MODULE 1: *HIGHER EDUCATION IN A GLOBAL WORLD: THE CONTEXT OF QUALITY ASSURANCE*

UNIT 3: INTERNATIONALISATION, GLOBALISATION AND CROSS-BORDER EDUCATION

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Introduction

This unit looks at the impact of globalisation of higher education and the consequent move to internationalisation of higher education institutions and services, leading to enhanced cross- border education. This new environment has resulted from increased international flows of capital and investment, goods and services, experts and other personnel, and knowledge and information. To a major extent, this development has been facilitated by the application and further development of new information and communications technology (ICT). Modern economies are increasingly based on the generation and application of new knowledge, with even traditional manufacturing and service industries being affected by the application of ICT.

The unit introduces the key concepts of globalisation and internationalisation, noting the various forms that internationalisation of higher education has taken. Attention is given to academic and student mobility and regulatory regimes for controlling incoming and outgoing delivery of education services. A final section discusses the implications for quality assurance.

On completion of the unit you will be able to:

- o discuss key concepts and ideas related to globalisation, internationalisation of education and cross-border education;
- o explore various forms that internationalisation of higher education and cross-border education have most commonly taken, and their accompanying regulatory regimes;
- o understand the importance of government and institutional policies ns encouragement relevant to internationalisation, cross-border cooperation and exchange of students and academics; and
- o identify implications for quality assurance and accreditation systems.

Part 1: Globalisation and Internationalisation

> *Readings:*
>
> *Knight 2004*
>
> *Harman 2004*

1.1 Globalisation and its Impact

Globalisation is one of the most dramatic economic and social developments of the past two decades. In turn, globalisation has prompted massive expansion in the internationalisation of higher education with the result that internationalisation can be justly described as one of the key new higher education trends for both developed and developing countries. While the two terms are often used interchangeably, it is important for the purpose of serious analysis to distinguish between them and to note how they relate to one another.

In essence, globalisation refers to economic and social relationships that are practiced beyond local and national entities and involve continental, meta-national, regional and world levels. Globalisation is expressed in the flows of ideas, images and people, or in the flows of money, goods and services. In simple terms, globalisation means simply becoming more global.

In contrast, internationalisation has been succinctly defined as 'the process of integrating an international, inter-cultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of tertiary education' (Knight 1994). The concept of internationalisation in the context of higher education or tertiary education is discussed in great detail in a later section. The two terms globalisation and internationalisation are related in various ways, but in particular internationalisation of higher education can be considered as one important impact of globalisation.

Globalisation and globalisation processes have been defined in various ways. Some scholars have seen the process of globalisation as a widening, deepening and speeding up of 'worldwide interconnectedness' (Held *et al* 1999). As a result of economic, technological and knowledge advances, countries and people are becoming increasingly integrated, irrespective of national boundaries.

Other scholars have conceptualised globalisation in the context of higher education in terms of the economic, political, and societal forces that are pushing 21st century institutions and learning and teaching towards greater international involvement. According to Altbach and Knight,

> *'Global capital has, for the first time, heavily invested in knowledge industries worldwide, including higher education and advanced training. This investment reflects the emergence of the 'knowledge society', the rise of the service sector, and the dependence of many societies on knowledge products and highly educated personnel for economic growth'* (Altbach & Knight 2007).

All nations today face major new challenges in a global environment where the role of knowledge is becoming increasingly important. Amongst the most critical dimensions of change are the convergent impacts of globalisation, the increasing importance of knowledge as a driver of growth, and the information and communication revolution.

Knowledge accumulation and application have become major factors in economic development and are increasingly recognised at the core of the competitive advantage of nations in the global economy. The ability of countries to select, adapt, commercialise and use knowledge is critical for sustained economic growth and improved living standards. Knowledge has become the single most important factor in economic development.

This new environment provides both opportunities and threats. On the positive side, the role of higher education in the construction of economies and democratic societies is more influential than ever. Another favourable development is emergence of new types of higher institutions and new forms of competition leading traditional institutions to change their modes of operation. On the negative side, technological transformation carries real dangers of growing digital and economic divides between and within nations.

1.2   Role of Higher Education in Global Societies

Higher education, and universities in particular, are more than the capstone of the traditional educational pyramid. As a World Bank study entitled, *Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education*, argues, tertiary education is a 'critical pillar of human development worldwide':

> *'In today's lifelong learning framework, tertiary education provides not only the high level skills necessary for every labour market but also training essential for doctors, lawyers etc. It is these trained personnel who develop the capacity and analytical skills that drive local economies, support civil society, teach children, lead effective governments, and make important decisions that affect entire societies. Universities are crucial but also so are other tertiary education institutions in public and private sectors which form a network of institutions that support the production of high-order capacity necessary for development'* (The World Bank 2002, p. ix).

Tertiary education and higher education thus have the ability to contribute to building capacity for participation in an increasingly knowledge based world economy. They also have the potential to enhance economic growth and in doing so to reduce poverty.

Universities in particular have a crucial role in the knowledge business. University staff members are actively involved in generating expert, specialized and theoretical knowledge. While universities are by no means the only place where new knowledge is discovered, their role is nevertheless distinctive. As Geiger explains:

> *'The broad teaching mandate of universities requires the development and maintenance of a large repository of basic knowledge. Teaching sustains the nexus between the frontiers of knowledge and a more general disciplinary base. Academic expertise also reproduces itself in universities through the training of new scholars – the universities' special role'* (Geiger 2004, p 7).

1.3 Knowledge and National Innovation Systems

Knowledge by itself does not transform economies, nor is there any guarantee of positive returns to investments in research and development or other products of tertiary education. Some countries clearly do better than others. This is because scientific and technological knowledge yields its greatest benefits when it is used within the complex system of institutions and practices known as national innovation systems.

A national innovation system is made up of a number of elements including: (a) knowledge producing organizations in the education and training system; (b) the appropriate macroeconomic and regulatory framework including trade policies that affect technology diffusion; (c) innovative firms and networks of enterprises; (d) adequate communication infrastructure, and (e) other factors such as access to the global knowledge base and particular market conditions that favour innovation.

In developing effective national innovation systems, governments have a most important role to play. Countries and their higher education institutions need to be proactive in fostering innovations and launching meaningful reforms within a coherent policy network. Scientific and academic collaboration is of crucial importance. Much of the international scientific community is open to cross-border collaboration since the progress of science still depends largely on freely-shared basic knowledge.

Part 2: Internationalisation of Higher Education

Readings:

Knight 2004

Harman 2004

Altbach & Knight 2007

2.1 What is Internationalisation?

As already noted, while the concept of globalisation refers to broad economic and social trends, the concept of internationalisation of higher education refers to what Knight calls 'the process of integrating an international, inter-cultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of tertiary education' (Knight 1994).

A key element in this definition of internationalisation is the idea of relationships between nations and people, thereby implying that the nation state is preserved as result of internationalisation. While the homogenisation of culture is often seen as a major issue of concern concerning globalisation, internationalisation is a different concept. However, as already noted, the two processes are linked, with one important linkage being the impact of globalisation on internationalisation of higher education.

Put simply, internationalisation is a process where higher education institutions and their functions are developed in a more international direction. It is much broader than the enrolment of international fee-paying students and involves scholarship, research and management issues as well as staff, student and curricula issues.

In practice, internationalisation of higher education usually refers to one or a combination of the following activities:

- o   The international movement of students between countries;
- o   The international movement of academic staff and researchers;
- o   Internationalisation of higher education curricula in order to achieve better understandings about other people and cultures, and competence in foreign languages;
- o   International links between nation states through open learning programs and new technologies;
- o   Bi-lateral links between governments and higher institutions in different countries for collaboration in research, curriculum development, student and staff exchange, and other international activities;

- o   Multi-nation collaboration such as via international organisation or through consortia such as Universitas Global; and

- o   Export education where education services are offered on a commercial basis in other countries.

While all these aspects of internationalisation are important, the tremendous recent growth in the numbers of international students often receives prime attention. Unit 1 of this module outlines figures on enrolments in some detail but in summary, OECD data show that the world number of international higher education students multiplied by three between 1985 and 2006 and now exceeds the 2.9 million students (OECD 2008 p.249). France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive in total 49% of all foreign students worldwide, while the largest absolute numbers of international students from OECD countries are from France, Germany, Japan and Korea. International students make up more that 15% of total enrolments in tertiary education in Australia and New Zealand while international student make up more than 20% of enrolments in advanced research programs in Belgium, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Over the past couple of decades, different scholars have defined the term internationalisation of higher education in different ways, often putting emphasis in different elements. This understandably has led to considerable confusion. For some people, internationalisation means various international activities such as mobility of students and academics, international partnerships and international research linkages. For others, internationalisation is primarily about cross-national delivery of courses, branch campuses and franchising. Still others think of internationalisation in terms of introducing international dimensions in university curricula or trade in higher education services.

Knight (2004) has traced the evolution of the concept of internationalisation over the past couple of decades. In the late 1980s, internationalisation was commonly defined at the institutional level in terms of a defined set of activities. By the mid-1990s, a process or organisational approach as suggested by Knight was in common use. As already noted, this defined internationalisation as the 'process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into teaching, research and service functions of the institution' (Knight 1994). Van der Wende (1997) pointed to limitations with an institutional-based definition and thus suggested a broader definition in terms of 'any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy and labour market' (Van der Wende 1997, p. 18).

More recently, others have suggested definitions focussing on the education change process and a holistic view of management at the institutional level. Against this background, more recently Knight (2003; 2004) suggested an updated version of her original definition of internationalisation at the national/sector/institution levels. She sees internationalisation as 'the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education' (Knight 2004). Knight sees both definitions as not being in conflict but being complementary.

Exercise 1:

How do leading scholars and government ministries in your country define the internationalisation of higher education? What do you see as the main advantages and limitations of what scholars refer to as a process or institutional definition? How would you define internationalisation?

2.2   *Growing Importance of Internationalisation*

Over the past decade, interest in internationalisation of higher education has grown to an impressive extent. A number of factors have prompted this interest. In the first place, the economic dimensions of globalisation have produced growing demands for international employment skills and for professionals and other workers who are competent in mastering foreign languages and adjusting to new cultural environments. This has put pressure on higher education to produce professionals with different skills and orientations. In addition, global economic integration has led to growing internationalisation of the labour market, particularly for the highly skilled in such professions as engineering, law, computer science and accounting. This, is turn, has led to the globalisation of some professions and internationally recognised qualifications.

Second, the internationalisation of the labour market has meant an increasing demand for professionals and trained technicians in areas relevant to the new economy. In a number of cases, employers must look abroad to recruit talent and expertise. In a number of countries, internationalisation can be seen as a longer-term skill development strategy through the attraction of international students with a view to subsequent immigration for some of them (Santiago *et al* 2008, p 236).

Third, demographic changes have triggered enhanced interest in internationalisation with the need to match the output of graduates to employer needs. However, such changes have impacted in different ways over time. Some OECD countries, for example, had massive expansions of higher education in the 1980s but now with declining enrolments have used internationalisation as one means to compensate for decreased enrolments and thus to keep higher education institutions viable. On the other hand, a number of expanding economies in Asia have seen international student enrolments in other countries as a viable short-term alternative to massive expansion of national provision.

Fourth, the emergence of higher education export industries in some OECD countries has heightened awareness of the trade value of internationalisation. The various international negotiations on the liberalisation of education services reflect the fact that the expansion of international student enrolments has had a growing impact on the national balance of payments in a number of countries. Moreover, a small number of Asian countries that in past sent large numbers of students for overseas study and now attempting to attract international students from other countries.

Fifth, the growing demand for graduates with qualifications having strong international perspectives has led to increased awareness of the importance of international perspectives in curriculum and for students to have had exposure to different cultures in order to develop intercultural skills and competencies.

Sixth, and finally, internationalisation contributes to building strong links between countries that are involved in student exchange and sponsored or fee-paying international education. This, in turn, can produce significant economic, trade and cultural benefits as generally former international students wish to maintain close links to the country of study throughout their careers.

2.3   Different Forms of Internationalisation

Although student and staff mobility and international fee-paying students are two more obvious and well-publicised forms of internationalisation, they are by no means the only forms. Rather, internationalisation takes many different forms and, as already noted, sometimes there is no agreement about what internationalisation means in practice. Knight (2004) acknowledges that the term internationalisation is interpreted and used in different ways in different countries and by different stakeholders, and so advocates use of the terms 'international', 'intercultural' and 'global' to reflect the breadth of the term internationalisation. Not surprisingly, internationalisation is often defined by reference to its particular expressions or forms.

This section discusses a number of major forms that internationalisation takes, including the convergence of higher education and expansion in the various forms of degree and qualification recognition, internationalisation of curricula and delivery, people mobility, fee-paying and sponsored student enrolments, and institution and program mobility.

(1)   Convergence of Systems and International Recognition

One major impact of internationalisation that often is not fully appreciated is the pressure created to enhance the transparency and inter-operability of tertiary education systems. This is being achieved through streamlining national degree structures and the development of new mechanisms for recognising credits and qualifications earned elsewhere.

This convergence has been most clearly evident in Europe where on the basis of the Bologna Declaration of June 1999 by 29 European Ministers for Education serious efforts are being made to establish a European Higher Education Area by 2010. Key elements are efforts to enhance the comparability and compatibility of higher education degree structures and degrees in Europe in order to increase the employability of European higher (Bologna Secretariat 2008). The Bologna Declaration proposed to adopt a system of easily understood and comparable degree structures based on a common two-cycle degree structure. More recently, doctorates were added making it a three-cycle structure.

The Bologna Process has been of considerable importance internationally as a number of countries outside the EU have endorsed the Bologna Declaration and have joined the process of reform. Today a total of 46 countries are participants. In addition, the Bologna Process now includes involves the European Commission, the Council of Europe and UNESCO-CEPES, as well as representatives of higher education institutions, students, staff, employers and quality assurance agencies.

Other important aspects of the Bologna reforms include credit transfer systems allowing students to gain credit for study undertaken at other institutions and the Diploma Supplement that provides enhanced documentation being issued to students at the point of graduation. The Diploma Supplement provides enhanced documentation about the studies undertaken and detail about the higher education institution and the national system of which is forms a part.   In 2009, Australian universities and other higher education institutions will be implementing an Australian version of the Diploma Supplement to the called the Australian Higher Education Graduation Statement.

Other geographic regions and their leaders are beginning to take important initiatives in terms of increased inter-country cooperation. For example, APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation) Ministers of Meeting are meeting on a regular basis while for a decade ASEM (Asia Europe Meeting) has provided higher education and science policy linkages between South East Asian and European nations.

(2) Internationalisation of Curricula and Delivery

Internationalisation of curricula and delivery, often referred to as 'internationalisation at home', constitutes an exciting but difficult form of internationalisation of higher education. The aim is to prepare students to develop as internationally competent professionals and citizens, sensitive to inter-cultural and language issues and well being able to adapt to new work situations in different settings. These developments have been prompted by the large numbers of international students on university campuses and by recognition of increased rates of international graduate mobility.   From a policy perspective, for OECD countries it is highly desirable that domestic students be prepared for international employment since less than 4% of tertiary students from OECD countries are currently enrolled abroad (OECD 2008, p 362).

While the actual extent of the substantial internationalisation of curricula appears to be limited, there are some 'light-house' examples of impressive innovation. For example, in Australia, a number of universities have put considerable effort into incorporation of international and intercultural perspectives into their curricula and adoption of inclusive pedagogy. Good examples of successful innovation are at Curtin University, and include the areas of health education promotion, social work, mining, agribusiness, culture, science and pharmacy (e.g. Collins 1997; Graham & Govindarajalu 1997).   Another example is at the University of South Australia where the Flexible Learning Centre is providing support to academic staff and departments in internationalising courses so that graduates will develop an international perspective. This Centre is also devising ways to assist both international and Australian students to work more effectively together (Leask

2001; and 2002). The Flexible Learning Centre of the University of South Australia has available impressive resource materials to assist staff (University of South Australia 2002a; and 2002b) while the Division of Business and Enterprise at the same university has completed a project imbedding international perspectives in a property course.

Language teaching can be of vital importance for those students who wish to work abroad but lack relevant foreign language skills. This need has led to a major emphasis on teaching English in non-English speaking countries. Now many non-English speaking European countries teach particularly postgraduate programs in English. Some non-English speaking countries such as Korea require proficiency in foreign languages for a graduate degree (Santiago 2008, p. 258).

Effective internationalisation of curricula poses significant challenges for higher education institutions and their staff. Clearly imagination, drive and resources are essential, as is strong institutional or faculty commitment. While many scholars in the field acknowledge the importance of internationalisation of curricula, there is some resistance from those who fear development of a uniform market-driven curriculum and the spread of mono-cultural and Anglo-centric views (De Vita & Case 2003). Another difficulty relates to the obvious limitations in developing international curricula based on classroom activities without inclusion of active cross-cultural interaction.

(3) <u>People Mobility</u>

Student and academic mobility have been traditional aspects of university life for centuries. In the late medieval period, scholars moved from place to place while even then some students moved to undertake studies in centres of specialised learning. However, since the Second World War, both student and academic mobility have increased, often with strong encouragement and support of both governments and higher education institutions.

Mobility of individuals across national borders takes many forms including attracting foreign students either as sponsored or fee-paying students, attracting academics and R&D workers, sending students abroad for undergraduate or postgraduate study, or staff exchanges and visits. For convenience, such mobility is conveniently discussed under the headings of student mobility, study abroad and academic mobility.

In many countries, governments take an active interest in student and staff mobility. Many developing countries, for instance, have programs to assist students or government employees to undertake university courses or specialised training abroad while amongst developing nations there are various multi-lateral programs, such as the Erasmus and Nordplus programs in Europe and in the Nordic and Baltic States respectively.

(a) Student Mobility

The impressive recent growth in student mobility is well documented by the OECD and specialist scholars in the field. However, there are some limitations with enrolment data, especially as in some cases figures relate to what is referred to as 'international students' while in other cases data refer to what are referred to as 'foreign students'. In statistical collections, many national governments use the term 'foreign students' or 'non-domestic students' whereas ideally international student mobility should measure students who have crossed national borders for the purpose of study,

However, despite data limitations, it is clear from OECD statistics that international student mobility has increased greatly over the past three decades from 0.6 million worldwide in 1975 to 2.9 million in 2006 (OECD 2008, p 249). Moreover, in recent years there has been a rapid acceleration in student mobility, with a doubling of foreign students since 1995. Market research forecasts that international students mobility will reach 5.8 million by 2020 and 8 millions by 2025 (Santiago et al 2008, p. 243) although the Australian Education IDP has forecast 15 million international students by 2025 (Attach & Knight 2007, p 303).

The distribution of international students varies considerably between countries. France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive 49% per cent of all foreign students worldwide. International students constitute 25% of total students in Australia while international students make up more than 20% of enrolments in advanced research programs in Belgium, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Growth rates in international students also vary considerably between countries. Compared to 2000, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education more than doubled in the Czech Republic, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Spain.   While the United States remains the largest destination for foreign students, since 2001 with new visa requirements following 7/11 the number of foreign students has been reduced.

Choice of country for study seems to be influenced by a number of factors but particularly important is language of instruction with many students opting for an English speaking country or for programs taught in English. Given this pattern, an increasing proportion of non-English speaking countries now offer particularly graduate courses in English. Other important factors in choice of country for foreign study are the level of tuition fees and the cost of living.   Traditionally, a number of European countries charged international students no tuition fees, although Denmark and Finland recently have begun to levy tuition fees for non-EU and non-EEA students.

Substantial 'full-cost' tuition fees are charged by a number of countries including the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and New Zealand. According to the OECD publication, *Education at the Glance 2008*,

'Countries that charge their international students the full cost of education reap significant trade benefits. Several countries in the Asia-Pacific region have actually made international education an explicit part of their socio-economic development strategies and have initiated policies to attract international students on a revenue-generating or at least self-financing basis. Australia and New Zealand have successfully adopted differentiated tuition fees for international students' (OECD 2008, p 357).

(b) Study Abroad and Student Exchange

Study abroad refers to organised academic program of study whereby students study at an overseas institution for one or two semesters (or less) gaining full credit for the work completed and assessed. The aim is to give the opportunity to study in another country in order to gain a rich cultural and possibly language experience and also in some cases to gain professional experience in very different work setting. Student exchange is similar except that generally exchange students simply pay their regular tuition fees at their home institution. While student exchange programs often meet important needs, their use is often limited by institutional requirements that each participating institution send approximately the same number of students on exchange.

Study abroad programs are best developed by American universities, many of which give a high priority to encouraging and assisting students with study abroad plans. Some universities such as Stanford University in California operate their own campuses in other countries to facilitate students securing appropriate study abroad experience, while many other universities have study abroad offices to help students negotiate units of study that will carry credit towards their degrees. Study abroad options include summer courses, intensive language courses and summer internships in professional fields. Overall, in 2006-2007, a total of 241,791 American students were involved in study abroad programs. More than 8,000 United States students enrolled in study abroad programs at Australian universities in 2006, accounting for almost 70% of total American enrolments in Australian universities.

Apart from the United States, most countries that attract large numbers of foreign students have relatively poor records of outward student mobility. Despite considerable institutional encouragement, in most OECD countries the numbers of students who study abroad is relatively small and in OECD countries generally only about 4% study at all levels in another country.

(c) Academic Mobility

In contrast to student mobility, data are much scarcer about the international mobility of academic staff and there substantial variations in terms of both institutional and government policies between countries. A further complicating factor is that academic mobility takes many forms, varying from long-term mobility and employment overseas to short-term overseas visits lasting only a few days or weeks.

Long-term employment in other countries varies according to the policies of particular governments. While some countries allow open recruitment of foreign nationals, other countries give priority in making academic appointments to national staff and may allow foreign recruitment only in circumstances where there are demonstrated shortages. Countries which have high proportions of foreign academics include Switzerland where a third of academics and foreign, the Netherlands where 25 % in research universities are foreign and the United Kingdom where 17% are foreign (Santiago 2008, p 245). Marginson and van der Wende (2007) note that there is no clear increase in longer-term academic migration, with the possible exception of mobility to the United States mainly in science and technology fields.

A large number of countries allow their tenured staff to work abroad for limited periods while guaranteeing the hold the home position. However, in many countries, the main forms of internationalisation of academics comprise short-term leave, exchange visits, and research collaboration. Staff in leading research-intensive universities tend to be highly mobile especially for conference attendance and research collaboration.

Exercise 2:

Choose three different countries, not all from the same region, and try to find out about their approaches to the internationalisation of higher education. Of the three countries you study, try to map the various dimensions of internationalisation and assess which appear to be the most important or successful activities. In this task, you may find useful the categorisation of internationalisation in this unit.

Part 2.4   Fee Paying and Sponsored Student Enrolments

Readings:

Harman 2004

OECD 2005

As mentioned earlier, a number of OECD countries recruit international students to earn profits by charging high tuition fees. Leading examples of this development of 'export education' are the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and New Zealand. In addition, universities in Hong Kong, Singapore and South Africa are developing their markets in export education, while a number of European nations that traditionally did not charge tuition fees for foreign students are now levying charges on non-EU and Non-EEA international students (Harman 2004; 2005).

With export education, tuition fees are paid by students and/or their families but also by government ministries and universities in developing countries as well as by international and national aid agencies. Tuition fees vary between different types of courses, with the highest charges often being levied for courses in the areas of medicine, veterinary science

and science. According to OECD data, the average tuition fees for international students varied in 2005 from a high for the United States of about US$13,500 pa to a low of between US$9,000 pa and US$10,000 pa for Canada and New Zealand. Australian universities, on average, charged about US$11,500 pa while the average fees for British Universities varied from a low of about US$10,000 pa to a high of about US$18,000 pa (Santiago et al 2008, p.250: OECD 2008, p 356). While in recent years there have been efforts to diversify the sources of fee-paying international students, nearly 80% still come from Asian countries.

International fee-paying students generate consider income for their higher education institutions and countries. In Australia, for example, education services exports have grown at the average rate of around 14 % in volume terms since 1982, with their value of total exports increasing from less than 1 % to almost 6 % in 2007. They have now displaced leisure travel services as Australia's largest service export. Indeed, education exports are now Australia's third largest export, behind coal and iron ore. About 97 % of the $12.6 billion of education services exported in 2007 was delivered onshore through foreign student studying in Australia (Reserve Bank of Australia 2008).

International fee-paying students are also an important source of revenue for the Canadian universities and economy. It is estimated that international students contribute over US$4.2 billion annually to the Canadian economy, in addition to tuition fees. In 2006, there were a total of 156,955 international students in Canada, of whom 83,000 were studying in higher education. Foreign students represented about 7% of full-time undergraduate students and about 20% of full-time graduate students (*World Education News & Reviews* 2007).

In a number of cases, an important motivation for students enrolling in fee-paying and sponsored study as a foreign student in a western country is the possibility of immigration to the country of study. According Kemp et al (1998), almost half the international students from Indonesia and Taiwan see study abroad as the first step toward subsequent immigration to the country of study. On the other hand, even when foreign students initially have no thoughts of later immigration, incentives from host institutions and their staff often lure international students to stay, or return after a period of professional work in their home countries.

Exercise 3:

What is your view of the practice of some OECD countries of recruiting large numbers of fee-paying international students? What arguments are advanced to support this practice and what counter arguments do critics suggest? What is your view?

2.5 Institution and Program Mobility

Over the past 15 years, new forms of internationalisation have emerged in the form of mobility across border of higher education institutions and their programs. These forms of delivery that are often referred to as cross-border or trans-national education have the common feature of students being located in a different country from where the qualification awarding institution is based.

The forms include distance education courses offered by higher education providers located in another country, joint programs offered between a local provider and a foreign institution, franchised courses offered with or without involvement of staff members from the parent institution, and foreign campuses of institutions developed with our without local partnerships. (See Unit 1 discussion of Virtual Higher Education Institutions)

Australian universities had a total of 1002 'offshore programs' with overseas institutions in 2007. The number of offshore programs grew from 307 in 1996 to 1569 in 2003 but since then there has been some decline in the number of programs. The largest number of offshore programs in rank order were in Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong and China. More than 70% are in Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong (Universities Australia 2007). 'Offshore' students constitute about 30% of Australian international student enrolments.

Institution and program mobility are often linked to people mobility as with a number of models where academic staff teach on foreign campuses or in partnership arrangements. Another variant is where some students study for periods in their own country before completing their courses on the home campus of the particular foreign university.

(1)   International Distance Education

Today a high proportion of major distance education providers offer their courses to international students located in their home countries. In some cases, course delivery is entirely by mailed print material supplemented by emails and telephone calls but increasingly course delivery is primarily by electronic means.

A common model with a number of providers is use of combination of distance education delivery combined with other services offered by a local partner who takes responsibility for student recruitment, student support and tutorials, with possibly some visits by staff of the foreign university. In some cases this model is referred to as 'blended learning'. Within the 'blended learning' model, students generally meet in face-to-face instruction, and then have opportunities to communicate by open dialogue, experience critical debate, and essentially participate in a variety of forms of communication in a 'safe' setting.

(2)   Twinning, Pathway Programs and Franchising

These models refer to various kinds of partnerships between foreign higher education institutions and local universities, colleges or private firms. Under the twinning and pathway models, students complete the early years of their course in their home country and then complete their study program on the home campus of the institution providing the award. In some cases, foreign universities give credit or advanced standing for completed units of study in the programs of local institutions while in other cases local institutions teach curricula of the foreign universities under some kind of franchise agreement.

Under other forms of franchising agreements, local institutions teach the curriculum of a foreign partner institution. In many cases, this involves access to detailed curriculum and study materials together with training for staff. In some cases, staff from the foreign institution may assist with teaching and/or assessment.

Twinning, pathways and franchising have been often assisted by restrictions in a number of developing countries on private colleges offering their degrees. For example, according to Lee (2003), in Malaysia private colleges are not allowed to confer degrees, while many private universities lacked the expertise to design their own curricula when they were first established in the mid-1990s. Yet demand was strong for these degree programs and professional courses in the education market. Therefore, many private higher education institutions established formal arrangements with foreign universities to offer their educational programs, ranging from certificate courses to postgraduate programs. For local institutions, such international linkages represented an effective means of acquiring and delivering additional or new courses at minimal cost. Furthermore, they provided local institutions with the opportunity to enhance staff development in new fields of study.

(3) 'Offshore' Campuses

A number of major exporters of international education have established branch campuses in other countries. Most offshore campuses to date are located in Asian countries, although there are a number of cases of major universities setting up campuses elsewhere, including in major developed countries. For example, the Chicago Business School has campuses in London and Singapore while Carnegie Mellon University has a small-scale campus in Adelaide.

The Australian Monash University has small-scale study centre campuses in Prato in Italy and London, and major campuses in Johannesburg in South Africa and Bandar Sunway in Malaysia while RMIT University in Melbourne in 2001 opened RMIT International University in Ho Chi Minh City, being the first private overseas university in Vietnam.

In some cases, the establishment of off-shore campuses has been supported by assistance from governments in the country of location or by loan funding from international donor agencies and private benefactors. For instance, in Adelaide Carnegie Mellon University has been effectively indemnified against loss by the South Australian Government while RMIT International had access to substantial loan funds provided by the Finance Corporation of the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank, and has been supported generously by private donors.

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The number of 'offshore' campuses established by major foreign universities has increased rapidly over the past two decades. By 2006, the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education identified just over 80 such campuses. Most offered degree level provision but only a relatively small number offered the PhD and other research-based courses (Verbik 2006). Two-thirds of campuses offered study in a single disciplinary area such as IT or management. While American institutions continued to dominate in the establishment of offshore campuses, Australia and the United Kingdom have also been most active in this type of development.

Verbik (2006) identified three main approaches to establishing offshore campuses: self-funded; externally funded; and funded through the provision of facilities and infrastructure by a third party. Of the 68 offshore campuses where the funding model could be identified, Verbik reported that 37% were funded solely by the home institution. However, it seems that this model is declining in popularity as institutions seek partners and other funding sources. Some 35% of those for which the funding model could be identified depended on external funding usually from the host government and government agencies. Examples are Carnegie Mellon's campuses in Adelaide and the University of Nottingham's campus in Ningbo, China. The third model is also becoming more common whereby facilities and infrastructure is provided by a commercial partner. Examples are the recent development of the Knowledge Village in Dubai, and campuses in the United Arab Emirates and the Education City in Qatar. The main advantage of this model is a major reduction in the start-up funds required, but the downside is reduced measures of control by the home institution and the possibility of unexpected changes in the financial relations with the partner, particularly the amount of rent or profit share going the commercial partner.

(4) Joint or Dual Degrees

Joint or dual degrees in the some fields of study have become increasingly common especially with elite MBA programs and PhD degrees, although there are a number of cases of jointly badged undergraduate degrees in professional areas. Under these arrangements, degrees are taught by both partner institutions and the final qualification is either jointly awarded or both partners separately award qualifications. While there are cases of joint or dual degrees being offered by partner institutions in the same country, such qualifications often have greater appeal when they are offered by leading institutions from different countries and regions. Their main appeal is that they draw on the combined expertise of two institutions and in the case of professional degrees such as the MBA provide students with active learning experiences related to different parts of the world.

A possible typology has been suggested by Williams (2005) to describe the nature of awards resulting from joint and dual degree programs offered by two institutions (institution A and institution B) is as follows:

> o a single award from one of the participating institutions (either from A or B);

- dual awards (one from A and one from B); or
- a joint award (one award from AB).

Examples of joint and dual degrees are the joint Executive MBA offered by University of California Los Angeles and the National University of Singapore, the full-time IMBA offered by the National University of Singapore and Peking University, and the dual MBA offered by Peking University and Seoul National University. At the undergraduate level, the University of Melbourne and the National University of Singapore in 2003 agreed to offer a jointly badged civil engineering undergraduate degree.

In a number of European countries governments and European Education Ministers through the Bologna process have encouraged joint degrees. The Berlin Communiqué of 2003 called for action to support the recognition of such degrees while at the same time the European Union, with the Erasmus Mundus program, took the initiative to support a large number of European institutions in establishing and delivering joint master's degrees that involve a minimum of three higher education institutions from at least three different member states. In addition, UK higher education institutions are increasingly engaging in joint degrees with international partners either as a result of individual institutional initiative or within national sponsored programs, such as the BRiDGE2 program that supports bilateral agreements between UK and Russian higher education institutions dual award joint degree programs.

A recent American and European experience with joint and dual degrees found that European institutions are about twice as likely as American institutions to offer such degrees, that American students are less likely that European students to participate in collaborative degree programs, and the most popular academic collaborative degrees are in business, management and engineering (Institute of International Education 2009).

> Exercise 4:
>
> What do you see as the possible benefits and challenges with joint-, double- and combined degree programs. Does your country allow domestic universities to legally confer a joint qualification in partnership with a foreign institution? If so, how do key stakeholders view such arrangements and is there any concern about double counting for the same course credits and workload for two or more qualifications?

2.6 National Experiences in Hosting International Students

> *Readings:*
>
> *Harman 2004*

(1) Overview

National experiences of both exporting and recipient countries with international students vary greatly. Among recipient countries, there are striking differences between those who attract most students on a tuition fee basis and those countries (especially in Europe) that offer international students free tuition or at least treat international students on the same basis as domestic students. There also are striking differences between those countries where governments have firm policies of encouraging and facilitating the recruitment of large numbers of international students and have endeavoured to set in place a suitable regulatory framework especially to ensure quality and to protect the interests of international students, and those countries that lack an effective national policy for internationalisation of higher education. Similarly, countries that send large numbers of students for study overseas study vary in terms of government financial and other support provided to students. Countries also vary in terms of policies for allowing international providers to operate within their borders.

In this section, the experience of Australia and Canada will be compared. Both are important destination countries for overseas students, and both charge tuition fees that are considerably higher for international students compared with domestic students. However, the most striking differences relates to the role of national governments in facilitating and regulating student recruitment and tuition, and in the national services provided to universities and to international students.

International education in Australia in terms of student recruitment has gone through two distinct phases. As mentioned earlier, the first phase was characterised by international student recruitment and support as educational aid and the second by seeing international students primarily as a form of educational trade. In 1990, further intakes of subsidised international students ceased and from that time all new overseas students have been required to pay the full cost of their education, except that in particular circumstances where fees are covered by a government or university scholarship. Universities from then on could accept overseas students only if they charged fees at full cost. The Australian Government actively encouraged universities to recruit international students and set up mechanisms to facilitate student recruitment and developed a new national regulatory regime to ensure quality and protect the interests of students.

The results of such strong Australian Government leadership together with considerable enthusiasm of individual higher education institutions led to a dramatic increase in international student enrolments. By 2007, Australia ranked as the fifth largest recipient of overseas higher education students among OECD countries and the third largest English-speaking destination for overseas students behind the United States and the United Kingdom. Further, Australia has the highest proportion of international students as a percentage of tertiary type A enrolments of OECD countries (OECD 2008, p. 366).

Australian universities see major benefits from their involvement in recruitment of international students.

(1)   In the first place, recruitment of overseas students provides Australian universities with substantial income in fees and charges, and contributes significantly to Australia's export income. The export value of Australian education was AUD$14.2 billion in the financial year 2007-2008, including fees and charges (Review of Australian Higher Education 2008, p. 87). Of this, higher education contributes well over 50 per cent. More than half of the AUD$14.2 billion earnings come from the top five source countries of China, India, South Korea, Malaysia and Hong Kong.

(2) A second benefit is that the presence of large numbers of international students on university campuses is considered to help domestic students gain better understandings of other cultures, especially those within the Asia Pacific region.

(3)   Internationalisation of the curriculum is important in assisting domestic students gain relevant professional skills with international recognition, and the ability to undertake professional work in different countries.

(4)   Internationalisation helps Australian universities offer courses of international quality and with a broad international focus. The shift to a knowledge economy requires a well-educated workforce as the key to economic growth, increased productivity, global competitiveness and social progress.

(5)   Internationalisation helps achieve a national workforce that is increasingly part of a global workforce, able to access continuing education and work-based training of international standards.

(6)   Finally, international benchmarking helps higher education institutions achieve recognised international standards in both teaching and research.

The benefits of international of higher education are well recognised by Australian universities. For example, in various submissions to government enquiries leading Australian universities identify the benefits of internationalisation as including increased understanding of other cultures and a broadening of scholarship by Australian students who participate in exchange programs, benefits to the wider community from the presence of overseas students, enhancement of university research through international collaboration, and financial benefits from export education. According to one senior University Executive, Australian universities have to position themselves strategically because of the important benefits that flow from internationalisation:

> *'They have to cater for today's students who will be part of an internationally mobile workforce and who want international curricula and degree recognition; they have to be good enough to appeal to, attract and satisfy international students; they have to give Australian students authentic overseas educational opportunities; they have to be internationally competent enough to deliver*

education programs in foreign countries; they have to be internationally competent enough to engage in international research working with researchers overseas; they have to build networks and relationships with other international universities; and, most importantly, they have to be internationally competitive for the best researchers, the best teachers and the best students. Australian universities have to do all these things and more because, in an internationally competitive environment, international visibility, recognition and status are the basis on which their long term viability and success will be sustained' (Porter 2002).

On the other hand, as the literature on internationalisation of higher education makes clear, there are some drawbacks or at least issues of concern. Particularly important is the possibility that in some situations the quality of academic programs could be comprised, especially if inadequate care is taken in ensuring that overseas students have appropriate levels of competence in English language. While student surveys demonstrate high levels of student satisfaction with their courses, international students are less satisfied with their social relations with domestic students. Another issue of concern is that some institutions could be vulnerable in the event of a sudden decrease in demand. A forecast prepared by IDP Education in 2007 projected demand for international student places would grow by 4.25% per year to 2010, then slow down to 3% per year to 2015 (Review of Higher Education 2008, p. 91). Of particular concern are those institutions that are heavily dependent on international student enrolments and tuition fee income. In 2007, Central Queensland University depended on overseas student fees for 44% of its total revenue while another six universities depended on overseas student fees for between 20% and 31% of their total revenue (Review of Australian Higher Education 2008, p. 92).

The Canadian experience differs in a number of respects but particularly because there has been no overarching national approach or federal government agency active in facilitating internationalisation. Canada has a highly decentralised higher education system to the extent that there has never been a federal department of education or an integrated national higher education policy. Instead, in the Canadian federation, under the constitution responsibility for education is assigned to the provinces. Viewing education as a local responsibility is common among federal political systems, but few have maintained such complete local authority over education as Canada. While the Canadian federal government now provides considerable financial support for education, these funds are available for the various provinces and territories to use as they choose.

This political framework poses considerable challenges for the internationalisation of Canadian higher education, especially as foreign policy and international trade are in the hands of the federal government. Higher education providers have faced particular difficulties in coordination of international student recruitment, international scholarship agreements and even with regard to terms and conditions of visas for international students. There is no national strategy for internationalisation and no national marketing effort. Instead it left to the various provinces and their higher education providers to handle marketing and student recruitment. On the other hand, this has meant that there are few restrictions in the way of enterprising universities. Further, unlike Australian peers,

Canadian universities have not been pressured to view international students as a mechanism of revenue generation.

Despite the political impediments, Canadian universities have been remarkably successful in building up substantial international student enrolments. Canada ranks in fifth place after the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Australia in terms of total international students enrolled but in Canadian universities international students comprise only about half the proportion that international students comprise in Australian universities (OECD 2008). In 2006, Canada had a total of 156,955 international students of which about 83,000 were enrolled in higher education courses. Foreign students represent about 7% of full-time undergraduate students and about 20% of full-time students at the graduate level. The largest source countries of international students are in rank order Korea, China, France, Japan and the United States. The Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs and International trade in 2007 estimated that international students contribute over C$4 billion per year to the national economy.

In Canada, most international students study in English except for programs offered in Quebec. Tuition fees for international students are substantially higher than for domestic students, and the main sources for international students tend to be Asian countries. According to OECD data, Canada has among the highest concentrations of international students in the fields of agriculture, sciences and engineering (OECD 2008, p. 360).

> Exercise 5:
>
> Assess the effectiveness of how universities and colleges in your country host international students. In your assessment, consider the quality and relevance of courses provided, the provision of advance information to prospective students, evidence about student satisfaction and social interaction with domestic students, and any information on destination of graduates.

(2) Regulatory Regimes

> *Readings:*
>
> *Altbach & Knight 2007*
>
> *OECD 2005*

The rapid expansion in various aspects of internationalisation has prompted governments to establish regulatory frameworks to facilitate the development of particular aspects of internationalisation and provide protection for particular groups especially students. Examples of such regulation relate, for example, to legislation relating to the language of instruction, the recruitment of fee-paying international students and the establishment of campuses of foreign universities or the establishment of partnerships between local providers and foreign universities.

The delivery of higher education programs in a foreign language is permitted in many European and number of Asian countries. Teaching courses in English, for example, is permitted in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. Belgium allows tertiary education institutions to deliver part of postgraduate programs in English. In Europe the growth of English-language instruction has been fostered by the restructuring of degree courses as part of the Bologna process.

Major providers of fee-paying international students have established regulatory frameworks, mainly relating to student visas and work permits; institutions licensed to provide courses for international students; and the protection of student interests and the reputation of higher education in the country. Thus the Commonwealth Government in Australia regulates the involvement of those higher education institutions with overseas students studying on student visas through the Education Services for Overseas Students (ESOS) legislative framework. This protects Australia's reputation for delivering quality education services and the interests of overseas students by setting minimum standards and providing tuition and financial assurance. The legislation mandates a nationally consistent approach to registering education providers so that the quality of tuition and care for students remains high. This legislation is supported by ESOS legislation's interface with immigration law, and by the National Code of Practice for International Students that was revised in 2007 (Australian Education International 2009).

All four main receiving countries for university students in the English-speaking world – Australia, Canada, the UK and the USA –have restrictions on entry and employment for foreign nationals and, since the attacks on the World Trade Centre and the London bombings, reports suggest that visas for students from some countries might be harder to come by or, at very least, subject to greater scrutiny and long delays. Some American universities, for example, are planning to pay the visa fee to counter a perception that students are not welcome to study in the United States. Meanwhile, Australia has closed some of its student recruitment offices overseas to focus on the core Asian market. Developments are also taking place in other parts of the world, with increased competition from the Singapore hub, universities in northern Europe offering courses taught in English, and new opportunities to stay and study in your own home country (The Complete University Guide 2008).

Many Asian countries require approval for foreign universities to teach via partnerships with local colleges or universities, or to develop separate campuses either alone or in combination with local firms. For example, in Vietnam the establishment of private universities by foreigners is subject to strict conditions regulated by a decision of the Prime Minister in 2005. However, RMIT International was established under legislation relating to the establishment for foreign firms and it was required to comply with the Law on Foreign Investment (Hayden & Dao forthcoming).

2.7   Implications for Quality Assurance

Readings:

Altbach & Knight 2007

OECD 2005

The recent rapid internationalisation of higher education in its various forms poses major challenges for quality assurance and accreditation, especially in terms of ensuring the quality of education provision and services, and protection of participants involved in international activities. These issues face governments, quality agencies and higher education institutions, both in developed and developing countries.

Five particular issues may require attention:

(1)   First, there is the <u>regulatory environment</u> both in home and foreign countries from which students are recruited and where branch campuses or franchises may operate. Many OECD countries appear not yet to have in place appropriate regulatory or accreditation systems to ensure that only registered or accredited institutions offer higher education courses for international students. In a number of cases, while the regulatory framework is adequate in dealing with domestic institutions, loopholes allow foreign providers to operate without adequate safeguards. Regulatory frameworks should also provide safeguards for international students enrolled at branch campuses, partnerships or franchises in other countries. Apart from having appropriate regulatory frameworks, it is necessary to seek evidence that requirements are being met and that any framework includes suitable monitoring and reporting mechanisms.

(2)   The second issue is how regulators and participating universities actually assure the <u>quality of courses</u> offered to international students, especially in off-shore sites and in partnerships with new and private commercial companies. According to Altbach and Knight, many countries lack the regulatory systems to register or evaluate out-of country providers:

> *'Regulatory frameworks for quality assurance or accreditation, even when they exist, usually do not apply to providers outside the national education system. This loophole permits bona fide and rogue foreign providers to avoid compliance with national regulations in many countries and makes monitoring their activities difficult. The registration or licensing of foreign providers raises numerous questions. Do criteria or conditions depend or whether providers are part of and recognised by a national education system in their home countries. Do different rules apply if the provider is for-profit or non-profit, private of public, an institution or company? What rules apply to companies that establish institutions in foreign countries and have no home-base presence?' (Altbach & Knight 2007, pp. 300-301).*

Historically, national quality assurance agencies in OECD countries did not assess the quality of imported and exported programs. But many have been forced to take action, particularly by the initiatives of governmental bodies in Hong Kong, Israel, Malaysia and

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South Africa as receivers of cross-border education, and so have developed systems to register and monitor the quality of foreign provision. Despite impressive academic achievements by many international students, issues are often raised about academic standards and levels of achievement. The most common allegations relate to academic entry standards, language skills and plagiarism.

(3) Another important issue within OECD countries is about the suitability and rigour of the <u>internal quality assurance</u> mechanisms of major providers of international education. This suggests that questions need to be raised about the suitability of international quality assurance mechanisms and about the kind of evidence employed to assess to demonstrate quality. Increasingly a number of major providers are demonstrating innovative ways of assessing not only the quality of inputs but also of outputs.

(4) There is reason to enquire about the <u>value and suitability of the total experience</u> provided to international students. While various social surveys show high degrees of student satisfaction about courses, they also show that many international students are less impressed with their experiences in socialising with domestic students. This suggests that quality audits should include consideration of the social experiences of international students and about the kinds of support services are offered including mechanisms to assist social development.

(5) In view of the increased international mobility of professionals enquiries need to be made about the strategies that universities are employing to <u>internationalise curricula</u> and to prepare both domestic and international students for very different work situations. There also are interesting questions about how flexible higher education institutions are in recognising qualifications completed in other countries and giving appropriate credit for work completed towards incomplete qualifications.

Finally, a word about quality assurance for particular kinds of internationalisation. For example, Williams (2005) suggests that joint and dual degree raise the following issues:

- o clarity of the legal basis for award;
- o clarity of joint and individual responsibilities;
- o compatibility between institutional and national systems;
- o potential consequences of any regulatory compromises and anticipation of different regulatory jurisdictions; and
- o students' interests (student appeals, responsibility for student welfare).

Apart from these considerations, a range of useful documentation is available dealing with quality assurance issues with regard to the internationalisational of higher education. This documentation includes *Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area* (2005) produced by the European Association of Quality Assurance in Higher Education, *Outcomes of Universities: Trans-national Good Practice Projects* (2006) commissioned by Australian Education International and *Enhancement of Quality Assurance Systems in Higher Education in APEC Member Economies* prepared for

the Australian Department of Education and Science by the Australian Universities Quality Agency.

Exercise 6:

In a 2007 article, Altbach and Knight are critical of the regulatory frameworks and quality assurance or accreditation arrangements in many countries with regard to internationalisation. They mention cases where loopholes permit both bona fide and rogue foreign providers to avoid compliance with national regulations. Do a web search to help you try to assess the validity of the criticisms by Altbach and Knight.

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* Required reading