscape in the region for a long time. The current organization of higher education in the region is primarily influenced by Spanish and French models. The basic one is the Napoleonic model, which can be described as vocationally oriented and national and nationalistic in nature (de Wit et al. 2005, 3412)

A second common factor, related to the historical link to the Old World, is that the region has only two main languages of instruction, research and communication: Spanish and Portuguese, which should allow for much more cooperation and interaction.

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1] For a more detailed analysis of the international dimension of Latin American Higher Education see de Wit *et al*, 2005.

Another important common factor was the influence a liberal movement in Argentina in 1918, the so-called Cordoba Reform, which gave Latin American higher education one of its main characteristics, university autonomy, introduced student participation in university administration and gave the universities an active role in social development. These three features still play a key role in public higher education all over the region.

From the end of the nineteenth century one can see the first signs of active mobility of students and scholars to Europe and gradually also the United States. Due to lack of a substantive middle class, this remained limited to a small economic and social elite. In the post-World War II period, international cooperation did get a new dimension in the form of development cooperation. Capacity building for research and teaching and scholarships for graduate training became more important and for several decades influenced the development of higher education in the region.

These historical factors and common characteristics are important to understand present Latin American higher education, its international dimension and mobility. Latin American universities, seen as key actors in social and economic development of the region, face some global challenges for which they have to prepare if they want to play an active role in the global market: increased mobility and competition to attract the best talent, increased convergence of national higher education systems, increased liberalization and trade in educational programs, and increased competition for research funding (Holm-Nielsen 2009). Over the past decades, important improvements have taken place, which can be factors that help the region become a more relevant player in the global market for talent and higher education services.

Despite this progress, many problems still need to be addressed. Some facts reveal the current status of key aspects of higher education in the region. It is under these conditions that Latin American higher education institutions and the subsector have to face the challenges and opportunities that the knowledge economy and the globalization have to offer (IESALC/UNESCO 2008; Balán 2008).

- Enrollment has increased significantly in the last four decades. Countries such as Chile, Argentina and Uruguay are among the leaders. The participation rate in those countries is now 30 percent, while the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) average rate is currently at 56 percent.
- A group of only ten countries (Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Venezuela, Colombia, Peru, Cuba, Bolivia, Chile and Ecuador) concentrate 93.5 percent of the tuition in higher education in Latin America and the Caribbean.
- Expansion has been pushed forward in different ways, from the creation of new public universities (Argentina, Mexico and Venezuela) to the appearance of a strong private sector, including for-profit and non-profit institutions, that has accounted for most of the 40 percent increase in higher education enrollment in countries like Colombia, Chile, and Brazil. At present there are more students in the region studying at private universities, which are predominantly teaching institutions, than at public universities, which have a strong research base.
- Graduate education has seen impressive growth throughout the region, but Latin American countries still produce a small number of PhDs compared to developed countries. Brazil is the leader (100,000 graduate students, 38,000 of them in doctoral programs). Mexico is second (100,000 students enrolled in master's programs in 2005, but only 13,000 registered as doctoral students). Argentina ranks third, with almost 25,000 master's and 8,000 doctoral students. Chile, a

smaller country, currently enrolls 13,000 master's and almost 3,000 doctoral students. Colombia lags behind with less than 12,000 master's and 1,000 doctoral students.

- National governments have set up scholarship schemes for study abroad to increase the number of graduate students. A recent example is the US$6 billion "Bicentennial Fund for the Development of Human Capital" in Chile. Some US$250 million in annual earnings from the fund is expected to be used to finance overseas scholarships to enable students to study in a range of other countries.

- Program and institutional accreditation and quality assurance mechanisms have become central parts of the governments' agendas. National agencies have been created in Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Nicaragua, to mention a few. These agencies include external peer reviewers for both undergraduate and graduate programs

- At the national level, the region is starting to see more emphasis being placed on creating regulatory and policy frameworks along with institutional policies that give shape to a more sophisticated way of internationalizing the higher education subsector. This is achieved through quality assurance, accreditation, and credit transfer via increased and diversified inter- and intra-regional mobility programs.

## Specifities of Student Mobility

Latin American student mobility within the higher education subsector is still very limited and only accounts for five percent of the world's mobility (Figure 1).[2] Around 130,000

*Figure 1: Total Latin Americal Outward Mobility, 2005*

Argentina:   10.400
Bolivia:     4.339
Brazil:      19.749
Chile:       9.038
Colombia:    20.142
Costa Rica:  1.775
Cuba:        1.716
D. Republic: 2.146
Ecuador:     7.018
El Salvador: 2.536
Honduras:    2.597
México:      24.073
Nicaragua:   2.438
Panama:      2.187
Paraguay:    2.194
Peru:        11.703
Uruguay:     2.529
Venezuela:   10.793

*Global Destinations, 2008*

Canada 5%  Japan 4%
China 7%   All others 28%
Australia 7%
Germany 8%
France 8%
U.K. 13%   U.S. 20%

*Total LA Mobility*

■ World Mobility   □ LA Mobility

5%   140.155

95%   2.725.996

*Source: OECD,2007*
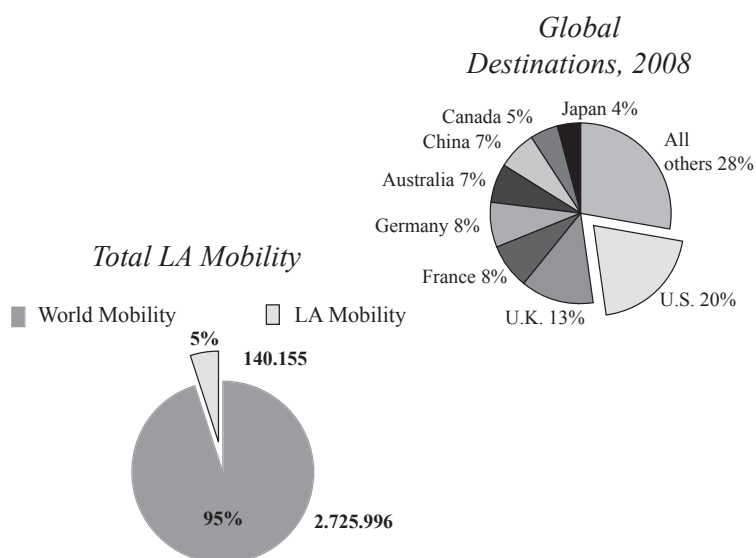
2] Information taken from different studies supported by the World Bank and the Institute Management of Higher Education, IMHE/OECD, the European Commission through its Alfa Program, and data taken from the Global Education Digest and SEGIB.

Latin-American students study abroad, but only 15 percent of those, study in the region, 60 percent go to the United States and the rest to Europe, particularly to Spain, Great Britain, France, and Germany. Pull factors that induce students to move to other countries include: opportunities to improve English skills, enhance career opportunities, experience new and different environments and cultures, and enhance personal development, as well as reputation of the foreign higher education system (JWT Education 2008).

## Main Destinations

The United States remains the top destination for international students around the world, and the same is true for Latin American students, with 64,473 students studying in a variety of programs ranging from English as a second language courses to graduate programs. According to the *Open Doors 2008 Report on International Educational Exchange*, the top sending countries from Latin America are Mexico (14,837 students), Brazil (7,578 students), and Colombia (6,662 students). The majority of students fund their US studies through personal or family resources. Several mobility programs have been created since the establishment of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between Mexico, Canada, and the United States, such as the Program for North American Mobility in Higher Education (PROMESAN) and the Consortium for North American Higher Education Cooperation (CONAHEC), but they have not attracted a large number of students.

European countries, and particularly Spain and France have become increasingly popular destinations due to their linguistic and cultural links with Latin America. A total of 22,656 students studied in Spain and 7,866 went to France, which – like Germany (5,437) – has witnessed a significant increase in Latin American students as a result of their international cooperation funding programs, scholarships, and reputable higher education systems (UNESCO 2007).

The EU and national governmental funds, as well as scholarships by universities themselves, have fostered Latin American student mobility. Programs like Alfa and Alban, scholarships offered by the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation (AECI), the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), Campus France, Nuffic in the Netherlands and British Council have been decisive mechanisms to facilitate mobility between these two regions .

Students from Central American countries[3] tend to favor the United States as their main foreign destination, with 7,075 students studying in the US in 2007 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2007). The second most popular destination is Cuba (3,558 students), followed by Spain (2,057), France (451), Costa Rica (432), and Germany (382) respectively. Students from Central America are also attracted to neighboring countries such as Costa Rica, Honduras and El Salvador because of the proximity, the common Spanish language and similar social and economic conditions.

Students from South American countries[4] present a somewhat different pattern in their student mobility. The United States has received up to 35,676 South American students. Spain is also an attractive destination due to its European location, language, and cultural

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3] Central America incluyes Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama.

4] South America includes Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela.

background. Up to 17,399 students have pursued some type of academic program in Spain while France (5,979), Germany (5,055), and Cuba (3,232) have climbed to third, fourth, and fifth place, respectively. They have recently surpassed England, which for many years was considered one of the top destinations for international and Latin American students. Intraregional mobility is increasing among the countries that are part of the *Mercado Común del Sur* (MERCOSUR) agreement (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Brazil, Uruguay, and Paraguay).

Mexico, though Latin American, is part of the North American Region, and sends large numbers of students to the United States (13,644) due to its proximity to the United States and its membership in the North America Free Trade Association (NAFTA). Spain is the second leading destination (3,200), followed by the United Kingdom (1,843), France (1,440), and Canada (1,435).

Other non-traditional destinations like Australia, China, and Japan have seen a rise in numbers. Australia is the most active of these in recruiting Latin American students to come to study, with more than 17,676 students from Latin America enrolled at universities, technical and further education institutes and English language colleges across the country, up from just 6,914 in 2002 (GlobalHigherEd 2007).

## Intra Regional Mobility

Though one can observe in some regions of the world the emergence of regional hubs, where students from neighboring countries go to study (Singapore and Malaysia in Asia, and South Africa in Sub-Saharan Africa, for instance), they do not exist in Latin America. In the past Argentina, and to a lesser extent Venezuela, played a similar role in attracting students from neighboring countries because of their stronger economies, but more recently this has no longer been the case. At present, Cuba is the only regional receiver, but this is more a result of its special political position than its economic status. Over the past eight years though a revised trend is observed by UNESCO. In its 2009 Global Education Digest (UNESCO 2009) it is noted that the share of mobile students within the region rose from 11 percent in 1999 to 23 percent in 2007. This reflects the gradual development of a middle class in the region and of a common Latin American higher education area.

Many actors and programs have appeared over the past decade. They are a reflection of the increased connectivity of the region. These programs are developed within the region and for the region, some are Ibero-American, others respond to governmental alliances between the European Union and Latin America, some are part of the North American Free Trade Agreement in which Mexico participates.

Most of these programs have to do with mobility of students, faculty, and programs across national borders with a variety of actors that include science and technology organizations, university associations and rectors conferences, student mobility and exchange groups, development assistance agencies, student recruitment bodies, quality assurance agencies, graduate organizations, international relations networks, research and development entities, export agencies, and cultural cooperation bodies.

An important trend is the attention being given to student mobility, at both the undergraduate and graduate level. Mobility programs, such as the *Programa Interamericana Estudiantil* (PIMA), the Program for North American Mobility in Higher education (PROMESAN), and the interregional program of the *Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo* (CINDA), are good examples. The emphasis on providing scholarships for graduate students and junior faculty members is still strong (good examples are the programs

provided by Mercocyt). The Inter-American Organization for Higher Education and other regional university associations remain active in management training, but this does not appear to be a key area of growth (Table 1)

*Table 1. Undergraduate Mobility within Latin America*

| Program | Participant Countries | Number of Participant Universities | Year of Creation |
|---|---|---|---|
| *ESCALA-ESTUDIANTIL* | Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay | 18 | 2000 |
| *PME (CRISCOS)* | Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Peru | 21 | 1998 |
| *PAME (UDUAL)* | Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Dominican REP., Uruguay | 24 | 2003 |
| *JIMA* | Argentina, Mexico | 18 | 2005 |
| *MARCA* | Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay | 17 | 2006 |

*Source: SEGIB (2007)*

The total participation in these programs as of 2007 totaled 2,368 students. Although not necessarily Latin American, it is important to mention also mobility programs between Mexico with North America (the United States and Canada) which moved 1,808 students between 1995-2006. Worth mentioning as well is the CINDA Program which between 2003, the year of its creation , and 2007 moved 284 students, within some Latin American and with some Belgium and Italian universities. Other Latin American and Ibero-American mobility takes place in the context of bilateral institutional agreements.

The increase in intraregional mobility is due to the establishment of sub-regional academic agreements, participation of national and regional university associations, and intraregional cooperation by foreign and national agencies. Examples of national agencies that act as donors are El Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT) in Mexico, Instituto Colombiano de Crédito y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior (ICETEX) in Colombia, Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) in Brazil and Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET) in Argentina.

National and regional university associations have become active in the region promoting and supporting student mobility, as well as creating programs on a relatively small scale. That is the case with the Union of Latin American Universities (UDUAL), which sponsors a mobility program known as PAME-UDUAL among its 24 university mem-

bers. More than 200 students have participated in the program (SEGIB 2007). The Latin American and the Caribbean Macro Universities Network, created in 2002, which brings together the largest public universities, seeks to strengthen academic cooperation through mobility and research.

Student mobility within MERCOSUR countries is the best model for sub-regional mobility. The University Association of the Montevideo Group's ESCALA program, for example, facilitated the exchange of over 1,300 students between 2000 and 2006. Similarly, IME/CRISCOS facilitated the exchange of 763 students among 21 universities from Argentina, Bolivia, Chile and Peru between 1998 and 2006 and The Council of University Presidents for the Integration of the West-Central Sub-Region of South America's Student Mobility Program creates study abroad opportunities for undergraduate students. The Academic Mobility and Exchange Program (PIME), established by the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation (AECI) and the Organization of Ibero-American States for Education, Science and Culture (OIM) during the 90s and the early years of this century, facilitated connections between participating Latin American universities and institutions in Spain. These programs had a significant influence on international education and promoted the creation of international offices in the universities throughout the region (Table 2).

*Table 2. Ibero-American Mobility (2007)*

| *Program* | **Participant Countries in Mobility** | **Number of Students (2007)** |
|---|---|---|
| *PIMA/OEI* | Spain, Portugal, 18 countries in Latin America | Mobility: 1105 |
| *CAROLINA FOUNDATION* | Spain and the Ibero-American Community of Nations | Mobility: 1475 |
| *MAEC-AECI SCHOLARSHIPS* | Spain, Latin America, Puerto Rico, Barbados, Belize, Haiti, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago | Mobility: 960 |
| *IBEROAMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF POSTGRADUATE UNIVERSITIES, AUIP* | Universities from Spain, Portugal, Latin America and the Caribbean | N/A |

Source: SEGIB (2007).

Recent interregional agreements with the European Union and among Ibero-American countries, such as the Pablo Neruda Program, and the Program *Ventana para la Cooperación Exterior* of the Education, Audivisual and Culture Executive Agency, EACEA of the Euopean Commission seek to enhance student's mobility within the region and countries in Europe. These agreements intend to create a common space to facilitate educational

collaboration, similar to the European, Latin American and Caribbean Common Space for Higher Education and the Ibero-American Space for Knowledge.

Since mobility represents a very important manifestation of the international process within the Latin American higher education institutions, several aspects should be examined if the region is to play an important role in the knowledge economy and the talent circulation in the global scenario:

- The academic terms vary depending on the country. In general, per semester, two a year, some four terms like Mexico, Honduras or Nicaragua, per year as it is in Uruguay; some institutions start in January, others in March or in September.
- The criteria for admission differ substantially. Some require a higher education diploma, others a written exam, while still others (e.g., Colombia) are obliged to present a national exam.
- Grades are a sensitive issue once they need to be interpreted since they vary significantly from country to country.
- In the majority of cases, the higher education subsector is regulated by the Ministry of Education, as it is in Colombia, Mexico and Cuba, while in Guatemala, it corresponds to the San Carlos University, the biggest and most important public university. In other cases, it corresponds to the university associations as in Peru with its National Association of Rectors.
- Migratory policies differ from country to country making it difficult to issue student visas.
- In general, higher education institutions are granted great autonomy, but in some cases, recognition of professional qualifications may be in the hands of the State and in others in the hands of professional colleges.
- Whether a higher education institution is public or private causes confusion as regulations and control on the part of the State vary accordingly. In countries such as Colombia, both are under the surveillance of the Ministry of Education. In Venezuela and Uruguay, public universities are very autonomous, while private institutions are very regulated.
- The variety of terms all throughout the region makes the systems difficult to comprehend.

## The Future

Despite the differences and challenges to meet, mobility has become an important strategy for any university that considers itself internationalized. This important activity has turned out to become a criterion for selecting a program or an institution due to the value given to a study abroad. In this demanding scenario in higher education, new critical issues – quality assurance, accreditation, mutual recognition, financing, information-sharing and language barriers – arise and should, therefore, be addressed by the governments and the higher education institutions in the context of both horizontal and vertical mobility. This is true for Latin American higher education as for higher education elsewhere.

Latin American universities are becoming more and more conscious of the changes derived from several convergences around the world as a response to a greater global interdependence, and understand the need to implement structural modifications and respond quickly to the challenges. They urge for regional actions that finally overcome the differences and facilitate the process. A progressive harmonization of the divergent higher education systems is a must if the region wants to see a meaningful increase in intra and

inter mobility. It requires transparent information on the part of the governments and the institutions themselves. In an attempt to promote a 'one voice, one language' system that represent the traditional and the new potential actors and programs: universities, government, multilateral banks and organizations, university associations, networks, among others, would help to increase the performance of the region which in essence benefits the quality and the pertinence of the subsector.

Latin America looks to Europe and its Bologna process as an example of how to build a regional higher education and research area. Sub-regional cooperation agreements, as in the case of MERCOSUR, are positive signs. Countries like Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico are starting to position themselves not only as senders but also as potential receivers of students from the rest of the world. The strong presence of private institutions in the region will provide challenges and opportunities, as would the increased presence of foreign providers such as Apollo, Kaplan and Laureate, alomg with regional providers such as Monterey Tech University in Mexico.

The above analysis makes it clear that higher education in Latin America is experiencing major changes: increasing participation rates in higher education, an expanding private sector and attempts to harmonize and regionalize systems. At the same time, in the global market for international students and scholars its role is still minor compared to that of North America, Europe and the Asia-Pacific region, as well as the Middle East. The comparative advantage of having a common popular language and culture still has not paid off. The building of a common Latin America Higher Education Area has begun, but there is still a long way to go before Latin America becomes an attractive and recognized higher education destination for its own students and students from other parts of the world.* Hans de Wit and Isabel Christina Jaramillo. (2010). Student Mobility Trends in Latin America. In Rajika Bhandari and Peggy Blumenthal (Eds.), *International Students and Global Mobility in Higher Education.* Palgrave Macmillan/IIE, USA.

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# Global Citizenship and Study Abroad

*A European Comparative Perspective* *

*Hans de Wit*

## Introduction

*I*n general, international educators have a tendency to use the same words when they deal with meanings, rationales, approaches, strategies and activities. International educators have also a tendency though to approach the internationalization of higher education from a rather narrow national and local perspective and by that are inclined to be as parochial as the mentalities of the benefactors of their work. This is based on the fact that higher education and its international dimension are still based primarily on the nation state, even in this area of rapid globalization and regionalization of our economies and societies.

Internationalization of higher education has a fundamentally different approach and focus in Europe and even in each of its countries, as well as in comparison to the United States. This applies also to the terms 'global citizenship' and 'study abroad', central to this publication.

In an essay of 1998 on the occasion of the 50th anniversary of NAFSA, called 'Ducks quack differently on each side of the ocean' (De Wit, 1998), I tried to explain the differences in approach to internationalization in Europe and the USA, referring in the title to a quote by Joseph Mestenhauser: "everything that quacks must be international education." (Mestenhauser, 1998). Three characteristics were mentioned as driving internationalization policies in the United States: passion, ethos and rhetoric; the emphasis on peace as a driving rationale; and overcoming parochialism.

Later (De Wit, 2002), I expanded my analysis and I presented the following differences in developments in Europe and the USA:

- "Immediately after World War II the internationalization of higher education was more dominant in the United States, and founded on arguments of foreign policy and national security. In Europe, the tradition is still rather young, only became more important as part of the European economic and political integration process, and was primarily motivated by arguments of economic competition. (  )
- (  ) The international dimension of higher education has a longer tradition of organization and higher level of professionalization in the United States than in Europe.
- In the United States, the objective of international education is more directed to global and intercultural awareness, in response to cultural parochialism; while in Europe the accent is more on the extension and diversification of academic performance.
- In the United States, the emphasis in study abroad activities is on undergraduate mobility, whereas in Europe exchanges at the graduate level have more priority.
- The focus of international education in the United States is more directed to-

wards globalization of the curriculum, area studies and foreign language study, while in Europe the focus is more on networking and mobility.
- In the United States, study abroad and foreign student advising have a tendency to be seen more as different, unrelated activities, while in Europe they are seen as related parts of mobility schemes, with the emphasis on exchanges.
- In the United States, study abroad has the tendency to take the form of faculty-supervised group mobility, whereas in Europe mobility is based more on mutual trust and is oriented towards the individual.
- In the United States, the push for internationalization comes more from the Departments of Foreign Affairs and Defense, from private foundations and professional associations, and from institutions of higher education and their representative bodies, contributing to an active lobbying and advocacy tradition. In Europe such an active advocacy and lobbying tradition only recently has emerged. ( )
- In the United States, at both the policy and professional levels, there is a lack of strategic approach and a tendency toward fragmentation. In Europe, the different programs and organizational aspects are more integrated into an overall strategy, and at the professional level one can see a higher level of integration." (Ibid, 76-77)

As possible explanations I mentioned:
- "In the United States, internationalization is seen as part of general education, whereas in Europe it is seen more as an activity within academic specialization.
- In the United States, undergraduate education has to compensate for the lack of global and intercultural education and foreign language training in primary and secondary education. In higher education, this takes the form of international education. In Europe, general education, including global and intercultural education and, at least in some countries, active foreign language training, are an integral part of primary and secondary education. Higher education can undergo internationalization more as an integrated part of academic specialization.
- In the United States, area studies, foreign language training, the study of international relations and development studies, are externally added and sponsored programs, whereas in Europe they have developed as regular disciplines, no different from, for example, law, economics or medicine.
- In the United States, internationalization is more driven by political rationales of national security and foreign policy, while in Europe economic competition and academic quality are the main rationales for the internationalization of higher education." (Ibid, 77)

Different cultures and structures in primary, secondary, and undergraduate education, as well as different emphases in foreign policy after World War II, play an important role, combined with a lack of national policy for higher education and internationalization in the United States, a lack of private initiative in higher education and internationalization in Europe, different leadership traditions and different funding mechanisms.

I also stated that it would be likely that the differences would gradually become less, that Europe would enter a period of uncertainty and change, and that international

education in the United States would have a comparative advantage as it is more used to a diversity of funding opportunities where the Europeans always could rely on state and EU-funding, and that universities in the United States are more use to pro-active strategies where the European institutions are more re-active.

I have quoted so extensively from my essay of 1998 and my comparative study on internationalization of higher education in the United States and Europe of 2002 as it will be interesting to see what has happened in the pas decade. This paper compares the American perspective on internationalization of higher education and in particular global citizenship and study abroad with a European view ten years later, as to provide a better understanding of the process of internationalization of higher education and the way it is embedded in national and institutional cultures, systems and histories, even in this age of globalization. Do the two have become closer in addressing international education, as I foresaw ten years ago?

According to Peter Stearns in his book 'Educating Global Citizens in Universities and Colleges' still "arguably the biggest challenge (  ) involves the tension between global education needs and goals, and a strongly parochial American Society." He argues that – although not new – this inclination to parochialism has become "more troubling as the global environment intensifies." (2008, 7) He adds:

> "In between the temptation towards excessive zeal and the resistance to anything that smacks of global, but centrally related to parochialism: an odd hesitancy to push very far, in fact, at least in some aspects of global education. Thus: send students for study abroad but in carefully sanitized, American-run institutions where they may not have to run into too many foreigners. Thus: teach modern languages, but make sure students don't get pulled away from English too fully, lest psychic balance be disturbed."

He acknowledges that these statements are caricatures, but they are strikingly consistent with my observations ten years ago. So, has indeed nothing changed on the American side and "fundamental American-ness is not challenged too abruptly" in the past decade? (Ibid, 13) And what about Europe?

In answering these questions, it is important to keep in mind that in Europe the global perspective has always been different than in the United States, given the fact that Europe only recently has become some kind of an identity in its own as a consequence of the development and gradual expansion of the European Union, and before was rather absent. The world started at the borders of each of the relatively small nations which made up Europe and had been fighting among them to conquer the rest of the world. Although much reference is made to the idea that universities are European institutions par excellence and that there has existed in the times of the Middle Ages and Renaissance a free flow of students and scholars in Europe, higher education in Europe has been closely tied to the nation state for a long time, and only in the later part of the twentieth century one can observe a loosening of ties between state and university, as a result of the globalization of our economies and the process of economic and political integration in the European Union. (See for instance Guy Neave, 2001) Europeans have felt themselves more global citizenships then their American fellow citizens, and only recently the drive to create a 'European citizenship' has become an issue, as in the policies for internationalization or better said Europeanization of higher education, but more from the side of the European commission than from the citizens themselves.

It is also important to keep in mind that study abroad in the European mind has a

more expanded definition than in the United States. Where in Europe study abroad implies both the mobility of students as part of their home degree (exchanges with study at and credit transfer from another institution) and for a degree at an other institution, either in Europe or beyond (international students or degree mobility), in the USA study abroad is used in a more narrow sense, only focusing on home degree mobility and even in most cases in American-run institutions and programs.

So, study abroad and global citizenship depart from a different context and perception in Europe than in the United States. Before coming back in my concluding remarks to this question of how Europe and the USA in the present context of increasing globalization of our societies and economies perceive global citizenship and study abroad in comparison to a decade ago, it is relevant for the purpose of this book which is primarily focused on global citizenship and study abroad in the United States to address the development of internationalization of higher education in Europe more in detail, with specific emphasis on citizenship and study abroad.

## The Internationalization of European higher education[1]

In Europe as a whole, there are approximately 4,000 institutions of higher education, of which around 3,300 of these are in the European Union. The number of students was over 17 million (12.5 million in the EU) in the year 2000, and the number of staff 1.5 million, including 435,000 researchers. These numbers are more or less the same as for the United States.

On average, the Member States of the European Union spend 5 percent of their GDP on public expenditure for education, comparable to the United States. Public expenditures dropped in the past decade, private expenditure did not increase, and the European Union lags now far behind the United States in overall spending: 1.1 percent compared to 2.3 percent. "This gap stems primarily from the low level of private funding of higher education in Europe. This stands at a meager 0.2% of European GDP compared with 0.6% in Japan and 1.2% in the U.S.A." (Commission, 2003, 12). On average, 80 percent of total expenditure in higher education in Europe comes from public sources.

In addition, higher education in Europe also uses its funding inefficiently: the European Union faces high dropout rates among students at an average of around 40 percent; a mismatch between the supply of qualifications and the demand for qualified people; a huge disparity in the duration of studies in the Union; a disparity in the status and conditions of recruitment and work for researchers; and lack of transparent systems for calculating the cost of research (Commission, 2003, 14-15). These factors have been crucial for the development of the internationalization of higher education in Europe.

Macro-historical changes affecting the international dimension of Europe's higher education over the past decades were: the emergence of nation-states in the nineteenth century and earlier; Europe's historical role in the world, in particular its role in colonization and in the process of de-colonization; the impact of higher education in countries such as France, Germany and the United Kingdom on higher education in the rest of the world; recent trends in European integration; the collapse of the former Soviet Union and associated East–West rapprochement; recession and financial constraint; 'massification' of higher education; the dissolution of some structures and blocs and the emergence of others.

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1] The analysis of internationalization of higher education in Europe is a revised and reduced version of De Wit, 2008.

## The 1950s and 1960s: Laisser Faire

Confining discussion to the macro-level and the post Second World War period, the 1950s and 1960s in Europe are not seen today as a period of internationalization, but it would be entirely wrong to believe that international student mobility was absent then. In general, the period 1950 – 1970 was, according to Baron (1993, 50), characterized by a 'foreign policy' among receiving countries of 'benevolent laisser–faire': of open doors to foreign students – students, who to a large extent, came from the former and, at that time, still existing French and British colonies. Some elements of this are still seen in the pattern of student flow to these countries, although (in the British case especially) the impact of more recent policies has largely transformed the picture.

The open door and laisser–faire policy and the one–way dimension were the main characteristics of the process of internationalization of higher education, at a global level and in Europe in particular. The universities themselves played a mainly passive role as receivers of foreign students. The effects on higher education co-operation within Europe were marginal. International activity was mainly oriented towards the co-operation of European higher education with the United States (outward mobility) and with the Third World (inward mobility). A European policy for internationalization did not exist, and the same applies to the institutional level. At the national level, international co-operation and exchange was included in bilateral agreements between nations and in development co-operation programs, driven by political rationales. Institutions were passive partners in these programs.

If we look at student mobility in 1965, in outward mobility (West) Germany (7), Greece (8), France (9), the United Kingdom (13) and Italy (16) were among the top twenty sending countries with a limited number of 39,500 students. In inward mobility, in 1998, France (2), Germany (3), the U.K. (6) and Italy (10) were among the top 10 of receiving countries, taking in 20.2 percent (87,500) of the total number of international students, together far less than the United States (28.3 percent). (Cummings, 1993)

## The 1970s: The first steps to policies of Europeanization

In 1973, the creation of a Directorate for Education, Research and Science (DG XII) under the responsibility of the first Commissioner for Science and Education, Ralf Dahrendorf, not only institutionalized education within the Commission structure but also linked EU policies for education and research. With this, the Commission was able to move away from having to base its rationales for an education and research policy on non-educational arguments – economic rationales primarily – to a pro–active and integrated policy in these fields.

In 1974, the ministers of education of the European Community adopted the principles for an 'Education Action Programme' that was launched in 1976.[2] The action program included three measures for higher education: 'Joint Study Programmes', 'Short Study Visits' and an educational administrators program. Although important in itself, the impact of the action program was marginal. In that sense, the period 1972–1985 can be seen as a period of stagnation.

## The 1980s: The great leap forward

The 1980s produced four distinct changes: first in the development of a research and development policy for the EC; second in the open door mobility of individual students;

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2] For an overview of thirty years of European cooperation in education, see European Commission, 2006. See also K. de Wit and J. Verhoeven, 2001.

third in student mobility as an integrated part of study; and fourth in the widening of scope to other regions -- third countries in Western Europe, Central and Eastern Europe, third countries outside Europe. The last three changes are relevant for the purpose of this article.

With respect to the individual mobility of students, the European nations and universities began changing their benevolent laisser–faire policy to a more controlled reception and in some cases the active recruitment of fee-paying foreign students. At first, this applied nearly exclusively to the case of the United Kingdom, notably the British decision in 1979 to introduce full–cost fees for foreign students. Higher education as an export commodity quickly became dominant in the United Kingdom.

For most people on the European continent, considering the education of foreign students as an export commodity was still anathema at that time. On the European continent, the reception of foreign students was and in most cases still is based more on foreign policy arguments than on considerations of export policy. At the end of the twentieth century, the international movement of students as an export commodity had spread over the European continent and became a more important element of higher education policy than it had been in the past, both at the national and institutional level.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s the notion of 'study abroad', in the sense of sending students to foreign institutions of higher education as part of their home degree program, became an issue on the continent that overshadowed the developments in individual mobility of students. Since the 1980s, student mobility as a one-way, individual process stimulated by political and/or economic considerations has (with the exception of the United Kingdom) lost prominence as a policy issue. It has been marginalized by the greater attention given to student mobility in the framework of exchange programs, which have been among the top priorities in higher education policies of the 1980s and 1990s. Before this period, organized programs for the exchange of students and staff did exist, but these programs were limited in both funding and scope, stimulating mainly unrelated exchanges at the graduate level.

The 1976 'Joint Study Programmes' scheme of the EC aimed at the promotion of joint programs of study and research between institutions in several member states. The focus of this experimental program was primarily the stimulation of academic mobility within the EC. This scheme was replaced in 1987 by its successor, the 'European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students' (ERASMUS). The action program of 1976 was the basis for future activities in academic co-operation and exchange within the European Community. Since the implementation of the ERASMUS program in 1987, significant results have been achieved in co-operation and exchange within higher education in the European Union. Thanks to ERASMUS, in the period 1987–2008, more than 1,500,000 students have been exchanged, and the program expanded to other European countries outside the EU.

In the 1990s, the creative and informal period of educational policy of the European Community came to an end. The Maastricht Treaty, signed in 1992 and ratified on November 1, 1993, included education for the first time. The importance of strengthening the European dimension in education was placed high on the agenda.

The role of the European Commission in higher education has not been limited to educational mobility and exchange within the European Union. It has impacted in the first place the opening-up of Central and Eastern Europe. The EC, through its so-called PHARE program, opened the way in 1989 for several forms of co-operation, both in R&D

and in education. Thanks to TEMPUS and other programs supported by national governments and other international private and public organizations, a rapid improvement in the educational infrastructure and of the quality of education in Central and Eastern Europe has been achieved. Now most of these countries have become members of the EU or at least are accepted as participants in the EU programs. Also, all the countries, including Russia since 2003, have signed the Bologna Declaration and take part in its development process.

But the cooperation programs of the EU go beyond Europe. The early fear on the part of some governments and academics outside Europe of the emergence of a 'Fortress Europe' in international education has been proved to be unfounded by a booming number of exchange agreements and programs of co-operation linking institutions of higher education in Europe with counterpart institutions all over the world. This is reflected in the creation of the new 'ERASMUS Mundus' program, started in 2004 and intended to create high level joint degree programs between EU institutions and those from elsewhere in the world.

## The present decade: The Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy

This overview of the development of Europeanization of higher education in the period between the 1960s and the 1990s explains how these developments have culminated in the 1990s in a broad range of programs and activities to stimulate a European dimension in higher education. The main focus lay on the Europeanization of higher education with an emphasis on R&D, mobility of students and staff, curriculum development and network building.

A study of eight mobility programs (Waechter and Wuttig, 2006), of which six are part of the European Union schemes (SOCRATES/ERASMUS, Leonardo da Vinci, ALBAN, EU-US Cooperation Program, and the Marie Curie Program)[3], indicates that in 2002‑03 there were 141,229 students involved in these programs, approximately 10 percent compared to the total of 1.1 million foreign degree seeking students. Of these 141,229 students, 87 percent are ERASMUS students, indicating the importance of this program for short, organized, funded mobility as part of home degrees. The program has grown from 3,244 students in its first year, 1987/88, covering 12 countries to 123,897 in 2002/03, covering now 31 countries. Spain has become the country receiving the most ERASMUS students in 2002/03, followed by France, the United Kingdom, Germany and Italy, following an increasing trend over the past five years. This finding, as Waechter and Wuttig (2006, 164) state, "stands in a marked contrast to the pattern of mobility outside of programmes [diploma mobility], in which Spain does not figure as an important destination country at all." The United Kingdom, receiving the most foreign degree seeking students, is only third place as country of destination for ERASMUS students, mainly due to limitations institutions from the United Kingdom place on the number of ERASMUS students. As far as countries of origin are concerned, the United Kingdom is only fifth place after France, Germany, Spain, and Italy. If we compare inbound and outbound mobility in ERASMUS, the United Kingdom and Ireland have the highest net-import each with a ratio of .47, followed by Sweden (0.50), Denmark (0.64) and the Netherlands (0.67). The highest net-exporters are Bulgaria, Romania and Lithuania, all twelve new EU-member states being net exporters. (ibid, 165)

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3]  The other two are the Nordplus program of the Scandinavian countries and the Ceepus program between ten countries in Central, Eastern and South-Eastern Europe.

## The Bologna Process

At the turn of the century, Europe prepares for a big step forward in Europeanization. It manifests itself in the Bologna Declaration on the European Higher Education Area.

The groundwork for what is already widely known in higher education as the 'Bologna Declaration' was laid by the 'Sorbonne Declaration', signed on May 25, 1998 in Paris by the ministers of education of France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom on the occasion of the anniversary of the University of Paris. The Sorbonne Declaration was surprisingly well received, both in the political arena and in the higher education community of the four countries and in the rest of Europe.

The positive reception of the Sorbonne Declaration set the stage for a broader initiative. On the invitation of the Italian minister of education, a meeting took place in Bologna, Italy. The debate was based on the Sorbonne Declaration and on a study prepared by the Association of European Universities (CRE), and the Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences on 'Trends in European Learning Structures' (Haug *et al.*: 1999). The study showed the extreme complexity and diversity of curricular and degree structures in European countries. Whereas the Sorbonne Declaration spoke of harmonization, both the study and the resulting Bologna Declaration avoided this word – owing largely to the potential negative interpretations. Instead, the study speaks of "actions which may foster the desired convergence and transparency in qualification structures in Europe."

The Bologna Process, directed to the realization of a European Higher Education Area by 2010, implies a substantial reform of higher education, beyond the borders of the 25 countries of the European Union. The Bologna Declaration was signed on June 19, 1999, in Bologna, Italy, by the ministers of education of 29 European countries, who based their declaration on the following understanding:

> "A Europe of Knowledge is now widely recognized as an irreplaceable factor for social and human growth and as an indispensable component to consolidate and enrich the European citizenship, capable of giving its citizens the necessary competences to face the challenges of the new millennium, together with an awareness of shared values and belonging to a common social and cultural space" (Bologna Declaration 19 June, 1999) .

Since 1999, the number of signatory countries has increased to 45. By 2010, every higher education institution in the signatory countries is supposed to be organized in conformity with the declaration, even though the declaration is voluntary and not binding for the countries and their institutions.

In the Bologna declaration of 1999, the ministers aim to reach the following objectives:

- Adoption of a system of easily to understand and comparable degrees, including the adoption of a Diploma Supplement;
- Adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate
- Establishment of a system of credits – such as the European Credit Transfer System, ECTS – as a means of promoting student mobility;
- Promotion of mobility by overcoming obstacles to the effective exercise of free movement;
- Promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance; and
- Promotion of the European dimension in higher education.

The creation of a European space for higher education, the prime objective of the Bologna Declaration, should be completed in 2010. Every two years, the Bologna Process is monitored as to assess its progress of changes.

## The Lisbon Strategy and the European Research Area

The Bologna declaration should be seen in connection to another ambitious process, agreed upon by the members of the European Council at their meeting in Lisbon in March 2000, "to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion." The Lisbon Strategy intends to deal with the low productivity and stagnation of economic growth in the EU, through the formulation of various policy initiatives to be taken by all EU member states. It was adopted for a ten-year period in 2000 in Lisbon, Portugal by the European Council. One can identify eight dimensions of the strategy: creating an information society for all; liberalization by completing the single market and developing a state aid and competition policy; building network industries in telecommunications and transportation; creating efficient and integrated financial services; improving the enterprise environment for business start-ups and in the regulatory framework; increasing social inclusion by returning people to the workforce, by upgrading skills and modernizing social protection; enhancing sustainable development; and developing a European area for innovation, research and development (World Economic Forum, 2004).

As the last dimension shows, the Lisbon Strategy is, among other things, directed to the development of a European Research Area. "Research activities at national and Union level must be better integrated and coordinated to make them as efficient and innovative as possible, and to ensure that Europe offers attractive prospects to its best brains" (Presidency Conclusions, Lisbon European Council, 23 and 24 March 2000). In 2002, the European Council in Barcelona underlined also the importance of education for the Union. The link with the Bologna Process was established at the Berlin meeting in 2003, where the close link between education and research was confirmed. In its report 'The role of the Universities in the Europe of Knowledge' the Commission defined five main challenges for higher education in the European Union: increased demand for higher education, internationalization of teaching and research, cooperation between universities and industries, proliferation of institutions where knowledge is produced, and reorganization of knowledge (Commission, 2003).

The Lisbon Strategy of 2000 was ambitious and generic, more an overview of important issues to address than a concrete action agenda. A renewed Lisbon Strategy was formulated in 2005, pointed towards growth and jobs in Europe, and calling for investing more in knowledge and innovation (European Commission, 2005). The ambition was reduced to becoming a highly competitive knowledge-based economy by 2010.

## Developments in European student circulation

European trends in international mobility have been influenced by global, national and regional perspectives. If we look at the situation with respect to student mobility in Europe around 2002/2003, we see that in absolute numbers, Germany, the United Kingdom and France – which together also have 53 percent of the total number of universities in Europe - are still the major destinations for international students in Europe. Together with Australia and the United States they have a joint market share of 70 percent of all international students in OECD countries.

On average, according to UNESCO 2005, 6 percent of the students in Europe are internationally mobile students, but half of them come from inside Europe, which means that 3 percent are non-Europeans, similar as for Canada and one percent less than for the United States. An exception is France, where only 28 percent of the students are European, and 51 percent of the students come from Africa. For that country, but also for many other European countries one has to keep in mind that many international students are second or even third generation immigrant students who have a foreign passport but have received most of their education in the host country. This applies to students from former colonies and to the children of immigrant labourers of the sixties and seventies.

According to UNESCO 2006, in outward mobility the number of mobile students from Western Europe has stagnated over the past five years, resulting in a drop in share of all internationally mobile students from 22 percent to 17 percent. In absolute numbers, Western Europe has the second-largest group of mobile students abroad after East-Asia and the Pacific (407,000, 17 percent of the global total). On average, European countries see 2.8 percent of their students engaged in outbound mobility. Fifteen out of every thousand people of tertiary age are currently studying abroad. 77 percent of Western European mobile students stay within their region of origin, 15 percent go to North America. The United Kingdom, Germany, the United States and France are the main destinations. Central and Eastern Europe is following Western Europe as the region with the third-largest number of mobile students abroad, 300,000. Turkey and the Russian Federation in that region have the largest number of students abroad. The outbound mobility ratio (1.6 percent) is much lower though than for Western Europe (2.8 percent), and below the world average. The vast majority of students from Central and Eastern Europe study in Western Europe, in particular Germany, 20 percent stays in the region, relatively few go to the United States.

Inward and outward mobility in Europe is very closely related, since the destinations are primarily neighbouring countries in the region. Among the top five destinations one also finds nearly always also the United States, but only in the case of the United Kingdom as number one destination. Australia is mentioned four times among the top five destinations, in two cases by English speaking countries (the United Kingdom and Ireland) and in the two other cases in Scandinavia, where Australia in recent years has become a country of destination, also thanks to active marketing efforts by that country. The only other country of destination outside Europe mentioned once is Kazakhstan in the case of Russia. In other words, European student circulation is regional in the first place and oriented towards English speaking countries in the second place. This is less true for the countries in Central and Eastern Europe, where Germany is an important destination country.

A study conducted by the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) at the request of the European Commission on perceptions of European higher education in third countries (Academic Cooperation Association, 2005), shows among other things that the information about Europe and its higher education is limited primarily to the U.K., Germany and France. According to the study, students rank the U.S. first for issues such as innovation, competition and dynamism and see Europe as a more traditional destination, notable for its universities, its cultural heritage and its arts. In Russia and Latin America, Europe is better perceived than in Asia, where the US and Australia are more favored. The study sees a need and a potential to promote European higher education as a distinct brand and to create a perception of Europe as a whole. But also it calls for improvements to

enhance the attractiveness of European higher education, such as selection, scholarships, access to alternative sources of funding, recruitment of quality teaching and research staff, the implementation of more flexible immigration and visa policies, and the development of more programs taught in English.

What will be the future trends and issues concerning mobility in Europe? In the first place we observe under the influence of the Lisbon Strategy a radical shift from a quantitative approach to a more qualitative approach to recruitment of international students: the Brain Gain argument. This implies a different approach to legal immigration in the face of a shrinking labor force: recruitment of the best students and scholars, not to train them and then send them back, but to prepare them to take the empty places in our research and industry. This search for the best students without border discrimination will be the most important factor in student mobility in Europe for the coming decade and one for which competition with the rest of the world will become the most intense. It is connected to efforts to stop the brain drain of the best European students and scholars, in particularly to the USA, a growing concern for the realization of the objectives of the Lisbon Strategy.

In the second place one should not be surprised if several institutions of higher education in Europe will decide not to invest in recruitment of students from beyond the European Union. They might argue that there is still enough potential for recruitment of students from the countries that have just entered the EU – and in the future will enter the EU - , without the competitive disadvantage of higher tuition fees, without high recruitment costs and with fewer obstacles to enter and to adapt. This would further enhance the trends of international student circulation with the European region, which already is present as the figures above indicate.

In the third place, it is important to note that there is relatively little information about the levels and fields of study. The further evolution of the Bologna Process will provide more opportunities to collect information on student circulation by bachelor, master and doctorate programs, and by fields of study. It would not be surprising if the growth levels for Europe and in particular the European Union will be at the masters and doctorate level, and that competition for the best students will concentrate more on the natural sciences and engineering at these levels.

Other countries, in particular the English speaking countries such as the U.K. will also continue their quest for international students beyond Europe. Concerned with dropping numbers in 2005 – caused by growing competition and increased student via charges, Prime Minister Blaire announced in 2006 plans to attract a further 100.000 foreign students to the U.K., in addition to the current 300,000 (BBC, 18-04-2006).  This is the second initiative of the government of Tony Blair in a few years, but, although the initiative is supported by the university community, there is among academics and students concern about the increasing dependency of British higher education on overseas students' fees in an ever more competitive global environment.

Finally, there will be a slow but gradual trend towards cross-border delivery of programs by European institutions of higher education, within Europe primarily from the West to the East and South-East, and also beyond Europe. Europe, with the exception of the U.K. is still lagging behind in this area, but in particular in Eastern and Southern Europe, there is an increasing presence of foreign providers, both from Western Europe and elsewhere, and European universities are getting more active in franchising and twinning programs in Asia, Latin America and Africa.

## Global and European citizenship: Internationalization at Home

Over the past decades the emphasis in European internationalization of higher education has been more on mobility of students – study abroad as part of their home degree and for full degrees – than on the curriculum. In response to this focus on mobility, a counter-termovement, 'Internationalization at Home' emerged in Europe in the late 1990's, which wanted to focus more on the internationalization of the curriculum and the teaching and learning process: 'what about the 95% of students who do not travel abroad?' As Luijten-Lub (2007, 39) states: "At the beginning of 1990s the need was recognised to extend the analysis of (activities concerning) internationalisation from simply the physical mobility of students to the more complex issues of internationalisation for all faculty and students through curricular, co-curricular, and other institutional adaptation."

Jeanine Hermans (2005, 112), addressing the issue of culture as part of internationalization of higher education in Europe, comes to a rather critical analysis on the way culture is included as an important dimension, both in staff and student mobility, enrolment of international students, curriculum, advising international students, internationalization of staff, internationalization of facilities and services, positioning in international networks, international accreditation, policy relating to international student affairs, and institutional intercultural policy development. She concludes, that

"Awareness in higher education institutions of cultural diversity as a critical factor in successful internationalisation, although well established in international offices and with staff working internationally, is largely lacking in other parts of the institution. The awareness that exists is fragmented, and competence in dealing with diversity is more an exception at the level of an individual than common practice."

Her conclusion that "intercultural issues are so far still largely unresolved in the process of European higher education", and that "intercultural learning in individuals and organisations tends to occur accidentally and haphazardly" (Ibid, 113) gives a clear picture of the state of internationalization in Europe. Her use and that of other Europeans dealing with intercultural and global competences, of primarily American authors, is an illustration of the level of debate in Europe on these topics. A main study on internationalization of the curriculum in Europe, by Marijk van der Wende, dates already from 1997, and was a non-published PhD thesis. The contributions by European authors on the topic of internationalization at home, such as Nilsson, Otten, Teekens, Waechter, etc. (Nilsson and Otten, JSIE Special Issue, 2003) are either theoretical or case studies by institutions. Waechter ( 2003, 8) states correctly that  intercultural studies have much longer tradition in the United States than in Europe and that in particular in Europe the international and intercultural agenda have not yet been integrated.

## Other challenges and Opportunities in the internationalization of European Higher Education

Together, the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy are the foundation for a reform agenda that not only has to lead to more transparency and the removal of obstacles for internal labor and student mobility, but also has to make education and research more competitive in the context of the global knowledge economy, and in doing so increasing the focus on inward mobility from outside Europe.

The driving rationale behind the two reforms is the fact that Europe is lagging behind in Research and Development, innovation and change, with its competitors in the world, in particular the United States. The challenge for European higher education is how to

consolidate and enhance its quality, and in particular increase excellence, in the face of new regional but in particular global challenges. This is illustrated in the bottlenecks as mentioned by the Commission: uniformity leading to too few centers of world-class excellence, insularity, over-regulation, and under-funding. To battle these, the Commission proposes to work on increasing attractiveness, for instance by some concentration of funding on present and potential centers and networks of excellence; strengthening system and institutional management; and encouraging higher and more efficient investment in higher education by governments, companies and households (European Commission, 2005, 3-8, see also Commission, 2006).

Overcoming of these bottlenecks has to happen in circumstances where global competition in higher education will increase. In this competitive environment, quality will become more decisive than quantity; competition will require more cooperation, particularly in terms of strategic alliances; and competition will require new forms of cooperation, for instance joint and double degrees.

The Bologna Declaration and Lisbon Strategy are seen by the European governments and the higher education sector as the driving instruments to take up that challenge. The two processes not only look at the internal implications for higher education, but also explicitly refer to the need to increase the international competitiveness of European higher education and to make it more attractive to students from other continents. In that sense, the declaration follows the pattern visible everywhere, with competitiveness becoming a driving rationale for the internationalization of higher education. Van der Wende (2001, 249) described this as shift in paradigms from cooperation to competition. Creation of a European identity, a European citizenship, and the development of competitiveness with the rest of the world are the key catalysts for the political initiatives in education by the European Commission.

Van Vught *et al.* (2002, 117) though, in answering the question whether the Bologna process is an adequate European response to the wider challenges of globalization, come to the conclusion that

> "In terms of both practice and perceptions, internationalisation is closer to the well-established tradition of international co-operation and mobility and to the core academic values of quality and excellence, whereas globalization refers more to competition, pushing the concept of higher education as a tradable commodity and challenging the concept of higher education as a public good."

In that respect, it would be a simplification to see the Bologna Process as merely a response to globalization, more it can be seen as a form of internationalization and Europeanization of higher education at a new level, moving from the casuistic towards the systematic, and in the end from disconnected and specific to the core, towards an integrated internationalization of higher education (Teichler, 1999, 9-10).

There are other issues, not directly part of these two processes but implications of them, which become more relevant, in particular:

- The development of a typology of higher education institutions in Europe.
- The debate about tuition fees in Europe.
- Higher education as a tradable service.

European higher education is very heterogeneous and minimally transparent. A report by a group of primarily Dutch higher education scholars states that

"A better understanding of the various types of higher education institutions, their mission and provisions will support the European aim of increasing student mobility, inter-institutional and university-industry cooperation, the recognition of degrees and hence the international competitiveness of European higher education. Consequently, the exploration and development of a typology of higher education institutions in Europe is directly linked to the aims of the Bologna process and the Lisbon strategy" (Van Vught et al, 2005, 5).

The Carnegie Classifications in the United States and the UK-system of higher education serve as a reference point. Such a European typology should reflect the diversity in European higher education, but at the same time provide transparency, now lacking. The typology, according to the report, should be inclusive for all European institutions providing higher education; should be a tool enabling the development of institutional profiles; should not be prescriptive, exclusive or rigid; and its ownership should rest primarily with the institutions. The next step in developing such a typology will be a pilot project.

The debate on tuition fees in Europe has become recently more open, a discussion that is inspired by the Bologna Process and is influenced by EU regulations, but mainly is guided by national issues. As mentioned before, the United Kingdom already moved to differential fees for international and national students in 1979. Austria, Belgium, Ireland, The Netherlands, Denmark, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Finland and Sweden have recently followed the U.K. example for higher fees for non-EU students. In Germany, some of the states have been successful in demanding their own right to set tuition fees for national students. In that respect the landscape is rapidly changing as well. In the United Kingdom, after some intense debate, a government plan to allow variable and higher tuition fees was approved in 2004. Jan Sadlak and Jesus M. de Miguel (2005), in the European contribution to the 2005 World Report on Higher Education speak to this point: "Higher education as a 'public good' is still an important value in European higher education. At the same time there is a clear orientation towards a system based on charging tuition fees combined with a support system, inclusive of loans."

There is also a move to cross-border delivery of education in Europe – higher education activities in which the learners are located in a host country different from the one where the awarding institution is based - in particular in Southern European countries such as Greece, Italy, and Spain, with the U.K. and the U.S.A being the main exporters to these countries. According to Van der Wende and Middlehurst (2004, 117) "the overseas delivery of education via PIM (Programme and Institutional Mobility) programmes is a major and growing market for the United Kingdom," with an annual growth of 10 percent. Overall, one must say though that higher education at the European continent is not yet very actively involved in cross-border delivery of education.

## Concluding Remarks

Peter Stearns mentions American parochialism as one of the biggest challenges for American Society and international education. He added the need for "increasingly ample and explicit recognition of mutuality and reciprocity." Together they have resulted for instance in "the careful insulation of 'study abroad' students under the tutelage of American faculty using the same curricula as those back home," (Ibid, 239), but also in a geographical unbalance with "an excessive European focus," (Ibid, 244) resulting from "emendations of Eurocentrism and unthinking commitment to American exceptionalism" of American faculty. (Ibid, 247) Stearns is aware that there is a need for secondary

schools in the USA to move "in a global direction", adding new foreign languages and serious world history, but foresees for the foreseeable future that "universities must expect to need segments of general education to bring students more fully up to speed on basic global contexts." (Ibid, 256)

So, at first glance, there seems to have changed little in the differences in international education over the past decade. Also not in the way I noticed in 1998 " a nearly exclusive use of material from the 1980s from a limited number of US sources who appear in nearly all publications on international education from the US." (De Wit, 1998, 16). In 2007 I wrote on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of the Journal of Studies in International Education that "the literature base of nearly all manuscripts from the USA is limited to American literature." (De Wit, 2007, 257) American exceptionalism also seems to apply to the researchers in the field of international education.

But this would be a too narrow and negative view. Internationalisation of higher education and the focus on global citizenship and study abroad have changed drastically on both sides of the ocean over the past decade, as other chapters in this book and my overview of developments in Europe indicate. In the first place, internationalisation of higher education has changed itself radically over the past decade as a consequence of globalisation. From the more classic divide between 'Student and Staff Mobility' oriented internationalisation (study abroad, education abroad, academic mobility, foreign students advising, academic exchange, etc.) on the one hand and the more 'Curriculum' oriented approach (international studies, global studies, multicultural education, intercultural education, peace education, etc.) on the other hand, at present one can see a new divide emerging between 'Internationalisation at Home': activities that help students develop international understanding and intercultural skills, and 'Internationalisation Abroad': all forms of education crossing borders, mobility of students, teachers, scholars, programmes, courses, curriculum, projects. (Knight, 2006, 59).

In the second place, one can observe an increasing concern about the attention for global issues: history, foreign languages, etc. in primary and secondary education in Europe, comparable to the United States. So, also in Europe, there is an unfortunate need for inclusion of global issues in the curriculum of higher education, and one already see the emergence of such programs, for instance the development of university colleges providing general education in The Netherlands (University College Utrecht, Roosevelt Academy, University College Maastricht, University College Amsterdam) over the past ten years.

In the third place, in Europe the mainstreaming of internationalization in the agenda of higher education in recent years appears to lead in many cases to more fragmentation in approaches, similar to the United States. This might seem contradictory at first glance but the trend to inseminate the international dimension into all functions and activities of the institution and no longer concentrate them in international offices, together with the increasing importance of recruitment of international students, might result in a divide between study abroad on the one hand and enrolment of international students on the other hand. In the United States one observes a counter trend towards a more integrative approach to internationalization, stimulated by programs of the American Council on Education, NAFSA and other organisations to assess and support internationalization of the campus (Green and Olsen, 2003; ACE, 2008), and more attention to internationalization at the graduate level, in particular in law schools and MBA programs, although – as Sterns (2008, 78) states, limited and tentatively, as "the graduate field may be more

resistant to challenges to routine, less well organized to pick up new kinds of global signals."

In the fourth place, the debate on and in particular the implementation of intercultural and global competences in the curriculum seem to be more advanced in the United States than in Europe. Based on a stronger history in this area (for instance Mestenhauser and El-lingboe, 1998), recent contributions from among others Deardorff (2006) on intercultural competences and Hunter et all (2006) on global competences, are examples.

One can add to these observations also the trend in European higher education to deregulation and privatisation, and a change of funding mechanisms and leadership styles more similar to the ones in the United States, and it becomes clear that we are moving indeed more in each other's direction, notwithstanding the fact that - as I indicated at the beginning of this paper - higher education and its international dimension both in Europe and the United States are still based primarily on the nation state, even in this area of rapid globalization and regionalization of our economies and societies.

# Research and Resources

# An Overview and Analysis of International Education Research and Resources

*Hans de Wit and David Urias*

*T*he study of the internationalization of higher education has developed rapidly over the past two decades with a great percentage of materials continuing to be strongly dominated by North American and Western European conceptions. However, there has been a recent increase of information being disseminated from Asia, Latin America, and Africa. The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to present an overview of key resources and act as a primary foundational collection of pertinent, contemporary resources in international education. The focus is to provide a primer concerning which journals, centers, books, databases, and websites are of relevance for those involved in the study and practice of international education, while placing such resources in perspective of trends/developments in the field.

In the beginning of the 1990s, as Teichler (1996) observed, there was a lack of comprehensive documentation on internationalization of higher education. He expressed the hope that *"a network of key institutions cooperating in joint provision of the global state of the art"* (ibid, p. 338) would emerge. He also called for a broader thematic range, and improvement in its theoretical basis and research methods. Research on international education, according to Teichler, was focussed mainly on: psychological research on student attitudes and behaviour; experiences by students from developing countries studying abroad; and descriptions and evaluations of international programs and projects. He also stated that most of the research was "*occasional, coincidental, sporadic or episodic*," (1996, p. 341) with most of the research conducted in the United States.

In 1997, de Wit (1997, pp. 7-8) in the inaugural issue of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* also noted a lack of a strong research tradition on the internationalization of higher education and, as such, a lack of academic recognition of the field. Ten years later, De Wit observed in the same Journal:

'An increasing number of manuscripts in the field of international education are published in more generic (higher) education journals, and the quality of the discourse in journals, at conferences, and at seminars or workshops (...) has improved as well. Internationalization of (higher) education has become more important on the policy agenda but also on the research agenda (De Wit, 2007, pp. 258-259).'

Kehm and Teichler (2007) stated in the same issue that there has been a substantive growth in the number of this type of study, and internationalization has become a more visible component of general publications on higher education. They also observe that studies on this topic are not easily accessible, are targeting more practitioners and policy makers than higher education researchers, are more closely linked to other topics than focussed on the theme of internationalization itself, and are more complex and highly normative. Over the past five years this trend has continued with more and more higher education media paying attention to the internationalization of higher education – increasingly online. Many new books and articles have been published on the theme. And furthermore, one can see

an increasing interest among graduate students focusing their master and doctoral research on the internationalization of higher education.

The point by Kehm and Teichler (2007) concerning a lack of sufficient access and familiarity with resources on internationalization of higher education is still valid. They state that there are:

> ...only a few researchers who continuously engage with the issue and have made it their field of specialization. There are even fewer centers or institutes that have internationalisation of higher education as a core theme of their research activities (Kehm and Teichler, 2007, pp. 263-264).

Although detailed in identifying the key sources on the internationalization of higher education in terms of books, articles, centers, and websites, this chapter is not comprehensive in the depth of its coverage. It is not the intention to provide a bibliography of publications on the theme. In 1996, Albert Over (1996) published such a bibliography as part of the book *Academic Mobility in a Changing World.* He identified 1500 references since 1980 in English, French, and German. The strong presence of English was already clear, as only 8% of the publications were not in English, primarily German - funded by the Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst (DAAD) [German Academic Exchange Service], and even those were mainly official documents. At the time of the bibliography's publication, the focus, with respect to internationalization, was on mobility, which was also the central theme of the book in which it appeared. Since then, topics under *internationalization* have become much more diverse and the number of publications has drastically increased. An attempt to update Over's (1996) bibliography would become an enormous exercise, even if limited to publications in English and the period 1990-2010. As an alternative approach, a group of 72 experts (of which 28 hail from the USA, 21 from Europe, 6 from Canada, 6 from Australia, 3 from Asia, 3 from Latin America, and 3 from Africa) in the field of internationalization of higher education research was asked to provide a list of five books, articles, and websites they consider essential for the study of the theme. It was not the intention to be complete, as previously mentioned, but to give an idea what, according to the experts, can be considered highly relevant sources of information for those doing research, are practitioners, and/or policy makers with an interest in this field. The response rate was too low and the results were too diverse to reach clear conclusions. The initiative, though, provides some relevant lessons, such as confirming that the field of internationalization of higher education is extremely broad and that relevant sources of information cannot be easily categorized. It also showed that there appears to be more common agreement on the relevant websites for international higher education than on books and articles. Additionally, the answers on our survey reflected what Kehm and Teichler (2007, p. 263) wrote: "in looking at authors addressing the international dimension of higher education, we often find references to persons – such as – in alphabetical order – Philip G. Altbach, Jane Knight, Peter Scott, Ulrich Teichler, Marijk van der Wende and Hans de Wit." At the same time, results indicated a much broader variety of topics and authors, and in particular some new names came to light. Without wanting to exclude others, we name a few of them: Barbara Kehm, Vik Naidoo, Lisa Childress, Betty Leask, Elspeth Jones, Darla Deardorff, and Viktor Savicki; the last four representing the strong recent focus on internationalization of the curriculum and international/intercultural competencies.

## Research Centers

Of those Centers for Research on Higher Education, which focus some attention to research on internationalization, are still limited in their consideration of research on internationalization and there is a concern that the continuity of their focus on internationalisation is in danger when their leading researchers retire. This applies to the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College, USA and the International Center for Higher Education Research at the University of Kassel, Germany. Other centers, such as the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) at the University of Twente, the Netherlands, are less focussed on internationalization research than in the past.

On the other hand, the Ontario Institute of Education, Toronto, Canada; the Center for Studies in Higher Education at the University of California, Berkeley; the Centre for the Study of Higher Education at the University of Melbourne – to mention just a few – are increasingly adding an international dimension to their research. There is also an emerging young pool of researchers in different parts of the world, including Asia, Latin America and Africa. The African Network for Internationalization of Education (ANIE) is an example of this development: an independent, non-profit, non-governmental network committed to the advancement of high quality research, capacity building, and advocacy on internationalization of higher education with prime focus on Africa (www.anienetwork.org). At the same time, the range of topics under the umbrella theme of internationalization of higher education has increased and the terms *globalization* and *regionalization* have become closely linked to and regularly overlapping with *internationalization*.

## Journals

The main journal in the field of internationalisation of higher education is the *Journal of Studies in International Education* (JSIE). For an overview of JSIE, see the attached box. Over the fifteen years of its existence, JSIE has evolved into a broadly respected academic journal, both by researchers and practitioners in international higher education. Kehm and Teichler (2007)  conclude in their analysis of the journal that "altogether, the Journal of Studies in International Education has been a mirror of the diversity of themes, concepts, and findings relevant to understanding international aspects in higher education. It also mirrors changes of emphasis over time" (p. 269). At the same time they observe that "its publications deserve more careful comparative analyses about the differences in emphasis in various countries and the underlying conditions and rationales" (ibid, p. 269).

The JSIE is not the only journal in the field. *Slightly before the JSIE, the journal Frontiers appeared in the USA.* Since its founding at Boston University in 1994, *Frontiers* has established itself as a relevant journal for international educators, with a specific focus on study abroad. *Frontiers* is sponsored by a consortium of American institutions. *This journal* is a strategic partner of the Forum on Education Abroad *(www.forumea.org)*, sharing and supporting the work and goals of that organization. The journal's editorial offices are housed at Dickinson College, Pennsylvania.

*Additionally, Frontiers* is an interdisciplinary journal publishing manuscripts from a wide range of disciplines and encourages approaches to topics that use multiple and mutually supporting forms of analysis. Research on the issue of student learning abroad, for example, may incorporate research in anthropology, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, study abroad, and education.  *Frontiers* generally publishes two volumes per year, alternating between a general, eclectic volume and a thematic volume that covers a specific topic in-depth. Each volume typically contains research articles, an essay, book reviews,

and an update of a particular theme or topic in study abroad. Recently, *Frontiers* has also published an annual Special Volume, featuring the research of winners of the Forum's Undergraduate Research Award, together with commentary by faculty and resident directors on the role of research in undergraduate education abroad. These special volumes, as well as *A History of US Study Abroad: Beginnings to 1965*, have been supported by grants from the IFSA Foundation (International Flight Services Association). For more information, visit www.frontiersjournal.com.

*Educación Global* is another journal that, since 1997, publishes an annual issue. This journal is published by the *Mexican Association for International Education* (AMPEI) and its aim is to publish articles on the internationalization of education and international cooperation. Its articles cover developments in Mexico and Latin America, but also include other parts of the world and thematic and conceptual developments as well. The articles are published in either Spanish or English. For more information, visit www.ampei.org. mx/publicaciones.

An important journal for those interested in international higher education trends and issues from a thematic and regional perspective is *International Higher Education*, published four times a year by the *Center for International Higher Education at Boston College*. Since 2008, it is also published in Chinese, and since 2010 in Russian. The Center also regularly publishes important books on developments in international higher education. And although the articles and books are not primarily focused on internationalization of higher education, several of them deal with this theme and the other publications are relevant for insight into the general trends in international higher education. (For more information: www.bc.edu/cihe). In addition to these journals, there is a need for more (higher) education research journals to publish articles on the theme of the internationalization of higher education, e.g., the Comparative Education Review, published by the University of Chicago for the Comparative and International Education Society www.cies.us and other journals in comparative education.

Finally, journals of the different associations such as NAFSA's *International Educator* (www.nafsa.org), EAIE's *Forum* (www.eaie.nl), and IIE's *IIE Networker Magazine* (www.iie.org) write about internationalization of higher education, although primarily with a focus on policy and practice. Also, the newsletter of the International Association of Universities (IAU) publishes regularly on internationalization of higher education. Its Global Surveys on this topic, published in 2003, 2005, and 2010, provide insight into global and regional trends with respect to internationalization of higher education. (See www.Iau-aiu.net).

## Websites

Websites are increasingly becoming important sources of information, particularly as more and more printed sources move to the electronic realm. Some websites have already been mentioned above. Other valuable web sites include the Manitoba International Education News Service (www.studyinmanitoba.ca/news-service-home), the Higher Education International Unit site and newsletter (www.international.ac.uk), and the service by the Dutch Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education (Nuffic), (www.nuffic.nl/international-organizations/international-education-monitor).World Education Services (WES) has an online newsletter with relevant information on international higher education: World Education News and Review (www.wes.org/ewenr).

Important sources of information also include web based news sites on higher educa-

tion that write regularly on international education, e.g., University World News (www.universityworldnews.com), Inside Higher Education (www.insidehighered.com), The Chronicle of Higher Education (www.chronicle.com, includes a global edition), and the Times Higher Education (www.timeshighereducation.co.uk).

## Databases

The most substantive database of studies in internationalization of higher education is the IDP Database of Research on International Education. This searchable database contains details of more than 7.500 books, articles, conference papers, and reports on various aspects of international education from publishers in Australia and abroad. The database houses material published from 1990 to the present. It contains references and/or publications by publishers, but also from many organizations, not only from Australia but also from elsewhere. It provides an informative overview of organizations, publishers, countries and links. (Visit: www.idp.com/research/database_of_research).

Another source of studies is The Observatory. This resource was originally a collaborative initiative with the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) and Universities UK. Since 2010, it is linked to I-Graduate. The Observatory tracks a wide range of media and news sources to keep subscribers up-to-date with the latest developments in borderless higher education around the world. The Observatory's full archive of news headlines, articles and reports is available on an unlimited basis to subscribers only. However, there are a range of resources and services listed that can be accessed by non-subscribers:  www.obhe.ac.uk.

It is important to note that several organisations and centers provide regular updates on key publications on internationalisation and international higher education. Two that immediately come to mind are the Academic Cooperation Association and their newsletter *Education Europe* (www.aca-secretariat.be); and the Center for International Higher Education (www.bc.edu/cihe).

## General books on internationalization

The first one to mention is:
- Klasek, Charles B. (Ed.). (1992). *Bridges to the Future: Strategies for Internationalizing Higher Education.* AIEA, Carbondale.

This book examines the creation, development, and enhancement of international programs in colleges and universities. Its contribution rests in creating a debate, both in Northern America and Europe, on the concept of internationalization and resulted in an initiative by the Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) Program of the OECD.

In 1995, a study appeared that attempted to provide a regional comparative overview of internationalization of higher education. It was based on the aforementioned initiative by the IMHE Program of the OECD to map developments with respect to the international dimensions of higher education. The first study focused on Europe, Northern America, and Australia. Later studies spot lighted the Asia-Pacific region, Latin America, and Africa. These studies still play an important role in the comparative analysis of internationalization of higher education, and were funded by the OECD (the first two), the World Bank (the third), and the Carnegie and Ford Foundations (the fourth).

- De Wit, Hans (Editor). (1995). *Strategies for Internationalisation of Higher Education, A Comparative Study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America*. EAIE (in cooperation with IMHE/OECD and AIEA), Amsterdam.
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- Teferra, Damtew and Knight, Jane (Eds.). (2008). *Higher Education in Africa: The International Dimension.* Center for International higher Education, Boston College. Association of African Universities. Accra, Ghana.

In addition, the study for IMHE/OECD on quality and internationalization of higher education may be included in that series:
- Knight, Jane and de Wit, Hans (Ed.). (1999). *Quality and Internationalisation of Higher Education*, OECD, Paris. (French edition) Qualité et Internationalisation de l'Enseignement Supérieur, OCDE, Paris. (Spanish Edition). Calidad y Internacionalización de la Educación Superior. ANUIES, Mexico (2001).

These studies, while outdated in their concrete data, are still relevant today by providing a conceptual framework for understanding the internationalization of higher education.
Other general overviews and analyses of internationalization of higher education have been published as well, including:
- Scott, Peter (1998). Globalisation and the University. Peter Scott (ed.).*The Globalization of Higher Education.* Buckingham, SRHE and Open University Press.
- De Wit, Hans. (2002). *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe, A Historical, Comparative and Conceptual Analysis.* Greenwood Studies in Higher Education. Greenwood, Connecticut.
- Ninnes, Peter, and Hellsten, Meeri (EDs.). *(2005). Internationalizing Higher Education. Critical Explorations of Pedagogy and Policy. CERC Studies in Comparative Education 16. CERC, University of Hong Kong, Springer.
- Knight, Jane. (2008). *Higher Education in Turmoil. The Changing World of Internationalization.* Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

In addition, general higher education works have been giving increasing attention to the internationalization of higher education, such as:
- Enders, Jürgen and Fulton, Oliver (Eds.). (2002). *Higher Education in a Globalising World. International Trends and Mutual Observations.* Kluwer, The Netherlands.
- Larsen, Kurt, and Vincent-Lancrin, Stephan. (2004). Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education. Opportunities and Challenges. OECD, Paris.

- Forest, James and Altbach, Philip (Eds.). (2006). *International Handbook of Higher Education*, Volume I and II. Kluwer, The Netherlands.
- Altbach, Philip; Reisberg, Liz; and Laura Rumbley. (2009). *Trends in Global Higher Education, Tracking an Academic Revolution.* Boston, Center for International Higher Education, Boston College.

In the area of internationalization of the curriculum and international/intercultural competencies, some key publications that are referenced frequently include the works of:
- Nilsson, Bengt and Otten, Mathias (Eds.). (2003). *Internationalisation at Home.* Special Issue *Journal of Studies in International Education*. SAGE.
- Beelen, Jos (ed.). (2007). *Implementing Internationalisation at Home*. Amsterdam: EAIE.
- Olson, Christa, Evans, R., & Shoenberg, R.F. (2007). *At home in the world: Bridging the gap between internationalization and multicultural education*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Savicki, Victor (2008). *Developing Intercultural Competence and Transformation: Theory, Research, and Application in International Education. Sterling*. VA: Stylus.
- Deardorff, Darla (Ed.) (2009). *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Jones, Elspeth (ed.). (2010). *Internationalisation and the Student Voice*. New York: Routledge.

The above books owe a lot to two studies from the 1990s:
- Van der Wende, Marijk C. (1996). *Internationalising the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective*. Haarlem.
- Mestenhauser, Josef, and Ellingboe, Brenda J. (1998). *Reforming the Higher Education Curriculum. Internationalizing the Campus.* American Council on Education/Oryx Press Series on Higher Education. Phoenix, Arizona.

At the regional and national level, numerous books, too many to mention here, have been published over the past years, including those from several organizations which publish book series on internationalization. Previously mentioned was *The Observatory*, but also the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) in cooperation with Lemmens Publishers in Bonn who publishes regular books on this theme, as do the European Association for International Education (EAIE), and NAFSA: Association for International Educators. In the USA, the Institute of International Education (IIE) has a valuable series of publications. In addition to IIE's annual report *Open Doors*, IIE also publishes, with support from AIFS, a series of books on Global Higher Education Research. The American Council on Education (ACE) has published several series on Mapping Internationalization, as well as a series on campus leadership focused on internationalization. The European University Association (EUA), in cooperation with ACA and Raabe publishers, published the *EUA/ACA Handbook Internationalisation of European Higher Education* (as of 2011, published as the *EAIE Handbook*) and the *EUA Bologna Handbook, Making Bologna Work*, both with regular supplements (www.raabe.de). Other publishers like Sage Publications, Routledge, Stylus, and Sense Publishers regularly publish books on internationalization.

Recently some interesting readers and books have been published that illustrate the increase of publications in the field:

- Lewin, Ross (Ed.). (2009). *The Handbook of Practice and Research in Study Abroad. Higher Education and the Quest for Global Citizenship*. EECA/Routledge, New York.
- Stearns, Peter N. (2009). *Educating Global Citizens in Colleges and Universities. Challenges and Opportunities*. Routledge, New York.
- Childress, Lisa K. (2010). *The Twenty-First Century University. Developing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization.* Peter Lang, New York.
- Maringe, Felix and Foskett, Nick (Eds.). (2010). *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education. Theoretical, Strategic and Management Perspectives.* Continuum, London.

## Concluding observations

As stated before, it has not been the intention to present a comprehensive bibliography on the internationalisation of higher education. The field is too broad and has evolved over the years so drastically that this is an impossible task. However, an attempt is made to provide an overview of key sources and trends in publications in this field. This is important as one can see an increase in graduate and other types of professional research on the internationalisation of higher education by young scholars and practitioners around the world. Two examples illustrate this: NAFSA's Teaching, Learning, Scholarship (TLS) Knowledge Community, and since 2009, the European Association for International Education's (EAIE) special interest group, Researchers in International Education. Exchange of information and sources was seen by the members of these groups as a key need.

An increase in researchers and publications from Asia, Latin America and Africa should be noted. If one looks at the submitted and accepted manuscripts to the J*ournal of Studies in International Education*, there is an ever increasing diversity, not only in themes and topics, but also in authors and the regions they come from and write about. At the same time, the field is still dominated primarily by English speaking researchers, publications, and resources from Europe and Northern America. It will be interesting to see if this will change in the years to come due to the increasing importance of Asia and emerging economies in the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America, and their higher education sector.

## Box: Journal of Studies in International Education

The first issue of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* (JSIE) was published in Spring 1997 by the *Council on International Educational Exchange* (CIEE) on the occasion of its 50th anniversary, and in a cooperative agreement with the *European Association for International Education*. With Volume Iv, 2000, the *Association for Studies in International Education* (ASIE) took over as publisher from the CIEE. With Volume V, 2001, ASIE signed a contract with *Sage Publications*, by which Sage would publish the journal on behalf of ASIE. The number of issues expanded from 2 to 4 issues a year, in 2010 further extended to five issues a year.

The *Journal of Studies in International Education* is a unique journal in the sense that it is created and owned by an international group of professional associations, all active in the field of international education: membership based and intermediate and service oriented organizations, representing all different continents of the world. At present there are thirteen organizations and associations member of ASIE, including large mem-

bership associations such as the *Association of International Educators* (NAFSA) and the A*ssociation of International Education Administrators* (AIEA) in the USA, the *Canadian Bureau for International Education* (CBIE) , the *European Association for International Education* (EAIE), the *Asia-Pacific Association for International Education* (APAIE) and the *Japan Network for International Education* (JAFSA) in Asia, the *International Education Association of Australia* (IEAA), the *International Education Association of South Africa* (IEASA) and the *Mexican Association for International Education* (AMPEI) in Latin America. Also organizations like the *British Council* in the United Kingdom, *Nuffic* in the Netherlands, and *World Education Services* (WES) in the USA. Nuffic acts as the formal representative for ASIE.

They have joined efforts in stimulating the study of international education by creating this research-based journal, which is peer reviewed and covers the broad field of internationalization of higher education. Among the topics that the Journal focuses on are: internationalization of higher education; globalization and international higher education; international cooperation in higher education; national and transnational policies for internationalization of higher education; strategic institutional management of internationalization; international exchange programs; internationalization of teaching, learning and research; internationalization of the curriculum; study abroad; mobility of students and academic staff; cooperation and competition; cross-border delivery of education.

For more information, see  http://www.nuffic.net/asie or http://jsi.sagepub.com.

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This publication contains recent publications by professor (lector) in internationalisation of education, Hans de Wit, and was issued on the occasion of his Public Lecture titled: **Law of the Stimulative Arrears?** Internationalisation of the Universities of Applied Sciences, Misconceptions and Challenges, delivered on April 6, 2011. It contains the English translation of his public lecture as well as eight other articles he has written alone or with colleagues in international books and journals over the past three years. The publication also contains a complete overview of De Wit's publications on internationalisation of higher education from 1991 through 2011, and is issued by CAREM.