Bernd Wächter (ed.)

Internationalisation
in Higher Education

A Paper and Seven Essays on
International Cooperation in the Tertiary Sector

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Preface

In the second half of 1998, the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) decided to embark on a project devoted to the state of play in internationalisation of higher education. After a long period during which international cooperation had been at best a minor concern among the topical issues in the higher education debate, it started to move centre-stage in the 1990s. It thus appeared to be the right time to attempt to take stock of developments, and to look at the agendas ahead of us.

The present publication contains the results of this project, which fall into two related but distinct parts. Part I consists of a longer essay, which tries to systematise the issue of internationalisation by giving an overview. The essay looks at the motivations for internationalisation, the activities that constitute internationalisation, and the policies of internationalisation. It also includes a case study of international cooperation in Europe, one of the continents where international higher education cooperation is well advanced. This paper was written by Bernd Wächter, Director of ACA, in collaboration with Aaro Ollikainen, ACA research officer from CIMO in Helsinki, and Brigitte Hasewend, Deputy Director of ACA.

Part II is made up of seven shorter articles, each one of which focuses on a particular aspect of internationalisation. While part I takes an "aerial view" of the theme as a whole, the think-pieces are characterised by a "microscopic look" on individual issues, such as marketing and export of higher education, brain-drain, quality assurance in internationalisation, and the role of the rector in the process of internationalising a university. The authors, Peter Oettli, Jon Hagen, Narciso Matos, Lauri Lajunen and Terhi Törmänen, John Kelly and Bernd Wächter, report from the perspective of their various continents and countries.

Both parts of the study were written between November 1998 and late spring of 1999. This is important in two respects. First, important events and developments that took place after March 1999 are not reflected in the publication, which, for technical reasons, appears only in autumn 1999. Second, the publication owes much of its existence to a request by the International Association of University Presidents (IAUP), who held a large conference in Brussels in early summer of 1999, and asked ACA to contribute its thoughts on the subject of internationalisation. While the work conducted for IAUP is not identical with this publication, it goes back to the same origins.

ACA would like to express its gratefulness to the authors who contributed to this publication. It became possible only through them.

Bernd Wächter
Editor

PART I
Internationalisation in Higher Education:

A Paper by Bernd Wächter, Aaro Ollikainen and Brigitte Hasewend.

1.   Introduction

International cooperation of universities and other higher education institutions has long been a rather marginal concern. While there was no lack of lip-service paid to this noble cause, the importance of internationalisation, both as a policy issue and in terms of tangible activity, was in effect rather low. This familiar state of affairs has recently started to change. Internationalisation is one of the runners-up among the prevailing higher education policy issues which have dominated the agenda of the 1990s, and which will, most probably, still gain in importance in the decades to come. Concrete steps have also been taken, in some parts of the world obviously much more than in others.

In order to support the move of higher education towards international cooperation and internationalisation, and in order to take stock of developments in this area, the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) decided to produce a paper on the theme in late 1998. This determination coincided with the fact that the International Association of University Presidents (IAUP) held its 12th Triennial Conference in Brussels in July 1999, and approached ACA with the request to produce a document on the state of the art of internationalisation, as one of the documents to inform discussions at this conference. The present publication emerged out of the work ACA conducted for IAUP, though it is not identical with the latter.

The essay pursues a number of different objectives. First, it is to give an account of the present state of internationalisation in higher education institutions, and on the accompanying scholarly debate on the subject. Second, it attempts to identify, to outline and to analyse the various activities in which universities can engage in order to internationalise, to identify the framework conditions which are of importance in the implementation of these activities, and to depict the overall policies and strategies which can be adopted to guide such activities. Third, and closely linked to the former aim, the essay is intended as a practical and useful tool for university leaders who are faced with the task of defining internationalisation policies and priorities in their own institution. It is for this reason, as well as for methodological considerations stated below, that the perspective of the individual higher education institution has been chosen as the main focus in most parts of the study. However, the particular viewpoints of other "stakeholders", such as government or industry, are also reflected.

1.1. Definition of Internationalisation

For the purposes of this essay, internationalisation of higher education is understood as the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching and research function of a higher education institution. This is the standard concept on which research on internationalisation is based today. For reasons explained below, the teaching function is of prime importance in the process of internationalisation.

The above definition has a number of important implications. The first one of these is that the study will look at internationalisation from a predominantly institutional point of view. The guiding question of this paper is how to internationalise a higher education institution, and not how to stimulate international cooperation in general. This does not mean that internationalisation policies at systems level, i.e. regional, national and supra-national policies will be excluded from this study altogether. But they figure mainly in their role as important framework conditions for the process of internationalisation at the level of the institution, which is the focal point of the study.

The second consequence of the definition concerns the relationship between international cooperation and internationalisation. International cooperation and internationalisation are not fully identical concepts. The concept of internationalisation is both wider and narrower than that of international cooperation. It is wider because it includes activities such as the development of international curricula, the provision of foreign language tuition, or the establishment of recognition procedures, which need not involve any cooperation with partners in a foreign country at all, i.e. which do not necessitate international cooperation. At the same time, the activities covered by the concept of internationalisation are more limited than those of international cooperation, in that they exclude some forms of cooperation which do not aim to internationalise a university. This concerns, for example, a wide range of aspects of development cooperation. Doubtless, development cooperation is an important form of international higher education cooperation, but its primary objective is to develop and strengthen the institutional base of a university in the developing world, and not to internationalise it. Higher education development cooperation does still play an important role in this study, but an attempt is made to focus on the particular issues of higher education development cooperation which are relevant in an internationalisation context.

The third consequence concerns the relative importance of research collaboration in internationalising a higher education institution. Unlike teaching, research is by its very nature international. In the attempt to increase the stock of existing knowledge, the reference point is by necessity the state of the art at an international level. There is no such thing as increasing the stock of knowledge of Japanese or Chilean theoretical mathematics. Thus, "to integrate an international dimension" into the research function of a university is, in most cases, not a meaningful concept. Therefore, in comparison

to the teaching function, the research aspect will not figure prominently in this study. Nonetheless, research issues are not excluded from its scope.

The last implication of the above definition of internationalisation is that the higher education institutions this study looks at are not only universities proper, but that the object of this study is the whole spectrum of tertiary institutions, inclusive of non-university higher education institutions. To include non-university higher education in this report is a question of relevance: in many countries, this sector outnumbers the traditional type of university institution by far. The inclusion of the non-university sector reinforces the need for a concentration on the teaching function mentioned above. The large majority of institutions in the non-university sector does not carry out research, or only on a very modest scale. The terms "institution" and "university" are synonymously used in this report to denote any kind of tertiary institution unless otherwise stated.

1.2.   Structure of the Essay

Following this introductory note, a first substantive chapter (chapter 2) is devoted to the question why higher education institutions should embark on the road to internationalisation. Paradoxically, the motives and rationale for the internationalisation of higher education are one of the most neglected issues in the debate on international university cooperation. This neglect is barely explicable, however, given that the particular rationales and motivations which drive the internationalisation process have direct and indirect effects on choices as to the activities to be followed and the policies to be pursued in the implementation process. It is not possible to define an internationalisation policy without an awareness of the overall aims and objectives it is to serve.

Chapter 3 is devoted to the actual activities that figure in the spectrum of internationalisation and to the framework conditions which play a role in their implementation. This chapter, and the following one, represent the core of the study. They are intended to furnish the reader with an inventory of the various possibilities at their disposal to internationalise their institution. Yet, the chapter goes beyond a sheer identification of international activities, and of the framework conditions which govern their use. An attempt is also made to discuss the potential and the limitations inherent in the various possibilities, and, in a way as non-normative as any possible, to begin to formulate some elements of good practice.

Chapter 4 looks at the various international activities in their mutual interdependence. It attempts to display possibilities of integrating the various elements discussed in chapter 3 into a meaningful overall approach, by pointing out ways to formulate an institution-wide internationalisation policy, and it looks at strategies for its implementation.

Chapter 5 presents a continental case study of a higher education internationalisation process. The chosen continent is Europe. The chapter depicts the history of the European Union's programmes in higher education, their present state of development and future perspectives. It also touches on matters of an emerging supranational European higher education policy. While the European approach to internationalisation may by no means be the preferred avenue to take, and while other continents must and do find their own solutions, the experience gained on the continent which is probably most advanced in its endeavours at educational collaboration does yield useful insights into the challenges and opportunities of internationalisation.

Chapter 6 draws the main conclusions. It represents a set of recommendations on key issues of internationalisation, which should support higher education institutions to integrate an international dimension into their mission and daily practice.

A glossary of the most important organisations, programmes, abbreviations and documents referred to in the study is attached.

With the exception of the European chapter, an attempt has been made in the study to avoid too dominant a focus on Europe and educational collaboration on this continent. However, European examples still figure highly in the non-European chapters. The authors thought this appropriate for two reasons. First, the rapid development in European collaboration over the last ten to fifteen years makes Europe a particularly interesting and instructive case. Secondly, the authors of this report can understandably speak with some more authority about developments in their own region than in other parts of the world

2. Why Internationalisation?
Motives and Rationale Behind International Higher Education Cooperation

More than anything else, an abundance of good will has probably hampered the status and the progress of internationalisation in higher education. For too long, a peculiar taboo on the subject stifled a rational debate about its benefits. There are those academics and administrative professionals, who harbour an almost religious belief in international cooperation. And there is the – probably larger – group of sceptics who have rational and irrational doubts about the relevance of internationalisation, but who do not dare to voice them lest they appear parochial. Thus, a critical debate about the "whys" and "why nots" of internationalisation developed only late in the day, not to speak of discussions relating to secondary questions such as the "whats" and "hows" of international cooperation. The fact that international cooperation remained a fairly marginal concern of universities for a long period, and is still today not regarded by a large number of institutions as a central element of their mission, has a lot to do with the taboo referred to above.

Internationalisation of the education function of a university, as distinct from its research function, is in need of justification. Research appears to be international by its very nature. To widen the frontiers of knowledge requires one to take into account the stock of existing knowledge on a global scale. It is – unfortunately – a fact that not every activity conducted under the label of research lives up to this demand. Also, there might be particular subjects or themes which are of a more regional or national concern. Most serious research, however, would certainly not merit its name if it ignored the state of the art on an international scale.

This semi-identity of research and internationalisation has no parallel with regard to the educational function of universities. There are, of course, disciplines and themes which are, by their very nature, international. Such would be the study of foreign languages and cultures, or comparative studies of various sorts. The same goes for peace studies or any disciplines which touch on issues of a global concern. As a result of overarching developments in non-educational fields such as the rapid process of economic globalisation, the need to internationalise has over time become less controversial in disciplines such as business administration. In other fields, notably in the natural and pure sciences, with mathematics as the prime example, the need for internationalisation is much less apparent.

It must be underlined that the types of motivation, rationale and justification for internationalisation in higher education differ markedly with regard to the various "stakeholders", i.e. the different groups that take an interest in the education product delivered by a university. Students and academic staff, the institution's leadership, the members of a university's administration, certainly

share a common core of expectations, but each of these groups also have their own interests. This applies even more with regard to stakeholder groups outside the institution. The state, in most cases the largest, if not only source of funding, will harbour expectations different from those of the corporate world. The latter's interests will again not always be identical with those of local or regional authorities, and the whole spectrum of social partners or professional associations. Some of these stakeholders from the wider range of society have an inherently national outlook, while the perspective of others, such as international associations or inter- and supra-national government, by necessity transcends country borders.

This chapter attempts to outline some of the main motives for internationalisation. It is not meant to be all-inclusive, but rather to provide a background of understanding for the following chapters, which deal with internationalisation in a more concrete form. In line with the above, readers are reminded that not all of the different motives discussed below apply to the entirety of stakeholders – rather the reverse is true. In the same vein, their classification into genuinely educational motives, rationale guided by the educational market, foreign cultural policy considerations, and a set of other motives in which education plays only a supportive role with regard to other policy objectives, is by no means the only feasible way of categorisation.

2.1. Educational Motives

Internationalisation is one of the elements which increase the quality of the provision of higher education. This is the prime argument for the introduction and the furthering of international higher education cooperation from an educational perspective. It is also the key hypothesis on which this paper rests. Some readers might contest this proposition. Agreement to it, or otherwise, will depend on the question as to whether or not internationalisation should be an integrated part of an institution's mission, and of the education it delivers. If this is so, then internationalisation by necessity becomes a part of the definition of the quality of education.

The argument is supported by a rough analysis of the interests of the various stakeholders. The rapid acceleration of cooperation and competition around the globe impacts on all aspects of society but particularly on the economy and the employment system. In turn, this has repercussions on the qualifications to be imparted to future generations, and certainly on the qualifications required of those from whose ranks future leadership will be recruited. If globalisation already is, and will increase to be, a dominant feature of future societies and economies, considerations of competitiveness virtually dictate that higher education turns international. This applies to the "clients" of the institutions, i.e. the students, who have an acute interest in their future employability, on foreign labour markets, but also on their home countries' markets which become internationalised increasingly. It applies to the institu-

tion as a whole, which will lose out in attractiveness, if not endanger its existence in some systems, if the "clients" opt to stay away as a reaction to an internationalisation deficit. Equally, the consideration applies for the main provider of funding, national government, which has an interest in the formation of human resources able to face the challenges of the future. And it is a natural argument for the private and public sector of the employment system, which is faced with the direct or indirect effects of transnational competition. Indeed, the business sector, directly through its representation on governing boards of universities, or more indirectly through its associations, is a strong advocate of the process of internationalisation of higher education.

The various activities in the domain of international cooperation which are presented in detail in chapter 3 of this essay, contribute in different ways to the acquisition of the qualifications required today and in the future. In some cases, they are conveyed by teaching content which is international in nature. Therefore, curriculum reform will grow in importance in the context of internationalisation of higher education. Mobility and exchange of students, at any rate at the undergraduate level, is more likely to convey key qualifications of a more general sort, such as the mastery of a number of foreign languages, and an intercultural expertise, which is necessary for functioning successfully in foreign arenas – be it in a business context or in related areas of societal communication and collaboration. Exposure to different teaching methods and styles, but also to another form of organising life outside academia, are known to develop the ability of individuals to tolerate ambiguity and to avoid rigid expectation patterns. All in all, content-related knowledge and the more general key qualifications together result in the type of "international literacy" which will increasingly be required of tomorrow's leaders.

2.2.   Economic Considerations

Compared to most other institutions of society, and in some countries more than in others, higher education institutions have long enjoyed a privileged status of self-sufficiency. They were protected from the rough winds of competition so characteristic of the corporate sector. Doubtless, the universities in the developing world never enjoyed such a luxurious state, and other systems, like the one in North America, have always known competition and demands for relevance and accountability. In recent years, however, the trend towards a genuine higher education market, with strong elements of competition, has started to affect more and more higher education systems. Given limited and in many cases reduced state funding for higher education, and given the need to find alternative sources of income, this trend towards a higher education market is likely to further increase. Today, we are seeing the beginnings of a competitive market of higher education on a global scale, which is likely to move economic considerations still higher up the agenda and challenge academic aims and traditions.

As a result of the above trend, an increasing number of universities is trying to strengthen its income base through the provision of education (and other) services to foreign customers. Largely, this phenomenon has so far been limited to institutions in a number of countries, such as the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States of America, to name but the more prominent cases. But the tendency to regard education as an export commodity appears to gain ground in more countries, and increasingly in "threshold countries", too. Malaysia, for example, is considering to recruit fee-paying students from the region. Universities in these countries have an obvious interest in attracting student customers from foreign countries, and often from around the globe. Their prime focus in international activity is therefore often on foreign students, who represent an important source of income. The rapid growth of international distance education provision, as well as the creation of so-called off-shore campuses, is very often driven by the same economic considerations, although distance education does also play a major role in higher education development cooperation. In the cases of distance education and off-shore campuses, it is the university which "comes" to the new customer, but the economic impact for the institution is very much the same as in the traditional form of attracting foreign fee-paying students to the home campus. Such efforts can also pay on the home market: an institution able to prove its quality and reputation by attracting substantial numbers of students from around the globe is also more likely to be successful on the national market.

Institutions in the countries mentioned above have perfected their international marketing strategies, and they also carry out market research in order to better target their recruitment efforts. Sometimes national organisations, such as Australia's International Development Programme (IDP), or the Institute of International Education (IIE) in the USA, take on this task for the entirety of the country's higher education institutions. New agencies of this sort have been springing up lately. In late 1998, the New Zealand Education Trust and the French promotion agency EduFrance were created.

It must be added that economic considerations are not necessarily limited to countries which charge substantial tuition fees. Foreign students import purchasing power and thus represent an economic factor beyond the more narrow aspect of tuition fees. The American Department of Commerce estimates the total combined expenditure on tuition and cost-of-living of foreign students in the US at around 7 billion US $ per year. Likewise, the economic long-term effects of educating foreign students must not be underestimated. The ex-students tend to develop a loyalty to the host country, which also impacts on their preferences regarding the purchase of goods and investments, and which is likely to result in a currency flow into this country long after completion of the study phase. But these economic results are obviously less direct, and they do not favour the host university itself, but the country as a whole. This more general economic motivation is therefore most prevalent among governments.

2.3. Foreign Cultural Policy

Besides genuinely educational concerns and economic considerations, international cooperation in higher education has been strongly supported as a means of foreign cultural policy. Obviously, this concern is not normally one of the individual higher education institution, but of state governments. For them, cooperation in a wide range of cultural and educational fields is one element of an overall foreign policy. Thus, educational cooperation contributes to the endeavour of governments to secure spheres of interest and to keep friendly relations with other countries. Countries with an explicit and well-developed foreign cultural policy will normally identify specific countries and regions of the world as target areas. These regional priorities do not necessarily reflect educational concerns. Rather, they are an expression of general political priorities, which might even, at times, display some tensions with academically-motivated concerns. It is also not unusual for cultural and educational collaboration to fulfil the role of a diplomatic ice-breaker; after periods of tension in bilateral relations, educational collaboration might be a first and low-key step to restart a dialogue that had broken down.

Traditionally, foreign cultural policies found their expression in bilateral cultural accords of governments, in which particular projects and activities were identified to be carried out. These agreements would also secure the necessary funding and the mechanisms to implement the projects in question. Today, this approach has often been complemented, if not substituted, by separate funding schemes by national agencies for internationalisation, such as the British Council, the Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education, or the German Academic Exchange Service, to name some larger agencies from Europe. A prime domain of activity is usually the exchange of students and academics. There are also examples of the creation of new degrees or even of faculties concentrating on issues closely linked to the donor country. Mobile academics and students are perceived as "mini-ambassadors" of their respective country and its language, culture and academia. To attract the future elites of other nations into one's own country is one primary objective; countries with substantial funding schemes and internationalisation agencies very often thus gain privileged relations with future top-level decision-makers in government and the private sector. It is not at all unusual for countries with a substantial investment in foreign cultural policy to count among their former visiting students or scholars a fair number of heads of state or government ministers. As pointed out in the previous sub-chapter, these links can constitute an economic advantage, but they are obviously first and foremost a political asset.

Higher education collaboration is not the only, and in most cases not even the most important element of foreign cultural policies. Language teaching and the general raising of the country's cultural profile abroad is one key domain, with almost every nation attempting to increase the number of for-

eign speakers of their language. Universities play a role in this field as well, but other actors, such as cultural and language institutes, are usually in the lead.

Foreign cultural policy has long remained the exclusive domain of national governments, but supra-national entities, such as the European Union, also pursue activities in this field. As will be outlined in more detail in chapter 5 of this study, the EU is fostering higher education cooperation with third countries in the framework of wider foreign policy agendas. Examples for this development are political agreements such as the New Transatlantic Agenda designed to foster cooperation with North America, the Barcelona Declaration aiming to enhance cooperation in the Mediterranean basin, the Lomé Convention for cooperation with the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries, and the agreement with the ASEAN countries established in Bangkok. EU higher education cooperation programmes are seen to be an important mechanism to enhance the understanding and influence of Europe in the world. Some programmes are specifically targeted towards fostering European Studies degrees and centres in the partner regions, as is the case with the EU cooperation programme with China.

2.4. Promotion of Peace and Global Responsibility, Regional Integration and Development

A fourth category of motivation concerns the contribution of higher education to the creation and strengthening of the fabric of international relations in general. In this regard, higher education institutions and their attempts at international cooperation find themselves mostly in a supportive role. In lending their assistance to peace-keeping and international security, to conflict prevention or conflict resolution, to the protection of human rights and the promotion of democracy, to regional integration, or to sustainable development, higher education institutions fulfil similar roles as other agents and institutions of a national and supra-national nature, in the general context of global responsibility and international solidarity.

It must be noted that a number of activities guided by the above motives fall into the field of international cooperation of or with the inclusion of higher education institutions, but not into the definition of internationalisation underlying this study. Many of the activities constitute the university's contribution to global concerns, and find expression in international conferences and declarations. These activities are of paramount importance, and they are a measure of higher education's responsibility towards the global society. But they do not, or not in all cases, actually internationalise the key functions of the institution.

Peace keeping has been one of the fundamental aims of the international community and of international cooperation ever since World War II. The

main motivation is obviously to avoid any repetition of large-scale armed conflict. In support of this aim, higher education institutions assume their share of responsibility, as do continental and global university associations such as the or the International Association of Universities (IAU) or the International Association of University Presidents (IAUP), and international organisations like the United Nations or UNESCO.

In the context of work for peace and conflict prevention and resolution, the International Association of University Presidents (IAUP) has an established record. Starting with its support for the UN-founded University for Peace in San José/Puerto Rico (1981), and its initiative for the creation of a United Nations International Day for Peace (1986) and the Year of Peace, the association's activities culminated in the creation of the joint IAUP/UN Commission on Disarmament Education, Conflict Resolution and Peace in 1991. IAUP also developed workshops, seminars and coursework on a wide range of issues linked to the topics of peace and conflict.

Another example of the universities' contribution to the strengthening of peace is the Programme for Palestinian/European/American Academic Co-operation (PEACE) in Education, which is organised by UNESCO and the European Commission. The choice of the acronym is telling, especially given the start of the initiative as early as 1991, two years in advance of the Israeli-Palestinian Agreement. Motivated by a feeling of academic solidarity, this major initiative seeks to make a specific contribution of the academic community to the peace process in the Middle East, and to the self-sustainable development of the Palestinian people. The programme was joined by the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme in 1993. The PEACE network consists of 81 members at present. 70 European and North American universities, all eight Palestinian universities, and three higher education NGOs. The programme aims at contributing to staff and institutional development of Palestinian universities by means of grants and scholarships, and through sector-specific university networks to promote studies and research at Palestinian universities.

A recent example of conflict limitation and post-war conflict resolution is the case of Bosnia-Herzegovina. When the armed conflict in this country was still raging, various foreign governments had put up scholarship funds to enable student refugees to continue their studies in their countries. Higher education institutions welcomed students and academics from Bosnia-Herzegovina and provided them with special academic support. After the end of the war, the European higher education community committed itself to assist in the rebuilding of Bosnian higher education. On the initiative of the Association of European Universities (CRE), an Academic Task Force was established to devise and help to organise appropriate support measures. In its attempt to assist in the reconstruction and restructuring activities in the country's higher education sector, the task force lends support in the field of institutional

management. It runs six curriculum development working groups and it also organises practical help measures such as the provision of academic journals to the universities of the country. Many other organisations and institutions are active in the region. The European Commission is currently extending its Phare Multi-Country Programme to Bosnia. Investors from the Unites States of America and Japan are actively seeking to help.

Higher education institutions have been active promoters of the principles adopted in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), which, amongst other higher education-related issues, proclaims the right of equal access to higher education on the basis of merit. Obviously, their prime contribution in this area concerns the rights of higher education institutions and their members themselves, as they have been laid down in important documents such as the "Magna Charta" of European Universities, which was adopted by the member institutions of the CRE on the occasion of the 900th anniversary of the University of Bologna. Ten years after the adoption of the "Magna Charta", the University of Bologna has proposed to set up a permanent observatory of seven prominent individuals to monitor adherence to the resolution, and to look into appropriate help measures for universities whose institutional autonomy, freedom of teaching and research, and other academic rights are being violated. Solidarity of this sort has, of course, been legion in the case of countries where academics are being hindered to pursue teaching and research independently, or where they are subject to active persecution, as was the case, for example, in parts of the former East European block.

The latter examples are such where university cooperation is directly intended to help and show solidarity with other universities. Generally, the various motives in this section are, however, characterised by higher education's contribution to other aims in the interest of the international community. The support of general regional integration is one of the of the cases where universities collaborate to serve non-academic objectives. The most advanced case of this sort is the collaboration of higher education institutions in the European Union, which does serve a wide spectrum of motives, but which also has one explicitly stated objective, to contribute to the further integration of this Union itself. Readers will find an in-depth account of European educational collaboration in chapter 5. On a smaller (sub-regional) geographical scale, the Nordic countries of Europe have, through various programmes established by the Nordic Council of Ministers, contributed to the same aim of a strengthening of their union. Not seeking to bring about a formal political union, but rather to supporting cohesion in the area is the CEEPUS programme initiated by the Austrian government with neighbouring states at the beginning of the 1990s.

Internationalisation of Higher Education as a means of supporting regional integration is undoubtedly at its most developed in Europe, but it is by no means absent from other continents. One such example is the "University

Mobility in Asia and the Pacific" programme (UMAP), which was launched 1991 on the initiative of the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC), but which has now developed into a truly regional network of faculty and student exchanges. A further initiative is RIMA (Rede de Integracao e Mobilidad), established in the framework of MERCOSUR, as a regional mobility programme for staff and students between universities in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay. The pivotal role of education and culture in bringing about regional integration was explicitly stated in the synthesis documents of three out of the five preparatory regional conferences leading up to the UNESCO's World Conference on Higher Education of October 1999, and implicit in the two others. A consensus emerged that higher education collaboration was an appropriate means on which to base steps towards political and economic integration, as well as a means of reaffirming and developing further a common cultural identity.

Academic development cooperation, one of the classical forms of international educational cooperation, must be mentioned in this context, too. The motivation behind this endeavour is to support the regions and countries in question in a way that would enable them to build the expertise and resources necessary for their eventual self-sustainable development. In this attempt, academics from the industrially and economically developed parts of the world contribute to aid for development projects in a wide variety of sectors. In this process, the universities in the developing world can play a vital role themselves, and this is why there are also projects set up for their direct benefit. This type of international collaboration, which classically functions in a North-South framework, obviously differs substantially from the forms and the concept of internationalisation employed in the larger parts of this paper. Whereas "internationalisation" generally is taken to mean the "integration, or injection, of an international dimension into the teaching (and to a lesser extent: research and service) function of a university", international cooperation with higher education institutions in the developing world first and foremost aims at strengthening the institutions themselves, as a necessary prerequisite for any other activities. Despite many efforts, the gap between higher education institutions in the North and the South is widening. As the recent "UNESCO Policy Paper on Change and Development in Higher Education" states, "the most pressing need for international cooperation in higher education at present is the reverse of the process of decline of institutions in the developing world, particularly in the least developed". In this context, the role of the universities of the North as places of education and training for young people from the developing world remains important, and the apparent decline in funds available for these purposes must be viewed with concern. At the same time, the low rate of return of these young academics to their home countries and their universities results in a large-scale brain-drain phenomenon, of which higher education collaboration is of course not the source, but to which it still contributes *nolens volens*. The respective

figures published by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) continue to be alarming: around 750,000 highly trained professionals from the developing world live and work in countries of the industrially developed world. A proportion of them has even been trained in their countries of origin.

One complementary approach to North-South collaboration is South-South cooperation. This can take the form of joint activities of institutions in the respective regions themselves, or, at a more involved level, the creation of joint institutions. In this way, progress has been made and is hoped to continue in establishing centres of specialisation for advanced study and research, and thus help to reduce the widening knowledge gap between the developed and the developing world. For very small (often island) countries, which cannot hope to be able to finance fully-fledged higher education institutions and systems at all, joint transnational centres of higher education may achieve excellence through a sharing and pooling of resources. Examples exist in the form of jointly offered degrees and institutes, and also joint institutions, such as the "University of the South Pacific", or the "University of the West Indies". Similar ventures have developed in the creation of distance education institutions, such as the "Université Virtuelle Francophone" and the World Bank supported English-language "African Virtual University".

In the European Union's educational support programmes for the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries strong South-South characteristics are also evident. At the same time, there are worrying signs that Northern governments are starting to reduce funds for "third country scholarships", which are aimed at reinforcing South-South cooperation through mobility of scholars and (postgraduate and research) students. The CRE's COLUMBUS Programme aimed at institutional development, which joins European and Latin-American universities, but is primarily aimed at the latter, belongs into this general context. One other form of academic development cooperation which is largely lacking at the present stage is the involvement to a higher degree of the universities of the target regions in the definition and implementation of major development schemes by national and international donor organisations and NGOs. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) is among the organisations fighting for this aim.

3.   What is Internationalisation? Activities and Framework Conditions

The previous chapters have dealt with the concept of internationalisation applied in this essay and the motives and rationale driving internationalisation. The present chapter is intended to be of a more practical nature. It will identify and analyse the various activities which make up internationalisation, as well as the wider framework conditions which impact on these activities. It is hoped that this way, the reader will gain an overview of the different opportunities offered through internationalisation. This approach is analytical; it must be stressed that in any real-life situation, the various international activities do not exist in isolation, but exert a mutual influence and must be viewed as interdependent.

3.1.   Student Mobility

Student mobility, of undergraduate and postgraduate students, has been in the past and still is today the most dominant international activity in higher education. Very often, internationalisation is indeed equated with mobility in general, and with student mobility in particular. Institutional or governmental funds available for internationalisation still flow predominantly into this activity. Research literature on internationalisation tended to concentrate on student mobility until recently. Large internationalisation programmes, such as the European Union's ERASMUS programme put an overwhelming emphasis on student mobility. 70 percent of the programme's funds are spent on student grants, and the original aim was to have every tenth higher education student benefit from a period of study in a foreign country. Likewise, national governments have set such targets. For example in Finland, the aim is to have every fifth student benefit from a study period abroad. The importance and, indeed, dominance of student mobility is also underlined by the fact that this activity is very often considered as an end in itself, and thus not perceived as in need of any justification, which is not, by and large, the case with other activities.

Historically, both in terms of the overall emergence of the phenomenon, and with respect to the development in individual institutions, the mobility of students is the starting point of internationalisation. In the first twenty years after World War II, mobility was restricted to only few students. Student mobility was an elite phenomenon, taking place mainly between Western Europe and North America, and also between the countries of the former Warsaw Pact. Following the independence of many former colonies, the period from the mid-1960s to the end of the 1970s saw the emergence of considerable student flows from developing to industrialised countries. The number of Asian students studying abroad increased tangibly as a combined effect of the economic strengthening of Asian and Pacific Rim countries, of stagnating state budgets for higher education and of subsequent attempts to attract foreign students as a source of revenue in some countries. In the United States of America, the largest single import nation of foreign students, Asian students now represent well over half of all foreign students.

Since the 1980s, a growth of organised study abroad schemes can be observed in a number of countries and regions. Additionally, national governments increasingly set up their own grant schemes for study abroad. The most notable example is the emergence of the European Union as a promoter of student mobility, first and foremost, inside its own territory, through such programmes as ERASMUS, but, since the early nineties, also increasingly with "third countries" in Europe (TEMPUS) and beyond (ALFA with Latin America). Similar schemes, such as the "University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific" Programme (UMAP), were also established in other world regions. Still, as will be seen below, organised mobility of the study-abroad type remains a small proportion of overall mobility.

The availability of data on student enrolment worldwide, and even more so on foreign students, is unsatisfactory. As a consequence of major differences in the structures of higher education systems, data are difficult to compare between countries. Even seemingly straightforward statistical indicators such as "student" are defined differently almost everywhere. National data collection, on which comparative student statistics like those of OECD, UNESCO or EUROSTAT (for Europe) are based, are neither consistent nor comprehensive. At the time of publication, data are far from up-to-date. Consequently, any judgement based on statistical analyses, which this paper uses only when they are deemed to be reliable, need to be treated with caution.

According to an IDP Australia study of 1995, the global number of foreign students at the time was 1.4 million. In terms of continents of origin, Asia headed the list with 45 percent, followed by Europe (31%), Africa (13%), the Americas (9%) and Oceania (1%, all figures rounded). In terms of receiving continents, Europe took more than half of all foreign students (51%), followed by the Americas (35%), Asia (8%), Oceania (3%) and Africa (2%). The above figures do not indicate inter-continental flows. The "in" and "out" numbers also include flows between countries of one and the same continent. The significance of this fact is illustrated by one single figure. While almost every third foreign student in the world (31%) came from a European country, the vast majority of these students (88%) also went to a European destination, i.e. they moved inside the continent.

The table below gives an overview of the "in" and "out"-flows:

Continent	Outgoing Students	Incoming students
Asia	606,000	110,000
Europe	422,000	692,000
Africa	182,000	31,000
Americas	128,000	478,000
Oceania	17,000	44,000

Source: IDP Australia (1995)

Classically, national governments or individual institutions use the percentage of foreign students of their total student population, or the percentage of their own (national) students studying abroad as an indicator of the internationalisation of their higher education systems or of individual institutions. As will be seen, this is problematic.

In terms of percentages of foreign students, according to the above IDP source, the worldwide average in 1992 was just below 3.0 percent. Individual countries, such as the UK, range well above this average with more than 10 percent. France and Germany, currently around 8 percent, also display impressive figures. On the other hand, countries like Japan, or Finland and the Netherlands (which have made strong efforts to attract foreign students), fall far short of the average. The value of these figures as indicators of internationalisation is, at best, doubtful, as the following example will illustrate: The latest figures for the USA (1996/97, from the International Institute of Education's statistical project "Open Doors") put the United States' foreign student percentage at 3.2 percent. The foreign students making up this percentage represent, however, about a third of all foreign students world-wide. In other words: if the USA managed to achieve a 10 percent foreign student quota (such as Britain), all mobile students world-wide would study in this country. This paradoxical finding can be (partly) explained by the extremely divergent participation rates in higher education: whereas the world-wide average in 1990 was 12 percent, the USA topped the table with 60 percent, Europe reached 31 percent, Africa had 4 percent, and countries like China, Vietnam or Cambodia only 2 percent. The higher the participation rate (or, to put it more crudely, the number of home students) in a host country, the lower the percentage of foreign students in this country.

Another phenomenon to be noted is that the number of foreign students in relative terms, i.e. measured as a percentage of all students world-wide, is actually on the decrease. This seemingly astonishing trend is not so surprising when taking into account the massive expansion of higher education on a global scale, which has superseded the rise in the number of foreign students. But the increasingly market-minded attitude of some states and institutions, the introduction of foreign student fees in cases where they did not previously exist, and the drop in the number of scholarships offered to students from developing countries, are also believed to exercise an influence.

Outgoing students can likewise be an unreliable indicator for internationalisation. As will be seen further below, only a fraction of the students of a given country studying abroad actually originate from a higher education institution in the "sending" country, or receive any sort of support from their country of origin. In other words: the "achievements" in terms of student export do not rely primarily on any conscious effort of the country of origin, or its institutions. While research on the factors impacting on the choice of the country and institution of study is still in its infancy, it is clear that the existence of a

quality provision of higher education, or its lack, in the country of origin, will influence student "export". While other factors, such as traditional ties between countries, the economic strength of a sending country, as well as the host country language and especially the perceived quality of education in the receiving country do play a role, the sheer lack of an adequate provision of higher education in a given country can make for high export quotas. The New York based International Institute of Education (IIE) has developed a systematisation of factors potentially influencing student flows (the "Push-Pull Model") as part of its "Open Doors" project, which readers with an in-depth interest of the subject should consult.

A general distinction has to be made between two different types of outgoing student mobility. The first form is "study abroad", or short-term student mobility, where students take only part of their studies in a foreign country, normally up to one year. Mostly, but not entirely, "study abroad" phases take place in the framework of mobility programmes, which normally provide funding (grants) as well as organisational provisions. Examples are the afore-mentioned European Union programmes, but also schemes by national agencies for the promotion of international cooperation, such as the British Council, or by such bodies as the (bilateral) Fulbright Commissions, and the ISEP programme, both of which promote mobility out of and into the United States of America. Similar schemes exist outside of Europe and North America too, with the "University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific" as a prime example. However, deplorable though this may be, these do not normally reach any substantial numbers. The second type of student mobility consists of study in a foreign country on a self-organised, and self-financed basis. The majority of these "free mover" students would study abroad for an entire degree, and would thus, in most cases, not even have visited a higher education institution in their home country.

The discussion about internationalisation through student exchange has mostly concentrated on the first of these two categories, namely on programme-based study abroad. This is understandable, for it is predominantly on this form of mobility that higher education institutions have a more direct influence and control. It is also in this type of organised mobility that institutions can enforce certain quality standards. But it must be noted that by far the larger percentage of foreign students move outside such organised schemes. In Europe, where numbers in organised mobility are probably highest world-wide, the percentage of organised mobility does not, in any case, exceed 20 percent. According to the ACA ESSM (European Statistics on Student Mobility) survey, Germany had, in 1996, some 152,000 foreign students. The number of students coming into the country through organised and funded programmes, can be estimated to remain under 25,000. In other words: in a country with one of the most elaborate grant systems world-wide, only one sixth of all foreign students are programme-based. Since most of the student mobility world-wide takes place outside of organised or funded

schemes, it is also clear that the extent of direct influence that national governments or individual higher education institutions have on substantially increasing numbers is limited. This does not mean that indirect measures, such as the marketing of one's higher education system and institutions, cannot create positive framework conditions for attracting foreign students. Australia's staggering success to attract foreign students has proved this very impressively. The country's rigorous recruitment campaign resulted in a doubling of the share of all mobile students world-wide within only ten years.

Student mobility is and remains a key indicator of successful internationalisation, but differentiations need to be made. To attract foreign students and to engage in study abroad of the home student population, serves different purposes.

To attract foreign students will normally be a means of internationalising the home campus. The presence of foreign students will add a "foreign" dimension to the education of the home students, through contact with other languages, and an intercultural experience. For such institutions and systems which rely heavily on student fees for their basic funding, to attract foreign students can be an economic imperative, which may not be linked intrinsically with any conscious internationalisation effort. The number of foreign students can also be regarded as a general indicator of an institution's academic appeal, and thus be an indication of perceived quality. Institutions should be aware that they must observe minimum quality standards for support and services to foreign students.

Study of home students in a foreign country is an indicator of internationalisation of higher education institutions only or predominantly with regard to study abroad. Higher education institutions cannot be interested in exporting their students for good, but they should have an acute interest in the provision of a period of study abroad as a means to internationalise their education, and thus provide for the acquisition of skills and competencies which they would not have been able to acquire at home. Therefore, a net of institutional (and faculty/department-based) cooperation arrangements with institutions abroad is a precondition for successful internationalisation. In this framework, organisational and content-based arrangements will have to be made which turn the study abroad-phase into an integrated part of the home degree. One crucial aspect of such arrangements is an adequate provision for the recognition of credits earned abroad. Unrecognised periods of study do no longer represent the state-of-the-art in organised mobility.

3.2.   Mobility of Scholars

In the typical implementation cycle of an international policy in a higher education institution, staff mobility is the phase to follow student mobility, both in a time context and in terms of priority.

Compared to the mobility of students, the mobility of academic staff for teaching purposes is still a fairly underdeveloped activity. This can be safely said although the statistical situation regarding foreign scholars is even less satisfactory than the one concerning students. Due to the lack of any widespread system of registering foreign academic staff members, it is almost impossible to make any quantitative statements outside the field of programme-based exchanges of scholars.

Mobility of scholars for research purposes appears to be more widespread, although hard statistical data are lacking in this regard as well. While mobility for teaching seems to require strong incentives and a supportive attitude of the institution, mobility for research is apparently driven by a strong inner motivation of the individual researcher. For scholars in parts of the developing world, stays at (Northern) universities with a strong research base are sometimes the only way to conduct research at all, conditions for which have often disappeared altogether at the home university. Generally, the way to promote academic staff mobility for teaching purposes seems to be to link teaching stays with research tasks, in order to enhance their appeal.

In organised, programme-based mobility, most of the recorded evidence refers to Europe again, with the ERASMUS programme as the flagship activity. While the programme received, for the academic year 1997/98, some 180,000 applications for student grants, the figure for staff mobility was only at around 30,000, and with some well-grounded doubts as to whether even half of this number would actually be realised. Funds available were likewise only a fraction of those for student mobility. Moreover, most of the teaching periods abroad under ERASMUS lasted for less than one month, making for a limited benefit to the scholars concerned and the receiving institution alike.

A host of obstacles stand in the way of academic staff mobility. Research on international higher education cooperation has come up with the following explanations:

♦ Academic staff mobility for teaching must be linked to research assignments wherever possible. This is not yet the case today;
♦ Teaching (as distinct from research) periods abroad are rarely credited in terms of academics' careers. Absences from the home institution seem to jeopardise, rather than to promote, scholars' careers. Higher education institutions must develop policies to credit foreign teaching assignments, in terms of promotion and staff development;
♦ Absences of staff, especially for longer periods of up to one year, create replacement problems for the institutions;
♦ Funding for staff mobility is generally seen to be inadequate. At the same time, information on sources of funding is scattered and not easy to access;
♦ Institutional rules and practices, particularly with regard to obtaining tenure or financial guarantees, seem to stand in the way of staff mobility;

♦ Academic calendars between countries and institutions do not match;
♦ Family ties and obligations (spousal careers, schooling of children) act as a hindrance to extended absences;
♦ Cultural and language differences act as an impediment.

As an indicator for internationalisation, staff mobility should be taken more seriously than it is at present. For the individual scholar, the teaching period abroad is predominantly valuable for personal and, more so, professional development. Staff will acquire new language and cultural competencies, but they will also benefit from learning about other teaching methods and, possibly, a different concept of their subject. They will also further their scientific careers to the degree that research is part of the assignment. For the sending institution, the teaching period abroad can be basically valued as a professional training period. A university from Eastern Europe, which took part in ACA's International Quality Review Process (IQRP), stated that their dedicated policy to staff mobility was basically introduced with the aim of catching up with the state of the art in the discipline at an international level in any respect, ranging from the academic competence in the field to language and didactic abilities. This would also apply to a considerable number of higher education institutions in the developing world. For the receiving institution, foreign staff provide a possibility of a limited "virtual mobility" for students. There have even been arguments that staff mobility is a more efficient and more cost-effective way of providing an international dimension to education than student mobility. This is probably exaggerated. The effect of the total immersion in a different cultural, linguistic and academic environment, which is provided by study abroad, cannot be fully substituted by a "move the teacher"-approach. Still, academic staff mobility can clearly be an effective contribution to the internationalisation of the educational provision at higher education institutions.

As in any other activity area, a consensus about minimum quality standards has emerged with regard to the mobility of scholars. One of the most important factors in this respect, for both the academic concerned and the host institution, is a meaningful integration of the tuition provided into the curricula and needs of the host institution. This can mean that the visiting scholar will teach courses which form part of the curriculum of the host university, or that the courses delivered will in any event constitute a meaningful complement to this curriculum. Courses taught should be for credit. The old type of teaching stay abroad, where a foreign scholar would teach his or her hobby subject regardless of the needs of the home institution and students, is no longer a serious option given the present state of internationalisation.

3.3. Curriculum Development

Curriculum development represents the third element and phase of most institutions' internationalisation process.

The driving forces behind the internationalisation of the curriculum are manifold. Two motives deserve special mention. One is the notion of a growing interdependence of national economies, or globalisation, which would require human resources able to act successfully on an international scale. In this context, the integration of such elements as foreign languages or of foreign cultures, and also of international institutions, regulations and legal frameworks, into degree courses which formerly had a predominantly national outlook, was deemed to be necessary. A second motive originates from the political integration processes in some parts of the world, and notably in Europe. Political unions, of a supranational or international structure, would automatically lead to a heightened need of highly qualified persons able to act in this framework. The chief example is obviously the European Union, but other regional or continental federations such as NAFTA, MERCOSUR or ASEAN would appear to have similar needs. A third motive is often the desire to enhance the profile and the reputation of the institution.

Internationalisation of the curriculum in countries of the developing world often fulfils different or additional aims. The need to build human resources, coupled with the lack of sufficient financial resources to attain this aim, has resulted in a considerable number of "collaborative degrees". These programmes are mainly offered at postgraduate level, and they mostly provide research training in disciplines particularly relevant to the region. Student intake is from those countries and institutions which pooled their resources to put up the programme. Obviously, the main motivation leading to the establishment of such "collaborative degrees" is not first and foremost to provide an international education, but to be at all able to offer a quality (postgraduate) education, by joining forces. In some cases, such international (South-South) cooperation has even resulted in jointly set up and financed institutions such as the University of the South Pacific. Further examples will be given below.

It has been argued that the integration of an international dimension into the curriculum is a more efficient investment than the mobility of persons, primarily because of the long-term effect of a curriculum and the larger number of students it will therefore reach. The reasoning is that curriculum reform will result in more long-term and structural effects than mobility. The internationalisation of the curriculum has also been labelled as a form of "virtual mobility" which will bring an international dimension to the education of the many students who do not wish to or do not have the chance to study in a foreign country. It must also be stressed, however, that the development of (changes to) a curriculum is a more complex and time-consuming task than the organisation of mobility. It involves a larger number of actors inside (and, in many systems, outside of) an institution, and presupposes their ability to reach a consensus.

In the context of funding programmes, international curriculum development has, until recently, led a Cinderella-type of existence. Funding for mobility far

outweighed finances available for curricular innovation. The European Union programmes, such as ERASMUS, comprised such components from the outset, but did not give them a weight comparable to mobility aspects. Yet, the development of double-degree schemes on any measurable scale, to name only one example, took its origin from this programme. The TEMPUS programme comprised a substantial curriculum development element, but this was rather aimed at bringing the curricula of the universities of Central and Eastern Europe up to modern standards than at internationalising them in terms of content and delivery modes. In recent years, within ERASMUS, but also in national schemes, curricular internationalisation has been given some more prominence. National governments in Europe, concerned about the appeal of their higher education system to foreigners, have provided substantial funds for degree programmes with an international intake of students taught in a major world language, mainly in English. An example is the German government which provided these funding opportunities in the context of a general overhaul of its higher education system aiming at international compatibility. The Nordic countries of Europe, as well as The Netherlands, had earlier embarked on this particular course to internationalise higher education. While the German programme, although limited in the number of curricula it funds, has been well received by higher education institutions, the "paradigm shift" in ERASMUS which came about with the introduction of the institutional contract was not welcomed by universities. Application patterns of European universities continued to reflect a strong preference for mobility, thus displaying a certain conservatism.

In the developing world, and particularly in the context of South-South collaboration, the relative importance of curricular cooperation appears to be higher than in the North. Unlike in the developed world, where funding is concentrated on mobility activity, donors appear to focus substantially on curriculum development. Precise data are not available, but much speaks for it that the very powerful constraints for many developing countries to establish and run high-level courses of a very specialised nature on their own has led to a heightened importance of this type of international activity. Obviously, this is a relative statement, and has to be viewed against the background of a low level of mobility activity. In absolute terms, the combined funds of the donor agencies and the countries themselves which flow into curriculum development are still quite modest.

Research on the issue of internationalised curricula reveals some disagreement as to which types of courses and degrees are worthy of this 'title of honour'. One of the main contentious issues is whether only the internationalisation of course content and, to a lesser degree, teaching methods, should be included, or whether also the location of tuition (a university abroad) or the nationality of the teacher (foreign guest lecturer) is to be taken into consideration. Another issue is whether to include subjects, such as foreign language studies, which are by their very nature international, and which there-

fore would not require any curricular reform in order to qualify. The approach taken in this paper is pragmatic. The list below is comprehensive, and also includes types which some researchers might regard as doubtful:

- ♦ Curricula dealing with an international topic (examples: international politics, international/European law, human rights);
- ♦ Comparative studies (such as comparative education);
- ♦ Area studies (multidisciplinary degrees, mostly in the social sciences and often in combination with one or more foreign language elements, like South-East Asian Studies, European Studies, Baltic Studies etc.);
- ♦ Non-language degrees into which foreign-language components or intercultural elements have been integrated;
- ♦ Foreign language degrees;
- ♦ Curricula based on a joint degree (awarded by two institutions in two different countries);
- ♦ Curricula based on a double degree (awarded by two institutions in two different countries);
- ♦ Curricula comprising a compulsory study abroad phase;
- ♦ Curricula designed especially for foreign students;
- ♦ Curricula comprising course content in the general context of global awareness and responsibility (peace, disarmament, democracy, sustainable development, ecology, etc.).

Conceptually, the above categories are obviously heterogeneous. The foreign language degrees are a contested type, largely because no curricular innovation was necessary to bring them about. The inclusion of degrees with an obligatory (or, in some cases, optional) period of study abroad may be regarded as a disguised form of mobility, and anyway not a category which is marked by an internationalisation of content taught. The same can, but need not be the case, with joint and double degree schemes. The categories also differ with regard to target groups. Courses especially set up for foreign students are not, by necessity, international in content, but only by virtue of their student population. Some of the categories presuppose an international co-operation between higher education institutions, others can be delivered without a foreign partner.

The above examples are particularly prevalent in Europe, and in the industrialised countries in general. Most of the types mentioned are, of course, not wholly absent from the developing world, either. As indicated earlier, however, the developing countries have their own special needs in the field of resource building, which result in particular curricular patterns. In this regard, reference has already been made to the regionally based "collaborative" postgraduate programmes, for which either a separate institute is founded, which would then receive students from the various participating universities, or, alternatively, one collaborating university serves as the physical centre of tuition. Examples are the International Centre for Insect Physiology (ICIPE) in Nairobi, Kenya, with the "African Regional Post-Graduate Program

in Insect Science" (ARPPIS), or the University of Cape Town's USHEIA programme for sciences, humanities and engineering. Likewise, the African Economic Research Consortium (AERC) in Nairobi, Kenya supports a collaborative MA degree in economics and regional research with almost two dozen African universities as partners. The Association of African Universities (AAU) is planning to establish similar schemes in the region. In Central America, the Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano (CSUCA) has created a system of regional degrees at postgraduate level, for which it offers accreditation and which it evaluates on a regular basis.

Another form of pooling resources to provide a quality education otherwise not affordable are the (few) fully-fledged regional universities. Often, an overly nationalistic outlook of national governments has made the creation of such institutions difficult or impossible. Some have given up operations, such as the University of East Africa. One of the few fully operational institutions of this type is the University of the South Pacific, located in Fiji, with branch campuses in other countries. The University of the South Pacific is a regional institution of twelve small island states, which was founded in 1968 and has so far graduated about 10,000 students. Apart from the participating states, funding comes mainly from sources in the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. The University of the South Pacific is a dual-mode institution, which offers residential education, as well as distance teaching. One of the threats to the institution is the recent reluctance of foreign donors to continue to provide "third country" scholarships, which they increasingly reallocate to students who come to study in the donor country.

It can be concluded that the innovation of the curriculum, in the many forms and facets in which it exists, is and will increasingly become essential in the process of incorporating an international dimension in higher education. This is true despite the fact that curriculum reform is still a fledgling form of internationalisation, of which we have seen only the beginning. For some developing countries, curricular cooperation might be one of the only ways of providing a quality education and research provision.

3.4.   Recognition and Credit Transfer

Higher education systems differ structurally between countries. This very diversity of higher education around the world is one of the strong attractions behind international cooperation. At the same time, system incongruity creates barriers to transnational collaboration. This is particularly so in the case of student mobility. The widespread uncertainty about the recognition of a foreign degree in a student's country of origin or in a third country is a substantial problem in international mobility. Recognition problems tend to seal off many national systems of higher education. They act as barriers for a transfer from one system to the other. On a world scale, we are very far away indeed from an "open space of education".

The recognition of degrees is, to a varying extent, a problem in all regions of the world. Even in the European Union, where binding legislation exists in the form of Council Directives, recognition is far from problem-free. On a world-wide scale, UNESCO adopted the "Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education" in 1993. This global instrument is underpinned by regional UNESCO Conventions. These efforts are invaluable, but implementation remains a problem, as illustrated by the African ("Arusha") "Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and Other Academic Qualifications", which only 18 African States ratified. Recognition cannot solely rest on conventions, but requires supporting instruments such as higher education information systems, for example the EURYDICE and the NARIC system in Europe, or the reference guides for evaluation and recognition of certificates, which the Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur (CAMES) developed as part of its programme on the equivalence of certificates. One recent, and very advanced, measure in this regard is the imminent introduction of the so-called "Diploma Supplement". This tool, jointly developed by the European Commission, the Council of Europe and UNESCO/CEPES, is to describe, in a standardised form, the type, level, content and status of a given degree. The Diploma Supplement is therefore mainly an information tool, which is hoped to enhance the *de facto* recognition of foreign degrees through creating transparency about the qualification of graduates.

"Below" the level of degrees, the problem is still more pressing. The recognition of periods of study abroad, and of credits earned during such a phase, remains a mobility obstacle even in world regions which have invested heavily in the search for solutions. Moreover, at the sub-degree level, the recognition question poses itself not only in an international, but also in a national setting, as an inter-institutional issue.

Sub-degree level recognition is mainly relevant for study abroad, i.e. for limited periods of study in a foreign country. Non-recognised periods of study abroad automatically extend the overall duration of study, with cost-raising and other negative consequences. A number of strategies have been devised in order to limit or avoid such damage. Again, they are mainly, but not entirely, the result of the European Union education programmes, and predominantly of ERASMUS.

The ERASMUS programme was the first funding instrument worldwide which obliged participating institutions to fully recognise periods and credits earned abroad. In the programme's early years, this remained largely a moral obligation. The concept of institutional responsibility for recognition was new, and achievement rates rose only gradually. In order to support institutions in their efforts, the Union developed a separate instrument to facilitate the recognition of credits, the European Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS). The main instruments of ECTS are a "learning agreement", an "information

package" and a "transcript of records". The learning agreement between the student, the host and the home institution identifies the courses the mobile student is to enrol in and which are to be recognised. The information package describes the content of each course and allocates to each one a number of credits, thus fixing its weight in the overall curriculum. The transcript of records lists the courses and the credits earned. ECTS is thus basically an attempt to quantify periods and components of study, and thus to facilitate their transferability. It does not, and was not intended to, solve the question of equivalence as far as content is concerned. This model, which was first tested in a pilot phase with a limited number of institutions, has now been opened to the ERASMUS programme generally. It has quickly become popular beyond the European Union, with attempts at application and/or modification going on now in student mobility between Europe and other continents. It lends itself more easily to higher education systems operating on a credit accumulation systems than to others, but it has started to create a visible pressure for adaptation in such systems which do not operate on a credit basis. While in no way yet problem-free, ECTS is for the time being uncontested as an effective credit recognition instrument.

Another model designed to avoid recognition problems is a jointly agreed study programme between the home and the host institution. Within such a "package solution", the courses making up the study programme will be recognised by the sending institution. Such "integrated periods abroad" are most common in degrees with compulsory study abroad periods. Likewise, they are the rule in double and joint degrees offered by two institutions in different countries. Obviously, integrated solutions of this kind are work-intensive. Therefore, institutions tend to restrict such investments to cases where significant numbers of students are being exchanged over a longer period of time.

American universities, in the context of their "junior year abroad", have tried to solve the issue by exporting the home curriculum to a foreign location, very often combined with the export of their own teaching staff. While this approach has all the benefits of problem-free practicality, it is also one which restricts the period of study abroad largely to a foreign setting, and does not, to a great extent, expose the mobile students to different course content or teaching methods. Strictly speaking, it avoids the problem rather than solving it. This is not to say, of course, that such forms of study abroad are without value.

One common feature of the models depicted above is their institutional base. Recognition is achieved through the involvement and commitment of the home and the host institution. The models do not lend themselves to short-term students of the "free mover" type, who cannot count on any prearranged agreements between institutions.

Recognition is not, as such, an activity in the field of international cooperation, like mobility or curriculum development. Rather, it is a necessary pre-

condition (or framework condition) for student mobility, and functions as a quality assurance instrument in this context. However, a convincing institutional commitment to recognition of study periods and credits must be regarded as an indicator of any serious internationalisation policy of higher education institutions.

3.5. Contacts and Networks

Like recognition, the creation of contacts, partnerships and networks is not an international activity as such, but it acts as a framework condition for the process of internationalisation. If certain minimal conditions regarding contact structures are not fulfilled, it is difficult to develop the actual cooperation activities successfully.

Contact structures can be differentiated into a number of categories. One distinction is into individual contacts and institutional links, on the one hand, and bilateral and multilateral relationships, on the other. A further differentiation can be made between partnerships the composition of which is purely academic, and such where non-educational partners are involved. Finally, the degree of formality of links is a another criterion for differentiation.

Historically, in most cases international links start as people-to-people relationships. Two academics, who are in contact over common research issues, would start a student or faculty exchange. Such links might, but need not, result in a formalised inter-institutional agreement at a later stage. There are obviously cases ranging between these two extremes, in the form of inter-departmental or inter-faculty links. For many years, the formula of ERASMUS was based on such "middle ground" cooperation. Despite its (somewhat misleading) name, the programme's structural backbone, the "inter-university cooperation programme" (ICP), constituted a formalised collaboration between departments or faculties, and was thus mostly discipline-based. The UMAP programme functions on the same department/discipline base.

For any large-scale and systematised cooperation, such as the exchange of students beyond minimal numbers, or the development of joint degrees, an enhanced degree of institutional commitment is a necessity. Thus, while people-to-people links appear an almost necessary start-up phase for more binding relationships, an internationalisation strategy of a higher education institution cannot be based on them. At the same time, individual commitment of academics remains a *conditio sine qua non* also in the framework of institution-based agreements. This is clearly underlined by many inter-institutional linkages established between heads of institutions, without appointment of a responsible academic, which lead their life largely on paper and are not followed by any cooperation activity. Within only a seven-year period, Australia noted an 18-fold rise in the number of collaborative agreements with higher education institutions in foreign countries. Even in a country

where internationalisation was forcefully introduced almost overnight, a vast majority of these partnership agreements must simply remain non-operational. It is important to underpin any partnership agreement by a concrete work programme, the designation of responsibilities inside the institution, evaluative procedures and sufficient funds, to create a sustainable base.

Classically, cooperation was realised bilaterally, be it between individuals, departments or whole institutions. Recently, and mostly through funding programmes of international or supra-national donors, a paradigm shift has been inaugurated, towards multilateral forms of cooperation. The above-mentioned ICPs, for example, required a minimum of three partners. UNESCO's approach in policy and practical programme implementation can also be described as multilateral (and multi-institutional), as is apparent in the organisation's support of regional centres of excellence and in the UNITWIN/ UNESCO Chairs programme. It has been argued that, when it comes to concrete cooperation activity, multilaterality boils down to a sum of bilateralities: mobility, for example, always takes place between two institutions only, a sending and a receiving one. Yet, it is certainly true that the secondary effects of multilateral networks, such as the transfer of innovation and good practice, create an added value not easily attained by bilateral relationships.

Most bilateral linkages, and multilateral networks, are composed of partners from academia only. Yet, it is increasingly acknowledged that higher education institutions will have to open up to their environment, in order to be able to fulfil their wider service function. This is true at a national (and even regional and local) level, but it also applies to international cooperation. Corporate partners of universities, and also a whole array of other societal stakeholders, can be of immediate benefit when it comes to work placements for students, continuing education initiatives or technology transfer ventures. But they may and should be represented on the boards of institutions, not only in a general capacity, but also with regard to the particular field of internationalisation.

While all the above types of cooperation structures have their merits, it must be underlined that higher education institutions of any size will probably not be able to advance far in their internationalisation efforts without a solid base of inter-institutional linkages, preferably with some of them in a multilateral set-up. Whether it is advisable to go as far as to rely solely on a small set of strategic partners, with whom any co-operative ventures will be carried out, regardless of discipline and type of activity, is another question.

The above structures for contact and networking mainly serve to implement international activity of an operational sort. Additionally, there are "second degree" structures for networking in higher education, which indirectly support cooperation activity. These are international and continental associations of higher education institutions, or of their national groupings, which act as advocates, and as a means for the exchange of information and expe-

rience. Some of them also provide practical training in their respective fields. An example is the UNESCO-affiliated International Association of Universities (IAU). Like the continental universities' and rectors' associations, such as the European Association of Universities (CRE) and the Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences, they serve as a forum for the higher education institutions' leaders (Vice-Chancellors, University Presidents, Presidents of National Rectors' Conferences, etc.). While internationalisation is one of their concerns, they tend to concentrate on the universities' core issues in teaching and research. More immediately concerned with international collaboration are professional associations like the North American Foreign Studies Association (NAFSA) or its European complement, the European Association for International Education (EAIE). They were founded largely as a result of a critical mass of international cooperation activity in their respective regions. University groupings for international collaboration form a third category. Very often, they developed out of programme-based networks into the more stable constructions they represent today. Examples are the COIMBRA Group, uniting Europe's "traditional universities", the UNICA network, made up of metropolitan universities, or the "Utrecht Network". The members of these university groupings function as preferential partners when it comes to programme and project opportunities. A fourth category is made up of sectoral and thematic groupings, by activity (distance education, continuing education, etc.) or discipline (engineering, fine arts, etc.). Membership in such "second degree" networks is important for higher education institutions to be linked to a constant stream of information and for the transfer of innovative practice in the field of internationalisation.

Many of the latter type of networks have also made attempts to link up with individual institutions, but preferably with networks and consortia, in the developing world. Initiatives of this kind are necessary to vitalise active North-South cooperation, which, empirically, has not been a focus of internationalisation for most Northern universities. These efforts have been effectively supported by UNESCO's UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs programme, which places a strong emphasis on linkages between networks and consortia in the developing and developed world.

3.6. Quality Assurance

Quality assurance has been one of the major concerns in the higher education debate of the last ten to fifteen years. While the concepts of "quality" underlying this debate differ considerably between countries and continents, with cultural traditions in general and academic concepts in particular varying, and while the actual practice of quality control has progressed in some countries much further than in others, a stage has been reached where the concern for quality has started to penetrate the vast majority of systems of higher education.

The particular issue of internationalisation has not, so far, played a considerable role in the various quality assurance systems in place. Quality assurance still largely operates in a national context, and it concentrates on the "domestic" dimensions of the teaching, research and service function of higher education institutions. At the same time, internationalisation is only slowly taking notice of the need for quality assurance. There is a deep contradiction inherent in this state of affairs. If internationalisation is to become an integrated part of a university's mission, or, to put it differently, if an international dimension will be one of the criteria for a quality education, then the existing systems need to be de-nationalised (or internationalised), and they must open up to the international activities of higher education institutions. The worlds of quality assurance and internationalisation must meet.

In the particular field of internationalisation, a number of initiatives have been undertaken in recent years to assure the quality of the international cooperation activities of higher education. Slowly, but certainly, quality assurance of international activities is becoming one of the important framework conditions for success in internationalisation, which universities cannot neglect. Existing initiatives can be classified into four categories:

♦ *Codes of practice:* They concern a set of minimum standards to be respected in the execution of certain activities, like student exchange or the delivery of educational programmes abroad (offshore operations or distance education). Although of a fairly descriptive and unpretentious nature, these codes of practice are easy to apply and thus of an immediate usefulness for starting the process of assuring a minimum quality in internationalisation.

♦ *Self-evaluation:* This category represents a set of instruments which institutions can use to assess their efforts in the international field against their own objectives. They normally cover a wide range of activities, such as student and staff mobility, curriculum development and joint degrees, and they also reflect organisational and resource questions. Self-evaluation is an analytical process, and it can only be applied if an institution is able to formulate its international objectives. In other words: it requires that a university has a policy on internationalisation. Self-evaluation can, but need not be, combined with peer review, as will become obvious later.

♦ *Certification:* The classical example in this category is provided by the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE), which has developed a set of "Principles for Transnational Education" and which has, as its main purpose, the assurance and improvement of the quality of education delivered across national borders. The "Principles" basically constitute a code of practice, but GATE also awards certification to institutions which use it for a process of self-evaluation and external review. While applicable to a wide set of activities, GATE certification is typically used for such operations as distance education, branch campuses or franchised programmes. Its main *raison d'être* is consumer protection.

♦ *Integration into general quality audits:* This fourth category represents the rare cases where broader or general quality assurance instruments take note of the international dimension, i.e. where the worlds of quality assurance and internationalisation meet. Examples are few, but they exist; the Australian Committee for Quality Assurance in Higher Education regularly comments on internationalisation in Australia's higher education institutions. The Finnish government has set as one of the targets, which even impacts slightly on the funding of higher education institutions, an increase in the number of Finnish students studying abroad.

The most developed single example of a quality assurance instrument for internationalisation to date is the Internationalisation Quality Review Process (IQRP), which has been developed over the last three years in a pilot phase by the Academic Cooperation Association and the Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) of the OECD. IQRP is basically an analytical instrument, which combines the elements of self-evaluation and peer review. The aim is to assess an institution's efforts and achievements in internationalisation against the background of its own stated aims and objectives. IQRP does not aim at comparing the quality of internationalisation between institutions. Rather, it acts as an instrument of assessing and advising. The core elements of the process are a self-assessment report, which a team reflecting the full scope of levels and actors in a university will draw up. This document forms the information base for an in-depth visit by a team of foreign academics and internationalisation specialists, who subsequently draw up a report containing an assessment of the institution's achievements, as well as a set of recommendations. The report is produced for the institution's own use only. It is published only if the institution so decides. IQRP has been tested successfully by a range of universities in four continents. The present pilot phase will be concluded by a publication of the IQRP methodology (guidelines) and a number of case studies by OECD in summer 1999.

In order to bridge the gap between quality assurance and internationalisation, the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) and OECD are currently negotiating with the Association of European Universities (CRE) the future use of the instrument in a wider institutional context. The three organisations intend to offer IQRP reviews to higher education institutions in Europe and beyond on a regular basis from the summer of 1999 onwards.

3.7. Distance Education and Information and Communication Technologies

One of the dilemmas that higher education faces today is the expectation to do more with reduced means. While public expenditure at best stagnates, and often declines, the demand for higher education rises (and must rise to meet the development needs of large parts of the world). To many, a way out of this dilemma is distance learning, supported by modern information and

communication technology. The cost per student in distance education is dramatically lower than in "classical" residential teaching.

Provision of high-tech distance education is still, in many parts of the world, not a major reality. In others, such as the United States of America, in Australia, and, rapidly growing, in the countries of the Asia-Pacific region, its role is already more substantial. However, with a view to the future, we are clearly talking of an important growth sector, which universities cannot afford to neglect. The development even appears to threaten their century-old monopoly for the provision of higher education. Corporations, particularly in the US, are quickly moving into this market segment, often, but not always in collaboration with "conventional" higher education institutions. Many courses of private providers, particularly from among the large communications and media enterprises, still mainly cater for the continuing education needs of their own personnel, which they do not seem to see satisfied by the conventional type of university. But for how long still?

What are the implications of this development for the internationalisation of higher education? Answers are not easy, given that not all that glitters in the world of ICT today might turn out to be gold in the long run. One possible perspective is that distance education, coupled with the new technological possibilities, will revolutionise internationalisation. Distance provision knows no country borders. It can – potentially – reach anyone at any time anywhere on the globe. No student with a computer and an internet access needs to be anymore hostage to an outdated and inefficient higher education system. In this scenario, the student can choose the best education available from a global market. Mobility of a "virtual" kind will replace the time and cost-intensive necessity to physically move from one country to another, while benefiting from all the advantages of foreign education offers. But is this the concept of internationalisation we have discussed so far?

The internationalisation concept this essay is based on is that an international dimension, which can take many forms, will be "injected" or integrated into the education delivered. The "international" dimension of distance provision is basically restricted to the fact that the education provider is foreign. The fact that the curriculum studied comes from another country does not yet make it international. In comparison to studying in another country, distance education does not provide the immersion to a foreign country, culture and language. Given that, in the field of undergraduate study particularly, research indicates that the major impacts of study abroad are less on academic achievement, but can be found in the more general area of cultural and linguistic learning and personality development, the lack of any first-hand experience of a foreign country seriously reduces the international effects of distance learning.

This does not mean that there are no international cooperation aspects to distance education. But they probably lie in other areas. While distance

education is, in principle, far less expensive than traditional forms of tuition, the effort, time and cost to first of all establish courses, let alone create a virtual university, are substantial and usually much higher than one single institution can shoulder. Therefore, there is a need and ample scope for cooperation, nationally as well as internationally, in the development of courses and programmes, of course material, and of the educational software that delivers them. Similarly, networks of institutions are a necessity for the delivery of courses. In most cases, distance education is not entirely virtual; local or regional study centres are required to support the learning process, necessitating a structured collaboration of foreign and home institutions (or "offshore campuses of the foreign provider). Collaboration is usually also close with private enterprises in the field of technology, who cooperate, if not lead, in consortia with universities. Advanced ventures of this sort, such as the "Global Alliance for Transnational Education" (GATE) are also jointly developing minimum quality standards and accreditation systems in distance education which by and large still operates in a fairly unregulated environment.

ICT-based distance education is regarded by many as a solution to the vast higher education needs of developing countries. The low unit-cost of distance education is seen as a means to provide a quality education even under the constraints of extremely tight budgets. The hope is that ICT might help universities in the South to leap-frog the present knowledge gap between the developing and the developed countries. First projects are being devised and implemented, with the help of donor agencies. The most promising among them are again, as in the field of curricular development, examples of regional "South-South" cooperation, with Northern countries and aid agencies playing a supportive role. Two such projects are currently being devised and implemented in Africa. One of them is the "Université Virtuelle Francophone", which targets the countries of Western and Central Africa in a first phase, but is intended to eventually be extended to the countries in the Indian Ocean region, the Caribbean and Asia. Some thirty universities and *grandes écoles* in the North will provide their courses and modules to regional educational resource centres in the target region (Dakar, Yaoundé) initially, and these will adapt them for regional use. Later, the course materials are to be produced directly in the region. Like the regional "collaborative" degrees, the project targets postgraduate students, but also researchers. The distance-teaching modules will be used in combination with residential teaching. The Northern organisation supporting the Université Virtuelle Africaine is AUPELF/UREF, the Association des Universités Entièrement ou Partiellement de Langue Francaise/Universités des Reseaux d'Expression Francaise. The second example, again from Africa, is a World Bank project, the "African Virtual University". This is a regional project concentrating more on undergraduate education, for the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. It is hoped that the project will bring the best minds of the region together, in order to contribute to the

building of human resources and overcome the severe problems of access to higher education.

ICT-based distance education is a rapidly developing field of activity, which offers international facets. It is somewhat illusionary to want to forecast developments even in the near future. Likewise, it is far from clear whether the emerging trends will support true internationalisation of higher education, or whether the international aspect will be reduced to a globalisation of the higher education market, driven mainly by an economic rationale. In any event, higher education institutions will be well advised to closely follow developments, in order not to be left behind. For countries in the developing world, regional cooperation in ICT-based distance education could help to increase access to higher education, support urgently needed resource-building, and add to relevance and quality.

3.8. Resources and Structures

One indispensable condition for successful internationalisation of higher education institutions is the provision of adequate resources and related implementation structures. Many universities formulate ambitious international aims in their mission statements, while not providing the necessary means for their implementation. Like every other target, internationalisation has a price. Resources, in the sense of this paper, can be differentiated into personnel and actual funding.

In terms of human resources, two types of personnel play a role: academic staff and administrators. Both types can be found at the level of the central administration as well as in the faculties and departments.

Administrative tasks in the context of international relations require specific expertise, and, for part of the staff anyway, a firm academic background. While general management abilities are and become increasingly important in the field, specific knowledge, for example about funding agencies and programmes or about foreign higher education institutions and systems, not to mention secondary skills such as foreign language command, are indispensable for the operation of international collaboration. Although the field of international university relations attracts an ever increasing number of very motivated and, in a general sense, highly qualified young graduates, there is to date no specific university education which prepares directly for the management of international academic relations. The administration of higher education collaboration is not yet professionalised everywhere. "Professionals" in this field are therefore self-taught, having acquired their knowledge and skills as "apprentices" of experienced colleagues. Universities should ensure that international officers have access to initial training and regular updating services, which are increasingly on offer from expert organisations. The same may be said in support of their participation in conferen-

ces of such organisations, at national or international level which fulfil a similar learning function.

Most institutions in the North with an identifiable administrative infrastructure have created a central-level international office which provides the necessary administrative services to support international activities. In developing countries, such administrative units are largely absent. For reasons of economies of scale, much speaks for the establishment of a unit at central level, as opposed to decentralising the tasks involved to the academic base of the institutions. Larger universities often have additional faculty offices. In the case of a total decentralisation of administrative tasks to the academic units, coordination between the various actors becomes necessary – and a difficult and complex task. Decentralisation of administrative work potentially hinders the implementation – or even the development – of a consistent institution-wide policy for internationalisation. The preference for a central-level administrative solution does not mean that the faculties and departments do not play a major role in the internationalisation process. But their role is substantive, and thus on the content-side, rather than administrative. In most cases it is helpful to appoint a technical "coordinator" in the academic units, in order to create a point of reference and clear communication lines between central structures and the academic base.

In practice, international offices very often decide on policy issues of internationalisation, especially in smaller institutions. Given their highly specialised knowledge, some involvement in policy-decisions is natural and even desirable. Yet, to leave international policy decisions entirely to the technical experts is not wise. Policy-making and implementation should not be the responsibility of the same persons and bodies. Policy-making in internationalisation is a matter for the institution's leadership. As in other democratic organisations, the power to execute and the power to decide should not be in the same hands. Moreover, entrusting policy to the "practitioners" can also hinder the dedication of a wider range of academics to the task of internationalising the institution, and thus act as an obstacle to the development of an institution-wide commitment to the cause of internationalisation.

In a formal sense, the political responsibility for internationalisation, as for all other matters, lies with the rector. Given the multiple agendas an institutional leader has to follow, many universities have delegated these tasks from the rector to a vice-rector for international affairs. Be it the rector, or a vice-rector who is in the lead, an additional central body, representing the different academic units of the institution, may be necessary in order to reach the consensus on policy questions, and to ensure that these policies are implemented by the institution's constituent parts. While coordination and leadership is vital, at policy level as well as with regard to administration, and while most

universities still have a large potential for improvement in this respect, it must be borne in mind that the academics are the backbone of universities, without whose support and active commitment no progress can be achieved – in internationalisation or in any other matter. Higher education institutions are organisms of a very special kind, which cannot be governed in a top-down corporate style.

One particular problem with regard to securing an active commitment of academic personnel to international cooperation lies in the relatively low prestige, and still lower career-potential attached to internationalisation in comparison with research. In most cases, it is much more conducive to an academic's career to concentrate on scientific publications than on organising student exchanges or engaging in curricular reform. Institutions dedicated to internationalisation should therefore create incentives to make an international investment lucrative, and to integrate international activity in any remuneration and promotion schemes.

Next to personnel, financial resources play a crucial role. With declining public spending on education, and with alternative sources mostly difficult to tap into, it is no small demand on universities to increase their investment in this field. It must still be underlined that internationalisation does not come cheaply. A decision to make international cooperation one of the core concerns of an institution entails priority decisions in the field of resource allocation, too. A stated priority not underpinned by the provision of resources will rightly be regarded as mere lip-service. It is understood that there are very wide discrepancies between possibilities which are open to universities in the developing and in the developed world in this respect. The extent of any commitment can therefore be measured only in relation to the financial resources available to an institution.

Adequacy of funds is one aspect, allocation of funds another. Many institutions pursue a philosophy of equal distribution to all units and activities. Such a course avoids conflicts in the institution and appears to be democratic. But, especially with a view to the current scarcity of funds, this is not likely to lead to success. Priorities within the international field must be identified. Necessarily, the exact model in a given institution will be a reflection of the international mission and the particular policy objectives the institution has agreed on, as well as the past record of individual units.

In many countries, resources are also available from external bodies. Sponsorship from corporate partners is one option, though admittedly not an easy one, even in the North. Most institutions will probably tend to concentrate on funding schemes of national governments or their international agencies, or on programmes from binational, international or supra-national organisations. It is obvious that such sources are much richer in some parts of the world than in others. But universities must, in any event, actively pursue the opportunities available from outside sources. This requires the willingness to

enter into competition with each other. It also necessitates academics and administrators knowledgeable about the various funding schemes available, and about the rules and regulations of lobbying, applying, contracting and reporting under these schemes.

The desperate financial and resource situation of many universities in the developing world might make them view the above analysis and recommendations as either naïve or cynical. This is by no means the intention. It must be acknowledged that possibilities in the developing world are extremely limited. And there are no easy solutions, either. The universities in the developed North should show solidarity in this area, and help in the creation of basic administrative procedures, and through the secondment of administrative staff for short to medium-term stays to advise and help set up the required structures. As was the case in the North until very recently, academics in the South will probably have to shoulder the management of internationalisation for some time to come.

3.9.   Information and Marketing

In an increasingly competitive environment, many higher education institutions have realised the need for coordinated measures in the provision of information about the university and of marketing the institution. While the first wave of this development happened largely in a national context, institutions have begun to extend their efforts increasingly into the international arena, too.

Provision of comprehensive and up-to-date information about a university and the education it offers is one of the prerequisites of successful internationalisation processes. Such information must be user-friendly, and be provided not only in the home language, but also in the major world (or regional) languages, in order to be easily accessible to potential students, faculty and prospective partner institutions. Printed material is of course a necessity, but increasingly higher education institutions will have to present themselves on the internet. Presence in information markets at international conferences and at student fairs is helpful in making the institution visible to a wide international public. Additionally, some institutions advertise the more prestigious of their courses in the international press and in educational journals.

There are different motives behind the fairly recent move of some higher education institutions to provide information on and to market the range of education they offer. One of them is a basically economic drive, and tends to be common in countries which are characterised by a competitive environment and where revenue from student tuition fees constitutes a major share of the institutions' income. Examples are the United States of America, The United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. France, in a new joint initiative of the foreign and the education ministry to recruit foreign students, has set up a promotion agency recently (EduFrance), and intends to charge

tuition and fees for services to foreign students. In these countries, foreign students are perceived as paying customers, at least as much as they are viewed as contributors to the internationalisation of the campus. Thus, such marketing strategies are not exclusively due to an internationalisation drive. It becomes obvious why the countries named above also play a leading role in similarly motivated ventures such as off-shore campuses. These trends appear, in some cases, to go hand-in-hand with a shift "from aid to trade" which might adversely effect higher education development cooperation. There are signs that "third country scholarships" are increasingly converted into grants for study in the donor country, which are moreover targeted at the best of the students from the developing countries.

A different reason for information and marketing efforts can best be exemplified by the case of German higher education institutions. While the number of foreign students is still comparatively high in this country, institutions and state authorities alike started to worry, a number of years ago, about a potential lack of appeal of the system, and of the individual institutions, on an international scale. There were concerns that the self-perception of being a world leader in certain disciplines, such as engineering, did not match with the picture other nations had of the country's universities. Besides introducing structural innovation measures with the aim of increasing the international compatibility of the higher education system in general, these concerns gave rise to a worldwide and comprehensive information and advertisement campaign. Unlike the United States or Australia, Germany cannot expect any (fee-based) financial returns from these initiatives; there are, as yet, no tuition fees in Germany. The driving force behind the substantial campaign was the desire to underline the country's potential in education and research, and to positively influence perception of it abroad.

3.10. Global Awareness and Responsibility

Universities have often been accused of a self-induced reduction of their role to scientific matters only, and of ignoring the problems that the wider society faces. While there have been, at times, tendencies to withdraw to an ivory tower, this has never been the true expression of the role and function of this institution, which is part of society and needs to fulfil its functions as a societal actor. And indeed, there have been phases when the university could only be described as an *institution engagée.*

Responsibility to society has never been a role that the university could restrict to its immediate or even its national environment. However, at the end of the second millennium, where globalisation, fast transport and the enhanced possibilities of modern information and communication technology have turned the world into a village, the university's responsibility to society is of a global nature. Responsibility is international.

Many institutions have taken on this international responsibility. Through a host of activities in the cultural, social, and, above all, ethical arenas, the university, like other relevant actors in society, take on this role. While their scientific background often is an asset in these endeavours, the particular role of the university in this process is not a scientific one. Universities co-operate across borders of countries and continents to raise the awareness for pressing issues of our age, and to responsibilise decision-makers. Commitment in thematic areas such as peace education, disarmament, arms control, conflict prevention and conflict solution, sustainable development, solidarity with academic institutions in the developing world, global understanding and multiculturalism, are frequent expressions of this responsibility.

International cooperation of the sort discussed mostly falls outside the definition of internationalisation upon which this study is based. At the same time, this type of cooperation is of vital importance for the future of our planet. It is an inherent component of higher education's mission which complements the scientific core tasks with a social, cultural and ethical role. To take up this role actively today is more necessary than ever. It is also vital for counterbalancing the strong trend towards a commercialisation of higher education. Universities may not limit themselves to becoming "knowledge industries", oblivious of their humanistic roots, and devoid of a social, cultural and ethical commitment.

4.   Policies of Internationalisation

The previous chapter explored the individual activities constituting internatio-
nal cooperation, as well as a number of framework conditions which impact
on the implementation of these activities. The present chapter is intended to
place these individual activities and framework conditions in a broader con-
text, namely that of an overall policy or strategy. As in the preceding chapter,
the main focus is on the higher education institution, but a look is also taken
at the national (and thus) governmental level of policy formulation and imple-
mentation. Given the fact that policy formulation in internationalisation, as
understood in this paper, is still predominantly restricted to European or at
any rate developed countries, this chapter will necessarily have to concen-
trate on these.

No attempt is made to propose a specific policy for higher education institu-
tions to adopt. Given the diversity of aims and objectives and of conditions
under which universities operate, this is impossible. Each institution has to
decide on its policy itself. The chapter will, however, outline the major ele-
ments and conditions which impact on the formulation of an internationalisa-
tion policy.

4.1.   The National Level

Different countries have strongly differing histories of implementing a policy
for internationalisation of higher education. In some countries, such as
France, coherent governmental efforts to promote academic exchange as a
part of the country's "cultural diplomacy" have existed at least from the 19th
century onwards. They have also been based on the rationale to spread the
country's language and culture abroad as widely as possible. Several former
colonial powers have retained active academic relations with their ex-colo-
nies until today. On a more comprehensive scale, however, coherent policies
to internationalise higher education only started to emerge during the 1980s,
and predominantly in Europe, where political integration and the launch of
large-scale educational collaboration schemes supported the process of
policy formation. Today, purposeful internationalisation of higher education is
becoming more and more of a policy priority in most developed countries.
This development reflects the perception that the international exchange of
persons and knowledge is a major precondition for improving the quality of
education, and for the effective production of human resources. It is com-
monly held that countries which fail to internationalise their higher education
system will suffer losses both in economic and intellectual terms in the 21st
century.

Interestingly, international higher education cooperation is a major field of
international (and inter-institutional) competition. An international higher edu-
cation market is developing rapidly, and countries and institutions are com-

peting over their share of it. To attract fee-paying foreign students is an important source of income for institutions, notably in countries like the USA, Australia, the United Kingdom or New Zealand. Other countries, such as recently France, show signs of joining the movement towards marketing their institutions and engaging in active recruitment. The seemingly unlimited possibilities of the new information and communication technologies further enhance global competition.

A recent ACA study on "National Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe" pointed out that governmental efforts to internationalise education are often still disconnected from the "mainstream" of their education policies conceptually, politically and practically. In some countries, internationalisation is even still treated as an add-on factor, and not an integrated part of higher education's mission. Likewise, internationalisation is frequently still subject to piecemeal and *ad hoc* administration. In some countries, this might be explained by the fact that the responsibility for internationalisation is with organisations and actors different from those responsible for general higher education policy. Also, different policy instruments may applied; the steering of national education systems is always, at any rate to an extent, based on regulation mechanisms, while internationalisation is mostly encouraged by means of financial incentives. In many countries, there is not one single government document which would spell out the internationalisation policy. Rather, policy finds expression in numerous government measures and documents (regulations, funding schemes, policy papers) over time. However, whether systematised and explicit or fragmented and implicit, it is obvious that the issue of internationalisation is continuously gaining ground in the context of higher education policy-making.

The above-mentioned ACA study produced some interesting findings on the motives for international cooperation in education. While motivation differs strongly due to historical and geopolitical variables, some common European trends can nevertheless be found. One of these is the growing importance of economic considerations behind the internationalisation of higher education. In this area, one can distinguish between more immediate and direct economic objectives, such as the generation of revenue from foreign fee-paying students, and longer-term and indirect economic motives, such as the build-up of high-quality human resources through internationalisation and the generation of economic growth by means of the exchange of persons and knowledge.

Second, policies for internationalisation are gaining in comprehensiveness and coherence. Many European countries are moving from an emphasis on intra-European cooperation to policies which encourage cooperation with several major geographical areas. These policies are also eventually moving from the "periphery" of educational policy to mainstream policy-making. Governments are starting to recognise that international programmes also have their bearing on general higher education policy.

Third, policy for internationalisation – as education policy in general – is less and less monopolised by ministries of education. Rather, both external actors (the economy and "social partners") and higher education institutions themselves increasingly participate in policy formulation. This is linked to a partial shift from close state control to decentralisation of decision-making and budget control to the institutions in many systems.

Fourth, in most European countries a process of professionalisation in the management of international cooperation can be observed. In parallel, personnel resources have been increased noticeably. This trend prevails in central administrations of the institutions, but also in their constituent parts, such as faculties and departments, where specialised personnel is employed, and mechanisms and procedures have been put in place.

4.2. The Institutional Level

4.2.1. Policy Formulation in Higher Education Institutions

The development of an internationalisation policy must take into account the peculiar nature of higher education institutions. Universities have sometimes been labelled "organised anarchies". They are complex, decentralised organisations, or "loosely coupled systems", characterised by a high degree of division and diffusion of power. The actors inside the institution display varying and heterogeneous conceptions of purpose; sometimes, the academics' loyalty to the international discipline-based peer group exceeds that to their own institution. Decision-making in universities is a complex exercise, characterised by a high degree of decentralisation, and not normally speedy. "Organisational ambiguity" is one of the university's chief characteristics. Resistance to change is usually formidable.

Strategic management and planning are not easily implemented under these conditions. The formulation and implementation of an overall policy on most, if not all, issues at stake is a slow process, and bound to entail a fair degree of compromise. The steering and management of such organisations naturally involves a specific set of challenges. Because of the fragmentation of tasks and the diffusion of power, comprehensive reforms are difficult to bring about. Any desired change is likely to be slow, due to opposition and strongly varying responses to new policies.

Those who design and implement internationalisation policies have to recognise the special character of higher education organisations, in order not to fail in their efforts. To be successful, any approach must conform to the basic tenets of academic work and life at the university, and to the peculiar values and ideas persisting in the specific higher education institution, as expressed in its (formulated or implicit) mission statement or general strategy. A combination of top-down and bottom-up elements appears to be the road to

success in most cases. While loosely coupled systems cannot be expected to develop a consistent institutional policy from the academic base only, they would also fiercely resist any dictate from the central management level.

4.2.2. Framework Conditions for the Design of Institutional Strategies for Internationalisation

Both internal and external factors must be taken into account when designing an institutional strategy for internationalisation. The relevant internal elements include the mission, traditions and self-image of the university; an assessment of strengths and weaknesses in programmes, personnel and finance; and the organisational leadership structure. The external elements consist of the perceptions of image and identity of the institution; the opportunities and threats prevailing in the international "market place"; and the assessment of the institution's competitive situation.

All universities have either an implicit or an explicit mission. Explicit mission statements can be expected to cover a minimum set of issues. First of all, they will raise the question of the basic motivation and rationale behind internationalisation. Why does the university promote international cooperation? Second, what is the scope of the institution's international cooperation activity? Does it encompass all subject areas and the related parts of the university, or is it focused on certain areas of strength? Do international activities target certain geographical areas, or is the approach of the university rather global and geographically unspecific? Will the institution engage in the whole range of international cooperation activities depicted in chapter 3, or will it make choices? Third, is internationalism to be a "pervasive" part of institutional life or is it of marginal importance? Finally, is the institution clear about the desired outcomes of its international activities? What kind of results does it expect from exchange, curricular internationalisation and other international activities with regard to the quality of education provided?

Strengths and weaknesses in programmes, personnel and finance mainly involve factors of time, competence and financial resources. To name but a few examples, the time- and work-intensive incorporation of an international dimension into all curricula can be difficult due to time constraints. Teaching foreign students, perhaps even in a foreign language, demands special skills and dedication on the part of the academic teachers. Sometimes specific incentives and remuneration mechanisms might be needed. Concerning finances, the institution must be clear about whether international activities are to be an investment into the development of the quality of education, or an endeavour primarily aiming at the generation of income. In the latter case, international cooperation ventures must be essentially self-financing in the long run.

Organisational leadership structure concerns the interface of policy formulation and policy implementation, and issues of centralisation and decentralisation. The creation of a separate administrative unit (international affairs office, possibly combined with other external tasks such as industry liaison or contract research) normally proves indispensable. The division of responsibilities between different levels must be well thought out, and reporting lines have to be clear.

With regard to external elements impacting on the internationalisation strategy, external perceptions of image and identity of the institution are significant in the sense that the strategy must be credible to the outside world. External customers and stakeholders must be able to locate the international element in the institution's overall profile.

Trends and opportunities in the international arena and market place concern transformations in the international fields of education, culture, economy and politics. Ideally, the institution should follow widely developments in the international arena and be able to relate its international activities to these trends at any given time. Factors calling for new strategic choices include, for example, the emergence of new international funding opportunities, and new attractive markets for higher education.

Finally, universities need to examine the international competitive situation and realistically assess their chances for survival in it. It makes a great difference, for example, if a university possesses a monopoly in a narrow market segment, and would thus concentrate on a niche, or whether it finds itself in a comprehensive competition in all disciplines and with all the services it provides.

4.2.3. Levels of Internationalisation

The level of internationalisation, and the significance it has gained in a given institution, can be described with the help of two parameters, or continua. Parameter one concerns the degree of systematisation of international activity and distinguishes between a sporadic, irregular and *ad hoc* manner to implement internationalisation, and systematic and ordered procedures (and policies) aimed at internationalisation. The other parameter concerns the degree of centrality which internationalisation has reached among the policies of a university. It makes a distinction between internationalisation as a marginal activity, which has a relatively low visibility and is considered as neither an important area of operation nor a significant source of income, and internationalism as a central area of activity, which is large in volume and which permeates all functions of the institution. The combination of the two variables results in four types of approaches, represented by the quadrants A to D in the following matrix.

```
                    Ad hoc ─────────── Systematic

        Marginal
                          A                   B


                    ─────────────┼─────────────

                          C                   C
        Central
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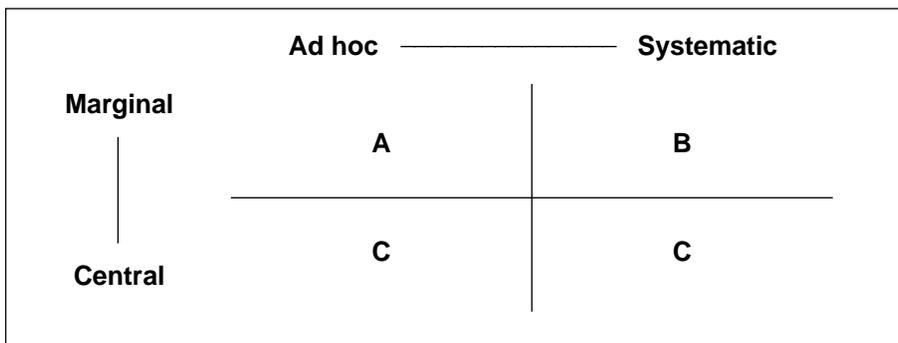
Institutions in quadrant A usually have few foreign students or academic staff. Academic cooperation is based on individual initiative and does not figure in the institutional mission statement. There is little specialised personnel for the management of international affairs and no incentives exist for engaging in cooperation.

Institutions in quadrant B practise international activities on an equally small scale, but these activities are well organised and coordinated. Operations are targeted; they coincide with institutional strengths and opportunities and are based on a conscious internationalisation strategy. The few international projects and exchanges the institution is involved in enjoy adequate funding and are managed by a small but competent staff.

In quadrant C international activities are large in volume, but not very focused. While the institution may put an increased emphasis on some areas, internationalisation generally takes place across the whole range of disciplines and departments in the institution. Projects are often motivated by the aim to create revenue, but there is no coherent cost policy. A number of "dead" agreements and schemes exist. Support services and quality assurance are not fully on par with activities. Internal conflicts are quite frequent.

Finally, in quadrant D, international activities are high in volume, but they also form a coherent whole, and they are based on one single, coherent strategy. Operating procedures and codes of practice are well formulated. Curriculum and personnel policies are frequently revised and support internationalisation. Project and financial management are carried out by well-trained staff in a professional manner. An incentive system exists within the institution. Quality assurance is well developed and few internal conflicts hamper the institution.

Many higher education institutions start their internationalisation efforts in quadrant A, and, in very successful cases, eventually arrive in quadrant D. However, the model is not normative in the sense that this development would be the only feasible one. It is not unthinkable for a university to take the strategic decision to limit their international involvement to a stage corresponding to one of the "lesser" quadrants.

4.2.4. Strategic Planning and Institutionalisation of Internationalisation

As outlined above, the start of an internationalisation process is usually characterised by individual activity of a handful of academics and administrators, who follow their own agendas, which are rarely related to one another. How difficult it is to progress from this stage (quadrant A above) to a coherent institution-wide policy on internationalisation can best be described by an initiative which the European Union forced on Europe's universities in 1996. In this year, the Union changed the formula of its ERASMUS programme with the aim of strengthening the universities' institutional commitment and strategic planning capacity. A newly-introduced "Institutional Contract" substituted the old programme formula, which had been targeted at individuals or departments, but not at the institution in its entirety. The new model required universities to hand in one single overall application only, which would result in one single funding contract. Prior to 1996, each department (or individual academic) could submit their own applications, in principle in an unlimited number. Additionally, institutions were asked to produce a "European Policy Statement", which was to describe their general aims and objectives in European cooperation and provide any relevant background information.

In order to monitor the process of institutionalisation, the Union launched EUROSTRAT, a joint research project of the Association of European Universities (CRE) and the Centre for Research on Higher Education and Work of the University of Kassel. In its first stage, this ongoing project analysed all Institutional Contract applications, and particularly the "European Policy Statements" which Europe's higher education institutions submitted in 1996.

No standard format had been described for the "European Policy Statements", but most of them displayed a surprisingly similar structure. As a rule, they depicted the overall profile of the institution, with occasional additional information on its history and general aims; they provided information on previous international and European activities; they stated the institution's goals and objectives in internationalisation, often accompanied by (and mostly identical with) a description of the activities to be pursued within and outside of SOCRATES; and they contained a presentation of support facilities for internationalisation. Many European Policy Statements ended with an emphatic endorsement of the significance the institution attached to internationalisation in general and to Europeanisation in particular.

The large majority of institutions were able to present their internationalisation goals in an understandable way. However, the researchers noted a weak "vertical consistency" between the European goals and strategies, and the activities foreseen to implement them. Many of the goals mentioned turned out to be of a purely operational nature. The activities proposed for funding – such as student mobility or curriculum development – were often repeated and presented again as "policy". Obviously, many applicant institutions found it hard to differentiate between the levels of policy and activity.

Next to such "vertical" shortcomings, the authors detected a similar deficit in "horizontal consistency". By and large, institutions had failed to state the link between their general institutional objectives and the particular aims and objectives they pursued in European cooperation.

Although institution-wide deliberation, consultation and decision-making had been supported by the new ERASMUS formula, which actually took place through the creation of all sorts of "committees", "task forces", and "working" and "steering groups", this process had not, in the majority of cases, resulted in European and international issues reaching the highest ranks of institutional leadership.

Surprisingly, few differences in policy and strategy formulation and in content were detected between such countries in which strategic management in higher education is already firmly established (United Kingdom), and others where the concept is only now starting to become important (Germany). The large majority of strategies was labelled by the researchers as "all-encompassing and comprehensive", meaning that institutions had avoided to be selective and targeted. The impression was that prioritisation had not really taken place. Moreover, nearly all applications were characterised by a heavy dominance of student mobility, which outweighed any other form of cooperation by far.

Before this exercise, relatively few institutions in Europe had engaged in any strategic planning of international cooperation. Although a number of the above findings indicate that the concept of a "strategy" and "policy", as distinct from sheer activity, is not yet being fully understood, the introduction of the Institutional Contract appears to have at least contributed towards the recognition of a need for strategic planning. But most institutions are still in the fairly early stages of a learning process with regard to the formulation of a fully-fledged institutional strategy on internationalisation.

Improvements in this regard appear to be necessary, however, for internationalisation to leave the marginal position it still has in many institutions. Universities which intend to make internationalisation a core element of their self-understanding will have to be able to formulate their goals and objectives, to define the "horizontal" relationship of these objectives to other institutional aims, and to define the "vertical" link between policy aims and operational activity, pursued in the attempt to implement these policy aims.

5.   The Case of Europe: a Continent on the Way to Educational Integration

The organisation which has undoubtedly had the greatest impact on higher education cooperation in Europe is the European Union. This is surprising. The Union is a supra-national organisation, which has moved a good deal of decision-making power from the member state level to the European institutions. But education was not one of the areas of Union competence until very recently. Only in 1993, when the Maastricht Treaty was ratified, did the European Union acquire a mandate to act in the field of education, and a fairly limited mandate at that. Before this date, the right to act in the field of education was the exclusive privilege of the Union's member states. Only in vocational training did the Union have a legal basis for action. Yet, long before the conclusion of the Treaty of Maastricht the EU became very active in the area of education in general, and higher education in particular. It launched an impressive number of higher education cooperation programmes between its member states and with third country partners. It introduced binding legislation on the recognition of diplomas, and fostered extensive cooperation on comparability of vocational training qualifications. Moreover, it practised and still practises a soft form of coordination of national education policies and systems via such diverse instruments as information networks, databases, reports and analyses, resolutions, memoranda and so-called "green" and "white papers".

This chapter examines the various aspects of the European Union's higher education policy. First, the rationales and objectives of European cooperation will be considered. Second, the historical stages of European higher education cooperation will be outlined. This section gives an overview of the major inner-European schemes and programmes, but also touches on EU cooperation with third countries inside and outside of Europe. Third, the chapter takes a look at recognition issues and major EU education policy documents. It ends with a discussion of the question of legal competence for action in education, and the chances of the creation of a more harmonised system of education in the European Union. It is hoped that these elements will enable the reader to realise to which degree the process of educational integration, both in a legal and practical sense, has already progressed on the European continent.

5.1.   Rationale of European Union Education Policies

It is no exaggeration to argue that the EU has been the "prime mover" behind the powerful expansion of transnational cooperation in European higher education since the mid-1980s. Especially the exchange of undergraduate students increased significantly as a result of such EU programmes as COMETT and ERASMUS, and their successor schemes LEONARDO and SOCRATES. While organisations such as the Council of Europe, UNESCO

and OECD have a longer track record in educational cooperation, and perhaps a more profound expertise, as some feel, the EU made its impact through the provision of substantial financial means for the support of educational collaboration.

The most visible part of EU educational cooperation – mobility of students, teachers and researchers – is closely linked to the "four freedoms" of the Single Market, namely the free mobility of capital, goods, services and persons. With transnational education programmes and accompanying measures to facilitate comparability and recognition of studies and degrees, the EU seeks to establish an open space of education, i.e. an educational equivalent to the basically economic Single Market.

Apart from the motivation to create this "open" or "single space of education", the Union has over a long time, and to a degree still today, used a predominantly economic type of reasoning to justify its commitment in the field of educational cooperation. The emphasis has been on the creation of first-rate "human resources". The EU education and training programmes are to result in a future workforce which is to be linguistically, culturally and otherwise capable of working in the other member states, and thus to contribute to the creation of a single European labour market. The joint activities undertaken in the framework of the programmes are also expected to increase the quality and relevance of education in Europe through a transfer of knowledge and innovation, and thus positively impact on employment, economic growth and European competitiveness vis-à-vis other parts of the world.

The Union's emphasis on motives closely linked to employment, the labour market and competition has often been criticised as overly "economistic". Complaints were frequent that the Union, and particularly the European Commission, attaches no intrinsic value to education, but regards it solely as a means to economic ends. Indeed, academic values of long standing, particularly from the Humboldtian and Newman traditions, such as the pursuit of knowledge as an end in itself, figure very low in the Union's political statements.

However, it must be acknowledged that the reliance on economic motivation has in the meantime also permeated most national education policies. Moreover, a good deal of the Union's political statements appear to be to some extent tactically motivated. Finance ministers around the world are more and more reluctant to agree to substantial expenditure simply for "good causes", but they are more impressed by the promise of economic return. One must bear in mind that the level of funding which the EU provides for education and training today was only reached after long battles with the member states, whose finance ministers represented the major obstacles. Also, additional objectives have come to the fore in recent years. The 1995 White Paper on "Teaching and Learning" sees the Union's role in education as a contribution to the solution of a wider range of challenges which Europe

is expected to face in the 21st century. These include the new technologies, especially in the field of information and communication, changes in the labour market and working environment, the ageing of the European population, the enhanced need for lifelong learning, efforts against racism and xenophobia, and the fight against social exclusion, to mention only a few.

The most obvious contribution of the EU's educational activities concerns the process of European integration itself. The policies and programmes are a means of helping to create a "European identity", and a measure to realise a "Citizens' Europe". Educational cooperation is a key vehicle for improving the acceptance of the EU amongst its citizens and for fostering a concrete European identification. Measures like student and staff exchange bring (young) people in direct contact with their peers from other member states. They produce visible and marketable results. While European Union activity in other fields often fails to evoke enthusiasm amongst the peoples of the continent, the acceptance and respect the Union has gained through its educational initiatives is quite outstanding.

5.2.   Milestones in EU Education Policy

5.2.1. The Early Years and the "Education Action Programme"

As stated earlier, general education, and higher education as part of it, is a relative newcomer among the competencies of the EU. The Rome Treaty, which established the Community, did not foresee any mandate for education at all. For a long time, the Union had to base any educational activity on its competence in the field of vocational training, and on the principle of the free mobility of persons.

Until the 1970s, progress was only made in the domain of vocational training, and discussions were largely linked to the key economic functions of the Community. The principles of a common vocational training policy included in the Treaty of Rome were adopted in 1963. Another important "legal base" for Community educational policy was a regulation on the freedom of movement of workers adopted in 1968. It formally linked vocational training to the principle of free movement and stipulated that foreign workers who are nationals of another EU member state – and their children – must have access to vocational training on the same conditions as the host country's own nationals.

The 1970s must be regarded as the first phase of a genuine EU education policy. The interest in education was linked to a new "Euro optimism". The first (intergovernmental) meeting of Ministers of Education in a Community framework took place in late 1971. The "Ministers of Education, meeting within the Council" drafted a resolution proposing the first ever Community action programme in the field of education.

In 1973, education was also institutionalised in the Commission structure, when a Directorate for Education, Research and Science was created within Directorate General XII. In May 1973, Commissioner Ralf Dahrendorf presented a work programme for research and education. He stressed that the Community should not aim at the harmonisation of educational structures and content, but rather focus on a few clearly delineated areas. Many of these ideas reappeared in the report "For a Community Policy on Education", which the former Belgian Minister of Education, Henri Janne, compiled later in the same year. In 1974, the Ministers of Education adopted principles of an EU education policy, which proposed the establishment of an action programme in the field of education. This "Education Action Programme" was finally launched in 1976, and ran until 1985. With regard to higher education, the programme included three measures: the creation of "Joint Study Programmes" (student exchange arrangements between universities in different member states), "Short Study Visits" for teaching staff, and a programme for the exchange of educational administrators. The programme also laid the foundation of such present-day networks for the dissemination of information on education systems and policies and for the recognition of qualifications as EURYDICE and the NARICs. The "Education Action Programme" was modest in scale, and supported at its peak around 400 Joint Study Projects, over 100 Short Study Visits and 300 exchanges of administrators annually. But it turned out to be the nucleus of the large-scale mobility and cooperation programmes of the 1980s and 1990s. The "Joint Study Programmes" in particular provided the model for the inter-university networks of the ERASMUS programme.

After the launch of the "Education Action Programme", progress in the field of educational cooperation was slow for nearly a decade. This has been attributed to the economic recession following the oil crisis, and the resulting escape of member states into protectionist policies.

5.2.2. The "Second Generation Programmes"

Interest in educational cooperation increased again in the mid-1980s, in the context of Community policies to complete the Single Market by the end of 1992 and a new will to create a "People's Europe". In 1986, the EU launched COMETT, a programme for cooperation between higher education and industry in the field of technology. It created a Europe-wide network of University-Enterprise Training Partnerships (UETPs), and it provided funds mainly for the mobility of students and staff, and for joint university-industry projects in continuing education and training. COMETT had a total budget of 245 million ECU and spanned the period from 1986 to 1994. Its launch marked the start of a whole series of similar programmes in the field of education and training.

In 1987, the ERASMUS programme was started, which supported the mobility of students and (academic) staff in all fields of study and which funded

the creation of European university networks (Interuniversity Cooperation Programmes, ICPs), as well as measures to promote mobility through academic recognition of study (the European Community Course Credit Transfer System, ECTS). ERASMUS became the Community's flagship programme, which enjoyed a tremendous success. It remained an independent programme until 1994, based on an overall financial envelope of 277 million ECU.

COMETT and ERASMUS were followed by a host of further programmes, marking an expansion and diversification of EU higher education activity. Increased activity in education also found expression in the creation of a separate unit responsible for the area inside the European Commission, the Task Force for Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth, which was succeeded in the 1990s by a "real" Directorate General, for "Education, Training and Youth". In the period between 1987 and 1990, the training programmes FORCE, EUROTECNET, and PETRA were set up. DELTA, a scheme in the field of learning technologies, started in 1988. LINGUA, a programme promoting the learning of European languages, was launched in 1989.

5.2.3. The "Umbrella Programmes": LEONARDO and SOCRATES

The 1990s have seen a consolidation of EU education policy, and an integration of the somewhat fragmented individual programmes into two large schemes. In late 1994 and early 1995, two large "framework programmes", LEONARDO DA VINCI and SOCRATES, were created.

LEONARDO, the programme for vocational training, replaced COMETT, EUROTECNET, PETRA, FORCE, as well as a part of LINGUA. The programme is divided into four sub-programmes, for the improvement of vocational training systems and arrangements; the improvement of vocational training measures for enterprises and workers, the development of language skills and dissemination of knowledge, and a host of supporting measures, respectively. It funds the exchange of students, trainees and experts, studies and analyses, as well as "pilot projects" and "dissemination project".

SOCRATES, the parallel scheme for general and higher education, with an overall budget of 920 million ECU for the period of 1995 to 1999, targets a wide range of levels and types of education, with a focus on tertiary and secondary education. Of its three "chapters" (the equivalents of the LEONARDO "strands"), the first one, ERASMUS, concerns higher education. COMENIUS, the second chapter, targets school education, and constitutes the first ever substantial involvement of the Union in secondary education. The nameless chapter III ("horizontal measures"), caters for the entire spectrum of education providers, with a component for general adult education (to be called "GRUNDTVIG" in the future), which concerns another area where the EU had not been active before.

The higher education chapter continued the formerly independent ERASMUS programme. Fundable activities remained virtually unchanged, apart from a stronger focus on the development of European (international) curricula. The most important reform related to management practice. Under SOCRATES, ERASMUS saw the introduction of the so-called Institutional Contract system, in which each participating higher education institution submits only one single institutional application, resulting in one single contract with the European Commission over the totality of its activities in the programme. This principle replaced the old ERASMUS Interuniversity Cooperation Programmes (ICPs). Larger universities had been involved in up to 100 ICPs, with an equal number of contractual arrangements. Yet, the main idea behind the innovation was not merely an increase in organisational efficiency. The intention was to turn internationalisation in European higher education institutions into a policy issue, and to encourage them to develop an institutional strategy on European cooperation. European cooperation was to be "institutionalised". In line with this idea, institutions had to submit a "European Policy Statement" outlining their main aims and objectives in European cooperation. Despite these good intentions, many universities perceived the institutional principle mainly as a bureaucratic challenge.

Overall, SOCRATES enjoys considerable success. The same applies to LEONARDO, the record of which recently got somewhat stained by irregularities and inefficiency in the management of the programme. In May 1998, the Commission proposed the extension of both programmes for the period 2000-2006, in an expanded and simplified form. As this paper is written, it appears possible that both programmes could still be adopted in the first half of 1999.

5.3. Cooperation with Non-Member States

Many of the inner-EU education programmes were from the outset designed in such a way that non-member countries might later be admitted to them. EU-funded educational cooperation with non-member countries in the framework of the above-mentioned programmes first got underway in the context of COMETT in the beginning of 1990, when the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) were admitted to the programme on the basis of bilateral contractual agreements with the European Commission. A parallel decision on ERASMUS was reached in October 1991, and the EFTA countries participated for the first time in the call for applications for the academic year 1992/93. Today, the expansion of SOCRATES and LEONARDO to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (and to Cyprus) is nearing completion. As part of its "pre-accession strategy", the European Union's education, training and youth programmes are amongst the first to be completely "opened" to these countries.

Apart from this type of extension to third countries, the EU has by now established a fair number of separate schemes for the collaboration with non-member states. The most substantial example is TEMPUS, the "Trans-European Mobility Programme for University Studies" (later slightly renamed), which started in 1990. The first beneficiaries were Hungary and Poland, but the programme was speedily opened to an increasing number of countries in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). TEMPUS operates under the umbrella of and is funded from the PHARE and TACIS framework assistance programmes, which provide assistance in a wide range of policy fields (mainly outside education and science) to the states of Central and Eastern Europe and to the CIS and Mongolia. The scheme supports inter-institutional transnational cooperation projects between universities (and industry), curriculum development and the mobility of students and staff, among other activities. The intention was and still is to encourage cooperation with universities in Western Europe, and through this to contribute to an increase in the quality of education and an adaptation to the European and international state of the art. Recently, "institution building" became an additional focus. The programme proved to be highly popular, particularly in Central and Eastern Europe. While TEMPUS is going through a downsizing process due to the opening up of SOCRATES and LEONARDO to most of the countries concerned, an extension is being prepared for the years until 2006.

The EU has established a wide range of similar cooperation programmes with third countries, although none of them equal TEMPUS in volume and expenditure. Many of them fall within a larger framework policy which includes measures in areas other than education, too. As a rule, these programmes operate on the basis of multinational networks or consortia, made up of universities, research institutes or companies and business organisations from both the EU and the target countries.

One example is ALFA ("Amérique Latine – Formation Academique"), which was established in 1994 to support cooperation between higher education institutions in the EU and Latin America. The first phase of the programme was carried out between 1994-1997. A second phase is expected to be launched in 1999. ALFA funds the development of academic and administrative management, measures to facilitate recognition, the development and adaptation of curricula, cooperation between institutions of higher education and companies, innovation and systematisation of education, institutional assessment, joint research projects and the mobility of students.

MED-CAMPUS was established in 1990 to promote educational cooperation with the non-European countries of the Mediterranean basin. "Frozen" in 1996, the scheme is expected to be re-launched imminently. An EU-CHINA Higher Education Cooperation Programme was started in 1996, which supports the creation and development of European Studies degrees and Euro-

pean Studies Centres in China, as well as professorships, fellowships, studentships and internships, amongst other activities. The EU-INDIA Cross-Cultural Programme (established in 1997) supports cooperation with India in a similar way. In parallel, the European Commission has initiated project-based cooperation with several Asian countries.

Another example of third country cooperation concerns the United States of America and Canada. After an "exploratory" phase initiated in 1993, the Union adopted the EC/US programme, and a parallel scheme for cooperation with Canada for a five-year period in 1995. *Inter alia,* the programmes provide support for the participating networks, the mobility of students, teaching staff, trainers and administrators in higher education institutions and vocational training institutions, the joint development of curricula and intensive programmes.

The rationale behind cooperation with third countries varies, but it mostly serves wider agendas of foreign policy which transcend educational concerns. Some EU-funded education cooperation with non-member states is development cooperation in nature. In many, if not most, cases, educational and scientific cooperation is to help create a climate conducive to mutually beneficial economic and political relations, and aims at terms of foreign trade favourable for the EU. Cooperation with Central and Eastern Europe is to be viewed as part of the Union's pre-accession strategy, and, some critics feel, also a means of delaying the point in time when these countries can join the Union as full members. The EU-US/Canada programmes are based on the Transatlantic Declaration of 1990, which partly served to alleviate fears on the side of traditional and close partners that, with the completion of the Single Market, the EU would enter into an isolationist phase and retreat into a "fortress Europe". Thus, transatlantic cooperation in all fields relevant to the integration process was deemed desirable.

5.4. Legislation on Free Movement and Recognition of Diplomas and Degrees

Contrary to a widespread belief, the Union has no legislative powers over the academic recognition of degrees and diplomas as such. However, it has a such a competence for the professional recognition of academic qualifications, which is regulated by binding legislation in the form of "directives". Legislation in this field aims at establishing an effective right for all Union citizens to practise their profession in any EU country.

In the early years, the Union followed the strategy of "sectoral" directives, each of which concerned a specific regulated profession or professional field. From the mid-1960s to the mid-1980s, the EU issued over 60 sectoral directives on qualifications required for exercising a profession. The most detailed ones relate to the medical and paramedical professions, where national training requirements appear to be most complex.

The sectoral approach finally turned out to be too rigid and cumbersome. The first "horizontal" directive on the "recognition of higher education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration" was adopted in 1988, to be implemented by member states until the beginning of 1991. The directive represented a shift from detailed regulation and harmonisation of educational courses towards a looser framework arrangement, based on mutual trust in the quality of qualifications granted by other member states. In principle, qualifications granting access to a profession in one member state must be recognised in others, too. In unclear cases, the job-seeker may turn to national authorities nominated for this purpose. The directive also provides for the recognition of substantial working experience (if acquired in a member state where the profession in question is not regulated) in the absence of formal education. In cases where the education received in the country of origin is at least one year shorter than in the host member state, an aptitude test or an adaptation period can be required before granting recognition.

A directive on the "second general system", concerning courses shorter than three years, was approved in June 1992. Next to measures introduced in the "first general system", professional ability can also be legitimately displayed through an attestation of competence. In February 1996, the Commission proposed a third directive for the recognition of diplomas, which is to replace the former two. This is currently being negotiated.

5.5. Education Policy Documents

The expansion of EU education policy in the late 1980s and 1990s has found expression in many strategic and programmatic documents. The Union has been quite successful in seeking to extend its own margin of manoeuvre in education, and to normatively influence the education systems of member states, with the help of such policy papers.

The first such document with a relevance for higher education, the medium term guidelines of EU policy for the period from 1988 to 1992, was published in 1988. This plan was motivated by the forthcoming Single Market (1992), and by concerns over the legitimacy of European integration. The two main issues addressed the "raising of the quality of basic education" and the creation of "an educated and trained workforce". The communication presented five aims towards which EU education programmes should contribute, namely multiculturalism, mobility, training for all, skills development, and a Europe open to the world.

1991 saw the publication of three memoranda, which formulated future priorities for the development of higher education, vocational training and open and distance learning, respectively. The European Commission organised a broad consultation, resulting in a large number of opinions from national

governments, educational and training institutions, as well as from social partners and student and youth organisations. The "Memorandum on Higher Education" remains one of the most widely discussed EU education policy document to date. One of the more hidden functions of this paper, which applies to many similar documents alike, was to sound out how far the member states would let the Union extend its territory. This was particularly important in the period prior to the Maastricht Treaty, through which the Union finally managed to obtain a legal mandate in the field of education.

The 1991 memoranda were followed by new "Guidelines for Community Action in the Field of Education and Training" in early 1993, which prepared the LEONARDO and SOCRATES programmes. In this paper, the European Commission noted an "emergence of what can best be called a European training and qualifications market in which the individual citizen is free to develop his or her qualifications in the wider European context and to move across frontiers without difficulty", as a result of its large-scale programmes.

In 1993, the European Commission issued a "Green Paper on the European Dimension in General Education". Many of the issues touched upon later materialised in the form of the SOCRATES/COMENIUS programme. The latest significant EU documents include the highly controversial 1995 White Paper on "Teaching and Learning", which concentrated on the challenges to education posed by macro-level changes such as the transition to an information society, the 1996 Green Paper on "Obstacles to Transnational Mobility" in education and research, as well as the 1997 communication "Towards a Europe of Knowledge", which prepared the later proposals for LEONARDO II and SOCRATES II.

The European Union uses policy documents to test the climate for the enlargement of its competencies, or for the preparation of programmes and other initiatives. Over and above this, the entirety of these documents, together with the decisions establishing the Union's programme activities, constitute a secondary legal base for further Community action. They are therefore sometimes referred to as soft law. Despite the at times fierce debates as to whether or not this second layer can and should constitute any legal mandate, it has *de facto* very often served exactly this purpose. The European Court of Justice, which had to decide on the legitimacy of Union action in the field of education in a large number of cases, has repeatedly used a very wide interpretation of the Union's mandate indeed, and has thus supported the perception of a binding legal quality of the EU's soft law.

5.6.   The Future of European Higher Education: Harmonisation or Diversity?

From the preceding sections of this chapter, it should have become apparent that there is a hidden debate going on about the basic orientation of educa-

tion in the European Union. Should, or must, Europe head for one single unified education system, or, to put it differently, does Europe need a harmonisation of educational structures? Or must the national systems be protected, because the diversity they constitute make up the richness and attractiveness of Europe? These questions have not, until recently, been openly posed, but they have always been high up on the "hidden" agenda.

In a formal sense, there can be no such debate. The European Union has no competence that would justify attempts at harmonisation. Before the Treaty on European Union, it had no mandate whatsoever in education. It justified its higher education activities on its competence for vocational training, arguing that higher education led to employment, and was thus a form of vocational preparation for working life. With the Maastricht Treaty, the Union acquired only a limited competence in education. The treaty endorses the sole responsibility of member states for the content of teaching and for the organisation of the education systems. It gives a guarantee for their cultural and linguistic diversity, and it effectively rules out measures to harmonise national policies, systems and curricula. The brief of the EU is restricted to supporting and supplementing national measures, to contribute to a quality education by means of providing a "European dimension", i.e. by organising mobility and cooperation between the member state educational institutions. Officially, educational integration is a "taboo", and sporadic suggestions to move into a more harmonised transnational education policy have until recently met with vigorous opposition from member state governments.

On the other hand, the preceding sections should have made it clear that the Union *de facto* pursues an education policy. It has been very successful in the attempt to gradually extend its field of operation. The member states, while fiercely insisting on the principle of their superior rights, have in practice tolerated this. The expansion of an EU education policy has been a cumulative process, in which new activities have regularly been justified by existing ones, "with a view to the outstanding progress made". The integration process, while coming to an occasional halt, has not stopped at a given level, but progressed ever further. The effects of the Union's large cooperation programmes have supported this process. Their result is not only a transfer of knowledge and good practice. Large-scale cooperation has also laid bare the frictions resulting from system incompatibilities. A seemingly trivial, but very telling, example in this regard are the differences in academic calendars across Europe, which pose an obstacle to student and staff mobility. Much speaks for it that a critical mass of cooperation activity tends to stimulate demands for more harmonious structures from within the educational institutions themselves. European legislation, such as the two "general directives" on recognition of higher education qualifications for professional purposes, has undoubtedly had a system impact. The directives have made the three-year duration a European watershed, and thus tend to favour a two-stage degree structure along the lines of the Anglo-Saxon bachelor/master

system, as effects in Sweden, Spain, Norway, France, Denmark and Finland demonstrate.

Harmonisation or diversity: where is Europe heading? A new quality in this discussion was reached in May 1998, when the ministers of education of four EU countries – the United Kingdom, France, Germany and Italy – adopted the "Sorbonne Declaration". In what struck the surprised public as an abrupt change of policy, the four ministers proposed to create an "open European area for higher learning", which would be characterised by a "progressive harmonisation of the overall framework of our degrees and cycles". The fact that highest representatives of member states signed a paper which uses the term "harmonisation" in an affirmative sense must be regarded as a sensation. For years, the term had been all but a four-letter word in member state vocabulary. The ministers proposed a two-stage degree structure, reminiscent of the Anglo-Saxon bachelor/master system, which would increase the transparency and compatibility of European higher education systems. Additionally, the declaration calls for continued and enhanced efforts in student exchange, better exploitation of European Union programmes and policies, a yet stronger stress than hitherto on recognition and the introduction of ECTS as a system feature, multi-disciplinary undergraduate syllabi, the integration of foreign language components into degree courses, and an education that enables graduates to make use of the new information technologies.

Not surprisingly, the declaration provoked substantial discussion, rich in both critical and supportive comments. The "Sorbonne Declaration" is a statement of intent, and it has no binding power on any of the signatories, let alone on the European Union. There are also signs that some of the signatories had acted rather single-handedly, not having secured the support of their heads of government. One might also argue that the position the ministers took was less inspired by a commitment to European educational integration, but by imperatives emanating from an increasingly globalised higher education market. On the other hand, those countries not involved in Paris appear to be eager to jump the band wagon, out of a concern to be left behind, rather than voicing very convincing criticism. There will be a "Sorbonne follow-up conference" in spring of this year in Bologna, this time with the full participation of EU member states.

It remains to be seen if the "Sorbonne process" will result in a quantum leap in the integration of European higher education. This is far from certain. Most observers are sceptical as to the chances for an enlargement of the Union's legal mandate. It appears more likely that the process will result in further *de facto* progress, on the basis of voluntary convergence. But it would not be the first time in European educational history that a *de facto* state of affairs might at a later stage be endorsed in the legislative arena. In any event, the Union can be expected to also continue its policy of small steps, which has been more than successful in the past.

6.   Conclusions : Twelve Recommendations

General Conclusions

1.   The Significance of Internationalisation

Internationalisation is one of the elements constituting quality education and research in higher education. It must therefore be an integral component of the mission of every serious university. The days are over when internationalisation and international cooperation were an optional add-on element of a higher education institution's mission.

2.   Development of an Internationalisation Policy

Higher education institutions need to develop a policy to guide them in their international activities. An undiscerning "the more – the better" approach is no longer a tenable option. Each university needs to identify its own unmistakable international profile. In developing their individual internationalisation policy, universities will:

♦ Make sure that all relevant actors inside the university are involved;
♦ Take account of the institution's particular strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats;
♦ Make sure that the internationalisation policy adopted is consistent with the other core policies pursued (horizontal consistency);
♦ Make sure that the institution's activities in the field of internationalisation are a true reflection of the overarching aims and objectives the institution has set itself in this field (vertical consistency).

3.   Implementation of an Internationalisation Policy

As any other policy, internationalisation needs to be underpinned by a set of structures and procedures in order to be properly implemented. It is naïve to hope that the sheer identification of a number of international aims and objectives will automatically lead to corresponding international activity. For the successful implementation of their international policy, higher education institutions need:

♦ To make sure there is an adequate administrative support structure to organise international cooperation activities inside the institution (international relations office), staffed with professionals from the field of international relations management;
♦ To make sure that there are adequate financial resources to realise the institution's international mission, from the institution's own funds or from third parties, and that allocation of such funds reflects the institution's international mission and past record of individual units and individuals;

♦ To define responsibilities and procedures for the implementation of the internationalisation policy. Top-management must play a leading role in this process (rector or vice-rector for international affairs), with all the academic units and actors of the institution involved (international relations committee);
♦ To make sure that reward systems be put in place to make academics' involvement in internationalisation a career-enhancing investment, equal in weight to efforts in research and teaching.

Activities

4. Mobility of Students

The mobility of students, both at undergraduate and postgraduate level, is and will remain a key internationalisation activity for universities. Higher education institutions must develop active policies both for study abroad of their own students, and for study of foreign students on their campus. In student mobility, universities must observe a number of points:

♦ Mobility of students must take place in an organised framework, be it in the context of mobility programmes of external agencies, or in the context of arrangements with partner universities;
♦ Universities must make sure that they provide the necessary support structures and services for sending and receiving students;
♦ Universities must create the conditions that study abroad of their own students, and study of foreign students at their institution, is recognised towards their degree. They have the obligation to put in place credit transfer systems such as ECTS, or alternative arrangements with partner institutions which serve the same purpose. Non-recognised periods of study abroad are no longer the state-of-the-art in student mobility;
♦ Universities should set themselves quantitative targets for foreign students and study abroad, and monitor achievements on a regular basis.

5. Mobility of Scholars

Higher education institutions must develop active policies to promote both foreign assignments of their own academic staff and the presence of visiting scholars on their campus, in order for academic staff mobility to rise beyond its present modest level. A number of points must be observed:

♦ Foreign assignments must become part of the staff development policies of higher education institutions. They must credit teaching and research missions abroad in their promotion schemes, and generally create incentives for teaching and researching abroad;
♦ As far as possible, foreign assignments should combine teaching with research, to enhance the attractiveness of such missions to academics;

♦ As far as it is in the power of the institution, it must reduce bureaucratic obstacles to foreign assignments;

♦ Teaching offered by visiting scholars must be for credit in the host institution, and generally be integrated into their course structure. Teaching offers by foreign scholars based solely on their scientific preferences, and without any link to the needs of the host institution and their students, no longer represent the state-of-the-art in teaching staff mobility;

♦ Institutions should set themselves quantitative targets for visiting scholars and for foreign assignments of their own academic staff, and monitor achievements on a regular basis.

6.   Curriculum Development

By and large, higher education institutions have shown a relative neglect of the opportunities inherent in the internationalisation of the curriculum. This attitude is not justified at all. International curricula are a most effective means of integrating an international dimension into the education of all students. They are also likely to become one of the key criteria for student choice of a higher education institution, and they will be one of the chief means of "profiling" an institution in an increasingly competitive higher education market. Institutions are advised to observe the following points:

♦ There is a wide range of possibilities to internationalise the curriculum; in choosing their approach, institutions are encouraged to reflect their particular strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats;

♦ In joint curriculum development between two or more institutions, considerations of a division of labour, the pooling of resources and overall economies of scale must be combined with the aim of an increase of the quality of education offered;

♦ "Collaborative degrees", and even joint institutions, can be one solution to the vast higher education needs of the developing world. Institutions are encouraged to use these opportunities, and not to let considerations of institutional or national pride stand in the way of such joint efforts.

Framework Conditions

7.   Recognition and Credit Transfer

Recognition of degrees, but particularly of periods of study and credits earned abroad, is an essential precondition for student mobility, and for internationalisation as a whole. Higher education institutions which do not create the conditions for recognition cannot be regarded as "internationalised" institutions. The following aspects need to be considered:

♦ The recognition of degrees is in most countries regulated by law and thus not normally at the discretion of individual institutions. Wherever and to

the degree that universities have an influence on recognition, they should observe liberal policies, leading to the admission of foreign nationals, rather than restricting their access;

◆ To create the conditions for the recognition of periods spent at foreign institutions, and of credit earned there, is an institutional responsibility. Institutions which regard recognition as the task of the students cannot be regarded as responsible institutions in an international context;

◆ Institutions must be expected to use ECTS or similar instruments in order to create transparency of their courses and to facilitate recognition.

8.   Contacts and Networks

In order to conduct a successful internationalisation process, higher educa-tion institutions rely on contact and networking structures. Internationalisa-tion cannot be implemented with an ever-changing number of *ad-hoc* part-ners. Stable partnerships, on a faculty/departmental and institutional level, are an essential prerequisite of internationalisation. A number of factors merit particular consideration:

◆ The choice of partners will depend on the overall aims and objectives of an institution. Beyond bilateral links, universities are encouraged to tap into multilateral networks and consortia, which increase the transfer of experience into an institution;

◆ Any partnership arrangement, whether bilateral or multilateral, must be underpinned by the allocation of responsibilities inside the institution, a concrete work programme, as well as the allocation of funds. Too many agreements lack this, and, as a result, lead their life largely on paper;

◆ Universities are encouraged to involve partners from the developing world as part of their networks;

◆ Higher education institutions should join relevant worldwide and regional associations, which link the institution to a flow of information and offer training opportunities.

9.   Quality Assurance

Internationalisation must be subject to quality assurance, in order to con-tinuously improve practice. This is not yet generally the case, and existing quality assurance systems often ignore the area of internationalisation. Insti-tutions might embark on one of the two ways below:

◆ Universities can integrate international elements into the general quality systems they have put in place. They would also be well-advised to lobby for the integration of internationalisation into the general higher education evaluation systems in place in their countries;

◆ Universities can avail themselves of instruments for the separate assur-ance and improvement of the quality of international activities, such as

the reviews of the Internationalisation Quality Review Process (IQRP), which OECD/IMHE, the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) and the Association of European Universities (CRE) will be offering on a regular basis.

10.   ICT and Distance Education

Higher education institutions should explore and analyse the possibilities of offering their courses on a worldwide basis, through distance education and the use of modern information and communication technology. Not every institution will find that this is its preferential mode of teaching, but it is unacceptable for an internationally recognised institution to discard such opportunities without prior analysis. Participation in distance education provision can also be a means of supporting higher education in the developing world.

11.   Information and Marketing

Higher education institutions must create transparency about their education provision, in order to be able to attract foreign students and scholars. Institutions can no longer rely on their self-perception as providers of quality education and research; they have to display their abilities. In this respect, a number of aspects merit mention:

♦ Detailed information must not only be provided in printed form, but also on the internet, which will soon be the privileged tool of information-gathering worldwide;
♦ Information should not only be provided in the native language, but also in English and relevant regional languages;
♦ Institutions which rely heavily on student fees for their basic revenue will find it a must to enter into active recruitment campaigns.

12.   Global Awareness and Development Cooperation

Higher education institutions are part of society, and must fulfil their wider social, cultural and ethical role for the sustainable development of society. With globalisation progressing, this role is more than ever an international one. The university's international mission requires them to make their contribution to international understanding, peace, multiculturalism, and particularly to show active solidarity with higher education institutions in the developing world.

Glossary

This glossary is intended to give brief explanations on abbreviations, acronyms, documents, programmes and organisations which are mentioned in the paper "Internationalisation in Higher Education". In cases of very well-known organisations, such as the OECD, only the full name is given. The entries are listed in alphabetical order.

AAU – Association of African Universities
AAU is the apex organisation and principal forum for consultation, exchange of information and cooperation among the universities of Africa. AAU collects information on higher education and research in Africa, it promotes cooperation between African universities, particularly in the fields of curriculum development and recognition of degrees and qualifications, it supports exchange of African academics and students by means of its own mobility scheme, and it organises seminars and conferences between African rectors, academics and administrators on higher education in Africa. The organisation was founded in 1967 in Rabat. It has 95 members in 39 African countries. Its headquarters are located in Accra, Ghana.

ACA – Academic Cooperation Association
ACA is an independent European organisation dedicated to the support, improvement, management and analysis of academic cooperation within Europe and between Europe and other parts of the world. The members of ACA are major agencies located in Europe responsible for the promotion of international academic cooperation. ACA was founded in 1993. Its secretariat is based in Brussels.

ACP – African – Caribbean – Pacific States
(ref. Lomé Convention)

ADEA – Association for the Development of Education in Africa
Established on the initiative of the World Bank in 1988 (then called "Donors to African Education"), EDEA seeks to foster collaboration and coordination between donor agencies in support of African development, and to make sure that their agendas reflect truly African concerns.

AERC – African Economic Research Council
AERC was established in 1988 as a non-profit organisation devoted to advanced policy research and training, in the field of economics. It aims at strengthening the regional research capacity in Sub-Saharan Africa. AERC

set up a training programme designed to augment the pool of researchers in the region, by supporting graduate and postgraduate study in economics and improving the capacities of economics departments in public universities. AERC-commissioned studies on graduate training in economics led to the initiation of collaborative master programmes.

ALFA – America Latina Formación Académica
An EU programme encouraging cooperation between Latin America and Europe in the field of higher education, aiming at making up for deficiencies and overcoming disparities and unbalances between the two regions, by improving the scientific, academic and technological potential of Latin America. The programme promotes cooperation through networks of higher education institutions from Europe and Latin America, with a view to carrying out common academic activities, facilitating the exchange of (post-graduate) students and other activities. Through its inner-Latin American component, it also attempts to contribute to the regional integration of Latin America and to the reinforcement of exchanges among those countries.

Arusha Convention
The Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and Other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in the African States, adopted in Arusha in 1991, under the auspices of UNESCO. The Arusha Convention is one example of a number of similar recognition agreements (Latin America and the Caribbean, Mexico 1974; Arab and European States bordering on the Mediterranean, Nice 1976; Arab States, Paris, 1978; Asia and Pacific, Bangkok 1983; Convention for the Europe Region, Lisbon 1997). The normative instrument for recognition of a universal character is the Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education, adopted by the UNESCO General Conference in 1997.

ASEAN – The Association of South-East Asian Nations
ASEAN was founded in 1967 and has its seat in Jakarta. It aims at economic, social and cultural cooperation between the member countries. In January 1992, ASEAN countries decided to create a free trade area (ASEAN Free Trade Area, or AFTA). Under the agreement, tariffs are to be cut and finally abolished until 2010.

ATF – Academic Task Force
The ATF was created by the Association of European Universities (ref. CRE), with the aim of supporting the rebuilding of higher education institutions in Bosnia-Herzegovina.

AUPELF/UREF – Association des Universités Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Française / Universités des Reseaux d'Expression Française
Both organisations form together the "Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie", which was founded in 1961 in Quebec, where it is also located. The two organisations unite 375 higher education institutions and rectors' conferences, as well as 334 departments. The organisations aim at promoting French-language higher education and research. One of their major projects is the creation of the "université virtuelle francophone".

Barcelona Declaration
Declaration signed after the Barcelona Conference (November 1995), establishing a Euro-Mediterranean partnership. The Barcelona Declaration launched a process of political and economic cooperation targeting a free trade area between 27 nations (the 15 Members of EU, 11 Mediterranean nations – Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, The Palestinian autonomous territories, Syria, Turkey, Cyprus and Malta – and the Palestinian Authority) by 2010. The signatories also undertake to promote peace and stability in their region, to respect the right to self-determination, to settle their disputes by peaceful means and to strengthen their cooperation in preventing and combating terrorism.

CAMES – Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur
Founded in Niamey (Niger) in 1968, CAMES represents 16 French-speaking countries of Africa. The organisation promotes cultural and scientific cooperation between member countries, it disseminates information on research and higher education, and it supports the coordination process between higher education policy in the member countries. CAMES is particularly active in the field of equivalency, where the organisation runs a programme on the recognition of degrees and certificates, and it has developed "reference guides" to facilitate recognition.

CEEPUS – Central European Exchange Programme for University Studies
A higher education cooperation programme initiated by the Austrian government in 1995, with neighbouring states in Central and Eastern Europe, and with student exchange as the key element.

CHEPS – Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies
CHEPS is a research institute specialising in policy-making, governance and management of higher education, based at the University of Twente. It also runs programmes and provides consultancy and other services in the field of higher education research.

CIS – Commonwealth of Independent States
The successor countries of the former Soviet Union.

COIMBRA Group
One of the university networks in Europe that grew out of the European Union cooperation programmes, the COIMBRA Group comprises as members the "traditional" universities in Europe. It is particularly active in cooperation with Latin America, where it set up the Circulos Europeos (alumni network). The group has its own student federation, called MOSAIC.

COLUMBUS – A Bridge between European and Latin American Universities
COLUMBUS was created in 1987 as a cooperation programme between European and Latin American higher education institutions. Its main goals are to promote institutional development and multilateral cooperation in order to help universities better respond to the challenges posed by scarce resources, massification, demands for diversification, and internationalisation. The programme counts on the support of 71 member universities from the following countries: Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, France, Germany, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Peru, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, Uruguay, Venezuela. The programme promotes the clustering of universities, members and non-members, around specific themes with the aim of promoting institutional development and multilateral cooperation.

COMENIUS
COMENIUS, or "Chapter II" of the SOCRATES Programme, is dedicated to the support of cooperation between schools in Europe. It constitutes the first ever major funding instrument of the European Union in school education.

COMETT
European Union programme for training in technology (1986-1994), trying to stimulate transnational university-enterprise collaboration. One of the predecessors of the LEONARDO Programme.

Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences
The Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences represents the views of Rectors' conferences of the EU Member States in matters relating to EU policies in higher education, research, quality assurance, student and staff mobility and related areas. Rectors' Conferences of all EU Member States are members. Associate members of the Confederation are the Czech Republic, Hungary, Iceland, Norway, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland. The Confederation is on the Advisory Board of ACA.

Council of Europe
Founded in 1949 to achieve greater unity between European parliamentary democracies, the Council of Europe is the oldest of the European intergovernmental institutions. Its role is to strengthen democracy, human rights and the rule of law throughout its member states. In this context, the Council of Europe also undertakes extensive activities in education and culture, for which the European Cultural Convention of 1954 provides the framework. The areas covered by the Council of Europe's higher education programme include the recognition of qualifications and mobility, access to higher education, reform of higher education, lifelong learning for equity and social cohesion, social sciences and the challenge of transition and European Studies for democratic citizenship.

CRE – Association of European Universities
Founded in 1959, and originally named "Conférence des Recteurs, Présidents et Vice-Chanceliers des Universités Européennes/European Rectors' Conference), CRE has a membership of more than 500 universities in 40 European countries. Among CRE's many activities, its efforts to improve strategic management of universities, the quality audits for universities, and its commitment to European higher education collaboration, are the most significant. It is involved in projects analysing the institutionalisation of Europeanisation and internationalisation within universities, as well as in recent initiatives to foster mutual recognition of academic degrees in Europe. It plays an active role in promoting effective university autonomy in all European countries and it cooperates with other continental associations of universities outside Europe, as well as with major inter-governmental institutions (EU, UNESCO, Council of Europe, etc.) and a range of Euroepan NGO's active in higher education. The CRE is represented on the Advisory Board of ACA.

CSUCA – Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano
CSUCA is the association of universities of Central America. It was founded in 1848. CSUCA's secretariat, which operates on a rotating principle, is currently situated in Guatemala. The organisation aims at contributing to the development and integration of Central America by means of regional and international university cooperation. It supports curricular cooperation through "collaborative programmes".

DELTA – Developing European Learning through Technological Advance
A European Union programme for the stimulation of incremental research and development in the field of learning. DELTA was later incorporated into the Fourth Framework Programme for Research of the EU.

Diploma Supplement
An instrument jointly developed by the European Commission, the Council of Europe and UNESCO, which describes, in a standardised form, the type, level, content and status of a given degree, for the purpose of facilitating its recognition abroad. The Diploma Supplement, which has just been through its test phase, awaits the formal approval of the three organisations.

EAIE – European Association for International Education
The EAIE is one of the leading organisations in Europe serving the broad field of international education. EAIE is a non-governmental, non-profit-making professional association with its secretariat in Amsterdam, from which it coordinates a wide range of activities on behalf of its membership of over 1,700 in 65 countries. Membership is open to individuals with an interest in advancing the cause of international education in Europe, and beyond. EAIE is known for its large annual conferences. The organisation works through sections, which exist for credential evaluators, student advisors, research and industrial liaison officers, etc. EAIE carries out training courses for international officers and has been involved in research projects. The association publishes a newsletter several times a year. EAIE is represented on the Advisory Board of ACA.

EC/Canada Programme in Higher Education and Training
(ref. EC/US Cooperation in Higher Education Programme)

ECU – European Currency Unit
The ECU was replaced by the EURO on 1 January 1999. One EURO is about 1,10 $, at present exchange rates.

EC/US Cooperation in Higher Education Programme
This programme was politically prepared by the 1990 Transatlantic Declaration between the European Community and the United States of America. After a two-year exploratory phase beginning in 1993, the programme officially started in 1995, together with the parallel EC/Canada Programme in Higher Education and Vocational Education and Training.

ECTS – European Credit Transfer System (earlier: European Community Course Credit Transfer System)
ECTS is probably the most developed operational credit transfer system, with a view to facilitate the recognition of studies taken in foreign countries. It was developed as part of the ERASMUS programme, which first tested it

with a limited number of higher education institutions. The use of ECTS is now standard practice of European universities, and the instrument is becoming a major educational export item.

Education New Zealand Trust
The Education New Zealand Trust was established in December 1998 (replacing New Zealand Education International) to facilitate the export of New Zealand education services and to showcase the benefits of New Zealand as a study destination. Education New Zealand is a trust (non-profit) established by the education industry in New Zealand and is funded by the participating institutions. It has branch offices worldwide.

EduFrance
EduFrance is the French agency for the promotion of international cooperation of the country's universities. It was founded in late 1998 on the initiative of the ministries of education and foreign affairs. The agency's focus will be on the marketing of French (higher) education abroad, and the participation of French universities in higher education-related tenders of the EU, international organisations and development banks. EduFrance is a member of ACA.

EFTA – European Free Trade Association
Based on the Stockholm Convention, the EFTA was founded in 1960 by Austria, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland and the UK. Since its foundation, the composition of EFTA has changed considerably, largely through a loss of members to the European Union. In consequence, the EFTA has lost in weight. Today, the member states of EFTA are Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

ERASMUS – European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
Started in 1987, ERASMUS became the "flagship" scheme amongst the many cooperation programmes in education and training the European Union launched in the second half of the 1980s. It has been instrumental in establishing closer inter-institutional links, enhanced student and staff exchange, and internationalisation of curricula in European higher education institutions. In 1995, ERASMUS was incorporated into the wider SOCRATES programme.

ESSM – European Statistics on Student Mobility
This current ACA project tries to test the possibilities of obtaining more up-to-date, reliable and comprehensive data than so far available from UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT on foreign students in Europe and selected countries

in other continents. A publication on the results of the ESSM pilot review is to come out in the course of 1999.

EU – European Union

EU- China Higher Education Cooperation Programme
This programme is intended to strengthen the provision of European Studies in China. European Studies is broadly defined to include *inter alia* EU-related social sciences, applied human sciences, law, history, economics and politics.

EU – India Cross Cultural Programme
This programme seeks to foster a better understanding between India and the European Union on the basis of the shared belief that healthy economic cooperation is a guarantee for increasing prosperity and for the improvement of the quality of life of all citizens. The programme also reinforces conditions for democracy, wider opportunities for individuals, and peace and stability. University cooperation is one of the priority areas for cooperation in the framework of this programme.

EUROSTAT – Statistical Office of the European Community

EUROSTRAT
EUROSTRAT is a longer-term project of the Association of European Universities (ref. CRE) for the analysis of the institutionalisation of European cooperation activities and policies in higher education institutions. Its birth is closely linked to the introduction of the "Institutional Contract" in the SOCRATES/ERASMUS programme.

EUROTECNET – European Technical Network for the Promotion of New Teaching Methods
This EU programme promoted the use of new technologies in education through a network of pilot projects. It was later incorporated into the LEONARDO programme, and the Fourth Framework Programme for Research of the EU.

EURYDICE – Education Information Network of the European Union
EURYDICE is the European Union's information system on all levels and aspects of education and training. Set up in 1978, and located in Brussels, it is based on a network of EURYDICE information points in the member states and associated countries, from which it receives data and background information on national education systems. EURYDICE is funded from the SOCRATES programme.

FORCE – Formation Professionnelle Continue
FORCE was a European Community Programme encouraging investment in continuing education across the European Union (1990 – 1994). It was integrated into the LEONARDO programme in 1995.

GATE – Global Alliance for Transnational Education
GATE is an international alliance of businesses, higher education institutions and quality assurance agencies aimed at assuring and improving the quality of "transnational education" at the tertiary level, i.e. any education in which the students find themselves in another country than that in which the education-providing institution is located (branch campuses, franchises, distance education, etc). GATE has created a database on quality assurance systems and procedures in all countries, it has developed a code of practice ("Principles for Transnational Education"), and it offers certification for transnational educational offers.

German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD)
DAAD is Germany's agency for the promotion of international cooperation of the country's higher education institutions. Like its counterparts in other European countries, such as the British Council, or NUFFIC, DAAD is a member of ACA.

GRUNDTVIG
GRUNDTVIG is the name foreseen for the already existing Adult Education part of the SOCRATES programme, when SOCRATES will go into its second phase in 2000.

IAU – International Association of Universities
Founded in 1950, IAU is a world-wide association of universities, with members in some 150 countries, and a close affiliation to the UNESCO. IAU is known in particular for its work of collecting and publishing basic information on higher education institutions world-wide, such as the "World Academic Database". The association also publishes the quarterly "Higher Education Policy", and the monograph series "Issues in Higher Education". IAU is represented on the Advisory Board of ACA.

IAUP – International Association of University Presidents
Established in 1964 in Dublin, the IAUP is a world-wide association of university leaders (presidents, chancellors, principals and rectors). IAUP is engaged in a range of activities in the field of global university collaboration, with a focus on the fields of peace, welfare and security. The association is known for the work of the joint IAUP-UN Commission on Disarmament Education, Conflict Resolution and Peace.

ICP – Inter-University Cooperation Programme
The multilateral network structure of the ERASMUS programme, which was partly abolished when the programme was integrated into the SOCRATES Programme.

ICT – Information and Communication Technologies

IDP Australia
Australia's agency for cooperation in higher education. An associate member of ACA.

IIE – International Institute for Education
This US-organisation based in New York was founded in 1919. The Institute has fostered the free flow of knowledge and ideas across national boundaries, in the conviction that no nation can prosper economically, culturally, or intellectually in isolation from the rest of the world. One of its major publications is the annual survey of foreign students in US higher education institutions, "Open Doors". IIE is an associate member of ACA.

IQRP – Internationalisation Quality Review Process
The IQRP has been jointly developed by ACA and the OECD between 1995 and 1998. IQRP is the first comprehensive quality assessment and assurance instrument for the particular area of internationalisation in higher education. Its main components are self-evaluation and peer review. Together with the CRE, ACA and OECD will offer the instrument as a regular service to universities under the shortened name "IQR".

ISEP – International Student Exchange Program
ISEP was established in 1979 as a membership organisation of colleges and universities in countries around the world which come together in a network for university-level reciprocal exchanges. Through ISEP, over 200 member institutions in the United States and 39 other countries conduct exchanges based on a common agreement about programme administration and exchange benefits.

LEONARDO DA VINCI
EU programme in the field of vocational education and training (1995-1999), replacing earlier schemes such as COMETT, PETRA, FORCE and part of LINGUA. Preparations for its successor scheme, LEONARDO II, are underway.

LINGUA
EU programme for the promotion of language teaching and language lear-
ning. Established in 1990, LINGUA was integrated into the SOCRATES pro-
gramme in 1995 (ref. SOCRATES).

Lomé Convention
Cooperation agreement between the European Union and the ACP (African,
Caribbean and Pacific) countries. With 71 ACP countries (plus South Africa
as associated member) and 15 EU members, the Lomé Convention is the
basis of a unique trade and development partnership.

Maastricht Treaty – The Treaty on European Union
The treaty, which was signed by the then 12 Member States of the EU in
Maastricht on 7 February 1992, and which came into force in 1993, is one of
the milestones in the process towards an ever closer political and economic
union in Europe. It became best known for the introduction of the single
European currency, the EURO. Its article 126 provided for the first time a
clear legal base for Union activity in the field of education.

Magna Charta of European Universities
The development of a European university charter was proposed by the Uni-
versity of Bologna in 1986. CRE took up this initiative, and a large number of
Europe's rectors finally adopted the charter in 1988. The Magna Charta
reaffirms the basic values of the (European) university, such as autonomy,
freedom of teaching and research, the unity of teaching and research, and
intellectual tolerance, in the tradition of Humanism and based on the respect
between cultures. It also puts a stress on international cooperation, in teach-
ing and research.

MED-CAMPUS
EU cooperation programme between Europe and the Mediterranean
countries in the field of higher education.

MERCOSUR – Mercado Común del Sur
MERCOSUR is an economic community between Argentina, Brazil, Para-
guay and Uruguay, established through the Treaty of Asuncion. The commu-
nity, with a central secretariat in Montevideo, was agreed in 1991, but ente-
red into force only in 1995.

MINEDAV
MINEDAV is the regular Conference of Ministers of Education of African
Member States. An inter-governmental body trying to promote higher educa-

tion in the region, and regional cooperation between its members. At the seventh MINEDAV conference to date, held in Durban in April 1998, the Ministers adopted the "Durban Statement of Commitment".

NAFSA – North American Foreign Studies Association
NAFSA is the North American professional association of university staff in charge of international tasks at higher education institutions. The association is the North American complement of EAIE, for which it became the role model.

NARIC – National Recognition and Information Centres
The NARICs network of recognition centres was first created in 1984 in the member states of the EU, and gradually extended to further European countries in the EFTA and in Central and Eastern Europe. In most cases, these centres also act as ENICs (Network of the Council of Europe and UNESCO/CEPES, ref. European Network of Information Centres on Recognition and Mobility – ENIC- Network). Their purpose is to facilitate the mobility of students, teachers, researchers by providing information on the recognition of diplomas and periods of study undertaken in another country.

NGO – Non-Governmental Organisation

Nordic Council of Ministers
The Nordic Council of Ministers is an intergovernmental organisation of the five Nordic countries Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden, as well as the Aaland and Faroe Islands. One of the priority areas of the Nordic Council of Ministers is education and science. Among the numerous initiatives and cooperation programmes, the NORDPLUS university cooperation scheme is the most substantial.

NTA – New Transatlantic Agenda
The EU/US Summit of 3 December 1995 in Madrid marked the beginning of a new era in Transatlantic Relations, with the adoption of an important statement of political commitment, the New Transatlantic Agenda, and a comprehensive Joint EU/US Action Plan. Formally endorsed by Presidents Santer and Clinton, and Prime Minister Gonzalez, the New Agenda enables the two sides to join forces over a wide range of international political and economic issues. Building on the Transatlantic Declaration of 23 November 1990, the NTA comprises a reaffirmation of the commitment to transatlantic partnership, the definition of four shared overall goals, and a series of actions.

Nuffic – Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education
NUFFIC is the agency for international cooperation of the Netherlands's higher education institutions. NUFFIC is a member of ACA.

OAS – Organisation of American States

OECD – Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development

OECD/IMHE – The OECD Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education
The OECD's IMHE programme monitors developments in higher education management, ensures exchanges of information and expertise through research projects, training opportunities, publication activities, seminars and conferences. Membership is open to institutions of higher education, government departments and non-profit organisations dealing with issues in higher education management. Members are entitled to take part in all activities, including the biennial General Conference and receive copies of "Higher Education Management" and other IMHE and OECD publications.

Open Doors
Open Doors is an annual publication of the Institute of International Education (IIE) on foreign students at US higher education institutions. Open Doors is the most comprehensive and advanced instrument of its kind, covering a wide range of aspects of foreign students. In an extensive exercise, IIE collects the student data directly from the institutions every year.

PEACE – Programme for Palestinian/European/American Academic Cooperation
The initiative to launch a programme of cooperation and support for the Palestinian universities which were subject to constant harassment, restrictions on the freedom of travel for staff and students and complete closures, was taken in August 1991 at an international solidarity conference. This conference was convened by several European universities, members of the Coimbra Group. At a ceremony held in Jerusalem on 1 November 1991, when most Palestinian universities were closed by military order, the rectors and presidents of twelve European universities (Barcelona, Coimbra, Granada, Krakow, Leiden, Leuven, Louvain, Namur, Pisa, Salamanca, Siena and Viterbo) and their colleagues from six Palestinian universities (Al-Quds, An Najah National, Birzeit, Bethlehem, Gaza Islamic, Hebron) signed an agreement to officially launch PEACE.

PETRA – Partnership in Education and Training
This EU programme for vocational training of young people and their preparation for adult and working life was established in 1987. It is one of the predecessors of the LEONARDO programme.

PHARE – Poland and Hungary Assistance for the Restructuring of Economies
PHARE, which owes its name to its first two target countries, is the European Union's framework assistance programme for the new democracies of Central and Eastern Europe, aiming to ease the transition to market economies and liberal democracies. Like its sister programme TACIS (for the Commonwealth of Independent States), it has an important component for higher education. Amongst other projects, the TEMPUS programme is financed from PHARE (and TACIS) funds.

RIMA – Rede de Integracao e Mobilidade Academica
Established in a MERCOSUR context in 1992, RIMA is a regional cooperation programme by 19 universities in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay, which focuses on student and faculty exchange and curricular development, as well as issues of recognition.

SOCRATES
This EU umbrella programme for cooperation in school and higher education, which integrated earlier EU schemes, was started in 1995. The programme is divided into three chapters, on school education (COMENIUS), higher education (ERASMUS) and "horizontal measures" respectively. Preparations for its successor scheme, SOCRATES II, are underway.

Sorbonne Declaration
This declaration was adopted by the ministers of education of the UK, France, Germany and Italy in May 1998, on the occasion of the 800th anniversary of the Sorbonne. It contains recommendations for a closer harmony of higher education structures in Europe, and might turn out to be a major step towards "an open European area for higher learning."

TACIS – Technical Assistance for the Commonwealth of Independent States
This framework assistance programme for the countries of the former Soviet Union is the parallel scheme to PHARE, and also contains important elements for educational cooperation and restructuring.

TEMPUS – Trans-European Mobility Programme for University Studies
TEMPUS is the EU's programme for cooperation with countries in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States in the field of higher education.

The British Council
The British Council is the United Kingdom's organisation for the promotion of educational, scientific, cultural and technical cooperation. The British Council is one of the largest internationalisation agencies in the world, as well as a founding member of ACA.

Transatlantic Declaration
The Transatlantic Declaration on EC/US relations was agreed between the European Union and its Member States and the United States on 23 November 1990. The Declaration refers to education, and in particular to academic exchanges, as one of the areas in which EC/US cooperation might be strengthened.

Treaty of Amsterdam
The Treaty of Amsterdam, the last major modification of the legal base of European integration, was adopted in Amsterdam in June 1996. The treaty's main significance lies in a reform of the Union's institutions and decision-making procedures, which was deemed necessary to prepare for a future extended Union including countries from Central and Eastern Europe. The reform fell short of the expectations of many.

Treaty of Maastricht
(see "Maastricht Treaty")

Treaty of Rome
The founding treaty of the European Economic Community (EEC). Signed in Rome on 25 March 1957.

UETP – University Enterprise Training Partnership
UETPs were networks composed of partners from higher education and industry in the COMETT programme.

UMAP – University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific
A university cooperation programme which was inspired by the ERASMUS programme and which is expected to increase the mobility of students, academic staff, and curricular development in the Asia Pacific region. UMAP was created on the initiative of the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee

(AVCC) in 1991. Its double secretariat is presently located at the AVCC in Canberra and at Hitosubashi University in Tokyo.

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme
Set up in 1965, with its secretariat located at the United Nations' headquarters in New York, the UNDP is the UN's instrument to fight poverty worldwide, with a focus on the poorest countries of an annual per-capita income of less than 750 $.

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNESCO/ Council of Europe Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region
(ref. Arusha Convention)

UNESCO/CEPES – Centre Européen pour l'Enseignement Supérieur (European Centre for Higher Education)
Established in 1972 in Bucharest, this UNESCO institution promotes mobility and university cooperation and maintains the secretariat for the UNESCO European Diploma Convention.

UNICA – Network of Universities from the Capitals of Europe
UNICA is a network of 28 European capital cities' universities, with its secretariat located at the Université Libre de Bruxelles. The *raison d'être* of UNICA is that universities in metropolitan areas share a similar urban environment and a particular proximity to the centres of political decision-making. UNICA projects are therefore based on these common concerns.

UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme
This initiative was launched by UNESCO in 1991. The multi-faceted cooperation programme, which focuses on graduate studies and research, follows two main lines: first, to support mechanisms for effective multinational university linkages between Northern and Southern, and among Southern, universities and, second, to set up a system of chairs with a particularly international orientation in a variety of subject areas, out of which are expected to develop specialised centres for advanced study and research.

PART II

Seven Essays on Internationalisation

by
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Jon E. Hagen (Jakarta, Indonesia)
John Kelly (Dublin, Ireland)
Lauri H. J. Lajunen and Terhi Törmänen (Oulu, Finland)
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Assessing the Quality of Internationalisation: The Internationalisation Quality Review Process (IQRP)

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Internationalisation and Quality

Internationalisation, understood as the process of systematic integration of an international dimension into the teaching, research and public service function of a higher education institution, is a relatively recent phenomenon. The key role of internationalisation, and its contribution to a quality education, has only in the last years gained recognition, in both the developed and the developing world. Internationalisation is finally coming of age.

Quality assessment and quality assurance, both as a concept and a reality, have been one of the dominant characteristics of higher education in the 1980s and 1990s. Tight public budgets and concomitant demands for accountability from the general public and the universities' stakeholders, have been the driving forces behind this development. While the particular situation varies from country to country, it can generally be claimed that quality assurance is today a distinctive feature of most higher education systems around the world.

The international dimension of higher education has so far played no or, at best, a marginal role in the assessment and assurance of the quality of higher education. The quality perspective applied in higher education is predominantly "domestic". It pays little or no regard to the internationally oriented activities of a university, such as the mobility of students and academic staff, internationalised curricula, recognition of credits earned in another country, the provision of distance education on an international scope, or cooperation for development, to name only some examples. This state of affairs is hardly acceptable. If international cooperation, and the systematic internationalisation of the university's key functions, has become a key element of the quality of an institution and its activities, it should be clear that it must be subject to quality assessment and quality assurance, like the other and older components of the university's mission. A first step in this direction will be the development of separate quality systems for the international dimension of a higher education institution's work. But it is clear that, in the medium run, these separate systems need to be integrated into the overall quality instruments operated at institutional and national level.

A start has been made with regard to the separate assessment of the quality of international cooperation. A number of "codes of practice" have been

worked out, which try to define minimum standards in the execution of particular activities, such as student exchange. Likewise, there are some tools for self-evaluation, and attempts at certification, of which the "principles" developed by the "Global Alliance for Transnational Education" (GATE) are the most prominent example. The most advanced instrument to date is the "International Quality Review Process" (IQRP), which is the object of this paper.

General Characteristics of IQRP

IQRP has been jointly developed by the programme for Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) of the OECD and by the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), in a pilot phase starting in 1995. In this pilot, it was tested and further refined through a series of IQRP reviews of nine higher education institutions in all five continents in the period 1995 – 1998.

IQRP is an instrument to assess and to improve the quality of the international dimension of higher education institutions. The purpose of IQRP is to support institutions in the endeavour to improve their work in the international field. IQRP is not a comparative methodology. Neither does it award certification or accreditation. The instrument has been devised for universities and other types of tertiary institutions alike. It is a flexible instrument, rendering it applicable to small and large institutions, sectoral and comprehensive ones, private and public organisms, and newcomers to internationalisation as well as more advanced institutions alike. Likewise, the use of IQRP is not geographically confined. Its adaptability makes it an instrument for global application. The particular environment and the framework conditions under which an institution operates are therefore of prime importance in the practical use of the instrument. Most important, IQRP assesses an institution's achievements against their own aims and objectives in the field of internationalisation. It is thus the opposite of a normative or prescriptive methodology.

The methodology of IQRP is laid down in the "Guidelines". The two basic components of IQRP are self-assessment and peer review, resulting in a self-assessment report and a peer review report. The latter contains the results of the review in the form of an assessment of the institution's achievements, and conclusions for the future development of its international policy and activities. Institutions may opt for a follow-up visit after a number of years. The peer review report is confidential. There is a recommendation, but not an obligation, to publish the report, or at any rate to make it available inside the institution.

As a means of guiding the self-assessment process (and thus indirectly also the peer review stage), a "self-assessment outline" is being used. This inventory, which attempts a systematic breakdown of international activity and policy, is the backbone of IQRP. It is annexed to this paper.

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Stage I: Self-Assessment

Self-assessment is the first stage of the IQRP. A self-assessment team is formed by the institution, composed of academics, administrators and students. The exact composition should reflect the profile and structure of the institution. It is important to keep the team small, though its actual size does vary considerably depending on the size and the nature of the institution. Small, monodisciplinary institutions can do with smaller self-assessment teams than large comprehensive universities. The self-assessment team has a chairperson and a secretary. The chair is normally the person having overall responsibility for international matters in the institution. The secretary is in charge of the practical organisation and the preparation of the self-assessment report. In the second stage of the IQRP, the self-assessment team acts as the direct counterpart of the peer review team.

The self-assessment team prepares a self-assessment report on the international activities of the institution. One aspect of this report is to take stock of the different activities, programmes, policies and procedures for internationalisation. This process of collecting data and information is an important step which can be time- and resource-intensive, and which, in the case of many institutions, will for the first time provide an exact overview of their overall operations. Yet, the main purpose of this exercise is to lay the empirical foundation for an analysis of the institution's international performance against the background of their own stated aims and objectives. Most institutions proceed by means of a SWOT-analysis, but IQRP does not prescribe any one particular method of analysis. Whichever methodology the team is to chose, it is important never to lose sight of the primary purpose of this step, which is to analyse the relationship between the institution's internationalisation policy (set of aims and objectives) and the actual achievements, as well as to look into the parallel relationship between the institution's aims in internationalisation and in other key policy fields. In many cases, institutions do not have a codified international policy at all. Aims and objectives are not explicitly stated, but rather of an implicit nature. IQRP is also of use for such institutions, who can use the instrument as a means of formulating such policies for the first time. In any event, the ultimate purpose of self assessment is to provide directions for improvement and change with regard to the international policies and activities of the institution.

Since IQRP is not a prescriptive instrument, it does not provide a set of standards to be reached in internationalisation. At the same time, institutions need a system of reference to guide them in the process of analysing their performance in international affairs. This is why IQRP provides institutions with a self-assessment outline, which is attached to this document. This outline is not meant as a coercive structure. It will serve the self-assessment team as an orientation tool. It might decide that certain items of the outline are not relevant to their case, and it can chose to add others, which reflect the particular profile and mission of the institution.

After completion of the self-assessment process, the team produces a self-assessment report, which it submits to the peer review team. The report should be limited to a maximum of 30 pages, exclusive of possible annexes. This report should be more than a mere description of the volume and types of international activities of the institution. It is meant to critically assess the institution's performance, and to already address possible avenues for improvement. The peer review team should receive the report at least two months prior to their visit.

The self-assessment stage of IQRP is the longest phase. Half a year might elapse between the decision to undergo an IQRP and the creation of the self-assessment team, and the completion of the self-assessment report.

Stage II: Peer Review

The size of the peer review team varies, with a minimum of three and a maximum of five members in the vast majority of cases. The experts which make up the team have a general understanding of the methodology of quality assessment and assurance, and a particular expertise in the field of internationalisation. The chairperson of the peer review team should be a senior academic with a track record in university governance, and, preferably, a sound knowledge of the issues of internationalisation of higher education. Composition of the team should reflect the institution's particular profile and aims, both with regard to its range of academic subjects and with a view to internationalisation. All members are external to the institution undergoing the IQRP. The team is composed internationally, with one member coming from the country of the institution in question, to provide an understanding of the national context, and one from another continent, to add an outside perspective. In addition to the chairperson, the peer review team has a secretary, who is responsible for practically organising the work of the team, to liase with the secretary of the self-assessment team over the programme of their visit, and to prepare the peer review report.

Ideally, the peer review team meets once before the actual site visit, to discuss the self-assessment report, to finalise the terms of reference for the visit, and to agree on a division of labour among members, preferably at the institution in question. In cases where this is not possible, the secretary communicates by other means with the team members, to discuss the self-assessment report and to finalise the programme of the visit. There will in any event be an on-site planning meeting of the peer review team immediately prior to the actual site visit. During the period between receipt of the self-assessment report and the visit, the team normally asks for additional information which they deem essential for an understanding of the activities of the visited institution.

The peer review visit lasts for two to four days, depending on the institution. The programme of the visit is proposed by the self-assessment team and

agreed by the peer review team. The schedule includes meetings with the self-assessment team, the leadership (rector, vice-rectors) of the institution, chief academic and administrative staff, students and graduates, and, if possible, important outside stakeholders with a responsibility for or an interest in the institution's international activities. Visits to administrative support units for incoming and outgoing students and academic staff are normally part of a core programme. Visits to off-shore locations can be included. At the end of the site visit, the peer review team meets with the self-assessment team to discuss the preparation of the peer review report. It will also present a brief preliminary oral report to the leadership of the institution.

In a general sense, the purpose of the peer review visit is to mirror the self assessment of the institution. More particularly, the peer review team will look at:

♦ The aims and objectives of the institution in internationalisation, and whether these are clearly formulated, coherent with each other and with the other key policies of the institution;
♦ The actual activities the institution conducts in the field of internationalisation;
♦ If and how the aims find expression in the institution's actual international activities, and whether the institution is providing the necessary resources and infrastructure for these activities;
♦ How the institution monitors its international activities;
♦ If and how the institution is proposing to change its international policies and activities.

The peers produce a draft peer review report, which consists of a set of recommendations for change and improvement of international activity and policy. The report is made available to the institution, not later than two months after the site visit, for review and comment, and to correct any factual or interpretation errors. It is the decision of the peer review team whether or not to include these proposed changes in the final version of the report. The institution has complete ownership of the peer review report, but it is highly recommended that it be made available at least internally.

Any follow-up activity is the responsibility of the institution. But it is natural to assume that the recommendations of the peer review report will be the subject of discussion inside the institution, and of changes and improvements in its international policies and activities, which would be implemented in the following months and years. In order to review the results of this process, IQRP contains, as an optional component, a follow-up visit, normally about two years after completion of the initial IQRP. This visit would be based on a progress report of the institution, and last for one or two days only.

The following time frame represents an ideal model, from which each case will deviate slightly. If a follow-up review is part of the IQRP, this will take place about two years after completion of the main review, and will last approximately three months.

Month	Stage
Month 1	Decision to take part in IQRP, appointment of a self-assessment team
Month 2	Start of self-assessment process, appointment of the peer review team, agreement on dates of peer review team visit
Month 3-6	Self assessment process, culminating in finalisation of self assessment report
Month 7	Self assessment report sent to the peer review team
Month 8	Preparatory visit by peer review team or secretary, details of peer review visit agreed, additional information and clarification provided (if necessary)
Month 9	Visit of peer review team (preceded by preparatory meeting), decision on whether or not to include follow-up phase
Month 10	Draft of peer review team report sent to the institution for comment (response required within two weeks)
Month 11	Final peer review report sent to the institution

The Future of IQRP

The pilot phase of the IQRP has been a success. The pilot universities have acknowledged the usefulness of the instrument. This has encouraged ACA and OECD/IMHE to offer IQRP reviews to higher education institutions on a regular basis. In this exercise, the two organisations will join forces with the Association of European Universities (CRE). At present, last modifications to the methodology are being implemented. At the same time, CRE, OECD/IMHE and ACA are starting to market IQRP. The Internationalisation Quality Review Process will also see a slight modification of its name, of which the last letter and word is to disappear. IQR, the International Quality Review, will be available on the market from the summer of 1999 onwards.

Annex: Self-Assessment Outline

A.   Context

Summary of the higher education system
Provide a brief description of the higher education system in your country and indicate the position of your institution in the system.

Summary of the Institutional Profile
Provide key general data on:
♦ Age of the institution;
♦ Student enrolment (undergraduate/graduate);
♦ Number of faculty and staff;
♦ Faculties and departments;
♦ State the mission of your institution.

Provide key data on the international dimension of your institution:
♦ Percentage of foreign students (undergraduate/graduate, as compared to total enrolment);
♦ Percentage of foreign staff (as compared to total number of staff);
♦ Numbers of incoming and outgoing students per year (home country/ destination);
♦ Give a summary of the history of internationalisation efforts in your institution.

Analysis of the (inter)national context
Analyse the (inter)national context for internationalisation in terms of opportunities and threats. Make reference to national and regional policies and programmes of relevance for the institution's international dimension.

B.   Internationalisation Strategies and Policies

♦ What is the institution' s stated policy and strategy for internationalisation? Attach existing policy documents, if available.
♦ What is the relationship between the internationalisation strategy and the institution's overall strategy, and what links exist with other relevant policy areas?
♦ How has the decision-making process for internationalisation policy been structured, and what systems exist to facilitate the introduction of new policies?
♦ What meaning does your institution give to internationalisation?
♦ Why is internationalisation important to your institution?
♦ Indicate the directions, priorities and objectives for internationalisation.

- How is internationalisation valued with respect to the institution's overall mission and goals by the different actors in the institution: administration, faculty, students?
- How effective is the support and involvement given to internationalisation by senior leaders and governing boards of the institution?
- What is recommended to improve the strategies and policies for internationalisation?
- How can the support and involvement be improved of both leadership, administration, faculty and students to the internationalisation policies and strategies of the institution?

C.   Organisational and Support Structures

Organisation and Structures
- What office/unit/position has the overall and ultimate policy-level responsibility for the internationalisation of the institution?
- Which unit(s) have direct operational responsibility for international activities?
- What is the reporting structure, liaison and communication system (both formally and informally) between the various offices/units/persons involved in internationalisation? Provide an organigramme, if possible.
- How effective are the existing organisations and support structures in relation to the strategic plan for internationalisation?
- What improvements are recommended to make the organisation and support structure more effective in relation to the existing strategies and policies?

Planning and Evaluation
- How is internationalisation integrated into institution-wide and department level planning processes and is it effective?
- What system is in place for the evaluation of internationalisation efforts and what impact does it have on these efforts?
- Does the overall quality assurance system (internal/external) include reference to internationalisation, and if so, what is its impact?
- What proposals for improvement in the planning and evaluation processes for internationalisation are recommended?

Financial Support and Resource Allocation
- What internal and external sources of support exist for internationalisation, and how effective are these funds for the realisation of the objectives and goals for internationalisation?
- What is the mechanism for the allocation of resources (at both central and departmental level) for internationalisation and how effective are these mechanisms?

♦ What is the institution's process for seeking, securing and maintaining internal and external funding for internationalisation and are these processes effective?
♦ What proposals for improvement in the fund allocation and fundraising for the realisation of the internationalisation of the institution are made?

Support Services and Facilities
♦ What specific services and infrastructure exist to support and develop international activities and how effective are they?
♦ What level of support is available from institution-wide service departments and what is their impact?
♦ To what degree do the facilities (e.g. libraries) and the extra-curricular activities on campus include an international or cross-cultural dimension and what is their impact?
♦ What recommendations are made to improve the support services and facilities to bring them in line with the internationalisation strategies and policies of the institution?

D. Academic Programmes and Students

Internationalisation of the Curriculum: Area and Language Studies, degree programmes, teaching and learning process
♦ What is the provision of area studies and language studies offered across degree programs and what is their impact on the curriculum?
♦ What interdisciplinary degrees are offered in international/regional studies and how do they fit in the strategy for internationalisation of the curriculum?
♦ What international/regional research and graduate centres belong to/are sponsored by the institution and what role do they play in the internationalisation strategies and policies of the institution?
♦ Are there degree programs which include options for area and language studies (including courses in intercultural communication and culture studies) and what is their impact?
♦ How has the international dimension been integrated into the courses/units in the various disciplines and how effective has this policy been?
♦ What joint or double degree programs are offered by the institution in partnership with foreign institutions and what is their impact on the curriculum and the students?
♦ Does teaching include the use of examples, case studies, research. literature, etc. drawn from different countries, regions and cultures and to what effect?
♦ To what extent is the "international classroom setting" applied, i.e. are students encouraged to study together and to interact with foreign students?

◆ To what extent instruction is given in languages other than the native language of the country?
◆ What recommendations are made with respect to the future place of area and language studies in the institutional strategies and policies for internationalisation?
◆ What measures are recommended to improve the international dimension in the curriculum?
◆ What recommendations are made to improve the internationalisation of the teaching and learning process?

Domestic Students
◆ What are the quantitative goals (if any) for the number of students studying abroad annually, are they being met and how effective are the mechanisms to reach them?
◆ Do graduate students participate in international research projects and international networks, how and what is the impact?
◆ What policies and support services are in place to encourage and support students to participate in international activities and how effective are they?
◆ Are students being informed and advised about international work/study/research opportunities and are the mechanisms effective?
◆ How are students being prepared for international academic experiences (including language and cultural preparation), is it effective and what is the impact?
◆ What recommendations are made to improve the opportunities for students for an international dimension to their study (both at home and abroad)?

Foreign Students
◆ What are the quantitative goals (if any) for the number of foreign students (both degree students and exchange) and how effective are the measures taken to reach these goals?
◆ What strategies does the institution have to attract, recruit and select foreign degree students, what are the objectives behind these strategies and how effective are these strategies?
◆ What strategies does the institution have to attract and select Bilateral and multilateral programme) exchange students, and how effective are they?
◆ What is the level of academic success and integration (educational and social) of foreign (exchange and degree) students?
◆ How is social guidance and academic counselling for foreign (exchange and degree) students organised?
◆ Does exist a difference in objectives, impact and attention between the strategies for foreign degree students and exchange students?

♦ What measures should be taken to improve the strategies for recruitment, selection and integration of foreign degree and/or exchange students?

Study Abroad and Student Exchange Programmes
♦ What is the range of programmes available for study abroad and student exchange and how effective are these programmes?
♦ How effectively are study abroad periods integrated into the curriculum and has the transfer and recognition of credits been arranged in an adequate manner ?
♦ To what extent have international work experience or internships been incorporated into the curriculum and what is the impact of these arrangements?
♦ How are study abroad and student exchange programmes evaluated and in what way have the results of these evaluations been taken into account in the further delivery of these programmes?
♦ What measures are recommended to improve the quality of the study abroad and student exchange programmes in the overall context of the internationalisation strategies and policies of the institution?

Partnerships and Networks
♦ What is the range of collaborative agreements with foreign partner institutions for education and how active/functional are these?
♦ What other networks does the institution participate in and how effective are these?
♦ What procedures exist for the establishment, management and periodic evaluation of partnerships and linkages and how well do these procedures function?
♦ What is the relation between the policies and strategies at the faculty level and the central level, and how effective is that relationship?
♦ What measures are recommended to improve the partnerships and networks the institutions takes part in and their relation to the strategies and policies of the institution?

E.   Research and Scholarly Collaboration

♦ Which collaborative agreements exist with foreign institutions/research centres/private companies for research and how effective are these?
♦ To what degree is the institution involved in international research projects and how successful / renowned is it?
♦ How actively involved is the institution in the production of internationally published scientific articles and what mechanisms are in place to stimulate the involvement?
♦ What mechanisms are in place to stimulate the institution's performance in organising international conferences and seminars, and how effective are these?

- What support (internal and external) structures are in place for international collaborative research and how effective are these?
- How is guaranteed that international research (and its outputs) is linked to international teaching and what is the effect?
- What opportunities and resources are made available to stimulate the international dimension in research and are they effective?
- What recommendations are made to improve the international dimension of research, as part of the strategies and policies of the institution?

F. Human Resources Management

- What mechanisms are in place to involve academic and administrative staff in international activities (at home and abroad)? Please distinguish between research, teaching, publications and development assistance. How effective are these mechanisms?
- What mechanisms are in place to stimulate the presence of foreign academic and administrative staff members on campus (temporary / permanent) and how effective are they?
- How is the teaching/research of visiting staff being organised, and how effective is it integrated into the curriculum?
- Do appointment procedures seek for staff from abroad and how effective are they?
- How is selection and recruitment of new staff (academic and administrative) targeted at personnel who are internationally experienced/active and how effective is that policy?
- Are there procedures for selecting staff for international education assignments (e.g. for teaching international programs / to international groups / teaching in other languages) and how effective are they?
- What mechanisms are in place to guarantee that staff members possess the knowledge and skills required for teaching international programs and for doing other international assignments and how effective are they?
- What mechanisms are in place to guarantee that staff members have a command of foreign languages and how effective are they?
- Are there mechanisms in place to guarantee that international teaching/research/development assistance experience accounts toward promotion and tenure, and if so, how effective are they?
- What recommendations are made to improve the international dimension of the Human Resource Management of the institution as part of its internationalisation strategies and policies?

G. Contracts and Services

Forms of delivery
- What is the provision of IT based teaching delivery systems or other methods of providing university courses abroad?

♦ Is there a process (internal/external) to the institution for the evaluation of such programmes if provided, and if so, what is the impact of these evaluations?
♦ What are the institution's strategies to attract, recruit and select students and staff for such programmes and courses taught abroad, and how effective are these strategies?
♦ What measures are recommended to improve the quality of these systems and their relationship to the institutions overall strategy?

Development Assistance
♦ What is the institution's involvement (as a contractor or partner) in development projects, how are they perceived by the faculty, and what is their impact on the teaching and research functions of the institution?
♦ What is the link between development assistance projects and other internationalisation activities of the institution?
♦ What policies/procedures exist for the development, management and evaluation of development projects, and what is the effect of these procedures on the projects and on the institutions strategy?
♦ What measures are recommended to improve the quality of the role of the institution in these activities and of the integration of these projects in the overall strategy of the institution?

External Services and Project Work
♦ How active is the institution in external services (e.g. contract education, training, consultancy), and to what extent do these services include an international or cross-cultural dimension?
♦ What is the impact of these services on the internationalisation strategy of the institution?
♦ What measures are recommended to improve the quality of these services and their relationship to the internationalisation strategy if the institution?

H.   Conclusions

♦ What are the main conclusions from the self-assessment on internationalisation?
♦ What are the main concerns and challenges for the institution with regard to the further development of internationalisation?
♦ What are the main recommendations to the institution for the further improvement of its international dimension?
♦ Are the goals for internationalisation of the institution clearly formulated?
♦ Are these goals translated into the institution's curriculum, research and public service functions and if the institution is providing the necessary support and infrastructure for successful internationalisation?

- ♦ How does the institution monitor its internationalisation efforts?
- ♦ How must the institution change in order to improve its internationalisation strategies?
- ♦ What specific topics or questions would you like to bring to the attention of the review team?

The Role of the Rector in the Internationalisation of a University

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"It appears to me then that an American coming to Europe for education loses in his knowledge, in his morals, in his health, in his habits and in his happiness. If he goes to England, he learns drinking, horse-racing and boxing."

Thomas Jefferson : Letter from Paris 1785

1. Preamble

By their very name derived from the Latin *universitas* and by tradition over the centuries, universities have always been international institutions with a commitment to the promotion of universal knowledge across the entire domain of academic disciplines. Every academic of any note has this philosophy ingrained in his/her* psyche and thus justifies to both himself and his rector the considerable expenditure of both time and funds on international travel to conferences, sabbaticals, network meetings, research visits *et cetera.* It is recognised throughout the academic marketplace that more than any other criterion, a university's status is determined by the international reputations of its professors and their research. And yet in most instances, universities have been established as regional institutions, created and continually funded by local or national governments with the clear priority and responsibility to meet the immediate educational requirements of its locality. This emphasis has increased and become more compelling in recent years, where with student populations rising to up to 40 % of the age cohort in Europe and close to 60% in the USA, massive financial burdens have been placed on the nation's budget and its tax-payers. The piper is calling the tune and the tune is economic development and full employment.

The ethos of universities has changed from its traditional "community of scholars, studying knowledge for its own sake" character, as portrayed so elegantly by Newman in his "Idea of a University" in 1852, to have become utilitarian institutions producing graduates to meet the staffing needs of the local or national industries. The universities have become the powerhouses of the nation's economic development and for the most part are doing a reasonably good job of it.

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*   Please excuse the use of masculine gender terminology from here on.

For the individual research-oriented academic in the more economically developed countries, this situation presents no real conflict. With the increased popular support for the universities, the budgets for research and international cooperation have held steady in most, but not all, countries. In addition, the extraordinary developments of recent years in electronic communication and the increased accessibility of international travel have combined to create a world of almost unlimited opportunity for international cooperation in both teaching and research.

For the rector and the senior management of a university, however, there are many new challenges in this fast changing and turbulent scenario. Whilst academics as a race are justifiably regarded as liberal thinkers and often quite radical and out-spoken in their challenges to the established theories in their individual disciplines, they are generally the most conservative of all professions in their resistance to change in the academic structures and procedures in their own institution. Thus in past times, the individual character of a university was determined primarily by the cumulative but separate achievements of individual professors whereas today, institutional structures and associated resources are required to manage and develop the considerable range of international programmes in the contemporary university. Universities, like most other human-based enterprises cannot afford to stand still – they must either move forward or go backwards, and the rector is the man-in-charge.

University governance must have been wonderful in the "good old days" when things changed very slowly or not at all, and budgetary pressures were non-existent. Today the rector must strike a balance between a strategy of extreme conservatism for those structures and traditions which define the particular ethos of the university on the one hand, and on the other hand, courageous mould-breaking initiatives in both structures and procedures to meet the exciting challenges of contemporary academe. No one said that it would be easy, and its not, but it can be fun!

In this short paper, the role of the rector and the university senior management in promoting the internationalisation of their university is considered under two headings. Firstly, by examining the expectations and ambitions of the principal stakeholders of the university in regard to its international strategy. Secondly, by considering the various structures and procedures which combined form the overall strategy of the university's international programme.

2. Caveat

This paper does not attempt to prescribe the correct strategies to the challenges facing a rector in implementing an international programmes in a university. Rather it seeks to identify these challenges, to consider the role of a rector in meeting them, and to offer some thoughts which seemed to work

from his own experience. Whilst some attempt is made at universality in the arguments presented, no apology is made for the influences of the European and American university systems towards which the author is unashamedly biased.

3. Expectations of the Stakeholders

The Students

The opportunities for student mobility at undergraduate, postgraduate and postdoctoral levels have become a vital and growing part of the student experience in the contemporary university.

In the European universities the ERASMUS and its successor the SOCRATES programmes have had, and continue to have, an enormous and profound effect on the undergraduate student life. With some hundreds of thousands of students participating in these mobility programmes since they were initiated in the middle 1980s, their impact on the campuses of the European universities, large and small, has been great and certainly very enriching for both students and universities. The student ambience of many heretofore regional universities has been transformed by the increasingly large influxes of non-national students each year on to their campuses. At the postgraduate levels, the European Union TMR (Training & Mobility of Researchers) programme, and more recently the Marie Curie Scholarship Scheme have had a major impact on the entire European university research scene, creating university networks for cooperation in research projects and for the exchange of postgraduate and post-doctoral researchers.

In the United States and elsewhere throughout the university world, there is a vast and growing range of scholarship mobility programmes such as the Fulbright and Rhodes Scholarship Programmes, which support and fund scholars enabling them to undertake studies in other countries. A great many American universities have established their European programmes in recent years whereby their junior (3rd year) students can take classes for credit in a European university. Similar programmes are increasingly available in many other countries of the world; the list of such activities is endless and growing every year. The situation is, however, very different in the less well off countries where the universities are often critically dependent on foreign aid. Policies here are changing too where the emphasis of overseas development aid has moved from the funding of scholarships to bring students from these countries to universities of the so-called developed world, to a strategy of supporting the development of the university systems in their own countries.

Student mobility has always been a feature of university life, but the rate of growth of this activity in recent decades has been quite extraordinary. Like the proverbial "motherhood and apple tart", student mobility is universally

recognised to be "a good thing", but it presents many challenges for the university rector in providing a progressive and effective support administration. Students at all levels now expect the university to support and promote these mobility programmes, and this includes their own students traveling abroad and the incoming students from foreign universities. Issues which must be considered include academic credit recognition, financial support, student accommodation, health insurance, and language instruction, to name the major ones. It is sometimes said that a visiting student is equivalent to four home students in their demands on the university administration, but estimates vary considerably for this ratio. Thus the successful implementation of a strategy for student mobility, into and out of the university, requires a major commitment of policy and resources.

The Professors

The professors, almost by definition, must be universal in their outlook and research interests so as to enrich their teaching and publications. The international reputation of the university depends on their scholarship. They look to the rector to support their research by providing ample resources for such items as conference travel, the most modern laboratory equipment, sabbatical leave, less teaching, computer and Internet access facilities, comfortable offices with secretarial support, library texts and journals, supply of research students, and appropriate recognition of their excellence by promotion and salaries. A shortfall in any one of these items will bring their unanimous and vociferous condemnation of the rector and the university management for failing in their prime responsibility.

The Rector

The rector is, of course, a major stakeholder in the university. On the one hand, he recognises that the reputation in the university world of the institution of which he is head depends largely on the international recognition of its professors, their research and the academic programmes. As a former academic himself, which most rectors are, his natural pride in his institution will dictate a very high priority for an international programme in all its various sectors. On the other hand, however, his day-to-day problems are always closer to hand, involving such matters as internal personnel problems and academic conflicts, financial management, curriculum development, building plans, fundraising, negotiating with local government, alumni programmes and reunions, to name but a few of the typical daily chores. Because of the inherent self-centeredness of many research-oriented professors and their departments, rectors often meet resistance to the establishment and resourcing of cross faculty structures for the university's international programmes. This situation is not helped by the recent admirable trends in the decentralisation of university administration, whereby more responsibi-

lity and control is delegated down to the deans and heads of departments for the management of their domains.

The rector is the chief executive officer of a most complex management system, so that the more recent emphasis on internationalisation must compete on his daily agenda for space, and of course, resources. In the normal runs of affairs there are rectors for which internationalisation is a low priority relative to local and national issues so that very little is achieved, whereas for others the converse is true and the ethos of internationalism is implanted in every nook and cranny of the university's academic programme. The rector has the responsibility to lead, but it does take considerable resources and personal leadership qualities and the resistance to change within the system can be formidable.

The Locality

The stakeholders of the university in the locality include all sectors of the society which the university directly serves, that is the families who provide the students and most of the service staff, and sometimes the professors, as well as the local government, businesses and industries, the professions and the various religious denominations. For the most part, these various groupings look to their nearest universities to provide education at the highest international standards, at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, for the students of the locality, where the locality can sometimes mean the entire country and all regions in it.

(In my own country Ireland, it is claimed by the Government, and universally not disputed, that the economic success of recent years where we have economic growth of four times the EU average – the so-called Celtic Tiger – is due almost entirely to the highly educated workforce which the universities have provided over the years for the industries in the country.)

In general the international programme of the universities is not a major issue for these stakeholders, though increasingly, the benefits of the international mobility programmes which are available to the students is perhaps being recognised by the students' parents, and of course by the students themselves. And whilst local industries may support research at moderate levels, it is more in order to attract the better graduates to their employment than in their belief in the intrinsic value of that research. In the range of disciplines of science and technology, the universities today find it difficult to compete with the research and development programmes of high-tech industries so that these industries look to the universities more for graduates who are well trained in research methodologies and basic scientific principles rather than for the results of the research itself.

Thus it is suggested that the local stakeholders outside the university walls do not consider the internationalisation of the university a high priority.

4.   Structures and Procedures

The rector's role in promoting the internationalisation of the university is principally by the application of his leadership and influence within his academic community to the establishment of the appropriate structures and procedures, and by ensuring, as best he can, that sufficient resources are allocated to them for their effective operation. In most universities today, this cannot be achieved by the rector waving a magic hand or by his dictate from on high. The rector must work through the academic governance structure of the university, at department, faculty and governing body levels, getting their agreement and more importantly, getting their cooperation and participation in the entire process. The staff of the university, that is the academics, the students and the administrative staff must be involved in varying degrees with the evolution and final definition of all major changes which will affect them, and without this active participation, the changes will not take place. The rector more than anyone else in the university, will be aware of the political processes by which academic initiatives are successfully launched, and other than stating the obvious, this paper does not attempt to preach on this topic. However, some thoughts are given below, with the understanding that every university is different and the precise structures and procedures for any one university must be evolved in sympathy with the ethos and traditions of that university.

The rector must surely have the most important role in leading the discussion on all these issues within the university and in the evolution of an agreed policy. And, as many of these internationally related issues have national political implications, the National Committee of Rectors in a country or - region may be the most appropriate forum for their discussion and agreement on a common course of action for all their universities. Within the university, the Council of Deans is often the most effective forum to discuss these issues and to determine an agreed strategy for implementation throughout the faculties and departments of the university.

Having said that, this paper looks at the principal academic areas where effective internationalism requires some policy or structure in the university and comments briefly on them.

5.   Teaching and Staffing

Policy Issues: ♦ Open international advertisement for all academic positions;
♦ Sabbatical leave: generous financial arrangements;
♦ Visiting professors from overseas universities;
♦ The English language as the teaching medium;
♦ Curriculum development for international topics;
♦ Distance education and off shore campuses;
♦ International Summer Schools.

In all of these issues, as in most other international academic areas, language difficulty in minority language countries can be the biggest obstacle to an effective international strategy. Increasingly English is becoming the *lingua franca* of the university world and many universities are forsaking their native language for English as the teaching language. In some instances, English is being introduced on graduate courses only so as to attract foreign post-graduate students and to allow for the appointment of non-national professors, both as permanent and as visiting appointments. This is a major policy area for universities in the non-English speaking world and it is often a very emotional and political issue, which does not allow for a universally acceptable solution.

The issue of open international advertising for academic positions is a separate but often related matter and at present most universities in most countries have a predominance of nationals on their academic staff.

A university sabbatical leave policy is less political than the staffing issue, but it can have significant implications for the university's finance and staffing. A positive policy here however can be one of the most effective measures for a successful international programme for the university. Apart from the undoubtedly great personal benefit which a sabbatical brings the individual academic, the long term benefits from the international contacts made can be equally very important to the university. The academic and family logistics of a professor going away for a year can be very difficult so that the policy and procedures of the university should be positive and supportive, if the university's sabbatical programme is to be successful. Conversely, the university's strategy for visiting professors is also a key component of the international programme. In all of these matters, the role of the rector is crucial, where his leadership, enthusiasm, and powers of persuasion can make or break the university's programme of action.

International summer schools have experienced a mushroom-like growth in recent years where individual academics voluntarily arrange teaching programmes in their academic area of interest for an international audience of students or of other academics or interested adults. Some such schools are frowned on as academic tourism; others are serious intensive teaching programmes giving academic credits for their successful completion with examinations. Academics are most often allowed to earn additional income from these activities, whilst using the facilities of the university for free or moderate rents.

As with most academic development matters, a bottom-up process from the departments and faculties is a prerequisite for successful implementation of any academic initiative. This applies particularly to curriculum development but often, in the absence of movement from the grass roots, prompting from the rector, perhaps through the Council of Deans can achieve results. Academics like anyone else must be motivated and this is the challenge which the

rector and professors alike must consider when introducing curriculum development initiatives. Likewise the development of offshore campuses, distance education courses, and development education programmes all have international features, which most academics find exciting and attractive, but the incentives such as travel or additional personal finance must be part of such initiatives, if they are to succeed.

6.   Research

Policy issues: ♦ Recognition of professor's achievements in research;
♦ Support and encouragement of young staff in research;
♦ Participation in international research conferences;
♦ University as a venue for international conferences;
♦ Financial support for international travel.

As discussed above, the reputation of the university is largely determined by the standing of the professors and their research in the international university world. Within the university itself, professors very often work alone, relating more to their international colleagues many thousands of miles away, than to their colleagues next door. Whilst this is not necessarily "a bad thing", an overall university research structure can be very supportive of the individual research units within the university and thus for the university as a whole. The appointment of vice presidents for research, or deans of research are not uncommon and certainly have been very effective in promoting the research ethos in many universities. Likewise the establishment of an office for the funding of research can be very effective in bringing to the attention of the research academics to international funding programmes and indeed in even assisting them in filling out the application forms (sign here!) and in the subsequent administration of the research programme. When the academics are left to get on with the academic part of the project, they often, but not always, do not object to such an office assisting them with the tedious chores of managing the financing and administration of the projects. The financial reward, both personal and departmental, of attracting research projects to the campus, is also an important issue in a successful research strategy for the university. There are many variations on the nature of such rewards, and they are in place in many universities and are very effective.

Increasingly universities seem to be introducing individual personal awards or other recognition for excellence in research, very often directed to the younger staff. Such awards can take the form of reduced teaching or administration, extra travel funds for international conferences, the rector's Gold Medal and so on. The attraction of international research conferences to the campus enhances the reputation of the university but they take enormous organisation and efforts over a lengthy period for the local staff concerned. Here again special attractive arrangements for the academics and

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their departments are essential if they are to be encouraged to seek to have such conferences on their campuses. These are top management matters where the rector can play the key role in creating the climate of encouragement for the academic community. Of course it is hardly necessary to emphasise that a key component of an effective research policy for any university must involve a sensitive promotions policy whereby success is rewarded and inertia is penalised. Easy to say but very often very difficult to implement.

7.   Student Mobility

Policy issues: ♦ Junior year abroad programmes;
                 ♦ Academic recognition of other university credits;
                 ♦ Uniform academic credit transfer system;
                 ♦ International student society;
                 ♦ Accommodation for visiting international students;
                 ♦ Financial assistance;
                 ♦ International office.

Students are traveling in their hundreds of thousands between the universities of the entire world today. It is an extraordinary phenomenon of the contemporary university scene, which is promoted and managed by a variety of national and international organisations, as well as by the individual universities themselves. For a university, which is successfully involved in such programmes, the logistics are very labour intensive and make heavy demands on both academic staff and administration. For most universities, in Europe and elsewhere, the organisation of student mobility is an institutional responsibility rather than a departmental or faculty one, and some form of an international office has been established to oversee and manage the whole programme. However, the involvement and enthusiastic cooperation of the academic community is essential if the programme is to work and it is not always easy to create the motivation to ensure this. Thus whilst the rector and the deans may be fully behind the student mobility programme, they must establish at both faculty and institutional levels the structures and incentives to ensure the wholehearted cooperation of the academic community. Representative committees at both faculty and university levels, working closely with the international office is the usual structure which has evolved in the European universities in recent years, and despite many difficulties and mumbles from the academic community, they seem to work very well. Concerning the need for a uniform academic credit system which would assist the mobility of students between the European universities, the European Credit Transfer System, known as the ECTS, which was part of the original ERASMUS package, has been remarkable in its effectiveness and in creating, within the short space of a decade, an extensive credit system throughout the university system where before there was nothing.

8.   Institutional Networking

Formal "Agreement Contracts" are made between universities on bilateral and multilateral bases. Sometimes these are harmless documents, which do not commit the university to do anything except to be nice to each other. Others are quite specific in their commitments to each other, with an agreed level of funding being allocated for these activities. With the advent of the ERASMUS programme in Europe in the mid 1980s, a number of these were set up, initially for student exchange and later as they got to know each other better, developed into other programmes such as joint Summer Schools, preferential treatment for graduate course exchanges, cooperation in research applications and many others. At departmental level, hundreds of ICPs, (Inter-University Cooperation Programmes) were set up as part of ERASMUS but disbanded officially, but sometimes not in practice, with its replacement by SOCRATES, which placed the responsibility for student mobility on the institution.

Also with the advent of ERASMUS, universities grouped together in various formal inter-institutional structures in the belief that such networks would facilitate the acquisition of EU funding from its various programmes by joint applications. It was also felt that in general, participation in a network would help the member universities get to know each other better and all sorts of co-operative projects might emerge. Networks such as UNICA (universities of the capital cities of Europe), the COIMBRA Group and many others were formed and are still in existence, but some doubts exist as to their usefulness and effectiveness.

The rectors have been very often, if not always, the initiators in such institutional cooperation agreements. Rectors get to know each other in their various national and international associations and from the friendships made at their many conferences and social outings, they have established cooperation agreements of various shapes and sizes. Some seem to work quite well; others die a natural death fairly quickly. In all cases, success is clearly dependent on the transference of the rector's enthusiasm for the cooperation down to the academic community below who must "take up the ball and run with it". In this way the rector can act as an effective catalyst in bringing like academics together from different universities, but here as always, the pot has to be sweetened with some incentives, particularly travel funds. However, it is unnecessary to emphasise that the active research academics do not need the rector to make such introductions. They have their own contacts throughout the university world and they may indeed resent the rector suggesting that they should cooperate with the professors in the rector's pet network. Whilst such inter-institutional contracts seem at first glance to be a good idea, this author is not persuaded that they are ever very effective. However, it is still early days in all this activity and it merits a more extensive review than is given here of the progress of the many bilateral and multilateral institutional networks before a proper evaluation of their effectiveness can be made.

9. Final Thoughts

In summary this paper has attempted to identify the principal action areas for the internationalisation of a university and suggests in all of them that the role of the rector is essentially one of leadership and persuasion. The authority of rectors to launch academic initiatives varies greatly from country to country so that it is neither possible nor prudent to attempt to identify specific courses of action. The point is made, as every rector knows only too well, that for any academic initiative to be successful it must be a bottom-up process, with the rector acting more like a catalyst than an autocrat. Nevertheless there can be no doubt that the rector is the key figure in effecting the transition from a regional to an internationally-oriented university. And as with all change, it is not always easy especially when resources must be allocated to the changes, as is certainly the case with internationalisation.

In any event, it would seem that times and mores have moved on since Thomas Jefferson pronounced on the dangers of international educational to the souls of our young students. Perhaps it's the professors and rectors we should be worried about now?

The Role of the Rector in the Internationalisation of a University: The Case of Oulu

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1.   Introduction

In this paper we describe and discuss the many different roles of the rector in the internationalisation of the university. We approach the topic from the point of view of the University of Oulu[1] by briefly describing the university's strategies for internationalisation and European Union activities and describing the various tasks and roles of the rector in different implementation aspects of the strategies. In the final section of the paper, we discuss different approaches the rector may use in different situations and provide a brief summary of the paper.

2.   Main Tasks of the Rector

The rector of a modern university provides first of all strategic leadership for the university. This concerns all aspects of the university's main activities. As a result of the rapid changes in the situation of Finnish universities in recent years (e.g. a shift to result- and target-based management and financing system of the universities, the Finnish membership in the European Union (EU) in 1995, national policies of internationalisation of higher education, increasing internationalisation and globalisation of the economy and business life), the rector has an increasingly important task in taking care of top-level international relations with heads of partner institutions, government representatives and diplomats, and representing the university in various international organisations. At the same time, the university has become increasingly dependent on various sources of outside financing, and its contacts with surrounding society, enterprises and communities have be-

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[1] The University of Oulu is a public, state-financed multi-disciplinary university which was founded in 1958. It currently has about 12,500 students, of which about 10,800 study full-time for a basic degree (in most fields a Master degree lasting 5 to 6 years). About 290 students studied abroad for a minimum period of three months and 180 international exchange students studied at the university in 1998. The university has five faculties (Humanities, Education, Medicine, Natural Sciences and Technology) and eight major fields of study (economics and business administration, engineering and architecture, dentistry, education, health care, humanities, medicine and natural sciences). The University is located in the city of Oulu (population 115, 000) about 600 km north of Helsinki and 180 km south of the Arctic Circle on the coast of the Gulf of Bothnia.

come more numerous and important. This has increased the responsibilities of the rector in establishing and nurturing contacts with regional authorities and business leaders.

3. Internationalisation Strategies of the University of Oulu

The University of Oulu started in the early 1990s a process of strong strategic development. The university underwent an institutional evaluation in 1992-93, as a result of which it identified key areas of development and focus areas for research and education. One of the development areas was internationalisation. The rector had a major influence in this process and he started the strategy development for the focus areas and the areas of development.

The first Internationalisation Strategy of the University of Oulu was developed in 1994-95. Its main focus was in internationalisation of education and especially in student and teaching staff mobility. The Internationalisation Strategy was renewed in 1997-98. The new strategy was developed for both research and education and therefore it has a much wider scope.

In 1995, Finland became a member of the European Union. This changed the international environment in which Finnish universities function and posed many challenges for the University of Oulu. Although the larger-scale internationalisation process of research and education had started several years earlier and the university already participated in many European programmes, EU membership opened up many new possibilities, so that a more strategic approach was needed for the university's European activities. As a result, a comprehensive European Union (EU) Strategy was developed in 1995-96.

The three main objectives of the EU Strategy were defined as follows:

1. The funds from the European Union R&D programmes and regional development programmes form an important and growing part (20 to 25%) of the external research and development funding of the university.

2. The University of Oulu is an attractive partner in student exchanges with European universities. About one fourth of the number of first year students study abroad every year and about the same number of international students study at Oulu. The university increases the number of study programmes taught in English and starts them in new subject areas.

3. The university actively influences the developing European Union policies on Northern regions. The EU uses the university as a source of expert information on Northern issues, and the university has an important role in the implementation of the Eastern Europe programmes of the EU, especially in the development of Northwest Russia. The university takes part in the evaluation of the regional development programmes of the European Union.

In the 1998 version of the Internationalisation Strategy of the University of Oulu, the vision (the main goal) of internationalisation of the university for the period from 1998 to 2003 is defined as follows: "The University of Oulu will be an internationally known and appreciated university. Internationality in its various forms will be a natural part of the activities of the university and will support the university's research and instruction which is of a high level. Internationalisation will support the broad cooperation between different cultures and academic communities, as well as promote spiritual and material well-being."

The central goals and fields of development in education and research were defined as follows:

Internationalisation of Instruction and Education

♦ Internationalisation of the forms and content of education;
♦ Increasing and developing student and trainee exchange;
♦ Increasing and developing teacher exchange;
♦ Organising intensive courses and developing education programmes;
♦ Developing the functioning and reliability of the methods of selecting foreign degree students as well as the system of credit transfer;
♦ Developing performance-based criteria for internationalisation.

Internationalisation of Research

♦ Promoting a high quality of research, wide-spread contacts in research and the mobility of researchers;
♦ Drawing up a set of guidelines on international research projects and possible cases of problems or disagreements and creating a functioning policy on immaterial property rights and implementing it;
♦ Efficiently utilising international funding for research;
♦ Participating in research and development projects on Northern regions;
♦ Increasing researchers' work as international experts.

The rector initiated the development process of these strategies and provided an overall perspective of the major goals and objectives. The strategies were drafted by specific working groups headed either by the second vice-rector (internationalisation strategy) or an expert from the central administration (the Director of the Research Services for EU Strategy). The other members were representatives of professors, teachers, researchers, students and administrators from all faculties and also from several development centres.

After the formal approval of the strategies by the university senate, the implementation phase has been mostly the responsibility of the Director of Research Services and the Director of International Relations and their respective offices in close cooperation with academics, students, administrators and often also with key persons from organisations outside the university (national agencies, regional development agencies, enterprises etc.). The

rector has also been active in this process by taking up the major policy lines and objectives in annual negotiations with the deans of the faculties and faculty boards, showing strong commitment for the internationalisation policies both within and outside of the university, making major operative decisions in internationalisation and overall supporting internationalisation activities in various ways.

4. The Role of the Rector in the Implementation of the Internationalisation and EU Strategies

Student and Teaching Staff Mobility and Educational Cooperation

During the last ten years, mobility of students, teaching staff and researchers has grown from a rather small-scale and marginal activity into a wide-spread, still growing and systematic area of activity, encompassing almost all subject areas and playing a central role in the internationalisation strategy of the University of Oulu. In recent years, participation in international intensive courses and joint curriculum development projects has increased as well. Although most of these activities started with participation in the European or Nordic education programmes (e.g. ERASMUS and SOCRATES, NORD-PLUS), recently the geographic spread of projects has widened and more mobility projects or joint intensive courses have been established based on bilateral agreements without the support of such programmes. This process partly reflects national and European policies for internationalisation of higher education, as well as needs arising from within the university itself, but it could not have happened at this scale without a strong commitment and involvement of the rector. The rector has influenced this process in various ways:

♦ The rector has paid systematic attention to the student and teaching staff mobility at the university. He has encouraged stronger participation in various European or Nordic programmes (e.g. ERASMUS, NORDPLUS), development of functional bilateral exchange agreements and more effective utilisation of all available programmes and sources of funding. The involvement of the rector, especially in the earlier stages of the implementation process, has given weight to and increased awareness of the exchange programmes and internationalisation activities in general;
♦ The mobility of students, researchers and teaching staff (as well as a few other major international activities) are covered in yearly budget and target outcome negotiations between the rector and the deans of the faculties;
♦ The rector's role was very important in recruiting and nominating persons for key administrative positions for internationalisation (e.g. directors of international relations and research services);
♦ The rector's support has been important for setting up efficient and functional administrative and service structures for student and teacher mobi-

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lity, especially for backing necessary budget funding for the office of international relations, university grants for outgoing exchange students and for the creation of international study programmes taught in English;

♦ Although most of the mobility links and joint projects have evolved bottom-up from department- or faculty-level initiatives, the rector has played a central role in developing a few important cooperation agreements and new initiatives, especially with North American universities. His involvement is still necessary in many new, large-scale bilateral initiatives especially with institutions located outside of the countries of the European Union and the European Economic Area (e.g. in Russia and the United States of America).

The operative day-to-day work in education projects and exchange programmes is the responsibility of the academics, departmental staff and the international office. The task of the rector is to support this work and provide a clear strategic framework for it.

European Union Framework Programmes for R&D

One of the major objectives of both the EU strategy and the internationalisation strategy of the University of Oulu is to increase funding for R&D from the EU Framework Programmes (both the Fourth and the Fifth). This objective was adopted partly due to increased financial pressures caused by decreasing funding from the state budget, but it is also seen as a way to increase quality and competitiveness of research at the university. The role of the rector in these activities is in many ways very similar to his role in the education projects:

♦ The rector has systematically emphasised the importance of active participation in the framework programmes. He has helped create an awareness of the possibilities offered by these programmes and he has actively followed the progress in participation in the programmes, e.g. through annual target negotiations with the faculties;

♦ The rector's opinion was decisive in the recruitment and selection of the key person for the research administration, i.e. the Director of Research Services, who has the operative responsibility for developing functioning services for international research projects and for promoting research projects funded from European and national sources. The director reports directly to the rector and is thus one of the persons with whom the rector works closely in the internationalisation process;

♦ The rector has supported the creation and strengthening of the relevant support services for research (the development of an office of research services as an information source and expert advice service, which helps with project application and management, contract and legal issues, reporting etc.);

♦ The rector has also had a role in helping to develop a few major new research consortia.

Regional Development: EU Structural Funds and Community Initiatives

Participation in regional development projects which are partly financed by the European Union's structural funds and community initiatives has become increasingly important for the University of Oulu, because there is a strong regional aspect in the mission of the university and its strategies. The University of Oulu, as many other regional universities in Finland, is considered to be one of the driving forces behind the development of the economy and the overall well-being of the region.

There are growing expectations from economic life, regional development authorities and surrounding towns and municipalities for the university to start up projects to help solve problems in society (e.g. increasing competitiveness of enterprises through R&D projects and staff development, developing new products or production technologies, helping to create new jobs, diversifying lines of businesses in rural areas, etc.).

Increased participation in these projects has been a conscious strategic decision for the university, because it also helps to generate funding for R&D, especially for applied research, increases know-how and helps to generate new employment opportunities for the university graduates.

The rector has played a very active and multifunctional role in increasing participation in European regional development projects:

♦ On his initiative, the existing network of regional development centres and research stations was reorganised and their tasks diversified, so that in addition to their more traditional research and educational activities these centres began to actively seek European development projects. One of the main reasons for this was that the main campus of the university is located in the City of Oulu, which lies outside of the areas currently eligible to receive regional development funding, whereas its regional centres are located within these areas;

♦ The rector supported the generation of a network of regional research liaison officers partly financed by European funds. The task of the research liaison officers is to establish new contacts and help to start R&D projects between the university and regional businesses and organisations;

♦ The rector is the key person in creating strategic alliances with most important regional actors, such as politicians, town managers, regional development authorities, business leaders and provincial government officials, many of whom have a strong influence in regional development programmes. The rector has been active in developing well-functioning contacts with these actors and ensuring commitment of the university for regional development;

♦ Within the university, the rector has worked to create an awareness of the importance and profitability of regional development projects for the university. The rector has, through talks and negotiations, made the acade-

mics more aware of the regional role of the university and helped to create links between different actors inside and outside of the university;

♦ In late 1998, in preparation for the European Union's Agenda 2000 (enlargement and restructuring of the EU, including its regional development activities), the rector set up a special Agenda 2000 working group with the task to devise a strategic plan on how the university may best utilise the changing regional development funds;

♦ The rector has an important role in promoting the views and goals of the university through talks and negotiations with the key actors in regional development agencies and national ministries, as well as with regional and national politicians. They, in the end, have the decision-making or the decision-influencing power concerning national and European objectives and priorities for regional development.

Bilateral and Multilateral Relations outside of the EU and Activities not directly Connected to the EU and its Programmes

There are many other international activities where the rector has a very important role. Many of these involve relations with institutions outside of the European Union and activities which do not fall within existing large-scale programmes.

♦ *New initiatives*. The rector has had a major influence in starting up new programmes with several institutions outside of Europe. For example, the University of Oulu has been operating a successful student and teaching staff exchange programme with the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNCG) since 1992. The rector's involvement had a major influence on starting the programme and expanding it to new subject areas. Several new activities were developed, out of the initiatives of the rector. As the partnership with UNCG has shown, the task of the rector in these projects is to ensure the commitment of the university to the leadership of the partner institution and to help create new contacts between academics.

♦ *Cooperation with Northwest Russia and the nearby regions in Northern Scandinavia.* The university has in recent years signed cooperation agreements with several universities in Northwest Russia. Although sometimes more slowly than anticipated, these agreements have resulted in concrete action and projects, such as student and teaching staff exchanges, as well as projects in education, research and development with national or EU funding (e.g. TACIS and INTERREG programmes). The rector has had a very important role in starting up new projects and creating links with these institutions. The projects have often required a clear support from the university leadership before they could be fully realised.

The rector has also helped to establish new, more functioning links with universities in Northern Scandinavia. New agreements have been signed

e.g. with the University of Tromsø (a trilateral agreement with the University of Helsinki as the third partner), and new projects are starting with the geographically closest university in Sweden, Luleå University of Technology.

♦ *Euroregion Oulu 2000 project.* The rector has been very active in the internationalisation project of the Province of Oulu, the so-called Euroregion Oulu 2000 Project, which has helped the municipalities, schools, cultural institutions and enterprises of the province to develop new links with the *Land* of Baden-Württemberg in Germany. Within this project, the university has developed bilateral agreements with a number of universities in Baden-Württemberg and started concrete cooperation projects with them. The rector and the Governor of the Province of Oulu have developed close contacts with top government leaders of Baden-Württemberg. Although these contacts have not yet been utilised to their full potential, they may prove useful for both the university and its partner institutions in the near future.

♦ *Finnish Culture and Science Institutes abroad.* The Finnish government has established 15 Finnish Institutes abroad. The tasks of the Finnish Institutes include the promotion of cultural and academic contacts between different institutions in Finland and the Institutes' host countries. The rector of the University of Oulu has been involved in setting up two of the institutes, in Berlin and recently in Tokyo. The university chose to be involved more closely with these two institutes, because they are located in cities considered as strategically important for the university. The rector is also a member of the board of these two institutes. He supports their activities and is involved in establishing high-level contacts between Finnish ambassadors, business, cultural and educational leaders and their counterparts in the host countries.

♦ *Contacts with ambassadors and official visitors.* The rector also traditionally fulfils a fair number of public relation duties. The rector regularly receives visiting foreign dignitaries, such as ambassadors, government ministers and even heads of state. Close personal contacts with the ambassadors have led to various concrete results, such as the development of education programmes (e.g. the strengthening of a British studies programme with the support of The British Council and the UK Embassy) and the creation of new links with higher education institutions abroad.

5. Discussion and Summary

In the preceding sections, we have described the rector's many-faceted tasks in the internationalisation of the university. In doing so, we have used different examples from the University of Oulu which illustrate the wide scope of the rector's tasks, which show which effects changing national and inter-

national conditions had. In addition, it may be useful to touch upon various approaches the rector may have to use in different situations when working with different actors in internationalisation. In this final section, we will briefly discuss these issues, and we will at the same time provide a short summary.

One of the most important tasks of the rector is to provide strategic leadership for the university and to initiate strategic planning. The rector needs to have a clear vision for the university and a good understanding of its national and international environment and its changing trends. For this purpose, the rector needs to have access to a network of highly qualified experts within the university and outside.

When developing strategies for internationalisation, it is important to involve a wide range of actors who represent academics, other staff and students from different disciplines. Representatives of external stakeholders need to be consulted as well, at least in the final phases of strategy development. When the strategy is submitted for approval to the highest decision-making body of the university, the university senate, the rector will have to have a very clear idea of the main goals and objectives of the strategy, in order to be able to steer discussions to a useful result. The rector will have to be able to lead the decision-making process so that the main strategic ideas do not get lost in possible arguments over details, which often arise from differing views held the by representatives of different faculties and disciplines.

During the implementation phase of the internationalisation strategy, the day-to-day operations will be handled by skilled experts in the university administration and in the departments of the university. The task of the rector is to make sure that the most important operational decisions follow the strategic plan. This is especially important when decisions on the budget and its distribution over the various main activities are made. The rector has to be able to use his decision-making powers to the fullest effect. He may have to adopt a more authoritative role on occasions, but he will also need to be able to negotiate skilfully with the deans of faculties and heads of departments, so that the decisions taken are backed up by the necessary commitment at the different levels of the institution.

The rector also needs the full support of the vice-rectors and directors of the different main administrative units. They have a very important role to play in the implementation of the strategies and they provide the rector with expert information and advice when needed. The rector can often steer the implementation process through them, and through their contacts create a wider network of persons active in internationalisation. It is also important that the rector supports the creation of the necessary infrastructure and services for international activities and projects. Once this infrastructure exists and is managed and directed by capable people, the work of the rector in achieving the goals of internationalisation becomes easier.

As described above, the tasks of the rector also include creating awareness of objectives, possibilities and opportunities of internationalisation, within the university and beyond. This requires frequent discussions and negotiations with different actors. The rector needs to maintain an active dialogue with actors at different levels and units. This does not only increase the knowledge of the goals and possibilities of internationalisation, but it also helps to create commitment at different levels and to bring up new initiatives and ideas from different actors. Within the university, teachers and researchers also appreciate if their views are listened to and if they have the possibility of a real dialogue. The rector can also encourage internationalisation at the university through different reward systems, and by providing positive feedback and publicity for successful projects. His own example is very important; words are more effective when concrete action backs them up.

The rector has a very important role in creating and maintaining contacts with the actors and stakeholders in the surrounding society, and with national and international partners. He must be able to represent the university in a consistent and credible way and to promote its strengths and expertise. At the same time, it is his task to take up the needs and hopes of the surrounding society. The rector thus often has a dual role in relations with the external actors. Since the rector usually has contacts with people in leadership positions or at the highest levels of their organisations, he represents the whole university in discussions with them. This means that his responsibility becomes greater and that he has to be well-informed and must be able to rely on a strong support group within the university. He needs to have an excellent overview of the objectives and activities of the university when negotiating with external actors and stakeholders. Whether the partners are domestic or international, one of the tasks of the rector is to ensure the commitment of the university for the projects which the university is going to participate in. The rector's role in public relations is also increasingly important when the university becomes more known and active internationally, and when it receives more international visitors and representatives of potential partner institutions.

Fit for the Global Job Market:
A University Perspective

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1.   Introduction

Who Should Be Fit for the Global Job Market?

This paper attempts to identify the kinds of profiles graduates of higher education institutions need to gain in order to fit the requirements of a global job market. This identification exercise is carried out from a university perspective.

In this paper higher education institutions are seen to function as intermediaries between the needs of an academically qualified labour force and the requirements of the employer in general and industry in particular. To fulfil this intermediary role, higher education institutions need to find ways to generate graduates who dispose of the skills and competencies demanded by the global job market. It will therefore be the aim of this paper to pinpoint the requirements of industry in a changing environment and to recommend to universities which steps to undertake in response to these changes.

The paper will also show that higher education institutions are not only in the position to take stock of changing requirements of the job market and react to these changes, but that they also have the capacity to anticipate trends on world markets. This anticipatory capacity is seen to have the scope of changing market demand.

An Attempt to Define the Global Job Market

Today, the job market is characterised by a process of change of a global order. Demand and supply of qualified work force need therefore be discussed in this global context. As is widely known, globalisation has come about by a process of concentration and cooperation of enterprises. Nowadays, enterprises do not limit themselves to the European market but operate on a world-wide scale. The effects of global acting result in changes of location of companies, of the range of products they deliver and the necessity to merge resources. More generally, enterprises are developing new strategies to remain competitive on the global market. One important issue to mention in this context is a new work ethic requiring skills that are not usually obtained from higher education institutions.

This paper does not indulge in the academic discussion on the differences between internationalisation, multi-nationalisation and globalisation of enterprises which would require an assessment of the number of foreign markets individual companies are operating in. It rather concentrates on the question of what defines the changes on the global job market and how universities can manage these changes for the benefit of their graduates and the employers.

Assessment of the Situation: Inadequate Profiles and Skills Shortage

Looking at the labour market more closely we find a major discrepancy between the number of unemployed and the number of vacancies which require a special set of skills. What can be concluded from this fact is that the human resources available do not match the needs of the market, neither in terms of their skills nor in terms of their previous work experience. The market experiences this situation as a skills' shortage which needs to be remedied.

2.   Analysis

How Skills Shortages Affect Enterprises

In other words, global changes have caused an increase in both supply and demand. The nature of global change, which does no longer follow a clear pattern, makes it therefore necessary to identify a set of complementary measures which would counteract the resulting shortages. This consequence is all the more important as past work experience does not necessarily guarantee fitness for the job market, neither in terms of the knowledge nor the related skills previously acquired.

The effects of skills' shortages are far reaching. They have led to:

♦ The discontinuation of enterprises in a world of increased competition;
♦ Take-overs by larger entities especially of small and medium-size enterprises to safeguard market standing, flexibility of production and technological know-how;
♦ Take-overs of enterprises in changing markets such as the EU and EFTA;
♦ Mergers to diversify into markets which are linked vertically or horizontally to the present production programme;
♦ Mergers, take-overs, joint ventures, strategic alliances and other forms of concentration and cooperation to achieve synergy effects, in particular by way of cooperation and research and technical development.

These effects are not restricted to multinationals. Skills shortages have an impact on all types of enterprises, especially on those which are not sufficiently competitive or which have no experience at all in acting in a competitive environment.

At enterprise level, global change and skills shortages have led to:

◆ Increased cost;
◆ Short staffing;
◆ Insufficiently trained personnel;
◆ Extended delivery times;
◆ Production bottlenecks;
◆ Changes in motivation of the personnel;
◆ Competitive disadvantages on international markets.

Which Are the Skills Required and Why is there a Shortage?

The major deficiencies in the profiles of human resources relate to the technical side of the job and, even more important, to a set of soft skills necessary to qualify for the job. These skills include social, linguistic and cultural skills for effective staff and resource management, staff training and self-development in a lifelong learning cycle.

Skills shortage is not only due to globalisation but also to a series of other factors at the systems level:

◆ Fast technological development causing rapid change of job content and work processes;
◆ Changes in economic structures caused by disappearing or geographically relocated sectors such as textiles, steel, shipyards and car industry or by completely remodelled sectors such as agriculture, trade and services;
◆ Emergence of a new set of values of the consumer such as a greater demand for quality and safety and ecological awareness;
◆ Demographic changes which result in a decrease of the labour force and an overall increase of the level of education, with over 30% of an age group entering higher education in some European countries.

This situation is aggravated by a series of other factors at enterprise level including:

◆ A lack of local labour forces;
◆ The difficulty of attracting skilled labour to certain geographical areas;
◆ The lack of awareness regarding training needs;
◆ The insufficient exploitation of training facilities;
◆ The general lack of resource planning strategies.

3.   Conclusion

The Role of Higher Education Institutions

The major role of universities is to develop a body of knowledge in areas of traditional and new skills. The necessary management of change is being

increasingly adopted by organisations and has attracted the attention of aca-demia. The role of the university is to develop concepts into models and theories and to adapt the new concepts for wider application. In many fields of science, however, the wisdom and the experience are with the companies. It is therefore essential that industry and higher education institutions coope-rate to achieve a successful proactive management of change in the world of business.

Higher education institutions should design, manage and monitor study pro-grammes which are geared towards present and future fields of work-related activity of students. Higher education should be aware of the effects of globa-lisation and take into consideration market needs which ask for a changing pattern of skills. As a consequence, existing curricula need to be adjusted and new ones designed. Teaching methods and structures need to be revis-ed and newly created using the new technologies. This approach is valid at all levels of education and training.

This re-engineering of curricula constitutes a major contribution of higher education institutions to an economic environment that has changed con-siderably in the past 30 years, as outlined above. However, this is not a one-way contribution to society. Higher education institutions are also gaining in attractiveness the more they widen and deepen the range of programmes and courses they offer.

These activities require the energy of flexible faculty which have the ability to assess future developments in their fields. Many academic staff have gained this ability by engaging in intensive trans-national cooperation with industry and other organisations and institutions as well as in application-oriented projects and research. Another prerequisite for the creation of high-quality and state-of-the-art syllabi is a sound infrastructure in terms of technical equipment and staff which needs to be provided for by the institution.

International cooperation with academic partners in other countries has made horizontal and vertical differentiation of universities possible to the extent that national structures have become obsolete in many ways as the following major competencies are with the institutions:

♦ Awarding certificates and degrees according to the level reached by the student;
♦ Acknowledging previous academic achievements and professional expe-rience;
♦ Recognising academic credits obtained in other countries;
♦ Increasing transparency and permeability;
♦ Diversifying high quality syllabi and curricula.

Within a global context, higher education institutions need to exercise these competencies being aware of their mission and clear on the key issues for the development of their own international and global identities. This requires:

- Trans-national cooperation in terms of exchanging ideas, staff, students and transferring knowledge, fostering mobility and developing human resources;
- Facilitation of academic recognition of study in other institutions in all parts of the world by establishing a credit accumulation and transfer system and by designing joint curricula and totally new study programmes;
- Creation and consolidation of international cooperation which requires a solid monitoring and control system;
- Appointment of staff and disposing of suitable technical equipment to develop linguistic and cultural skills of students and staff;
- Participation in a permanent exchange of expertise gained and quality achieved;
- Establishment of an information system to facilitate cross-border communication and information;
- Encouragement for a train-the-trainers programme to expand the ability of the staff to manage change.

Every institution of higher education needs to define its own strategic position. Basically the decision is between a selective or a comprehensive approach. If the institution decides on a comprehensive approach this might lead to mass teaching, whereas a selective approach would require permanent revision of course contents and programme structures. In this case, change would become part of the university culture and the course offerings would develop into moving targets. This way of thinking has emerged in higher education institutions more recently, but it has always been part and parcel of entrepreneurial reality in enterprises.

4.   Recommendations

What Should Universities Do to Make Their Graduates Fit for the Global Job Market?

The following clusters of skills need to be improved in the following way:

- General management skills should be trained more widely in university courses. For this purpose students should learn how to use planning tools and simulations as well as business games;
- The management of innovation skills should be fostered by developing the students' creativity. Programmes should focus on risk management and knocking down barriers when creating new activities;
- Finally, marketing management is a third area of attention. Students need to be made more aware of the importance of customer care. In customer service, employees need to tackle complaints which requires graduates to master conflict, demonstrate self-confidence, convey the business cul-

ture of the enterprise and show that they are taking the customers' complaints seriously. For this purpose, students need to acquire a solid knowledge of the company's products and the company itself. This is even more important in global activities which require use of different languages and awareness of different cultures.

The following activities need to be undertaken by higher education institutions to foster the above-mentioned skills:

♦ General activities such as company visits, prizes, lectures by industrialists at the university, participation of employers in university projects, work shadowing, career counselling, placements of teaching staff in industry and new technology training for first year students;
♦ Specific activities such as teaching company schemes, sandwich courses, enterprise-related dissertations, tutors in industry, business simulation, student consultancies, bonding, acquiring practice in interviews;
♦ Supportive activities such as the creation of transnational databases of job and student profiles, vacancies, curriculum databases, transnational quality standards for training providers, all of which should be available on the internet.

Universities usually do not specifically prepare their students and graduates for the world of work. In many ways, this is a missed opportunity.

Students who undergo a short-term work experience during their studies get the opportunity to acquire knowledge and skills they will need for work in the future. If they were better trained by their university in the first place, their chances of performing well in a work environment could be significantly improved. This is especially true because companies might want to employ good interns on a permanent basis if they prove to be valuable to them. Universities might therefore consider responding to the company's placement philosophy by offering their students effective pre-work orientation in cooperation with industry. For this purpose, the needs of enterprises must be analysed and course offerings revised according to demand.

On the other hand, companies themselves are aware that investment into staff development will eventually pay off. Training students and young graduates on the job gives the employer the chance of creating human resources that fit the requirements of their particular company.

International work experience acquired as part of the university programme is regarded to be a great asset. This is because students will have acquired relevant knowledge about foreign working cultures and languages as well as built a network of international contacts which is perceived as an added value by future employers. It is therefore important that students get the chance to benefit from such an experience early on in their academic career as part of their studies. Universities need to provide for adequate preparation, monitor the process and evaluate the results. It is especially important

that higher education institutions also assume their responsibility when it comes to re-integrating students into academic life on their return. This can be done by introducing a feedback procedure which would guarantee sustainability of the experiences gained.

Graduates should be encouraged to take on short-term contracts in small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) for training purposes under the supervision of senior university staff. This would not only help the SME sector by providing a relatively inexpensive work force with high potential but also the graduates who have the opportunity to gain first work experience. This work experience will help young graduates to access the labour market by way of a learning experience guided by their university. To assure the continued success of these programmes, higher education institutions need to make more provision towards academic staff development by training the trainer during sabbaticals.

Enterprises are also looking for polyvancy and flexibility. Once again we are confronted with the question of how these skills can be fostered within a university curriculum. One way would be to encourage creation of multidisciplinary curricula, one aspect of which should be the training of foreign languages. More generally, multidisciplinary courses should receive inputs from disciplines other than the core field. This could result in interesting combinations such as the provision of business administration elements in engineering courses. These combinations should be made available to the students in a modular way including study periods and work placements abroad.

What Should Universities Do to Become or to Stay Competitive in a Changing and Challenging Environment?

Just like enterprises, universities should look at their input, throughput and output in the light of a double challenge which is to stay competitive themselves and to educate students to become trainable for future demands and employable anywhere in a changing environment. In detail, this involves the following framework conditions.

5. Input

Entry Requirements

♦ Recognition of achievements such as school certificates, academic degrees and professional qualifications;
♦ Entry into part-time and full-time programmes including all modes and types such as open and distance learning;
♦ Taking into account different philosophies of learning and teaching;
♦ For potential students from foreign countries, the requirement should be the formal qualification necessary to be admitted to universities in their home country;

♦ Language ability is a selection criterion. However, if courses are taught in other languages than the official language of the country in question, students have to document their preparedness to learn the host country's language. The permission to enter a specific course should be taken at course rather than at institutional level;
♦ Admission to a study programme should be governed by the objectives of a specific programme and not regulated by general approaches, such as the *numerus clausus* procedure. In other words, selection is to be oriented towards the profile of the particular study programme;
♦ Active recruitment at home and abroad by using modern technologies, education fairs at home and abroad, contacts with embassies, university or other networks.

At "throughput" level this means in detail:

6. Throughput

Structure of Study Programmes

♦ Well-structured programmes which is what students miss in many countries, such as in Germany. In this regard, modularization of course programmes would help. However, careful cooperation has to be encouraged to design similar principles of defining a module across countries;
♦ Transparency;
♦ Existing university publications should be developed along the lines of the "information packages" developed and tested in the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS);
♦ Academic Recognition;
♦ The experience of the European Credit Transfer System should be deepened and widened. At university level, credit-based accumulation systems should be designed, involving other modes of learning such as part-time and distance-learning approaches. The same concept should be applied in schools, in adult education and the entire field of professional training;
♦ Lifelong Learning;
♦ Changing environments ask for a continuous update of knowledge and skills. A lifelong learning framework has to be created. Although the idea of lifelong learning might be acceptable to universities, many of them have not yet realised that this means a questioning of existing teaching and learning practices. Self-directed studies will play a much larger role. However, how can students be prepared for this?
♦ Flexible Entry and Exit;
♦ Such systems ask for a detailed record of students' achievements. A variety of certificates and degrees are foreseen to testify levels of achievements;
♦ Student handbooks should provide students with any information they need to successfully complete a specific year of study. Such handbooks have to be published annually.

Course Content (syllabus)

♦ Standardisation of course material;
♦ This asks for a permanent updating of the material in question. Teacher mobility will help to encourage the process of learning from good practice of teachers and institutions in other countries;
♦ International modules;
♦ Specific teaching modules should be designed to add to the international nature of the entire programme by shedding light on particular international issues. They deal with comparative topics worldwide. This, however, does not mean that these modules contain only international issues. It should be stressed that such modules should go beyond the international orientation of the designed programmes by offering the opportunity to react flexibly to new developments. Thus there is no need to change study and examination procedures whenever new developments come up;
♦ Core competencies;
♦ Universities have to be aware of what industry expects in terms of core competencies of graduates and what they expect these competencies to be in the future. They have to readapt their programmes in the light of these developments;
♦ Social competence;
♦ As outlined earlier, students need to dispose of skills which sometimes cannot partly be taught in traditional ways such as lecturing but which can only be learnt by experience. Mobility, flexibility, communication and preparedness to work in teams belong into this category;
♦ Multi-skilling;
♦ Industry requires graduates who dispose of a variety of skills sometimes which cannot be acquired in traditional programmes. This is why inter-disciplinary ideas should be encouraged.

Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages

It goes without saying that teaching and learning also has to be offered in languages other than the mother tongue. Students must be able to communicate in foreign languages. It has to be understood, however, that foreign languages are not an end in themselves, but have to be seen as a tool for specific purposes and allow for their effective use for communication in specific professions.

Teaching Objectives

The focus needs to be on learning to learn rather than being taught to absorb facts and figures. Creativity is a value in its own right and has to be developed right from the beginning of schooling. Creativity is also a must in an international environment. Autonomous learning will be necessary more and more. Universities therefore need to help students to go down this avenue.

Teaching Methods

♦ The traditional overload in terms of contact hours which characterises many programmes all over the world has to be replaced by allowing for more time for study outside the classroom such as in libraries, laboratories and with colleagues in work teams;

♦ Small and micro-learning groups should be encouraged. They have to be monitored carefully through counselling and coaching sessions;

♦ Distance learning programmes need to be stepped up in order to facilitate much wider participation in learning programmes;

♦ In particular with regard to international cooperation programmes the idea of tandems should be encouraged. This approach twins students of different institutions for joint work.

Monitoring

♦ Universities need to take care of their students much more than they do now. Accommodation or week-end events are not only the concern of student organisations but need to be provided by the institution;

♦ Alumni organisations of graduates have to be fostered in some countries where this culture has not yet developed. Alumni offer a wide variety of expertise and could help institutions to develop further through regular feed-back;

♦ Overall, institutions have to learn that they need to become much more student-focused.

Place of study

In an international environment this could be anywhere in geographic terms. The place of study could also be a work place outside the university in industry or other institutions.

Organisation of Study Programmes

The traditional programmes develop into menus consisting of modules which can be assembled according to individual needs. This is what customising is all about.

7.   Output

♦ Degrees must be transparent internationally. The present tendency around the world towards the introduction of bachelor's and master's degrees might be one suitable way. Other solutions which aim at making degrees comparable have yielded encouraging results and should be exploited much more. A European example to mention is the "Diploma Supplement" which was tested in a pilot project. The intention of these

approaches is to achieve transparency concerning the nature and level of various academic and professional qualifications;

♦ Additionally, profiles of graduates should be publicised in brochures and on the internet so that industry and other parts of the interested public might easily find suitable candidates.

In a nutshell: Becoming fit for the global market means customising in two ways. First, customising study programmes according to the needs of industry and second, customising programmes according to the needs of the students. The globalisation of economies and societies asks for such change, a change which has not come to an end and never will. Universities have the chance of functioning as catalysts. They should be aware that they can play the decisive role of a matchmaker between industry and graduates by making students fit for competition on a global market.

Brain-Drain in Africa

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1.   The Social and Economic Situation in Africa

Africa's Lost Decades

The decades of the 70s and 80s are rightly described as lost decades for African countries South of the Sahara. The combination of ill-conceived development policies and depreciation of the prices of agricultural products, raw materials and other primary export goods, which constituted mono-cultures of most African countries, resulted in economic stagnation and deterioration of the quality of life of communities. Against the background of the Cold War, despotic regimes were not only tolerated but often encouraged and maintained in power by the allies, as long as they participated in the war against the "ideological enemy". Freedom and democracy within the countries were suppressed, and superpowers at both sides of the divide cared less about the well-being of African communities, and were prepared to pay the price of sustaining otherwise unviable policies, and to turn a blind eye to despotism, repression and intolerance.

Economic stagnation and political repression generated a condition where most qualified men and women felt forced to leave their countries, either as a direct result of repression and fear for their own or their families' security, or because no employment was available were they could meaningfully contribute to national development, or because the terms and conditions, as well as the environment for work were simply unacceptable, or even because of social instability or civil war.

Beginning of Africa's Recovery – a Light at the End of the Tunnel

The fall of the Berlin wall and the end of the cold war had a profound impact on Africa. Global television and information, the expansive influence of liberal economic doctrines and the global world market are changing fundamentally the socio-political landscape of the continent.

The emerging new Africa is best represented by the fact that not fewer than 35 of the continents' 53 countries held multi-party and parliamentary elections in the past five years and adopted forms of democratic governments. Structural adjustment programmes which emphasise free initiative, reduction of direct intervention of government in economic activity and liberalisation of foreign trade are being carried out and in the last four years, all but a handful

of countries saw their economies growing at rates, though modest, already positive and higher than population growth. In West, Southern and Eastern Africa old and new schemes of regional economic integration are being re-invigorated, at the continental level the OAU started looking beyond political liberation to conflict mediation and resolution and to an economic agenda for the continent. For the first time in the history of the continent, presidents for life as well as military leaders are no longer blessed or openly supported.

These positive developments are very recent and in no way consolidated or irreversible. However encouraging this picture might be, its colours had hardly had time to dry. In Central Africa the two Congos are unstable. In the Great Lakes region Rwanda and Burundi constitute the centre of an explosive zone with a potential to stop and revert progress in the entire region. Angola and the Sudan still face deadly civil wars. Guinea-Bissau and Sierra Leone face inter-nal rebellions. Giant Nigeria, with its enormous potential, has just started a fresh attempt to move away from military to civil and democratic government.

Challenges Facing African Countries Today

The biggest challenge for the continent is to consolidate good governance and the rule of law. To create societies which encourage creativity and build confidence for citizens to engage in the production of wealth and improve-ment of standards of living. To attract national and international investment. To generate enough food for all citizens, and build roads and communication ways for goods to reach all parts of national territories. To expand and im-prove quality of the school and health network systems.

At the same time, Africa is further challenged to lay the foundation upon which true, long-lasting and sustained development can be built, and at the same time to keep abreast, take part and play an increasingly active role in the deve-lopments that are shaping the world of the decades and century to come.

For there is no future aside of the global trends in economy, in environmental protection, in disease control, in containment of international drug traffic. Afri-ca's renaissance must build the infrastructure and educate citizens to live in information and knowledge-based societies. And new technologies are alrea-dy helping Africa to accelerate development and bypass some of the steps required in the past, as in the case of wireless telecommunication now avail-able in places where cables were never laid, of electronic communication where neither telegram, nor telex nor even fax had reached before.

2.   Higher Education in Africa

Situation and Prospects of Higher Education Institutions in Africa

In the years that followed immediately upon political independence, higher education in Africa was considered among the first priorities and pillars for

the development of the new nation states and as such received full support from national governments. The challenge for the "developmental university" was to train the *cadres* needed to replace the colonial administrators and create indigenous capacity. Higher education, like other sectors of education, was considered a public good, and as such governments considered it their duty and responsibility to provide free higher education for all those who qualified. Governments were also the main and not rarely the single major employer of university graduates. With economic stagnation and the failure of the state to provide jobs, there followed not only a scarcity of resources, but even disenchantment about the relevance of higher education for national development.

A combination of factors determined a downturn in academic performance. First, the diminished financial resources no longer were sufficient to equip libraries, provide laboratories and classrooms with adequate equipment, support research and publication, pay sufficient salaries, provide acceptable scholarships to needy students, maintain facilities, in brief, pay for a conducive academic environment. Second, the explosion in the number of students seeking admission to higher education institutions surpassed by far the capacity available. Poor diversification of tertiary education systems and low regard for other forms of training (e.g. teacher training and other forms of vocational training offered in specialised institutions), as well as poor prospects of employment except for university graduates, provoked a demand for study places in universities that could not be met. Third, university-government relations deteriorated to a point of mistrust and confrontation, a situation further aggravated by political pronouncements and activism within university circles and the urge in government to curtail academic freedom and other forms of "dissent". Fourth, student demands particularly associated with conditions of life in students' hostels lead to frequent campus violence and university closures. Fifth, university leadership often lost a sense of direction and lacked initiative to lead the institutions through the crisis period. Last but not least, and particularly after the Jomtien conference on education for all, theories about higher rates of social return on investment in basic education as compared to higher education led to a total neglect of tertiary education, thus aggravating the financial crisis of the system. And this is by and large the situation facing universities in Africa today.

Revitalisation of the University in Africa

A recent joint publication[1] of the World Bank, the AAU and 9 major international and regional scientific institutions in Africa, as well as several funding agencies advocates strategic planning as the first most important step Afri-

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1   Revitalizing Universities in Africa, World Bank/AAU, June 1997

can universities must take to regain initiative and shape their future. Strategic planning is predicated as an inclusive process of consultation, involving the university leadership, representatives of the academic staff, students and of the entire academic community, as well as representatives of the state, the government and other constituencies in society. As a process of consultation it should generate understanding and consensus among the most relevant stakeholders and as such it is an indispensable step for the university to adjust its role to the expectations of society and to ensure the support needed for the implementation of the approved plans.

To lead to real revitalisation of the institution, the implementation of the strategic plan requires that key higher education and university policy matters be addressed, and calls upon the university, government authorities and the funding community to revise their policies and practices and to play active roles.

The priority matters to be addressed include issues such as the expansion of access to higher education, diversification of tertiary education opportunities, the financing of the system, the improvement of the quality and relevance of university education, the management of human, financial and physical resources, the access to scientific information and technology, and the strengthening of research activity.

The need to strengthen regional and institutional cooperation particularly at the level of graduate training and research, to enrol an equitable number of female students and to create an environment conducive to their academic success, the imperative to embrace new information and communication technologies, to internationalise curricula and study programmes, to strengthen the involvement, relationship and support to other levels and subsystems of education, are some of the challenges brought about by revitalisation, without which the university would be left out of the process of renaissance in Africa.

Private Universities in Africa

Private institutions of higher education are a most recent development in Africa. They are mostly associated with religious denominations, account for a still limited enrolment of students, offer degrees mainly in social sciences and humanities (e.g. religious studies, law, government studies, business administration), and conduct virtually no or very limited research. In many cases, most of their most highly qualified staff are employed on a part-time basis and belong to public institutions.

Private universities enlarge training opportunities for students, reinforce the capacity for training in fields where demand is usually high, introduce a degree of academic competition by giving students more options for choice, and contribute to supplement the income of the academic staff recruited

from public institutions. As such they are a very welcome development for the continent. At the same time, it needs to be acknowledged that their contribution is limited by their very size, the array of courses they offer (costly courses like engineering and medicine are rarely offered in private universities), and by the poverty of average African households who cannot afford to pay for education in private institutions (like public institutions, private institutions aim at recovering the full costs of their operation, even though they do not seek profit).

Like distance education at university level (including the promise of virtual universities), private universities in Africa are by no means a realistic alternative to the public system. They deserve support, but clearly as a complement to a backbone and core constituted by a well-functioning and dynamic public sector.

The Role of Regional Cooperation in Tertiary Education

Higher education institutions on the African continent have been combining their human and material resources, as well as using their particular strengths to cooperate within the framework of regional and sub-regional networks. The advantage of networks is that they allow a more cost-effective use of resources and greater impact of programmes; they allow participating members to learn from the experience of other institutions, a fact particularly useful for the small national university systems found in most of Africa, with the few exceptions of Nigeria, North Africa, Egypt, Sudan and South Africa. Networks can be combined with and serve programmes such as academic exchange for graduate training and research, staff exchange for teaching and external examination, student mobility and assessment and enhancement of quality.

One successful model of regional cooperation in research and training is the African Economic Research Council (AERC), a network of schools of economics and business administration which offers masters and doctoral degree programmes to students selected from various nations. The network involved in 1992/93 some 17 institutions in 15 countries who contributed staff and students to a joint Regional Collaborative MA Programme of anglophone Africa (except Nigeria)[2]. AERC also provided scholarships under a Ph.D. fellowship programme. Though the programme is decentralised to faculties selected for demonstrated capacity to undertake most of the research and training, it includes also a period of concentration of the students in one of the centres (Nairobi), which has been especially equipped with the human and material resources necessary to provide students with advanced training and research possibilities. A francophone equivalent to AERC is equally being implemented in west francophone Africa.

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2   Source: AERC Annual Report 1992/93, quoted in the AAU Report "On the Feasibility of Inter-University Cooperation in Joint Graduate Training and Research in Africa", A. Aboderin, December 1995.

ICIPE (The International Centre of Insect Physiology and Ecology) constitutes another experience of regional cooperation for research training in insect physiology. In this case one centre (centre of excellence) concentrates capacity for training in a particular discipline (insect science), and students from the whole continent are invited to apply for competitive scholarships to enrol in master-level or doctoral programmes. ARPIS (The African Regional Postgraduate Programme in Insect Science), a programme associated to ICIPE, was inaugurated in 1983 "as a consortium of seven African universities, a number which has grown ten years later to twenty five institutions involved in a 3-year doctoral training in areas of insect science"[3].

Another type of network aims at providing mutual support among participating members to develop capacity for training and research in priority areas, with each and every member institution being responsible for one defined area. One such case is the UNESCO/UNITWIN Network for Southern Africa. This involves faculties in five university institutions in Southern Africa (S. Africa, Namibia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Botswana) and three institutions in Europe (Portugal, The Netherlands, Germany) and provides training in areas such as law and human rights, mathematics and science, medicine and African religions.

SACCAR (Southern Africa Cooperation Council for Agriculture Research) came into being in 1984 and constitutes a network of faculties of agriculture and aims at standardising and strengthening education and research in food, agriculture and natural resources. SACCAR coordinates the initiatives of 12 institutions in five countries in the provision of a regional master's programme in agriculture sciences, and bases its activities on a memorandum of understanding concluded by all participating universities.

EISMV (Ecole Inter-Etats des Sciences et Medicine Vétérinaire), is another experience of regional cooperation in francophone Africa and was initially established in 1991 by a convention signed by eight countries. By 1995 about 13 African countries had signed the convention and students were drawn from all member countries and offered research and study programmes leading to the *doctorat de troisième cycle and the doctorat d'état.*

Similarly, other regional programmes bringing together the resources of groups of institutions who have decided to work together can be found in other parts of the continent.

The appeal of the network model was patent in the large number of proposals received in the context of an initiative launched recently by the Association of African Universities in cooperation with the Working Group on Higher Education of the Association for the Development of Education. Seven out of 41 such proposals received, which involved institutions in some 35 African

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3   ICIPE Annual Report, 1992.

countries, are now being refined and they cover areas ranging from distance education, energy systems, human rights, research into drought resistant plants, treatment of industrial and agricultural by-products, accounting, and scholarly publications[4].

In addition, the Association of African Universities has over the years accumulated experience with regional programmes such as the "Study Programme on Higher Education Management and Research in Africa", which trains research fellows and provides them with scientific supervision and grants to undertake research in issues such as institutional culture, decision-making processes, financial modes, higher education and work, tracer studies on graduate employment, information systems, resource mobilisation and finance policy. The "Senior University Management Training Workshops" expose university vice-chancellors and other university leaders to modern management skills. A "Graduate Education Scholarship Programme" awards scholarships to students for graduate study. A "Staff Exchange Programme" supports mobility of academic staff of universities for lectures, seminars and external examinations. Another example is the "Grants for Dissertation and Theses Programme", which is designed to assist students to produce theses and dissertations in universities other than in their own country[5].

One common limitation of regional efforts derives from an insufficient sense of ownership and belonging by partner and beneficiary institutions and a reliance on donor funding rather than primarily on own resources to sustain the networks.

3.   Brain-Drain

The Most Common Causes of Brain-Drain

Africa continues to loose thousands of highly trained experts to the developed countries, mainly to North America, but also to the Gulf States, South Africa, Botswana and even to South- East Asia and Australia. The causes and extent of emigration vary from one country to another, but among the most common causes are:

♦ Poor economic performance and insufficient creation of new jobs and limited capacity to absorb qualified personnel;
♦ Negative side effects of structural adjustment programmes, with their associated measures to eliminate or reduce budget deficits and public expenditure;
♦ Downsizing or retreat of government from economic activity and the liquidation or privatisation of para-state enterprises;

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4   Report of the AAU Programme on Networks for Regional Cooperation in Graduate Training and Research, AAU, September 1998.
5   Biannual Report: January 1997- December 1998, COREVIP'99, AAU publication, January 1999.

- ◆ Political and social instability and insecurity;
- ◆ Inadequate or undefined national policies for training, employing, rewarding adequately and giving incentives to personnel;
- ◆ Long graduate and post graduate programmes in developed countries, often in areas unrelated to the developmental needs, or not coupled with strategies for reintegrating the trainees in their home countries and communities of origin;
- ◆ And the absence of national policies for, or investments in, science and technology.

Some developed countries have put in place emigration policies and laws which actively seek to attract and retain qualified personnel from other parts of the world, with priority given to foreign graduate and research students studying in those countries. These causes, associated with a slowly recovering Africa, explain the massive exodus of qualified personnel who left the continent by the thousands and settled mostly in North America and Europe in the past 10 to 20 years. Some accounts claim that the rate of the brain-drain is diminishing, but it is generally accepted that the process has not stopped and indeed in some particular countries has even worsened.

Impact of Brain-Drain on Higher Education

Brain-drain has a profound impact on higher education and research on the continent. Knowingly, in most sub-Saharan African countries universities concentrate the largest number of experts and in some cases are the only national institutions with the structure and skills to undertake research or provide informed advice on important aspects for development. With the deterioration of the situation universities started to lose personnel who simply left the country in search for "greener pastures". Unattractive conditions of service also do not facilitate the process of replacement with newly recruited staff of those who leave or reach retirement age. Structural adjustment programmes and measures taken to revive the countries' economies in the initial stages also aggravate the loss of staff, either as a result of salaries being frozen (to reduce public expenditure) or because the emerging markets attract staff with better conditions of work offered in the private sector. Increasing demand for studies and private consultancies also contribute to a real-term reduction of time devoted by staff to higher education and research. For these reasons higher education is a net loser of staff and thus of quality in both the phase of decline and at the beginning of the process of economic recovery.

Permanent and Remedial Solutions

International contacts and mobility of persons, ideas and goods are integral elements of today's development. And Africa is not seeking isolation. The problem facing countries in the developing world and in Africa in particular is

the kind of people's migration taking place in one single direction, from developing to developed countries, and which is depriving them of the human resources they need for their development. Experience in some countries in South-East Asia (e.g. South Korea) and even in Africa (South Africa, Botswana) suggests that the solution to the flight of qualified personnel, and for that matter also of financial capital, is political stability and economic development. As a matter of fact, past experience suggests that even less democratic and less tolerant societies (at least by western standards) succeed to reverse migration trends and to attract some of their nationals back to the countries, once they put in place clear development policies and sustain them over long periods of time, an environment and resources that stimulate entrepreneurship and creative work, and ensure the possibility to maintain links with peers internationally.

In this context, the processes of economic recovery and social development taking place in some African countries provide the best remedies and offer justified hope for a solution of the problem of brain-drain.

Some other measures have been tried to mitigate the problem. Though they do not address the root-causes of the problem, they offer some relief. This is the case of institutional development and capacity building strategies, which combine training of personnel, improvement of facilities, renovation of management structures, improvement of working conditions, and articulation with sectoral and national development policies. To train human resources primarily in the developing countries, rather than through long courses in advanced centres in the North, and at the same time to create work teams with adequate working conditions, addresses some of the causes of emigration.

Attempts have also been made by some countries, e.g. Eritrea, to build networks and organise their nationals in the diaspora to contribute to the development of their nations without necessarily returning home. The success and effective impact of such initiatives is still to be evaluated.

The combination of human development strategies with initiatives to promote regional cooperation and integration provides an additional avenue. As illustrated above, academics and higher education and research institutions in Africa now seek models for combining their capacities and resources to provide training and research within the framework of regional networks.

4.   Concluding Remarks

Brain-drain is caused primarily by political and socio-economic problems, by the inability of governments and other institutions to design and implement adequate polices to train and retain human resources, and is indirectly supported by policies of some developed countries to retain foreign graduate students and to attract foreign experts.

Africa remains a net loser in the migration of personnel and ideas, and the beginnings of economic recovery and democratic governance are the best hope for a permanent solution to brain-drain.

Positive developments in Africa can be strengthened by supporting activities which foster consolidation and development of democratic institutions; by engaging African countries and institutions in well-conceived and accepted partnerships; by supporting regional cooperation which strengthens collective training and development efforts; by adopting comprehensive and long term capacity-building strategies; by developing capacity to access information from the developing countries and by making information created by these accessible to the international community.

The Export of Higher Education:
The Dutch Case

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This paper proposes to take an impressionistic look at the motives of government and higher education institutions in The Netherlands for launching new initiatives to find a niche in the global education market. It will attempt to outline the interaction between the different stakeholders in organising and implementing these initiatives. It will try to take stock of the initial results and possible benefits based on recent experience gained in Indonesia and explore a few of the opportunities and threats, weaknesses and strengths of the export of knowledge by a country surrounded by a language barrier.

1.   Introduction

Until recently, in The Netherlands the term "export of knowledge" was used, if at all, in a rather desultory fashion, to denote a variety of activities involving the transfer of knowledge to one or more partners/clients abroad. Until 1995, no need had been felt to be very precise about this notion. No coherent strategy or policy on the issue had ever been developed at the institutional or national (governmental) level. Transfer of knowledge was not really regarded as belonging to the same range of activities as exporting tulips to the USA, or providing engineering consultancy to Singapore.

A policy paper published in 1995, postulating the desirability that Dutch universities develop a strong position on the international education market, changed the picture completely. Institutions were now urgently invited to consider the advantages of exporting their knowledge products. It was emphasized that this activity was bound to have a positive effect on internationalisation of higher education, and it was noted that institutions would also be spearheading the strengthening of international economic and cultural relations. Last but not least, export would generate revenue badly needed by government and institutions facing increasing budgetary constraints and decreasing enrolment of students.

Having launched the, as yet unspecified, notion of "knowledge export", the first problem facing institutions and government was to find a common definition which would allow both the bureaucracy and the universities to agree on an implementation plan (but keeping the required investment manageable for

everyone concerned). This meant having to identify the main products, the preferred players (exporters) and the potential markets.

2. Transfer of Knowledge as International Trade

International transfer of knowledge rarely comes free of charge. But it is not always the recipient who has to pay the bill. The provider, whether the institution, the staff or the consultant, are usually paid or at least reimbursed for cost incurred in rendering their services.

Unilateral transfer, for instance, as a rule is funded by government or other national agencies. In The Netherlands, as in many other countries, unilateral transfer free of charge to the happy recipient is almost always arranged in the framework of development cooperation programmes. Although these services may appear to the client like a generous gift from the partner institution, the "donor" is usually fully paid for his efforts, sometimes even royally, through official development programmes or by national or international funding agencies, such as the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank or the European Commission. But neither client nor donor would feel comfortable if their cooperation would be classified as the export of knowledge.

Bilateral or multilateral collaboration programmes in higher education (e.g. bilateral cultural agreements, EU Programmes, UMAP) can be seen as export based on a barter system. Partners present themselves simultaneously as providers and clients. Although exchange agreements between the institutional partners are in principle based on the sharing of cost, there may be an additional investment by third parties (e.g. European Commission, ministry of education or foreign affairs). If money does change hands, funding is provided by all stakeholders and participants in the framework of a project. These actors, too, would not readily consider their activities as belonging to the realm of international trade relations. As in the case of unilateral transfer, these bi- and multilateral programmes are part of the political agenda of actors responsible for developing international relations, who may see educational cooperation as instrumental to wider national or multi-national interests.

In the world of higher education, however, these activities come under the heading of "internationalisation", a term about as flexible as "export of knowledge". Universities, particularly in Europe, tend to see internationalisation as a process consisting of a range of international (and national) activities leading to the enhancement of the quality of education and research. This, in turn, may lead to a larger and more international audience for their achievements, and to a better preparation of graduates for an increasingly globalised labour market. Generally speaking, universities tailor activities to meet these benchmarks. Joint research projects, curriculum development, joint programmes, ideally leading to double degrees, exchange of students and staff

providing international experience and language proficiency, networking of university libraries, adapting teaching methods, may all be included in the "internationalisation" strategy of institutions.

In some countries "internationalisation", however, also refers to the recruitment of (full-fee paying) foreign students. In the absence of a system of full-cost tuition fees, this is, however, not a very useful strategy for internationalisation, even though in these cases statistics on the foreign student population are used as an indicator of the degree of internationalisation. In a sense, this is legitimate, because the number of foreign students enrolled in a higher education institution, which have not been specifically recruited, may serve as an indicator of the prestige this institution enjoys, or of the attractiveness of higher education in a particular country. But if the structure of institutional funding militates against recruiting abroad, one can only hope to attract foreign students by virtue of one's prestige or scientific renown.

3.   Education as a Commodity

With the exception of the Anglo-Saxon countries, marketing of education seems to have been introduced only recently by some universities in a few countries. As mentioned before, an important reason for this is the prevalent institutional funding structure and related (financial) management arrangements of the institutions concerned. In institutions without a tuition fee requirement, or with token fees only, there is little incentive to recruit students abroad. Recruiting home students will bring equal benefits at lower cost.

A second important deterrent to developing viable export activities may be the language barrier, not only in the case of a small language area, but even for a country like Germany with a language boasting close to 100 million native speakers. The present predominance of English as the global *lingua franca* is increasingly luring overseas students away from continental European and other non-Anglo-Saxon countries. As a reaction, countries like Germany, Japan and recently France are developing new strategies to counter this trend, which is seen as leading to an imbalance in the global distribution of student flows. Germany has taken the epoch-making step to offer postgraduate courses partly or wholly taught in English, relinquishing German as the language of tuition for these particular courses. Japan attracts many Asian students through a generous offer of Monbusho scholarships and France has recently launched a plan to drastically increase the inflow of foreign students.

These examples provide an interesting counterpoint to the approach in The Netherlands. In the three countries mentioned, initiatives are predominantly culturally and economically driven. In none of these countries would the recruitment of overseas students be presented as financially beneficial to the host institutions or to the national higher education system as a whole.

In Holland, however, this was one of the explicit targets stated in the Ministry of Education policy papers "Actieplan Onbegrensd Talent 1996" and "Actieplan Onbegrensd Talent 1998" ("Actionplan Limitless Talent" or "Talent without Boundaries"). Taking a closer look at the present approach to the export of education in The Netherlands may partly explain the reasons for this discrepancy between some European countries and institutions.

4.   The Netherlands: A Case Study

Like most countries with a strong system of higher education institutions, Holland had developed over time, and in particular since World War II, numerous, albeit usually bi-lateral, networks with institutions abroad. Until the 1980s, the main thrust of these international activities was to be found in collaborative research projects and in the field of development cooperation in higher education. Very different "products" for distinctly different "markets".

With respect to the core business of education and teaching, universities and hogescholen (undergraduate institutions) had found it difficult to surmount the language barrier in offering their courses to a non-Dutch audience. Outside The Netherlands, Dutch as first language is spoken only in Belgium and Surinam. It is used as second language by a small minority in Indonesia and understood by Afrikaans-speaking citizens of South Africa. This amounts to a total population of about 25 million of which 65% live in The Netherlands. Not a "niche" offering good opportunities for exporting an education which requires fluency in Dutch, if only because these countries, perhaps with the exception of the former colonies, could pride themselves of possessing universities as sophisticated as the Dutch. Training foreign students to reach an adequate level of proficiency in Dutch would require an additional year of language preparation, adding to course duration and evidently to the total cost of the study abroad period, which might run up to five or six years.

Interest in actively attracting foreign students was consequently limited. Again, there was no financial incentive stimulating student recruitment as long as enrolment by home students did not decline. Students, whether Dutch or foreign, generally pay the same tuition fee which, roughly speaking, covers less than 20% of actual cost. Universities largely depend on annual government grants, which are based on enrolment figures and output.

It was only with the advent of the large-scale mobility programmes of the European Union, such as ERASMUS, COMETT, TEMPUS, SOCRATES and LEONARDO that universities were virtually compelled to introduce modules taught in English, to be added to or included in the regular curricula of a great number of courses. There was no other way around the problem of accommodating the French, British or Greek exchange students coming to Holland without any proficiency in Dutch. At the same time, institutions had to develop or extend a range of facilities receiving the incoming student flow

generated by these European higher education programmes. Institutions invested a great deal of innovative energy in turning themselves into internationalised host institutions.

Interestingly, over the last 40 years The Netherlands had in fact already developed a sophisticated, albeit limited, system of higher education for foreign students in which English was used as the language of tuition from the very start. These "Institutions of International Education", sheltered under the aegis of the Ministry of Development Cooperation (Foreign Affairs), catered almost exclusively to overseas students from developing countries, offered postgraduate courses in a number of highly specialised fields (e.g. hydraulic engineering, aerial survey). Fiercely independent, they tended to stay aloof from the "regular" universities who found it difficult to take advantage of this expertise in hosting (and recruiting) overseas students. Many universities consequently found themselves reinventing wheels.

The launch of the European Union programmes in higher education inaugurated the trend towards the internationalisation of institutions, most of whom had so far hosted only a small number of foreign students. And many of these were in fact immigrants of one kind or another, political refugees, "economic" refugees, who often only enrolled in order to secure a long-stay visa, and immigrants from former colonies.

A New Approach to Export

In 1996 the then Minister of Education, Science and Culture, Prof. dr. Ir J. Ritzen surprised the world of academia in Holland by suggesting that the time had come to extend the educational horizon beyond Europe, which admittedly had claimed much attention and effort over the previous 10 years. This suggestion was underpinned by references to renewed efforts at the national level to stimulate and extend trade relations and export, in particular to South and South-East Asia, then still crawling with young tigers. Export of higher education was to spearhead the search for new markets and improve access for Dutch goods and services to existing markets. Minister Ritzen did not coordinate this initiative with his colleague of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, nor did he suggest in which way export of higher education could best be linked to the policy of strengthening international trade relations in general. He did, however, intimate that exporting higher education would be beneficial for internationalisation and financially advantageous for higher education in The Netherlands.

Initial attempts by the Ministry of Education to limit the policy to "the recruitment of students by prestigious departments of a few universities", which were regarded by the government as on the cutting edge of Dutch higher education, immediately ran afoul of ambitions unleashed in many institutions by his invitation. This enthusiastic response by institutions which had never before contemplated recruiting overseas students partly resulted from recent

developments in higher education. These were related to the envisaged decrease in enrolment at traditional universities and technical universities, the increased self-confidence of universities of professional higher education (comparable to the German *Fachhochschule*) and to the fact that by now Dutch higher education could provide close to 500 short courses, modules and full-degree courses taught in English, many of which owed there existence to the EU mobility programmes.

Further, there was the announcement that government was intending to stop including non-European students in the yearly block subvention to institutions. Overseas students would then only be acceptable on the basis of full-cost tuition fees. This would produce a drastic change from actual practice, in which home and foreign students alike had to pay a standard fee of about US $ 1,500 per year.

After a considerable period of incubation, the government interpreted the concept of export as referring to postgraduate courses taught in English and offered to candidates in specific countries in South and East Asia. At a later stage, this was further limited to Indonesia.[1]

The Action Plan

The governmental points of departure return in a policy paper of 1996 ("Actieplan Onbegrensd Talent 1996")[2], in which the goals where defined as follows:

♦ Linking The Netherlands to a number of countries which are important to it from an economic and/or cultural point of view;

♦ Fostering an international context for students of universities and *hogescholen;*

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1 The perhaps surprising priority for Indonesia as the first target in kicking off this new venture requires a brief explanation. In 1995, prior to the launching of the "Actieplan" the Ministry of Education commissioned an assessment of markets in 16 countries in South and South-East Asia, including a number of immigration countries with an appreciable minority of first and second generation Dutch immigrants (USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand). For cultural and linguistic reasons, South Africa was included in the study. Although limited in scope because of time constraints, and therefore more "quick and dirty" than profound, this desk study managed to indicate a few clear priorities. Based on an analysis of 'push' and 'pull' factors, Taiwan and Korea seemed to offer the most promising prospects for the recruitment of candidates for Dutch institutions, followed by Malaysia and, at some distance, by Indonesia. As it turned out, political and historical, if not emotional, reasons prevailed in the final decision on priorities, and Indonesia was selected as the first, and has so far remained the only, test case for the new strategy.
The issue has been complicated by a parallel development growing out of the initiative of the Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education (Nuffic) and higher education institutions to set up a Netherlands Education Centre (NEC), which would act as a Representative Office in Indonesia. Its mission was to be precisely the recruitment of Indonesian students for Dutch institutions and assisting the NEC-member-institutions in enhancing or initiating cooperation with Indonesian partners. It took a while for the Ministry of Education to come around to the view that availing itself of a ready-made structure (NEC in the end represented some 42 institutions) might be more efficient than a scattered presentation of Dutch universities in Indonesia.

2 "Talent without Boundaries"

♦ Enhancing quality;
♦ Creating revenue for higher education.

The Action Plan included short-term, medium-term and long-term objectives, as the agenda for a plan promising government support to institutions responsive to this new challenge:

♦ *Short-term objective* to stimulate the recruitment of foreign students during the period of 1997 – 2001. During the period 1997 – 1998, support would only be available for the recruitment of students from Indonesia;
♦ *Mid-term objective* to extend the operation to other countries if warranted by progress in Indonesia;
♦ *Long-term objective* by 2001 to review the effects and results in terms of recruitment figures and revenue to institutions to assess whether discontinuation of government support would be justified. Funding released to be invested in a more selective action for the recruitment of students from non-European areas.

The Incentives

The positive reaction of higher education to the government proposals was rewarded by the launch of a government-sponsored fund to support institutions which came up with an acceptable development plan for exporting education to Indonesia. Over the first two years, 4,5 million Dutch guilders (approx. US$ 2,3 million) would be available, if matched by a similar amount from participating institutions. This programme, the "Stimuleringsregeling voor het aantrekken van buitenlandse studenten", eventually enabled 24 universities, hogescholen, and "Institutes of International Education" to develop a range of activities both at home and in Indonesia. Institutions selected for funding by the "Stimuleringsregeling" were entitled to propose candidates for a new scholarship programme (Scholarship Programme for Talented Indonesian Students, TALIS). This was expected to attract attention to the existing range of higher education courses in The Netherlands, and to smooth the path for the first Indonesian candidates after a rigorous selection by NEC and Nuffic. It has to be borne in mind that in 1992, due to strained relations between Indonesia and The Netherlands following Indonesian actions in East Timor, development cooperation had come to a complete standstill. This included the award of scholarships to Indonesian candidates. The TALIS programme, launched in 1997, represented the first cautious testing of the political climate in Indonesia, which had until then resolutely refused to send students abroad on Dutch scholarships.

The "Stimuleringsregeling"

It may be interesting to highlight the main objectives and criteria of the "Stimuleringsregeling", as this programme served to some extent as a guideline to institutions new to the game of recruiting students abroad, if only because

adhering to the conditions of the programme provided an opportunity for the award of "Stimulerings"- grants, however modest these might be. A look at the details of the scheme also shows the sometimes tenuous grasp on reality of policy-makers involved in seemingly innovative actions supposedly beneficial to the system.

The "Stimuleringsregeling" was to fund the initial costs of activities of institutions preparing an acceptable action plan for the recruitment of students (in Indonesia) for appropriate courses responding to a clear demand.

Its stated objectives were:

♦ To allow institutions to win a niche in the "global knowledge market";
♦ To contribute to the development of new economic relations and activity;
♦ To build an international network based on the next generation of graduates;
♦ To generate revenue by charging full-cost tuition fees to overseas students.

Activities eligible under the programme included:

♦ The development of curricula geared to demand;
♦ The recruitment and promotion of activities (mailings, student fairs, staff travel, recruitment agencies, alumni associations);
♦ Offering distance education courses, employing Information and Communication Technologies.

Numerous criteria were formulated for the selection of bids. To provoke the creation of consortia of institutions, the programme was presented as an invitation to tender, not as a traditional subsidy programme. The most important criteria (and often the most precarious) were:

♦ A proven demand for the proposed course(s) on offer;
♦ Preferably courses which could be integrated in the later stages of the degree programme of the home institution abroad;
♦ Courses accessible to overseas and Dutch students;
♦ A target of at least 20 students per year per study programme or course;
♦ Subscription to the NEC[3] Code of Behavior for recruiting students abroad.

The Implementation

Within a few months, a surprising number of institutions were able to present their proposals to the Ministry of Education, while others, sometimes grouped in consortia which sprung up overnight, were prepared to initiate projects without government support. Eventually, a number of proposals were accepted and Dutch institutions already active in Indonesia were joined by newcomers launching a variety of activities.

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3   "Regulation Stimulating the Recruitment of Foreign Students"

In random order, these activities can be categorised as follows:

In Indonesia:
- Direct recruitment (promotion tours, ads, mailings, student fairs, etc.);
- Bilateral partnerships with Indonesian institutions;
- Market research;
- Development of sandwich programmes;
- Joint curricula for off-shore courses with Indonesian partners;
- Liaison offices;
- Joint bidding for contracts.

In the home institution:
- Developing a preparatory year;
- Curriculum development, development of new courses;
- Development of modules of Dutch language and culture;
- Student welfare facilities;
- Development of networks for placement in industry.

The configuration of activities varied considerably from one university to the other and some strategies did not seem to have been carefully thought out.

Initial Results and Effects

Within a year's time, over 30 institutions were active in Indonesia, and in 1998 the inflow of Indonesian students into Dutch higher education appeared to have more than doubled. Within this group (400), the number of self-paying students increased almost three times compared to 1996.[4] The number of bilateral agreements with Indonesian institutions was growing rapidly and so was the number of Indonesian candidates leaving for The Netherlands with an Indonesian government fellowship (ADB Loans). Courses leading to a double degree (Indonesian/Dutch) have already been established or are being developed.

The Benefits

After two years of experience in Indonesia, a few tentative observations can be made with regard to the effects and benefits this venture may have for institutions in The Netherlands and Indonesia. Taking the four goals of the government "Actieplan" as parameters for assessing the efficacy of the policy measures, the following comments can be made.

Linking the Netherlands:
The programme has not been running long enough to draw any conclusions from experiences to date. Limiting the programme provisionally to Indonesia preempts an assessment at this point in time.

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4   The monetary crisis, starting in 1997, led to an outburst of unrest which prompted a number of people belonging to the ethnic minority to leave the country. This may have had an effect on the increased mobility of students belonging to the affluent elite, as they could afford to leave.

Creating revenue:
As long as institutions can profit from both the revenue derived from tuition fees and from the yearly block grant from government, they are assured of at least recovering the cost of hosting overseas students. Once overseas students are no longer included in the calculation of the grant to courses, which at present can be offered at comparatively low fees, institutions will have to change their pricing policy. This may cause diminishing competitiveness and may weaken the sustainability of recruiting abroad.

International framework:
If the concept of internationalisation is taken to include hosting overseas students, the resulting statistics may be presented as proof of the positive effects recruitment has had. More valuable may be the role of export as an "agent of change", insofar as institutions are adapting and developing courses and teaching methods in response to the challenges inherent in hosting overseas students.

It is interesting to note that the feasibility of marketing Dutch higher education owes a great deal to the yield of 10 years of participation in the EU's higher education programmes. In terms of English-tuition course offerings, international expertise and experience in hosting exchange students, many Dutch institutions are now well prepared to venture beyond Europe. Export of knowledge capability can be seen as an interesting spin-off from earlier internationalisation strategies.

Enhancement of quality:
*R*esponding to these challenges also entails competition with other institutions, which will strengthen quality control mechanisms. This effect may be reinforced by the necessity of obtaining the recognition of degrees and diplomas by the sending country.

The Risks

Apart from the manifest risk for institutions of underestimating the necessary resources and overestimating the expertise of units responsible for the recruitment of overseas students, there are not many fatal dangers to be faced in the initial phases. This may change as departments become overly dependent on enrolments and revenue derived from overseas student recruitment. University departments considering to enter the overseas student market will have to be very sure of the sustainability of their projects.

Sometimes sending countries may show an ambivalent reaction to the recruitment of their best candidates by universities in the North. Although study abroad may offer opportunities perhaps not available in the sending country, every student abroad represents a hefty drain on foreign exchange reserves. Understandably, some crisis-ridden countries in South-East Asia find this a problem difficult to manage. President Habibie of Indonesia

recently voiced his doubts about the desirability of promoting study abroad. Malaysia is encouraging foreign universities to set up local branches.

The danger of brain-drain is always present, although not always to the same degree in every sending country. In Indonesia, internal brain-drain may present a greater risk to the development of education. Indonesian graduates usually return to the home country, but not necessarily to their former jobs. This may inhibit the upgrading of institutions, as the private sector can offer much needed and highly qualified university staff a much more attractive income.

5. Conclusions

Export of knowledge, even if it is limited to offering education to foreign students, can be a rewarding strategy, in more than one sense, and even for institutions in non-Anglo-Saxon countries. If successful, institutions can profit enormously from the build-up of international experience, extending their networks into new areas and establishing valuable new partnerships with institutions abroad. Exporting education also implies being compelled to implement strict quality and financial control mechanisms, while at the same time presenting university staff with a host of exciting new challenges and opportunities.

Export of knowledge may be seen as an instrument through which favourable trade relations are fostered between the host country and the future commercial leadership and economic elite in the sending country. This is a honourable objective, as long as it does not impinge on the freedom of the host institutions to select their partners, their markets and their products in the sending country.

However, in countries where the public sector overlaps or is intimately linked with the private sector, this may prove to be a strategy which only serves to sustain a socio-economic structure which obstructs the establishment of an equitable society based on democratic principles and the rule of law.

7. Literature

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Werving van buitenlandse students, een marktverkenning, J.Hagen, Nuffic, Den Haag 1995.

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Global Trends in Overseas Study, William K. Cummings 1994.

The Marketing of Higher Education in New Zealand and Australia

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1.   Introduction

This paper provides a brief overview over the international marketing of higher education in New Zealand and Australia. It does not address the wider issue of internationalisation of tertiary education, which has been treated comprehensively in a number of publications. It makes no claim to be comprehensive. More detailed studies have appeared recently providing detailed analyses of the situation in both countries as well as comparative perspectives. They are listed at the end of this overview. Furthermore, this paper concentrates on the situation in the university sector, because this is where the writer has most experience. It is important to recognise that both polytechnics and secondary schools also recruit internationally, some of them quite extensively.

2.   The Political Context

New Zealand, a former Crown Colony of Great Britain and now a member of the British Commonwealth, founded its universities in the last third of the 19th century. They were initially teaching institutions; the examinations for degrees were set and marked in Britain for several decades after their foundation.

The first formal official intake of students from overseas was received in March 1951, when six students arrived from Ceylon to be trained as dental nurses under the auspices of the Colombo Plan. This alliance for economic cooperation and development among Commonwealth nations also provided for assistance in education and training. Other schemes to provide for educational assistance and exchange, mainly between Commonwealth countries, followed in 1959, 1960 and 1970.[1]

Up to 1989, overseas students in New Zealand could be divided into two broad categories. On the one hand, there were the "private" students who had chosen to study in New Zealand and were "subsidised" as far as tuition

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1   See Ian O Smith and Gillian Parata, 'Internationalisation of Higher Education in New Zealand', in: Knight, Jane, Hans de Wit (eds.), *Internationalisation of Higher Education in Asia Pacific Countries.* Amsterdam (EAIE), [1997] p. 123.

fees went, since they were required to pay no more than what New Zealand students paid in courses where fees applied. The other group consisted of government and Commonwealth funded students, who received some kind of scholarship in addition to the tuition fee subsidy.

In 1987, the New Zealand Market Development Board commissioned a report which, already in its title, signaled a shift in attitudes, probably partly in response to developments in Australia which will be outlined below. The report was called, "Directions in Foreign Exchange Earnings: Education Services". This shift towards what has been called the "commodification of education" is reflected in the 1989 Education Act and its subsequent amendments in 1990 and 1991. The legislation basically provides for a recovery of the costs incurred by students from outside New Zealand who are studying at New Zealand institutions. The provision of scholarships for students from developing countries, such as the Overseas Development Aid grants, is designed to ensure that opportunities for study in New Zealand continue to be provided for students from these areas.[2] Over the last decade, education has become to be regarded generally as an export industry in New Zealand. In 1998 the marketing organisation for New Zealand education (New Zealand Education International Limited, which this year has been replaced by a new body, Education New Zealand), proudly announced that education was bringing more overseas income to New Zealand than its wine industry.

A factor which has provided an additional incentive for New Zealand universities to look for export income from international students has been the fact that the government funding of universities per student has steadily declined over the last ten years. International students are seen as a source of revenue. Together with increased fees for domestic students, they help the universities maintain themselves financially.

Like New Zealand's, Australia's universities had their origins in colonial foundations, which for many decades maintained close ties with European, specifically British institutions. They also began sponsoring overseas students with the Colombo Plan in 1951. The number of Colombo Plan and private students from overseas was controlled by quotas, and private students from offshore were required to pay the same fees as Australian students.

The Australian government began charging overseas students nominal fees (about 10% of the notional full cost of a university place) in 1979. In 1985, as the result of a report by the Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Program (the Jackson Report), it decided to charge fees which were

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2   It should be noted that the philosophy which views education as a commodity is also carried into domestic policy. The government sees itself as the 'purchaser' of education services, from education 'service providers'. New Zealand university students are subsidised to a notional 75% of the cost of their courses, and are expected to fund the other 25% from their own means or from money borrowed from a student loans scheme. The rationale for this is that education provides a 'personal benefit' (as opposed to the 'public benefit') to the students, which is 'valued' at 25%.

designed to cover the cost of tuition at Australian universities. This shift in government policy has been called the shift from educational aid to educational trade.[3]

There has been some attempt to correct the emphasis on the export of education and the commercial and financial benefit that accrues to institutions as a result. In 1992 and 1993 research and ministerial policy statements stressed the wider benefit of internationalisation to Australian universities and their students. Nevertheless, there has been a strong commercial element in Australian moves towards internationalisation, and the Australian International Education Foundation which was launched in November 1994, aims to "strengthen the government/industry partnership and to promote and market Australian education and training services overseas." An important point to note is that Australian universities have had substantial backing by the government in their marketing activities.

3.   The Institutional Context

The shift in the perception of tertiary education from a service provided by the state to its constituency, to a commodity purchased by the state from a range of providers for its constituency, and offered as an export service to clients from offshore, has had a profound effect on universities both in New Zealand and Australia. They could be summarised as follows:

♦ Universities are now in competition with each other, both for inland and overseas students;
♦ Marketing for students has become a significant activity of almost all universities;
♦ Concepts which have their origin in the commercial world, such as "market forces", "customer service", "customer focus", "consumer friendliness", are gradually becoming accepted as indicators of the new environment in which universities operate;
♦ To "meet the market", there is need for much greater flexibility in course design, course content, the method of delivery, and admission criteria.

The new environment has unquestionably produced considerable stress in many Australian and New Zealand universities. Academics who have been trained to "profess" their discipline and who feel that they are entitled to the respect which they had paid their teachers, find it difficult to be responsive to "consumer demand". Administrators who have been socialised into serving their institution and its needs find it difficult to change to a "customer focus". Nevertheless, sweeping changes are occurring to the universities in both countries in response to a change in the political and social climate in which they operate. These changes are too slow for some who see themselves as

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3   Ken Back et al., *Internationalisation and Higher Education: Goals and Strategies*. Canberra, 1996, p. 7.

progressive, too fast for others who wish to preserve values which they cherish and see as important.

The new environment is producing a number of changes which affect all staff and students, whether they are local or have come from abroad. The changes include increased emphasis on teaching, changes to course content in an attempt to make them more "relevant" to the needs of 21st century society, industry and commerce, changes to make the administrative process more "customer friendly" etc. Another change which is seen as benefiting both onshore and offshore students is the use of computer technology, particularly the internet, for the delivery of courses. Most universities in Australiasia now also have devoted resources to establishing marketing departments and marketing activities, such as advertising and other promotions, for both local and international students.

A number of significant changes have been introduced particularly to meet the needs of students from countries other than Australia and New Zealand. They include:

♦ The provision of courses on campus for English as a second language;
♦ The provision on campus of bridging or "foundation" courses for students who have not yet reached the required standard for entry to a university;
♦ The provision of courses, qualifications and course combinations specifically designed to cater to the needs of international students;
♦ The creation of international centres, where international students have access to special services, such as counselling, help with particular problems (housing, Visa issues, transfer of academic credit etc.);
♦ The establishment of partnerships with overseas institutions. Some may be simple cooperation agreements, which may or may not include provision for student and staff exchange. Others may be agreements for cooperation in teaching and research focussing on particular disciplines and projects;
♦ The conclusion of twinning agreements with overseas institutions. These arrangements provide for guaranteed credit in one institution for student credits accumulated at the other. Such agreements are particularly useful in situations where an institution (usually offshore) does not have the right to award degrees. The twinning arrangement thus provides an opportunity for students of such institutions to complete a degree, either by travelling to the Australian or New Zealand university for a specified time, or by the Australasian university moderating the teaching and assessment at the offshore institution;
♦ The "franchising" of Australian and New Zealand courses and qualifications with an offshore institution;
♦ The establishment of entire offshore campuses by New Zealand and Australian universities, either in cooperation and on the premises of a host institution overseas, or as completely independent, "stand-alone" developments.

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While many of these developments are explained by pointing to the need for Australasian universities to internationalise for social, political and cultural reasons, there is a powerful economic rationale driving them. The feeling generally is that if we do not move into the international market, the international market will move to us and threaten our institutions. This argument is particularly powerful in an environment where universities have lost their place as elite institutions, and are seen by their national government as one among many providers of tertiary education which may be local or offshore.

4.   Some Statistics

Over the last decade, the number of fee-paying students in New Zealand has increased as follows:

Year	Foreign Fee Paying Students[4]
1989	675
1990	333
1991	547
1992	1000
1993	1450
1994	2120
1995	3178
1996	3789
1997	4460
1998	4200[5]

In the same time period, Australia has been much more aggressive and much more successful in its marketing of higher education. A study published in 1998 makes the point that in 1997, 9.6% of the total number of Australian university students came from offshore, while in New Zealand the proportion was only 4.9%.[6]

The provisional figure for New Zealand for 1998 reflects the Asian economic crisis, since the majority of international students in New Zealand come from Asian countries. While there are students from 99 countries currently studying at New Zealand universities, the ten major source countries, with student numbers for 1998 were:

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4   This figure does not include international students who were in receipt of a scholarship for study in New Zealand or who were in New Zealand on exchange schemes with overseas universities.

5   Ministry of Education and New Zealand Vice Chancellors Committee. The figure for 1998 is an estimate only. The Ministry of Education has not yet released the final statistics for 1998.

6   Ken Back et al., *op. cit.*, p. 113.

Malaysia	2249
Japan	405
USA	342
Fiji	235
Thailand	233
Indonesia	231
Hong Kong	220
Singapore	185
Germany	183
Taiwan	147[7]

5. Some Issues

Universities in most countries, and certainly in New Zealand and Australia, have always been international institutions. Their staff are recruited internationally, their research is published internationally, most of their candidates for higher degrees are examined internationally. Most universities in New Zealand and Australia make comparatively generous provision for their staff to take study leave and conference leave overseas. In the last two decades, economic, political and social globalisation has added a new impetus to the further internationalisation of universities. This movement has been reinforced by the political pressure for universities in Australia and New Zealand (and elsewhere) to seek not only the academic benefits, but also to exploit the commercial opportunities of the new global climate.

One of the most important issues facing New Zealand and Australian universities is the maintenance of the high quality of their universities which they have achieved in a relatively short time in comparison with European institutions (and with the help of these institutions). In a market situation with comparatively few controls and comparatively high returns, there is a temptation to compromise quality in return for a quick profit and without due regard for the long-term well-being of the institutions. Care needs to be taken particularly in three areas; regarding admission criteria, course requirements, course design and assessment and the quality of the infrastructure.

♦ Admission criteria.
  While the overall criteria for admission to New Zealand universities are enshrined in law (i.e. a completed secondary school qualification certifying fitness for entry to university, or its equivalent), there is considerable latitude in the way in which the equivalents are interpreted. There is also a minimum English requirement for the admission of non English-speaking students. There is some anecdotal evidence that some non-New Zealand universities admit students from overseas who do not meet these criteria. The writer has certainly been approached by agents from overseas

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7   New Zealand Vice Chancellors Committee.

countries with the request that he should encourage his institution to be more "flexible" in its admission criteria, on the grounds that some of our competitor institutions outside New Zealand were known to be more "flexible".

♦ Course requirements, course design and assessment.
There is a temptation to relax the often stringent course requirements in some areas for students whose English, for example, has not reached the required standard, or who have not reached the required standard in an auxiliary discipline (such as statistics) for particular subjects. There is also a danger that new teaching technology is employed without adequate quality control to ensure that it actually meets the expectations of both the teacher and the student in terms of the learning process. The special requirements of international students may lead to the design of courses or qualifications especially adapted to their needs. It is important that such courses conform to the overall standards required of onshore students, to ensure that no set of courses emerges that may be considered second rate.

♦ Quality of infrastructure.
This applies particularly to satellite campuses offshore. It is comparatively easy to establish such a campus, and most such ventures to date have limited themselves to a small number of focussed courses and qualifications. One of the problems is that, unless it is done in partnership with an existing tertiary institution in the host country, major aspects of what is provided by a traditional university cannot be provided. These would include adequate general library facilities, the intellectual stimulation of exposure to a wide range of disciplines and students from these disciplines etc.

Another issue that Australasian universities have to address is the question of how many international students they wish to admit to their institutions. Is there an "ideal" proportion, is there a point where the benefit of having international students on campus is compromised by having too many of them?

In spite of the many imponderables and caveats, the internationalisation of universities, and the marketing of university education to international students, is viewed positively by most universities in Australia and New Zealand. International students have added far more than financial benefits to our universities, and the effect of this new, enhanced international perspective on the teaching and research in many institutions, which is already considerable, has not yet reached its full potential.

6.   Selected Literature

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