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**INTERNATIONALISATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A
COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CROSS-BORDER TYPE 1 & 2
EDUCATION AND THEIR IMPACT ON DEVELOPING AND
DEVELOPED COUNTRIES**

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Acknowledgement	3
Abstract	9
Presentation	11
Methodology	15
Acronyms and Abbreviations	17
INTRODUCTION	19
SECTION ONE	27
CHAPTER I	
1. Globalisation and Internationalisation in Higher Education	29
1.1 Internationalisation in higher education	36
1.1.1 Internationalisation and student mobility	54
1.1.2 Internationalisation and programme & institution mobility	56
1.2 Assessing internationalisation in higher education	60
1.2.1 Benchmarking internationalisation	62
1.2.2 Benefits and risks to internationalisation	65
1.2.3 The brain mobility effect	67
1.2.4 Trends in internationalisation	71
CHAPTER II	
2. Cross-Border Higher Education and the GATS	77
2.1 What is GATS?	77
2.2 GATS implications for higher education	79
2.3 The GATS implications for developed and developing Countries	91
2.4 GATS member committed to education	93
2.5 Cross-border education under Doha Round	93
2.6 The future of the GATS in higher education.....	97
SECTION TWO	99
CHAPTER III	
3. Regional Trends in Cross-border Education: An Overview	101
3.1 Europe and North America Region	104
3.1.1 Western Europe and North America	108
3.1.2 East and Southeast Europe	121
3.2 Asia and the Pacific Region	126
3.2.1 East Asia and the Pacific	126
3.2.2 Central Asia	139
3.2.3 South Asia	147
3.3 Middle East and North Africa Region	153

3.4 Sub-Saharan Africa Region	158
3.5 Latin American and the Caribbean Region	169
3.5.1 Latin America	170
3.5.2 The Caribbean	180
3.6 Conclusion	186
 CHAPTER IV	
4. International Student Mobility: A Comparative View of Lead Destination	189
4.1 Lead destinations and origins of international student	190
4.2 Factors influencing students' choice of country	198
4.3 International student level and type tertiary education	204
4.4 Student mobility among lead destinations	207
4.5 Terms and condition for international students	208
 CHAPTER V	
5. Programme and Institution Mobility: A Comparative View of Lead Providers	211
5.1 Modes of delivery	216
5.2 Lead countries' programme and institution mobility activities	236
5.3 Future Trends	245
 SECTION THREE	249
 CHAPTER VI	
6. Cross-border Education: Challenges and Opportunities	251
6.1 Challenges and opportunities in CbEd Type-1	252
6.1.1 Culture adaptation and curricula orientation. International students making the adjustments	252
6.1.2 A matter of recognition	259
6.1.3 The challenge of discrimination	262
6.1.4 The finance challenge	263
6.1.5 The disability challenges.....	265
6.1.6 Opportunities for international students	268
6.2 Challenges and opportunities in CbEd Type-2	269
6.2.1 Challenges: Quality and accreditation	269
6.2.2 Opportunities: International degree/mobility	270
 CONCLUSION	271
 BIBLIOGRPAHY & WEBGRAPHY	277
 APPENDICES	323
Appendix A International Education Policies	325
Appendix B EduGATS for Higher Education and Service Commitment	329

Appendix C Recommendation Guidelines for Quality Concerning Provision in Cross-border Higher Education	333
Appendix D Erasmus Mundus	343
Appendix E Lead Countries' Definitions of International/Foreign Student	345
Appendix F International Students/Foreign Student Tuition Cost and Revenue Contribution	347
Appendix G La Traducción	349
Appendix H Cross-border Education Student & Institution Interview Questions	373

List of Boxes

Box 4.1 OECD and Partner Countries offering tertiary programmes in English (2007)	200
Box 4.2 Tuition fees structure	201

List of Figures

Figure 3.1 Student mobility in Western Europe and North America	117
Figure 3.2 Student mobility in East and Southeast Europe	125
Figure 3.3 Student mobility in East Asia and the Pacific	135
Figure 3.4 Student mobility in Central Asia	145
Figure 3.5 Student mobility in South Asia	151
Figure 3.6 Student mobility in Middle East and North Africa	156
Figure 3.7a Student mobility in Southern African Development Community.....	167
Figure 3.7b Student mobility in Sub-Saharan Africa	168
Figure 3.8 Student mobility in Latin America	179
Figure 3.9 Student mobility in the Caribbean	186
Figure 5.1 MOOCs and open education timeline	225
Figure 5.2 & 5.3 New open learning model	229

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Evolution of international education terminology	31
Table 1.2 Implications of five elements of globalization for the internationalisation of higher education	41
Table 1.3 Three Generations of cross-border education	53
Table 2.1 Key elements & rules of GATS – explanation and application	81
Table 2.2 Examples of the four modes of supply (from the perspective of an "importing" country [Country B])	83
Table 3.1 Higher education institutions and enrolment (2011-2012)	142
Table 4.1 Atlas student mobility chart	194
Table 4.2 Distribution of foreign students in tertiary education by country of destination (2005-2011)	195

Table 4.3 Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin (2000 to 2007)	195
Table 4.4 Flow of international/foreign students in lead destinations	196
Table 4.5 Top sending countries of international students and the number of international students they host (2012 & 2014)	198
Table 5.1 International education terminologies categorised	216
Table 5.2 Major delivery modes and investment in Germany.....	218
Table 5.3 Good practice model for transnational education	219
Table 5.4a Typology of cross-border provider mobility	223
Table 5.4b Typology of cross-border programme mobility	224
Table 5.5 Comparison of key aspects of MOOCs or open education initiatives	227
Table 5.6 Australia transnational education logistics table	237
Table 5.7 Offshore international provision – UK and Australia	243
Table 5.8 British TNE provision/programmes in key Asian markets	243
Table 5.9 Number of TNE enrolment for UK institutions	244

ABSTRACT

This research paper examines what is meant by ‘internationalising’ higher education and how globalisation and, in particular, internationalisation have influenced cross-border/transnational higher education, as well as the effects trade policies have had on student mobility and programme and institution (P & I) mobility over the years. These two types of mobility have been instrumental in nation building. Through qualitative and quantitative research it is evident that for countries that have had and continue to have difficulty addressing the demands for higher education cross-border education has been their primary solution. On the other hand, for countries that provide the majority of international higher education services education export has been and will continue to be a significant means of revenue. The financial benefits to individuals, nations and regions are evidence of the importance cross-border higher education plays in an ever growing global ‘knowledge economy’. This paper, therefore, looks at various facets and the implications of cross-border/transnational higher education for develop and developing countries.

PRESENTATION

Coming from a third world country and believing that studying abroad was a worthwhile personal investment, and one that would inevitably be valuable to my country's nation building projects was a limited perspective of my role in the 'internationalisation' of higher education. It is beyond that limited perspective that is examined in this research; taking my investigation beyond individual goals that spill over into national benefits to look into proactive national and regional cross-border education policies and/or other national and regional cross-border initiatives that aid national and regional development.

For the past two and a half decades I have studied at four universities abroad (Broward Community College, the University of Florida, Andrews University, and *Universidad de Valencia*) and in two different countries (the United States and Spain). In fact, my international studies were carried out under both modes of cross-border/transnational education: student mobility and programme and institution mobility. My Master's in Education began with a summer programme offered by Andrews University and hosted by Northern Caribbean University in Jamaica before they severed ties, which resulted in me migrating again to the US to complete my studies.

It is during that penultimate international student experience that I began to truly understand the various facets of 'international higher education'. However, a more profound interest in the topic of 'cross-border education' came about as a result of my experience in Spain.

My doctoral thesis topic was borne out of the mere fact that I was unable to access sufficient credible data on the Caribbean school leaving secondary examination results (CXC GCSE). Thus, my alternative was to research this cohort of students of which I am a part of, students pursuing higher education abroad.

The introduction of this research paper summarises the overall purpose of this research, which in essence is to identify and understand the impact and implications 'internationalising' higher education has for both developed and developing countries.

Initially, and ideally, my research efforts were to take me into various cross-border/transnational initiatives at different levels: institutional, national, regional, and global.

A comparative look into the internationalisation of higher education at the institutional level, however, is absent from this work ascribable to the time factor required in carrying out such a study, which is not feasible at this time.

Having intended to examine student mobility at the institutional level, three Spanish universities (*Universidad de Granada*, *Universidad Complutense de Madrid* and *Universidad de Valencia*) were contacted, and on the instruction of two of the institutions (*Universidad Complutense de Madrid* and *Universidad de Valencia*) a questionnaire was emailed in order to better attain the information I needed. Regrettably, neither of the two responded to my emails. Nevertheless, from the postulations of the three individuals to whom I spoke, as well as secondary resources, it is evident that vertical ‘international’ student mobility is low. All three postulated that the number of international students participating in vertical mobility in Spain, outside a mobility scheme, was significantly less than those who participated in some kind of mobility scheme such as Erasmus. Data in respect to vertical mobility of international students, including policies, was not readily available.

This research paper is presented into three sections with the purpose of bringing about a clearer understanding of what is meant by ‘internationalisation of higher education’, and to identify the benefits and challenges it entails for countries, institutions and students.

- The first section defines key concepts and examines trends in the internationalisation of higher education in a globalised world. The challenge of defining the terms used to delineate cross-border/transnational activities, while not odds, are not concrete. The very definition of the term ‘internationalisation’, as presented in the following pages of SECTION ONE, is one such example.
 - The first two chapters are presented in Section One. Chapter I presents the terminologies and defines key terms relevant to understanding the concept and activities of cross-border education. It also presents the

development of cross-border activities over the years. Chapter II presents the international community's role under the auspices of the General Agreement in Trade of Services (GATS).

- The second section also highlights the difference between countries' definitions of 'international student' and 'foreign student'. However, SECTION TWO, the comparative section of this research, specifically looks into cross-border/transnational activities in higher education at two different levels (regional and national) in order to answer the question: who benefits more?
 - Section Two is divided into three chapters. Chapter III presents a broad view of regional of cross-border activities and highlights the divide between the developed 'world' and developing 'world'. Chapter IV presents data on student mobility activities in seven lead countries and the impact student mobility has on their economical development, as well as highlights the lead sending countries of international students. Chapter V examines programme and institution mobility services provided by the same seven lead countries.
- SECTION THREE looks at the opportunities and challenges consumers of cross-border education face in pursuing an international higher education degree, as well as the results of this research paper – the overall implications of cross-border/transnational education for developed and developing countries.
 - Chapter VI details the main challenges and opportunities cross-broader higher education entails for international students. Finally, the Conclusion highlights the key observations of this research.

It is important to note that the comparative section in respect to student mobility is intended to underscore international student mobility activities of students whose objective is degree/diploma obtainment in host country. Hence, though credit mobility is addressed it is not the primary focus of this research.

METHODOLOGY

This study employed both the qualitative and the quantitative approach. The first part of the paper consists of the qualitative analysis of data acquired through desk-top review, and search engines of the more influential actors (multi-national organisations, government ministries, universities, and non-government organisations) in the area of cross-border education.

The desk-top review included an analysis of research publications, policies, books, articles and other kinds of documentation pertinent to the subject matter. The majority of the data, however, was obtained through online sources as they proved to be more accessible to the recentness of data.

As an international student who has acquired all tertiary studies outside my home country, reference is made of my personal experience. However, not to draw only from my limited perspective, a questionnaire (Appendix H) was sent to 17 international students of which 10 responded. Respondents represent three regions: Asia (2), Europe (3) and Latin America (5).

The quantitative approach was employed in the comparative section. Statistics were obtained mainly through the OECD's *Education at a Glance* annual reports, the UNESCO Institute of Statistics, ATLAS Student Mobility (IIE), the Ministry of Education official websites of each country presented in the comparative section, as well as pertinent government organisations and government affiliates impacting international studies and higher education.

The main objectives of this section of the research have been:

- To identify the impact of international student – with an emphasis on vertical mobility – on the social/cultural and economical development of host countries and host institutions;
- To identify the role domestic students who participate in international studies via programme and institution mobility play in the economic development of their country, as well as the economic contribution they make to sourcing countries.

This section compares cross-border activities in higher education in seven lead destinations: Australia, Canada, Germany, France, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States. The comparative approach, via juxtaposition, by which actual numbers are presented facilitates easy comparison and further highlights the true beneficiaries of cross-border/transnational education.

The countries chosen for the comparative section were selected by their rankings reported by several organisations such as those mentioned above as being among the top 10 destinations for international students between 2008 and 2013. However, an exception has been made in the case of Spain, which has not been listed consistently among the top ten destinations during the same period, but is included for one reason: my personal interest in the country's approach toward internationalisation in higher education and, in particular, international students.

Several indicators have been examined in order to better understand the rationale behind the internationalisation of higher education, as well as the challenges that beset it. The indicators by which regions and lead providers of cross-border/transnational education are primarily evaluated are: quality assurance of higher education, access and equity, academic mobility and forged government and institution partnerships. In respect to international education broad forms of mobility in the comparative section – student mobility and programme and institution mobility, also known as provider mobility – the criteria used to evaluate lead countries cross-border activities are: policies, the number of student hosted, tuition fee, total revenue, and added incentives made available to students.

It is important to reiterate that statistics used for this research do not reflect accurately the numbers of international students enrolled in higher education given that some countries may not include private institutions, while others, based on their definition of international students, may include foreign nationals. Nonetheless, in spite of inconsistencies and gaps in the data literature, effort was made to use numbers that reflect students who have been issued student visas and have commenced classes.

The aim and emphasis of the analysis is both to increase awareness and generate a more action-oriented approach toward achieving the end results the GATS, the UNESCO and the OECD anticipate cross-border education promises developing countries.

ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACA	Academic Cooperation Association
ACE	American Council of Education
AEI	Australia Education International
AUSAID	Australia Aid
AUSTRADE	Australia Trade
BC	British Council
CBIE	Canadian Bureau of International Education
CERI	Centre for Educational Research and Innovation
CICIC	Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials
COA	Commonwealth of Australia
COE	Council of Europe
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service
EAG	Education at a Glance
EC	European Commission
ERASMUS	European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
EU	European Union
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
IAU	International Association of University
IBC	International Branch Campus
IBE	International Bureau of Education
ICEF	International Consultants for Education and Fairs
IES-NCES	Institute of Education Sciences (U.S. Department of Education) National Center for Education Statistics
IHME	Institutional Management in Higher Education (OECD)
IIE	Institute of International Education (ATLAS)
LAEO	Latin American Economic Outlook
MIUSA	Mobility International USA
NPC	National Post Graduate Committee
OBHE	Observatory for Higher Education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OEI	Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
SAARC	South Asian Association for Region Cooperation
TIME	Top Industrial Management Europe
UKBA	UK Border Agency
UKCISA	UK Council for International Student Affairs
UIS	UNESCO Institute of Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UN ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
WB	World Bank

WES
WTO

World Education Service
World Trade Organization

INTRODUCTION

The matter of ‘globalisation’ and ‘internationalisation’ of higher education is a complex phenomenon given that there is no single definition for these terms. Changes in global trade practices have contributed to the need to constantly redefine terminologies, and thus the full extent of their impact on the education sector remains undetermined. There are, however, some definitions that are more widely accepted than others that lend to a clearer understanding of the concept and objectives of both terms. Contextually, the terms globalisation and internationalisation are often used interchangeably even though they should not be given that they are not synonymous.

The definition of globalisation, in its simplest form, is the ‘flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values and ideas across borders’ (KNIGHT, 1997: 6, 1999a: 204) while internationalisation in higher education is said to be the reaction to globalisation; it is ‘...the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education at the institutional and national levels’ (KNIGHT, 2008a: xi). In other words, ‘internationalisation is changing the world of education and globalisation is changing the world of internationalisation’ (KNIGHT, 2003a: 3).

The last couple decades have reported an approximate average of 2.3 million students having left their country each year to go in pursuit of an education, most often higher education. On the other hand, a significantly greater number than the millions of mobile students have matriculated in offshore higher education programmes in their home country, making programme and institution mobility far more popular among students who have a job or a family and cannot afford to emigrate.

While the mobility of students to a another country is nothing new, globalisation in the 21st century has brought about new challenges and opportunities for international students who, for this paper, are defined as students who emigrate temporarily for the single purpose of attending a learning institution of higher education in another country to obtain a degree while gaining a new cultural and academic perspective.

Likewise programme and institution mobility, still in its early stage when compared to student mobility, is not immune to challenges. Offshore students are often vulnerable

to poor quality education offered by ‘degree mills’ at a lower cost than that which international students pay, but this at times has proven to be costly. The number of rogue providers that have saturated the transnational education market has not only lowered the standard of quality international education, but it also leaves their graduates unqualified to enter the labour market: a major concern for all sectors of society. Another very concerning factor is the number of foreign unaccredited providers that often discontinue their programmes leaving students with partial studies and credits that are not transferrable.

The matter of quality education is a major concern in higher education institutions worldwide, but in respect to international education, in the form of transnational education, it is of greater concern. The quality of any international education programme should be measured, among other things, by its relevance to students’ countries cultural, social and economic needs, as well as the employability of graduates. Even with the establishment of the International Network for Quality Assurance (INQAAHE), the International Conference on Quality in Higher Education (ICQH), and the benchmarking strategies and guidelines provided by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to counteract poor quality international higher education offerings, as well as improve quality higher education globally, it is still vital to continually address the need for more quality higher education.

Quality higher education amounts to employability for students and increases matriculation for institutions. Thus, more than ever, quality assurance has to remain on the agendas of the various sectoral bodies (public and private) that hold any interest in sustainable development. Furthermore, higher education policy makers in an attempt to protect all stakeholders must constantly tackle new modes of delivery that undermine current quality assurance policies in place.

Like the terms globalisation and internationalisation, it is important to distinguish between the terms international students and foreign students. International students may be considered a sub-group of the foreign student cohort. The terms international student and foreign student may be used interchangeably. However, definitions vary from country to country – in some countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States the term ‘international student’ refers to persons who are residing in a foreign country for

the sole purpose of studying and obtaining a degree or certification from a higher education institution, vocational/training centre, language intense course, or other educational institutions. However, in countries such as Germany and France students who hold permanent residency but are not citizens of these countries are considered foreign students, and as such international students are counted among them (OECD, 2013).

Within the ‘international student’ cohort are two groups: those who finance their own studies with personal/family funds, and those who receive grants or scholarships from government or private organisations. International students – the term used throughout this paper to refer to students who have non-permanent residency in another country – have different reasons for seeking to advance their studies at universities abroad which are, by and large, for personal gain such as self development and better earning potential. On the other hand, host countries also have their reasons for providing these students the opportunity to study in their countries; they amount to 1) economic gain for both institution and country, and 2) cultural enrichment for domestic students.

The popular host countries for international students are OECD member countries. They have traditionally been the magnet for international students. OECD countries alone host more than two thirds of the more than 4.3 million international students worldwide in 2011 (Ibid.). Some of these countries have active recruitment programmes geared toward attracting international students and have also established agencies that keep record of their foreign student activities. The United States, for example, has the Open Door programme, while the UK has UKCISA and France has CampusFrance.

According to the UNESCO Institute of Statistics, the OCED and other data sources, the two countries with the highest number of outgoing students are China and India, both developing nations, and source almost 20 percent of international students worldwide. Data also indicate that Anglophone countries are the preferred destinations by both Anglophone and non-Anglophone international students. However, that is changing. More South-South movement is occurring, for example in Asia the new strategy employed is one to augment regional mobility of students, programmes, and institutions. In addition, the establishment of ‘education hubs’ and ‘knowledge cities’ have added a new dimension to cross-border education, but specifically to P & I mobility, which indicates the future direction of international higher education. New marketing strategies

employed by developing countries such as Saudi Arabia Emirates, Malaysia, Singapore and China include strategic plans to take a piece of the international education pie.

The task of students choosing a country depends on several factors such as language of host country, language of instruction, field of study, cost, and personal preference. International education policies reflect a country's objectives as in the case of the Australia, the UK, the US, Germany, France, and others whose clear aim is to remain the leaders in sourcing international higher education (Appendix A). As such, it necessitates more and more of sending countries to tackle the 'brain drain' phenomenon and curtail the loss of some of their 'brightest' to developed countries, while promoting internationalisation and attempting to participate efficiently in a globalised economy. On the other hand, international students who, at the completion of their studies, opt to reside permanently in their host country or a country other than their own have historically contributed greatly to their countries' gross domestic product (GDP) with millions in remittance each year.

According to the OECD (2014), top field of studies for new tertiary students entering universities are *social sciences* (the most popular), *business* and *law*. However, *business* is the top choice for one in every four international students in OECD countries, with 23 percent enrolling in *business and administration*. Another popular field of studies pursued by international students is engineering, manufacturing, and construction. These popular career choices are usually in demand in both developed and developing countries, but unlike developed countries developing countries are unlikely to compensate 'international' graduates the amount they invest in tuition fees and, in the case of mobile students, living expenses. This reality contributes to the brain drain phenomenon.

On the one hand, developed countries shape international education; they have traditionally been the providers of both major groups of cross-border/transnational education and thus reap the benefits of qualified international students. On the other hand, developing countries have perennially been the primary consumers and usually benefit in that they are better able to meet the demand for higher education within their country.

Higher education has certainly evolved since the 7th Century. Higher education in the twenty-first-century does not only address social, economic and cultural issues of a nation, but, today, it also addresses those of regions and the world at large.

The Europe and North America region is the top region for international students and top provider of offshore programmes. Though the North-South trade remains principal, and as previously mentioned, there is a shift occurring among developing countries with more and more South-South mobility occurring in higher education and research cooperation at the regional, national and institutional level (BECKER, 2012; UN ECOSCO, 2008). In spite the increase with South-South relations, the south is expected to remain the primary consumer of cross-border education.

Asia represents more than one-third of total consumers of cross-border education. Thus, in an attempt to also counteract 'brain drain', policies are being established to ensure local quality education is provided to retain more students and qualified graduates in the region. New regional strategies include Asia and the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) regions developing a niche by attracting some of the most prestigious universities and brightest minds to their 'knowledge cities' and 'knowledge hubs'.

The initiatives and partnerships established by regions indicate the importance higher education play in their economic development. Sub-Saharan Africa is said to be one of the fastest growing region for attracting partnerships and retaining students in the region, and while Latin America and the Caribbean is also developing, internationalisation of higher education within the region is relatively slow.

Today, the internationalisation of higher education is not limited to student mobility and physical borders. It entails P & I mobility, which is burgeoning as a result of some of the newest forms of delivery of higher education (the transnational education is viewed by some as a more correct term to describe P & I international higher education activities). In fact, it has augmented so much in the last decade that, as mentioned above, the number of students matriculated in P & I mobility has way surpassed the total number of international students.

Offshore programmes are becoming increasingly popular as a means of revenue for lead providers of cross-border higher education. The surge in these programmes throughout South Asia and the Middle East are an indication of the demand for international education. The international education and training sector is Australia's fourth largest export reporting revenue of AUS \$15.7 billion in 2011; it is the United

States' third largest with a revenue of more than \$22.7 billion¹; and while it is not ranked among the top five export for the United Kingdom is considered a key export that has a revenue of £17.5 billion (AEI, 2013; IIE, 2012; EXPORT.GOV, 2013; GOV.UK, 2013).

Traditionally technology has played an important role in the increase of international education: primarily through emails and virtual programmes. However, the most recent form of delivery, the massive open online course (MOOC) in its various forms has brought about another international forum of learning, making accessibility to higher education easier and at no cost to millions students worldwide.

Initially, less than three years, MOOCs programmes were offered primarily by reputable North American Ivy-League universities such as MIT, Harvard (edX), and Stanford (Cousera), as well as some and then some universities in the UK, but now they are offered in universities across the world. This new form of transnational education is far reaching and is being modeled more and more in other countries, but the downside to these programmes is their high drop-out rate and the fact that most universities offer 'non-credited' courses. These courses are now granting students the option to obtain university credit at a cost or as a certificate course.²

To some extent, all forms of delivery of cross-border education have been made easier under the General Agreement on Trade in Services' (GATS) four modes of supply: cross-border trade, consumption abroad, commercial, and presence of natural person. While the GATS impact on cross-border higher education is not fully documented, given that the ongoing Doha Round has yet to be finalised and implemented, developed countries' switch from 'aiding' higher education in developing countries to 'trading' with them is an attributing factor to education now being listed among GATS' services to be traded.

The Agreement has been criticised by some and welcomed by others. The debate continues to be, if education is a public good, then why is it being made a high commodity to be traded? The GATS, in theory, essentially is to level the playing field thus allowing developing countries and emerging countries the opportunity for fare trade. Nonetheless, 'fair trade' is one of the concerns critics have laid against the GATS. Of the

¹ The amount reflects revenue just from international students.

² MOOCs Directory (2014): Verified Certificate MOOCs ([http://www.moocs.co/Credits for MOOCS News.html](http://www.moocs.co/Credits_for_MOOCS_News.html)), accessed on 12 January 2014.

159 member states there are currently 59 member countries that have committed to trade in education services and of which 46 have committed to trade in higher education. Some lead countries such as Canada, which has made no commitment to education services, and the United States and the United Kingdom which also have made no commitment to trade in higher education, are notably absent from the list.

Due to the unavailability of substantial data, a comparative study on age and gender is not incorporated in this work. However, to date, OECD data indicate students 25 years and older represent the greater proportion of mobile students (EAG, 2013: 312 & 317). Likewise, though some countries are considered ‘magnets’ for certain fields, a comparative study showing how internationalised the curricula for these top fields of studies in host countries are has not yet been achieved.

Finally, participants in cross-border/transnational border education encounter several challenges as well as enjoy many benefits. For international students (Mode 2 – consumption abroad) the challenges they encounter are both on and off campus. International students face several challenges (linguistic, financial, cultural and social, racial discrimination, and more) in their pursuit of higher education abroad. On the other hand, the success of these students is evident in the cultural exchanges they contribute to their host and, assuming they return, home countries’ global perspective in planning ongoing economic policies and social programmes. In other words, while the challenges of obtaining visas, financing international studies overseas, and confronting racial and cultural prejudices are constant, the benefits of earning an international degree, better earning power, obtaining a more global perspective, and increasing one’s opportunity to migrate to another country makes it a worthwhile investment for most students. For domestic students participating in P & I mobility (Modes 1 & 3 – cross-border supply and commercial presence) their challenges may be summarised into one category, quality and recognition.

A look into the challenges and opportunities of cross-border education, both student mobility and P & I mobility raises several questions such as: Will higher education remain a public good? How much are curricula practical to international students’ cultures? Are teachers/facilitators prepared for guiding a diverse student body? Who benefits more, developed countries or developing countries?

Developed countries thus far have had the advantage given that educational services tend to be among their top five export services as is the case for the United States and Australia, and/or serves as a vehicle to attract the brightest minds.

SECTION ONE

Defining Concepts

'The product of universities is change. The business of a university is learning. The job of academic leaders is to help people learn.'
Paul Ramsden

CHAPTER I

Globalisation and Internationalisation in Higher Education

The terms globalisation and internationalisation are often used interchangeably, however, they are quite different though their concepts are intertwined. According to Jane Knight (2008a: 4), globalisation refers to 'the flow of people, culture, ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economy across borders resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world.' Thus, it is a multifaceted process with economic, social, political and cultural implications for higher education. Jean Pierre Lemasson (1999) defines globalisation as the space in which certain institutions such as the United Nations and multi-national corporations carry out their activities virtually from any place, giving no regard to location. Universities traditionally, though they engage in some aspects of the globalisation of higher education, are not necessarily considered as 'international' as they are rooted in their own home base. Universities today, however, do participate actively in the internationalisation of higher education and are not restricted to executing their roles from a given number of places in the world. In fact, while some may view the internationalisation of universities main thrust as being a geographic extension of activities, others see it as the 'institutional process that in some way internalize the concept of openness to the world in all activities and organizational aspects of the university', thus launching 'an internal transformation to prepare the university to act more directly on the international or global scene'. In the early 1990s many disparate international activities were therefore brought under the umbrella of 'internationalisation' (Ibid: 2-3).

The term internationalisation, which is said to be borrowed from other sectors and was imported into the field of higher education in the mid 1980s, has been defined as a 'process of planned and spontaneous initiatives at both the program and policy levels and

can be applied at the national, regional, provincial or institutional level’ (KNIGHT, 1999a: 203). In context of higher education, it is ‘one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalisation yet, at the same time respect the individuality of a nation’ (KNIGHT, 1997: 6). Internationalisation, in other words, is interpreted as one of the ways in which higher education is responding to the opportunities and challenges of globalization. It consists of curriculum, teaching/learning, research, institution agreement, student/faculty mobility, development cooperation and many more components. In fact, internationalisation is part of the university’s efforts to fulfill three primary functions; the teaching and learning process, research and scholarly activities and service to society (KNIGHT, 1999b).

History shows that ‘terminologies have evolved’ over the years (DE WIT, 2002; KNIGHT, 2008a). Though new terminologies infer nuances of previous terminologies, the ongoing use of new and traditional terminologies to describe international activities attributes to the complexity of understanding and even defining the internationalisation of higher education phenomenon (Table 1.1).

The relatively new terms ‘internationalisation at home’ (IaH), also known as campus-based internationalisation, and ‘internationalisation abroad’ are considered the ‘pillars’ on which internationalisation of higher education is established. The two are separate and interdependent, but closely linked. In other words ‘internationalisation at home’ must enhance ‘internationalisation abroad’ activities and vice versa in order to attain global international education objectives. ‘Internationalisation at home’ encompasses all international education activities that benefit domestic students who do not travel abroad for educational purposes (KNIGHT, 2008b: 29). It is defined by the EAIE and ACA (in 2000) as ‘any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility’,³ and by Knight (2008b: 6) as campus-based activities that ‘include the international, global, or cultural dimension on the teaching/learning, research, extracurricular programmes on campus and those outreach/services activities which relate to local, international and intercultural organisations.’ Internationalisation abroad, however, is ‘cross-border education’ and

³IAU (2007): Internationalization: Definitions (http://archive.www.iau-aiu.net/internationalization/i_definitions.html), accessed on 9 May 2010.

includes all delivery modes of higher education ranging from face-to-face to virtual delivery (Ibid, p. 29).

Table 1.1 Evolution of international education terminology

<i>New Terms (Since 1990s)</i>	<i>Existing Terms</i>	<i>Traditional Terms</i>
Generic Terms		
Globalisation	Internationalisation	International education
Borderless education	Multicultural education	International development cooperation
Cross-border education	Intercultural education	Comparative education
Transnational education	Global education	Correspondence education
Virtual education	Distance education	
Internationalisation 'abroad'	Offshore/overseas education	
Internationalisation 'at home'		
Specific Elements		
Education providers		
Corporate universities	International students	Foreign students
Liberalisation of educational services	Study abroad	Student exchange
Networks	Institution agreements	Development projects
Virtual universities	Partnership Projects	Cultural agreements
Branch campus	Area studies	Language study
Twinning and franchise programmes	Double/Joint degrees	
Global Education Index		

Source: Knight (2008a)

Today, universities have been refocusing their efforts toward a 'knowledge economy' by enabling their graduates to compete in a globalised world – an international and multi-cultural work place that creates a more dynamic work force in a world of super-complexity – more effectively (BARNETT, 2000; CARUANA, 2008). This gives more prominence to the 'internationalisation at home'. Furthermore, the fact that globalisation affects each country in different ways, due to each nation's priorities (UNESCO, 2009a), the need to preserve nation-state and cultural identity must be given equal importance, an essential element of internationalisation. Whereas globalisation is seen as a 'catalyst', internationalisation is considered to be the 'proactive response' (KNIGHT, 1999b) to globalisation, or a 'proactive strategic issue' (DE WIT, 2011).

The OECD defines internationalisation as a 'complex of processes whose combined effect, whether planned or not, is to enhance the international dimension of the experience of higher education in universities and similar educational institutions' (IAU, 2007: 1). The internationalisation of higher education must not be limited to a

disciplined-based curriculum, but rather viewed as a phenomenon that is nurtured by ideas, passions, values and relationships having and showing the highest appreciation for diversity. Therefore, it should not be seen as just a means to jobs and economic gain, instead it must be approached as a propelling force behind an invigorating intellectual opportunity that enriches the lives of students and institutions (BOND & SCOTT, 1999). This ideology of internationalising higher education is strongly being challenged by the commodification and commercialisation of education and its involvement in the General Agreement of Trade in Services.

Why internationalise higher education? The answer, aforementioned, essentially is to be able to react to perpetual changes produced by 'globalisation'. There are various rationales for the internationalisation of higher education, and in an attempt to better analyse them it is important to understand stakeholders' perspectives on this phenomenon. Stakeholders are identified as three major sectors, and the term sector is used because within each are many interest groups that have different viewpoints on why and how higher education should be internationalised. The three major areas are the government, education and private sector (KNIGHT, 1997: 12-13):

- The *government sector* includes the different levels of government ranging from supra-national bodies to regional, national, and local. Within the government sector there are, of course, many different stakeholder groups which have a vested interest in the international dimension of higher education. The most obvious are the education departments. Other governing units include foreign affairs, culture, economic development and trade, science and technology which all have an interest in the international dimension of higher education.
- The *education sector* is equally diverse because it is necessary to look at the sector from the system level, the institutional level and the individual level. Among the many stakeholder groups in the education sector are the different types of institutions (colleges, institutes, polytechnics, universities), which make up a system; the scholarly research and discipline groups; the professional and membership associations; the

students, teachers, researchers, administrators and, of course, other advocacy or issue groups.

- The *private sector* is another heterogeneous group given the varied interests of the manufacturing service or trade companies, the nature of their products and services, as well as their geographical interests. Another influencing factor is the size of the company and whether it is local, national or transnational in ownership. It is also important to recognize that the private sector extends beyond mere private education providers.

Given the interests of each sector, sub-sector and individuals, there is inevitable differences among and within the sectors, and depending on the rational each sector or group within a sector deems as more important may present conflict. Therefore, it is recommended and important ‘for an individual, institution or national body belonging to any of the sector groups to analyse the diversity and/or homogeneity of rationales and assess the potential for conflict or complementarity of purpose’ (KNIGHT, 1997: 12).

In order to better understand the far reaching effects of the internationalisation in higher education phenomenon, the matter of globalisation and internaltionalisation in higher education, a complex one, must be further examined as the terms are characterised differently by various authors.

According to Carlos Torres (2009a: 32-36), there are five facets to globalisation known as what he terms ‘multiple globalisation’: 1) *Top-down globalisation* – the *neo-liberal* model is the alliance between multinational global corporations or bilateral and multilateral organisational bodies, ‘the opening of borders...the viability of faster economic and financial exchanges, and even the presence of forms of state...’ In essence, this globalisation process embraces ‘selective deregulation’; 2) *Anti-globalisation*, or ‘*globalisation from below*’ are ‘individuals, institutions and social movements that have actively opposed what is perceived as the neo-liberal globalization.’ Their motto is ‘no globalisation without representation’; 3) the exchange of ideas and persons and the influence of culture; for example, the global influence of ‘California’; 4) *Globalisation of human rights* whereby inherent cultural/societal practices are threatened; that is, ‘a number of traditional practices (from religious practices to esoteric practices) are called into question, challenged, forbidden or even outlawed.’ Its motto is referred to

as the ‘advancement of cosmopolitan democracies and plural citizenship’; and 5) *Globalisation of anti-terrorist war* which ‘goes beyond markets, and to some extent against human rights’, its response is military in nature and emphasis on security and control of borders, people, capital, and commodities – reversing the ‘open markets and fast commodity exchanges’. The motto of antiterrorist globalisation is security, a precondition of freedom. To some extent all five aspects impact cross-border education in terms of access policies, curricula, finance, discrimination/stereotyping, etcetera.

Torres also states that globalisation is not only multiple in nature, it is indeed a contradictory one with ‘deep-rooted historical causes’. He opines that the ‘neoliberal globalisation agenda’ in education is attributed to such agencies as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), some agencies of the United Nations, including UNESCO and perhaps the OECD. Making reference to Antonio Teodoro’s hypothesis and the work of Roger Dale and Boaventura de Souza Santos, he suggests ‘there is a low-intensity globalization of education in Europe, with the OECD being the architect of the process’ (TORRES, 2009b: 16).

Dirk Van Damme (2001: 1-2), however, structures his understanding of globalisation based on several changes that he says are somehow interrelated, ‘creating new forms of interdependencies between actors, institutions and states.’ He highlights these tendencies as the comprehensive forces of globalisation:

- The rise of the network society, driven by technological innovation and the increasing strategic importance of information, and symbolised by the expansion of the Internet;
- The restructuring of the economic world system, with the transformation of a post-industrial knowledge in the core, the emergence of newly industrialised nations, and the growth of new forms of dependency in the developing world; the rapid integration of the world economy with increasingly liberalised trade and commerce, resulting in new opportunities;
- The political reshaping of the post-Cold War world order, with strategic shifts in power balances and the emergence of new regions challenging the

hegemony of the 20th century superpowers, but also with increasing global insecurity and an endless list of regional and local conflicts;

- The erosion of the nation-state and its capacity to master the economic and political transformations, together with the weakness of the international community and its organisations, widening the gap between economic activity and socio-political regulation, and leading to unbound global capitalism but also to new international forms of crime;
- The very complex cultural developments with, on the one hand, aspects of homogenisation such as an increasing cultural exchange and multicultural reality, but also the worldwide hegemony of the English language and the spread of commercial culture, and on the other hand elements of cultural differentiation and segregation such as fundamentalisms of various kinds (including new nationalisms), regressive tendencies, intolerance and a general feeling of loss of identity.

Even though globalisation is viewed negatively by some and internationalisation is interpreted differently in many regions of the world, it is agreed that education plays a vital role in all societies. A tertiary level education may not be obligatory, but the curricula taught at universities are crucial to the advancement of any country, region and the world at large. Universities are given the responsibility of shaping the development of peoples and nations: universities are called upon to ‘take up responsibilities in the society and culture at large, to act as mediators in conflict, to deepen democracy, to dynamise cultures, to function as centers for critical debate and ethical conscience’ (VAN DAMME, 2001: 3). Universities are indeed more than ‘knowledge centres’, they are centres where individual thoughts are encouraged and exchanged with the objective of generating innovative and sustainable national developmental solutions. In the twenty-first century internationalisation has added ‘international marketability’ for students, teachers and programmes.

As the parameters of a community and the services of universities extend beyond their physical boundaries, the roles OECD member countries play in addressing poverty in developing countries, at both the local and the international level, become increasingly central to the internationalisation of higher education. Today, reference is made to the

internationalisation of diseases, misery, illiteracy and poverty, and the aid response of OECD members in such aspects has been criticised as being feeble. Therefore, internationalisation of universities today refer to all the objectives, processes, structures, activities and results that bring elements of international or global information, action and decision making to impact all levels of university life, including teaching, research and service to community (LEMASSON, 1999).

1.1 Internationalisation of higher education

The pursuit of higher education is perennial and has been for centuries. It can be traced back to the Far East where traditional Chinese higher institutions were established by the Eastern Zhou Dynasty between 771-221 BC (BRANDENBURG & ZHU, 2007); Pakistan's (then India) Takshashila University that was founded in the 5th BC⁴; and India's Nalanda University, Bihar, also in 5th century BC. However, the first two degree-granting universities, both founded in the 11th century, are said to be the University of Bologna, Italy, established in 1088 AD and the University of Paris, France, founded in 1090 AD (later known as University of Paris-Sorbonne).⁵ Other countries eventually followed suit: England in 1167 AD and in 1209 AD established the University of Oxford and the University of Cambridge respectively (BOGGS, 2010); and in Spain the University of Salamanca was founded in 1218 AD.⁶

From the genesis, university as we know it today has always been international as knowledge knows no boundary, nor did nations then operate like they do today with frontiers. Both the most secular university and the most religious back then, the

⁴ Other on-line literatures suggest it to have been established in the 7th Century. It was declared a UNESCO World Heritage site in 1980.

⁵ 'The origin of the first universities is a very complex process. The University of Bologna or the University of Paris-Sorbonne may be called the oldest university depending on the weight which one attributes to one or another of the various elements which make up a university. If one regards the existence of a corporate body as the sole criterion, then Bologna is the oldest, but only by a slight margin. It was in Bologna that, towards the end of the twelfth century, the foreign students of law grouped themselves together as 'nations' and therewith developed a basic organizational form of the medieval European university. If one regards the association of teachers and students of various disciplines into a single corporate body as the decisive criterion, then the oldest university would be Paris, dating from 1208' (Rüegg 1992, p. 6).

⁶ University of Texas (undated): The Origin of Universities, (<http://www.cwrl.utexas.edu/~bump/OriginUniversities.html>), accessed 10 April 2010.

University of Paris and the University of Salamanca respectively, viewed knowledge from an international prism. However in the 20th Century – starting with the ‘Napoleonic model’ and later, among others, the Cordoba Reform in 1918 – all universities came under relevant national political logic, investigation, teaching and management, and assumed the existence of frontiers/borders outlined by nations (RAMA, 2009).

One of the challenges with the internationalisation of higher education, though it is not deemed necessary, is that there is no single definition for the term. For over 30 years ‘internationalisation’ has been a subject of debate. In the 1980’s internationalisation was seen as a set of activities and thus S. Arum and J. Van de Water (1992: 202) defined it as ‘multiple activities, programs, and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation.’ Hans De Wit (2002: 114) cautions it may become a ‘catch-all-phrase for everything and anything international’. In the 1990’s Knight (1994: 7; 1999b: 16) presented varied definitions: First she defined it as:

‘the process of integrating an international or intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of institution’.

However, Marijk Van der Wende (1997: 18) identified limitations with Knight’s definition and proposed one to encompass all stakeholders. He defined ‘internationalisation’ as:

‘any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economies and labour markets’.

Knight (2008b: 14) noted important elements in Van der Wende’s definition, but also noted that it ‘positions the international dimension exclusively in terms of the external environment, specifically globalization, and therefore does not contextualize internationalization in terms of the education sector and its goals and functions.’

In a further attempt to better understand what internationalisation is in the context of higher education, De Wit (2002: 114) suggests that even if a precise definition is not

attainable, there needs to be parameters to assess and advance higher education; thus, ‘a working definition in combination with a conceptual framework for internationalisation of higher education is relevant.’

Bearing this in mind Knight (2004: 11; 2008a: 21) then proposed the following ‘neutral’ working definition:

‘Internationalization is the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education.’

Knight (2008b) in this definition highlights three fundamental aspects of internationalisation in higher education as purpose, function and delivery. *Purpose* refers to the overall role that higher education plays at the national and regional level, but more specifically, it refers to the mission of an institution. *Function* refers to the primary elements or tasks that characterise a national higher education system and an individual institution. *Delivery* speaks of the offering of education courses and programs by both traditional and new providers, either domestically or in other countries. It also underscores the global dimension inherent to the term ‘internationalisation’.

Another variation to Knight’s (2008a: xi) working definition, which emphasises the context in which it is coined, highlights the role of institutions, government and other stakeholders. It is defined as:

‘the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education at the institutional and national levels.’

Other definitions include that of P. G. Altbach (2006a: 123) who defines the internationalisation in higher education as:

‘specific policies and programs undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to deal with globalization.’

And, a widely accepted definition, that of the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers (NAFSA, 2013)⁷ which says internationalisation is:

‘the conscious effort to integrate and infuse international, intercultural, and global dimensions into the ethos and outcomes of postsecondary education. To be fully successful, it must involve active and responsible engagement of the academic community in global networks and partnerships.’

In essence, what has been occurring in the internationalisation of higher education can be considered to a large extent as ad hoc and, therefore, the chance of having just one working definition is improbable. In fact, Knight (2011a: 1) questions whether or not a new definition is needed in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the implications international activities have in the realm of higher education. She concluded that internationalisation has been guided by the principle that it must be linked to local context and purpose; there is not ‘one way or a right way’ to internationalise higher education, thus it must be seen as ‘a means to an end not an end unto itself’. More than ever, priority must be given to ‘strengthening and reinforcing the values of cooperation, exchange, partnership over the present emphasis of competitiveness and commercialisation’. In other words, more focus must be given to the added values embedded in the internationalisation of higher education and the factors that threaten such values and less on its definition.

Also central to the debate of internationalisation of higher education is the matter of access. The burgeoning call for ‘knowledge societies’ infer several things, but primarily that there is a deficiency in quality education in the 21st Century, as well as an unacceptable level of accessibility to quality education. Like the information society

⁷ NAFSA was established in 1948 to promote the professional development of college and university officials who were responsible for the 25,000 international students who went to the USA to study after WWII. NAFSA believes ‘to be fully successful, it must involve active and responsible engagement of the academic community in global networks and partnerships’. http://www.nafsa.org/Learn_About_NAFSA/History/

(UNESCO, 2003a)⁸, poor access continues to plague the drive towards establishing knowledge societies worldwide, whereby reinforcing the notion that quality higher education should be a public good. The reality is the populaces of many emerging and developing societies are not adequately equipped for the global market; this restricts their efforts in tackling their various economic and social adversities, and inevitably impedes sustainable development at the national level.

In the 2005 UNESCO Report *‘Hacia las sociedades del conocimiento’* this fact is highlighted, noting the world is moving away from an information society toward a more knowledge society; it is being divided between societies that produce and consume knowledge and those societies that can only afford the more privileged few to consume knowledge; in other words, *‘...la brecha cognitiva separa a los países más favorecidos de los países en desarrollo, y más concretamente de los países menos adelantados’* (MATSUURA, 2005: 6). The divide between the North and South is augmenting, yet data suggests that the path to ‘developed’ status for many emerging and developing countries is increasing (LAKNER and MILANOVIC, 2013). Notwithstanding, other data also suggest the knowledge/economic disparity is becoming more evident within nations (MATSUURA, 2005; LAKNER & MILANOVIC, 2013).

Higher education as we know it today is said to be a product of the twentieth century (DE WIT, 2002), and the two main factors for the rise of this ‘international’ phenomenon are said to be the establishment of the United Nations of 1945 and the Fulbright Act of 1946⁹ after World War II; a time when the political and cultural rationales had been crucial. Prior to 1945, the League of Nations (1920, predecessor of United Nations), and the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation (1922) were established. In addition, the United States in 1919 established the Institute of International Education (IIE), while Germany in 1925 created the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD), and in 1934 the United Kingdom established the

⁸ In 2003 80 % of the world’s population lacked access to basic telecommunication s facilities and less than 10 percent had access to internet. The information serve as a base for the knowledge society, therefore they are seen as compatible.

⁹ In 1961 the Fulbright-Hays Act, otherwise known as the Mutual Education and Cultural Exchange Act, was passed. ‘Section 102 of the act authorized a wide range of cultural, technical, and educational interchange activities, but one section, 102(b)(6), focused exclusively on strengthening education in the fields of foreign languages and area studies throughout the American educational system’ (Scarfo, 1998: 24).

British Council. In 1960 the birth of Title VI of the Higher Education Act, which speaks to the internationalisation of curriculum, saw the development of a multidisciplinary area of study and foreign language centres, as well as international studies and international affairs.

The elements of globalisation that indicate the direction and importance of the internationalisation of higher education, as identified by Knight (2008a), are knowledge society, information and communication technologies (ICTS), market economy, trade liberation and governance (Table 1.2). The implications of these elements are many, but essentially they imply greater access to higher education is needed, new modes of delivery are emerging, and the need for new policies to govern the new activities within trade.

Table 1.2 The implications of five elements of globalization for the internationalisation of higher education

<i>Element of Globalization</i>	<i>Impact on Higher Education</i>	<i>Implications for the International Dimension of Higher Education</i>
<p>Knowledge Society Increasing importance is attached to the production and use of knowledge as a wealth creator for nations.</p>	<p>A growing emphasis on continuing education, lifelong learning, and continual professional development; creates a greater unmet demand for post-secondary education. The need to develop new skills and knowledge results in new types of programs and qualifications. Universities' role in research and knowledge production alters, becomes more commercialized.</p>	<p>New types of private and public providers deliver education and training programs across borders—e.g., private media companies, networks of public/private institutions, corporate universities, multinational companies. Programs become more responsive to market demand. Specialized training programs are developed for niche markets and professional development and distributed worldwide. The international mobility of students, academics, education/training programs, research, providers,</p>

		and projects increases. Mobility is both physical and virtual.
ICTS –Information and Communication Technologies New developments in information and communication technologies and systems.	New delivery methods are used for domestic and cross-border education, especially online and satellite-based forms.	Innovative international delivery methods are used, including e-learning, franchises. Satellite campuses require more attention to accreditation of programs/providers, more recognition of qualifications.
Market Economy Growth in the number and influence of market-based the world.	The commercialization and commodification of higher education and training at domestic and international levels increases.	New concerns emerge about the appropriateness of curriculum and teaching materials in different cultures/ countries. New potential develops for homogenization and hybridization.
Trade Liberalization New international and regional trade agreements develop to decrease barriers to trade.	Import and export of educational services and products increases as barriers are removed	The emphasis increases on the commercially oriented export and import of education programs; international development projects continue to diminish in importance.
Governance The creation of new international governance structures and systems. New delivery methods are used for domestic and cross-border education, especially online and satellite-based forms.	The role of national-level education actors both government and nongovernment is changing. New regulatory and policy frameworks are being considered at all levels.	Consideration is given to new inter-national /regional frameworks to complement national and regional policies and practices, especially in quality assurance, accreditation, credit transfer, recognition of qualifications, and student mobility.

Source: Knight (2006; updated 2008)

Knight and De Wit (1997) believe that through the internationalisation of higher education individuals are developed as local, national and international citizens. Thus, higher education has evolved to include better access to the majority, unlike many years

prior when only the elite and potential leaders sought and were granted the opportunity to obtain tertiary education at institutions of higher learning.

In the early 1950s, the United States was the first and only country where massive registration in higher education occurred. Within a twenty year period, post-secondary education registration (universities and other institutions of higher learning) doubled from 40 million to 80 million students between the 1975 and 1995. Today, China and India have millions of students registered, but, compared to the United States the numbers are hardly impressive. For example, China with a population of approximately 1.3 billion has over 17 million students registered in institutions of higher education - 20% of the total post-secondary age population; and, likewise, India with a general population of over 1.1 billion people has 10% of the university age population enrolled (TORRES, 2009a). On the other hand, the United States, which has a general population of approximately 310 million, in 2008 had a little fewer than 29 million students between the ages of 18 and 24 enrolled in higher education institutions (EGRON-POLAK & HUDSON, 2010).

Among the several theories emerging about the best approaches to internationalising higher education, Viv Caruana (2008: 5-6) puts forward four principles¹⁰ that illustrate a paradigm shift in addressing the matter of internationalisation in higher education:

a) The ‘awareness that internationalisation entails a shift in thinking and attitudes to recreate globalisation in the form of social practices and confront homogenization.’

b) The ‘recognition that internationalisation is about more than simply the presence of international students on...campuses and sending...students abroad.’

c) The ‘recognition that internationalisation is a long term process of ‘becoming international’ or developing a willingness to teach and learn

¹⁰ The four principles are directed to the internationalisation of higher education institutions in the UK, but they are undoubtedly applicable to internationalisation of higher education globally.

from other nations and cultures as distinct from traditional definitions as involving more than one country.’

d) The ‘awareness of internationalisation in the context of higher learning and pedagogy has social, cultural, moral and ethical dimensions that both transcend the narrow economic focus and establish a synergy with other agenda.’

In other words, while ‘recognition’ at the institution level and the national level are equally imperative, it is essential that institutions and governments recognise the needs of the labour markets, both locally and internationally, while at the same time ensuring culture preservation. These given principles ought to serve as guide to the internationalisation of higher education, in spite of country’s or institutions’ rationales.

De Wit (2002: 83-102; 2009b: 126; 2010: 10), who acknowledges the many different rationales for internationalising higher education institutions, posits they can be categorised into four groups:

- *Academic reasons*: ‘the objectives refer to the integration of an international dimension into teaching and researching, and quality improvement.’
- *Social/cultural reasons*: ‘the objectives include the development of the individual, the role of foreign languages and cross-cultural understanding.’
- *Economic reasons*: ‘the objectives relate to direct or long-term economic benefits, e.g. the income of the institution, developing of an internationally qualified labour force, trade relations, international supply and demand for education.’
- *Political reasons*: ‘the objectives refer to issues such as security, stability, peace and ideological influence.’

The *academic rationale* speaks to the enhancement of ‘the teaching and learning process and achieving excellence in research and scholarly activities.’ The Association of Universities of Colleges of Canada (AUCC) is one of the educational organisations that view internationalising higher education as a means of preparing students and scholars who are internationally knowledgeable and competent. The *social-cultural rationale* is that of preservation and promotion of national culture and language. The *economic rationale* entails two levels; national and institutional. The national level concentrates on the economic, scientific and technological competitiveness: investing in applied research and a highly skilled and knowledgeable workforce. However, at the institutional level universities place emphasis on ‘diversifying their funding sources’ in order to wane their dependence of government support. Finally, the *political rationale* views education as an export product/service.

Even so, for the OECD (2004a: 26) these four rationales may be categorised as a single approach, the *mutual understanding approach*. Under this approach the economic rationale is termed as the ‘development and aid’ rationale. The mutual understanding approach ‘allows and encourages mobility of domestic students and staff through scholarship and academic exchange programmes and supports academic partnerships between educational institutions’. The characteristic of this approach is one of ‘openness’ as it is described as not being active in recruiting international students.

According to the OECD (2004b), countries such as Japan, Mexico, Korea, and Spain, as well as the Socrates-Erasmus programme which involves student and teacher exchange, as well as joint development and study programmes utilise this approach. Three other approaches presented by the OECD (2004a: 26) are: the skilled migration approach, the revenue generating approach and the capacity building approach. The *skilled migration approach* is similar to the mutual understanding approach as far as having the same goals, but differs in its actual approach. A stronger emphasis is placed on recruiting selected international students and attracting talented students ‘to work in the host country’s knowledge economy, or render its higher education and research sectors more competitive’ and in some cases, ‘specific services are designed to help international students in their studies and their stay abroad and more teaching takes place in English.’ This approach targets different groups such as post-graduated or research students,

students in a specific field and even from a specific geographic location. Countries that conform to this approach are Germany, Canada, France, the United Kingdom (for EU students) and the United States (for post-graduate students). The *revenue-generating approach*, like the previous two approaches shares the same rationale, but it ‘offers higher education services on more or less full-fee basis, without public subsidies’. Under this approach, international students, unlike domestic students, more than ever are becoming a source for institutions to generate additional income as they are encouraged to be ‘entrepreneurial in the international education market’. In fact, governments often grant institutions substantial autonomy and implement policies to protect their higher education sector reputation and international students.

One way international students are protected is through the assurance of ‘quality arrangements’, and in addition, at times, policies are believed to be put in place to lower and/or eliminate barriers to cross-border education activities via trade negotiations in educational services under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), or other agreements. The results of this approach are an increase of fee-paying mobile students and strong cross-border involvement. Countries that embrace this approach include Australia, the United Kingdom (for non-EU students), New Zealand and the United States (for undergraduate students).

The final approach is the *capacity-building approach* which encourages cross-border higher education. It delivers as a relatively quick way to build an emerging country’s capacity (OECD, 2004a). The OECD views scholarships programmes as an ‘important policy instruments’ in supporting the outward mobility of civil servants, teachers, academics and students in emerging countries. If sustainability is to be achieved, emerging countries must encourage ‘foreign institutions, programmes and academic staff to come and operate for-profit ventures, generally under a government regulation which ensures their compatibility with the country’s nation- and economy-building agendas’ (OECD, 2004b: 4). This usually requires some form of ‘twinning’ or partnership, which sometimes is compulsory and facilitates knowledge between foreign and local institutions. This approach contributes to large number of outgoing students and foreign revenue-generating educational programmes and institutions. Countries that

employ this approach include those of the South-East and North Asia (such as Malaysia Hong Kong, China and Singapore) and the Middle East.

Given that various approaches to internationalisation are necessary at the international, national, and sector level, the new international and regional frameworks are working to complement the policies and practices of countries and regions. According to Knight (2004a: 19), at the national and sector level interest in the internationalisation of higher education entails five basic approaches:

1) *Programmes*: provide funded programmes that facilitate international activities, such as mobility, research, and linkages.

2) *Rationales*: examine why it is important that the sector becomes more international: be it human resource development building, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation-building, and or social/cultural development.

3) *Policies*: identify, address and underscore the importance of the international/intercultural dimension in higher education; irrespective of the sector – education, foreign affairs, science and technology, culture and trade.

4) *Strategies*: consider internationalisation as a key element of a national strategy to achieve a country's goals and priorities, both domestically and internationally.

5) *Ad hoc*: react/respond to the many new opportunities that are being presented for international delivery, mobility, and cooperation in postsecondary education.

On the other hand, at the institutional level, institutions often employ one of four approaches to internationalisation, not exclusive of each other, but one is usually more dominant. For Knight (1999b: 15), these four approaches to the internationalisation of higher education institutions are:

1) The *activity approach* which happens to be the most prevalent. It is 'characteristic of the period when one described the international dimension in terms of specific national students and development assistance of academic mobility'. The types of activities used to describe this approach include curriculum, student/faculty exchanges, technical assistance, and international students. In the 1970s and the early 1980s some professionals referred to the activity approach as being synonymous with 'international education'.

2) The *competency approach* is characterised by the quality knowledge, development of new skills, interest, values and attitudes of the students. The emphasis of this approach to internationalisation is placed on the human element - students, faculty, technical, administrators, and support staff. The focus is to develop competent individuals via improved curricula and programmes.

3) The *ethos approach* refers to the organisational development theories, 'the creation of a culture or climate within an organisation to support a particular set of principles and goals'. Internationalisation at the institutional level is credited for fostering the 'development of international and intercultural values and initiatives'.

4) The *process approach* focuses on 'the integration or infusion of an international or intercultural dimension, into teaching, research and services through a combination of activities, policies and procedures' of an institution. The international dimension of this approach is hard to sustain without integration, therefore, more attention is given to programme, policies and procedures.

Some see the aims of higher education as transformational learning, critical learning, and permanent learning. As indicated before, the internationalisation of higher education contributes directly and indirectly to transforming the basis of education in terms of international curriculum, its operation (based on collaborating networks), the

role of teacher/student mobility, global pertinence, and the profile of managerial investigation. The greatest hope of higher education not only has to do with being a 'storehouse' for what society may need as an instrument for something, but rather higher education is obligated to guarantee students the opportunity to realise their post-university aspirations, giving them an enriched experience in their path toward obtaining basic qualifications, and for some a postgraduate course. In fact, learning must be considered as a 'qualitative change' in the way we see, experience, understand and conceptualise a person with respect to the real world (RAMSDEN, 1998) and must not be limited to 'our' world. Thus, a student-centered approach which requires educating, training and preparing future leaders for the various segments of society remains a responsibility universities and colleges cannot shy away from (LOCKS et al., 2008). Developed countries and developing countries that wish to remain or become leading members of the 'knowledge society' are active in the vigorous process of economic internationalisation and higher education in their countries. The dynamics of globalisation and internationalisation continue to contribute to the transformation of traditional national higher education toward an education without frontiers. In fact, the World Bank (2002) advocates that in order to surpass the current popular pedagogy method of memorisation a new model of formation and training is required, a model that brings about permanent education. This is said to be possible only under internationalised learning models; that is, curricula that entail some essential internationalised elements. Such international contents should include multilingualism, investigation within a global network, greater competency of teachers and academia mobility to name a few. A caveat which should concern policy makers and all stakeholders is that this new reality may introduce, though slowly, a certain sense of '*denationalisation*' of educative systems, whereby national education objectives become less centralised; that is, too much focus may be placed on international trends and norms that national, ethnic values are no longer core ideals to a country's education agenda.

Obtaining knowledge, whether actively or passively, is a natural human ability, and our continuous need to know is inescapable. Higher education fulfils this need in a formal and concentrated environment through means of institutions of higher learning – mainly colleges and universities. Higher Education amplifies and solidifies prior learning

bringing about a deeper global reflection, an ingredient necessary for success (DEWEY, 1916) and, according to Anne Brockbank and Ian McGill (1998), the process of reflection begins only when an idea is tested and put in practice. Additionally, the essence of universities is that of 'inclusive excellence'; it speaks about making each individual of a diverse student body a focal point (LOCKS et al., 2008). That is, the focus is on student intellectual and social development, the purposeful use of development and utilisation or organisational resource directed at student learning, the attention to the cultural differences that learners bring to the education experience that enhance the educational enterprise, and a welcoming community that engages all of its diversity in the service of student organisational learning (AAC&U, 2007).

Studies (GURIN et al., 2002) reveal the need for a diverse democracy that fosters citizenship for all, particularly students at universities. Experiences with diversity are important influences on the development of student learning and democratic outcomes, including students' intellectual engagement and motivation as well as citizenship engagement 'diversity' is an enriching source in the field of education. From personal experiences with diversity, I concur that any interaction with diverse peers and a curricular that exposes students to diversity have always provided students challenges that are central to the development of a 'healthy sense'. Diversity experiences have been proven to have 'robust effects on educational outcomes for all groups of students, although to varying degrees' (Ibid: 351). Thomas N. Laird (2005) posits students of a diverse student body, a diverse classroom and who participate in diversity courses are more likely to score higher on 'academic self confidence', 'social agency' and 'critical thinking disposition'. The evidence provides additional support for the assertion that diversity is a critical component of educating college students.

The two classifications of higher education institutions are private and public. Government influence on public higher education and the desire to employ higher education as an engine for economic growth is not free of political motivation (CHRISTAKIS, 2009). Whether private or public, higher education institutions have been seizing the opportunity to diversify their student body in light of the economic demands and competitive environment of globalisation. However, the level of integration of

diverse perspectives in the curriculum indicates an institution's true commitment to fulfilling the very essence of 'internationalisation'.

Over the years, the need for private institutions continues to be embraced by all sectors as public universities and states have difficulty budgeting for all the demands of operating public education institutions at their optimal level. Thus, private universities play a vital role in filling the gaps public institutions are unable to fill. According to Torres (2009a), the neo-liberal model which has been in existence in the US for over 100 years advocates for the privatisation model to be more widely accepted. That is, making public institutions (at all levels) become more financially independent by selling services as a commodity. In other words, universities must feel obligated to enter the world of commercialisation and 'sell' their product. Such action, he states, alleviates the huge weight international financial institutions, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, have over governments as a result of bilateral agreements. Of course, public as well as some private universities worldwide are subsidised by federal or state government, but many also receive millions of dollars in the form of contribution from the private sector in exchange for perks such as the naming or dedication of buildings and programmes.

International education

International education is an instrumental tool in a competitive and globalised world and the number of international students continues to increase in spite of the many challenges that continue to plague student mobility and international education. Even though the needs of students vary from region to region or country to country, the demand for higher education – whether through internet, foreign programmes in the home country or abroad – is growing rapidly. The OECD (2004a) attributes its four approaches as the driving forces for such significant growth (a desire to promote mutual understanding; the migration of skilled workers in a globalised economy; the desire of the institutions to generate additional revenues; and the need to build a more educated workforce in the home countries, generally as in emerging economies).

A pointed example is noted in how, in context of student mobility, cross-border education across OECD countries and regions has been developed differently. In Europe,

student mobility has been policy driven. In the Asia Pacific region it is demand driven, while in North America it is a result of being primarily a ‘magnet for foreign students.’ However, in respect to delivering foreign educational programmes to students in their home country, institutions are largely credited. The provisions of these programmes have been made possible and easier as a result of institutional frameworks that grant higher education institutions substantial autonomy and the policies adopted by receiving countries (Ibid). The growth and diversification of cross-border raised several questions which OECD (2004b) policy makers outlined in their Policy Brief. The areas of interest and concern then and today are: quality and recognition, access and equity, financing and cost, using cross-border higher education to build capacity and policy coherence.

In an attempt to define and understand international education, Arum and Van de Water (1992: 197, 202), who stated that both professionals and non-professionals alike use various terms interchangeably (international education, international affairs, international studies, international programs, global education, multicultural education, global studies, the international perspective, and the international dimension) have essentially posited three elements integral to the definition – ‘the multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation’.

1. *International Studies* – is equivalent to Singleton’s and Watson’s ‘education for international and cross-cultural understanding’ and Butt’s ‘...study of the thought, institutions, techniques, or ways of life of other peoples and of their interrelationships’, and Deutsch’s ‘...study of non-Western cultures; education for world understanding’, and Harari’s ‘international content of the curricula’.
2. *International Education Exchange* – is equivalent to Singleton’s and Watson’s ‘cross-national movements of...students, teachers’, or Deutsch’s ‘programs of educational exchange, of both students and teachers’, and Harari’s ‘international movement of scholars and students and concerned with training and research’.

3. *Technical Cooperation* – is equivalent to Singleton’s and Watson’s ‘cross-national movements of educational materials...consultants, and aid’, Butt’s ‘the transfer from one society to another’, or Deutsch’s ‘university programs such as education technical assistance and institutional building in developing nations’, and Harari’s ‘arrangements engaging U.S. education abroad in technical assistance and educational cooperation programs’

Yet, a most recent attempt to better categorise the complex phenomenon of cross-border education activities, Knight (2012: 4) presents international higher education into three ‘generations’. The first being student and people mobility, the second as programme and provider mobility, and the third as education hub. These three generations presented in Table 1.3 are not mutually exclusive as all three are intertwined, but it simple highlights the new innovative or evolving approach to internationalisation of higher education.

Table 1.3: Three Generations of Cross-border Education

Cross-border Education	Primary Focus	Description
First Generation	Student/People Mobility Movement of students to foreign country for education purposes	Full degree or for short-term study, research, field work, internship, exchange programmes
Second Generation	Programmes and Provider Mobility Movement of programmes or institutions/companies across jurisdictional borders for delivery of education	Programme Mobility Twinning, Franchised, Articulated/Validated Joint/Double Award, Online/Distance Provider Mobility, Branch Campus Virtual University, Merger/Acquisition Independent Institutions
Third Generation	Education Hubs Countries attract foreign students, researchers, workers, programmes, providers, R&D companies, for education, training, knowledge production, innovation purposes	Student Hub Students, programme providers move to foreign country for education purposes Talent Hub Students, workers move to foreign country for education and training and employment purposes. Knowledge/Innovation Hub Education researchers, scholars, HEIs, R&D centres move to foreign country to produce knowledge and innovation

Source: Knight 2012

For example, the term ‘institution mobility’ is being substituted by the term ‘provider mobility’, which in fact may be a more inclusive term that best describes the new, emerging and varied providers of higher education in the twenty-first century. Nonetheless, the term ‘provider mobility’ should be inclusive of programme mobility, as well. The fact is overseas programmes are international educational services provided by some of the same universities and corporations that participate in institution mobility suggest there is no need for a distinction between programme mobility and provider mobility.

1.1.1 Internationalisation and student mobility

While the concept of international student mobility is nothing new, history record of its development at degree-granting universities dates it back to the early 12th century when elite English students who sought higher education in Paris. It is believed that as this trend grew it prevented the anticipated advancement of the two first English universities: University of Oxford and the University of Cambridge (RÜEGG, 1992). Later, however, in the 14th century (about the year 1325), prior to the Hundred Years War, the numbers of students began declining (COURTENAY, 2004).

However, for the past twenty years student mobility has increased by colossal numbers. International students are, to date, the most vital element to the internationalisation of higher education for several reasons. The UNESCO (2012)¹¹ defines international student as ‘students who have crossed a national or territorial border for the purposes of education and are now enrolled outside their country of origin.’ In 1995 the number of international students stood at 1.7 million and in 2010 that number almost doubled to 4.1 million. A year later the number of international students worldwide increased to approximately 4.3 million (OECD, 2013).

According to the OECD (2004b), in 2001 OECD countries accounted for approximately 85 percent of all foreign students worldwide, however, they concentrated in only six of these countries. The United States hosted 30 percent of all international

¹¹ Data provided by UIS Country Profile shows statistics of actual numbers based on UNESCO’s definition of international/foreign students. It indicates the current trend in student mobility although the numbers do not necessarily correspond with other data sources. See Annex E for country definition of the terms international student and foreign student.

students in OECD countries, the United Kingdom 14 percent, Germany 13 percent, France 9 percent, Australia 7 percent and Japan 4 percent. It is important to note that the Anglophone countries accounted for 51 percent of these international students. On the other hand, Europe as a region among OECD countries received the most foreign students (840,000), even though half (52%) of these students were from European countries. The North America region received 320,000 foreign students less than the European region, but was ranked first as being the most open region. Sixty percent of these students came from Asia, which also ranked number-one for the region sending the most students abroad. In respect to the OECD area, Asian students represented 43 percent of all international tertiary-level students. Europe was noted as being the second largest sender of foreign students with 35 percent, followed by Africa (12%), North America (7%), South America (3%), and Oceania (1%).

A reoccurring trend in the realm of the internationalisation of higher education is the varied definitions and classifications used to describe its activities. Russell King et al. (2010) categorise student mobility in three ways: *degree mobility* – mobility for an entire programme of study; *credit mobility* – mobility for part of the programme; and *voluntary mobility* – mobility for various personal reasons. However, for this paper the two basic forms of student mobility are: vertical mobility (*degree mobility*) and horizontal mobility (*credit mobility*). Horizontal mobility, known as *non-degree mobility*, is ‘mobility within degree programmes’ and thus refers to students who study abroad in another institution for a short period and whose programmes are usually compatible to that of their home institution. These students are either aligned with organised mobility programmes such as ERASMUS (Europe), MIREES (Master of Arts in Interdisciplinary Research and Studies on Eastern Europe - East Europe), and may include ‘free-movers’ who do not take part in any organised mobility programme, they are independent agents in their quest for higher education abroad. On the other hand, vertical mobility, known as *degree mobility*, refers to students who study mainly abroad for a full degree and mobility tends to occur ‘between degree programmes, meaning between Bachelor and Master degrees’ (WITTE et al., 2009: 220).

The definitions of the terms as presented by Witte et al., and as adopted by the OECD, have indicated that there are grey areas still to be categorised; the definitions

exclude the mobility students who move directly from secondary institutions to tertiary institutions (a form of vertical mobility, a category to which a substantial number of international students pertain), and those students who transfer from one university, with no intention of returning, to another where they will obtain their degree (a combination of horizontal mobility and vertical mobility, another category to which many international students pertain).

Either way, both types of student mobility encounter several challenges and biases. For example, European international students within the European community are favoured more than their fellow international counterparts who come from outside the EU community. According to the European Student Union (ESU, 2008), some common problems with student mobility, in reference to the European community, but also applicable to the global movement, are degree recognition, financing, lack of clear information and information sharing, and language barriers. The ESU, in respect to international students, advocates that access to high quality education at all levels must be an option for all regardless of their citizenship, or country of birth.

Tim Mazzarol et al. (2003) describe the development of international education in the second half of the twentieth century as being transited into a 'global market'. Following the Second World War, the flow of international students undertaking courses at all levels grew rapidly as developing countries sought to educate their populations. By the end of the century there were an estimated 1.5 million students studying abroad at the higher education level. Driving the market's expansion was a combination of forces that both pushed the students from their countries of origin and simultaneously pulled them toward certain host nations. By the 1990s, the higher education systems of many host nations (e.g. Australia, Canada, the USA, the UK and New Zealand) had become more market focused and institutions were adopting professional marketing strategies to recruit students into fee-paying programs. For many education institutions such fees have become a critical source of financing.

1.1.2 Internationalisation and programme and institution mobility

Student mobility is only one way of internationalising higher education. Other forms of cross-border education have contributed significantly to the increasing access to

international education worldwide, especially over the last decade. Programme and institution (P & I) mobility can be considered the antithesis to student mobility. In 2005 UNESCO and OECD together coined a definition of cross-border higher education as being:

‘higher education that takes place in situations where the teacher, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross national jurisdictional borders. Cross-border education may include higher education by public/private and not-for-profit providers. It encompasses a wide range of modalities in a continuum from face-to-face (taking various forms from students travelling abroad and campuses abroad) to distance learning (using a range of technologies and including e-learning).’¹²

The framework of this aspect of cross-border education is essential to the development of both importing and exporting countries. The actors and policies in international education that affect cross-border education must reflect diversity and ensure ‘the highest co-ordination, or compatibility, between several policy agendas such as *quality assurance and recognition policy*; development assistance in education; other domestic educational policies; cultural policy; migration and visa policy; trade policy, and economic policy’ (OECD, 2004a: 16). However, the main policy issues pertaining to cross-border higher education are quality and recognition, access and equity, cost, contribution and economic growth. There are a lot at stake for countries providing education services as they try to maintain their reputation and the attractiveness of their programme, while countries receiving the service are concern with protecting their citizens. Given the fact that higher education systems vary worldwide, quality and recognition policies are vital in ensuring information is transparent and readable to minimize low quality education programmes, often offered by ‘rogue providers’ (degree mills) and rogue quality assurance and accreditation agencies (accreditation mills) from entering the local market. Programme mobility and institutional mobility are not managed by student mobility policies and carry their own risks such as fraud—the selling and buying of fake degrees which is a growing issue of concern. The OECD (2004b: 6) presents the following policy challenges as a result of the new developments in cross-bordering:

¹² INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITIES (2007): Internationalization: Definitions. (http://archive.www.iau-aiu.net/internationalization/i_definitions.html), accessed on 9 May 2010.

- Students need to be protected from the risks of misinformation, low-quality provision and qualifications of questionable validity by strong quality assurance and accreditation systems, which cover cross-border and commercial provision and non-traditional delivery modes.
- Qualifications should be understandable internationally and transparent in order to increase their international validity and portability and to ease the work recognition arrangements and credential evaluators.
- National quality assurance and accreditation agencies need to intensify co-operation at international level in order to increase their mutual understanding.

While cross-border higher education provides more opportunities to access tertiary education, it also presents the issue of equity and the problem of access is reiterated. *Access and equity* policies are needed for a couple reasons: 1) for countries that are unable to meet the demands for higher education by their citizens, cross-border higher education serves well as part of the solution; 2) as a matter of equity, some students may never have the opportunity to study abroad nor earn an education in their home country due to their financial challenges. Student mobility in higher education entails equity issues for both foreign and domestic students in some receiving countries; for domestic students they may face the possibility of being displaced by their foreign counterparts. Governments and institutions bear the responsibility to minimise such occurrences. Hence, in an effort to do so the OECD (2004b) suggests:

- improving financial support for participating in cross border education through targeted and means-tested grants or student loan schemes;
- improving the provision of information on the benefits and costs of cross-border student mobility to students from lower educational and socio-economic backgrounds.

In fact, student mobility aids the advancement of P & I mobility. International students when they add to the teacher/student ratio contribute to some extent to the financing of the domestic higher education system, lowering the average cost of higher education and help maintain diversity, variety in educational offers. Consequently, as part of the solution to the *financing and cost issue* to universities the OECD (2004b: 7) suggests governments encourage public universities to recruit large number of international students:

- Provide them with effective incentives, including financial autonomy and the ability to control the use of private resources generated by those activities
- Put effective guidelines and mechanisms in place to ensure accountability for any cross-border entrepreneurial activities of publicly funded higher education institutions.

It is important to note that even with indirect subsidisation from different sectors – which certainly alleviates some financial strains for institutions – the funding issue for international students continues to be of great concern. From a student’s perspective the other forms of ‘cross-border’ education is much more cost efficient than student mobility, and, as stated before, it helps countries cope with their unmet demand for tertiary studies and strengthen their position in higher education. Whereas student and scholar mobility expand individual’s international network, P & I mobility can help improve the quality of local provision.

For developing countries, commercial provision of cross-border higher education may provide the receiving countries more negotiating power to dictate their conditions. It is considered to be another helpful tool to build on their capacity, but it involves some risks. Caveats regarding these risks for developing countries from the OECD (Ibid.) are:

- Ensure that foreign provision meets their needs and quality requirements and that it leads to actual spillovers.

- Cross-border student mobility might in some cases involve a risk of “brain drain” for the sending country: cross-border education without student mobility might alleviate the risk and create job opportunities at home for the students.
- Trade is not likely to play a major role in countries where there are insufficient funds to pay for unsubsidised (for-profit) education; development assistance in higher education should thus be encouraged in the least developed countries.

A primary example of an OECD country that fully participates in P & I mobility is Australia. Between 1996 and 2001, ‘offshore’ enrolment of all international students increased to 37 percent, a 13 percent increase over five years. Twenty-eight percent of these students attended traditional campuses/courses outside Australia, while fewer than 9 percent were enrolled in offshore distance education. The majority of these students were from Singapore and Hong Kong, China (OECD, 2004b). Cross-border/transnational higher education will continue to gain popularity given that its very nature is to grant better access to higher education; especially P & I mobility that extends international higher education to the mass, as opposed to the traditionally ‘privileged’ or those with scholarships or sponsorships.

1.2 Assessing internationalisation in higher education

Internationalisation in higher education, the response to globalisation, has an element of competitiveness that forces both institutions and nations to improve the quality level of the curriculum and better access for all. Through the specialisation of roles and establishing of alliances, internationalisation is the mechanism to improve quality (RAMA, 2009). For more than fifteen years the topic of quality international education has been tabled for discussion and has been debated. However, the actual measurement of quality, as posed at one of the sessions at the 2007 European Association of International Education session, categorising the various approaches concerning matters of quality and success in internationalisation may be “A Mission Impossible”.

Ranking has become a more popular way to measure quality and success in spite of the debates surrounding the validity of this form of measurement. According to Hans de Wit (2009a: 1), ‘measuring the success of international higher education is becoming an increasingly urgent item for professionals in internationalisation.’ Assessing internationalisation is in fact and should be seen as applied research because its aim is to apply its findings (HUDZIK & STOHL, 2009). The application therefore should be seen as retrospective and prospective. With respect to ranking, national and or international standing is one way universities’ may evaluate their results and make better decisions in materialising their objectives.

National ranking of universities began in the 1980s in the United States, but global ranking began in 2003 with Chinese universities¹³ comparing their standing with their counterparts. Universities can now view their performances and are held accountable for quality assurance not only to students, but faculty, management, and national governments in all aspects of the university life in regard to international education. Ranking includes examining the internationalisation process, programmes and projects. A survey conducted by the International Association of Universities (IAU) shows that of all the institutions of higher learning which participated 73 percent placed high priority on internationalisation, while 23 percent considered it as medium priority and a mere 2 percent low priority (IAU, 2006). Ranking has its shortfalls. The ongoing debate expresses concerns regarding the metrics (the measurement of a number of characteristics) used and the fact that ranking has overshadowed the interest in quality assurance and national research assessment (COELEN, 2009). Some of the most popular ranking systems are the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES) ranking, the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) ranking, and Centre for Higher Education Development (CHE) in Germany which is not on a global scale, but gives the user the option to select his or her ‘preferred metrics’.

De Wit (2009b) identifies several other ways to assure quality international education: accreditation, consultancy, auditing, ‘benchmarking’, good practices, certification, evaluation, indicators, recognition, classification, standards are the most

¹³ Currently known as the Shanghai Jiao Tong University Ranking, or Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU).

common ones, each of which has different objectives and methodologies. Due to the differences among nations, cultures and people, institutions of higher education across nations and throughout regions are encouraged to strengthen relations and improve international education quality by assessing and benchmarking their overall individual programme. The term ‘benchmarking’ is considered to be very central to internationalisation. It establishes international standards that offer better interaction and better stimulus essential to the learning process. The concept of benchmarking looks at how it may contribute to the planning and evaluation strategy of internationalisation. Its role in internationalisation is of strategic importance for the management of higher education. It is a tool for improving quality and planning strategies for the internationalisation of higher education. Accordingly, the relation between quality and internationalisation are important for two reasons:

1. the more importance internationalisation of higher education gains, the more priority must be given to the quality of the international dimension itself,
2. the greater the inclusion of the international dimension as a key component in the general academic and institutional quality review systems (p. 126).

1.2.1 Benchmarking internationalisation

Benchmarking is one of the most mentioned strategies employed in the assessment of internationalisation in higher education. De Wit (2009a) sees the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) benchmarking as a self-improvement tool for organisations that allows them to compare themselves with others, identify their comparative strengths and weaknesses and learn means of improvement. In other words, benchmarking is a way of finding and adopting best practices which go ‘beyond the comparison of data-based scores and conventional performance indicators (SSRs, unit

costs, completion rates); it looks at the processes by which results are achieved'.¹⁴ De Wit (2009a) gives three characteristics of the ACU Benchmarking Programme: 1) it identifies areas for change, 2) it assists in setting targets for improvement, and 3) it identifies techniques for managing change.

Other initiatives taken by various countries and institutions that have established tools and instruments for the assessment of internationalisation include the Netherlands Organisation for International Cooperation in Higher Education (NUFFIC), a group of Dutch institutions; the European Centre for Strategic Management of Universities (ESMU); the American Council on Education (ACE), the Association of International Educators (NAFSA); The Spanish Agencia Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad y Acreditación (ANECA); The Forum on Education Abroad (FEA), and the initiatives that are being taken by Japan, all of which have common bases, such as the OECD's Internal Quality Review guidelines provided by the Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) (DE WIT, 2009a). The strategies utilised vary due to regional and national context, as well as cultures of institutions. Whether corporate or competitive, the measure of success is not the easiest. De Wit (2009a: 3) has posed some elementary questions to be considered in assessing internationalisation in higher education:

- How do we measure what we do?
- What do we measure?
- What indicators do we use for assessment?
- Do we assess processes or activities?
- Do we carry out assessments with a view to improving the quality of our own process and activities or do we assess the contribution made by internationalisation to the improvement of the overall quality of higher education?
- Which instruments do we use, *ex post* or *ex ante* measurements, indicators, benchmarking, best practices, quality review, accreditation, certification, audits or rankings?

¹⁴ ASSOCIATION OF COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITIES (2012): What is evaluative benchmarking (<https://www.acu.ac.uk/membership/strategic-management-programme/evaluative-benchmarking>), retrieved on 17 November 2012.

- Are we focusing on inputs, outputs, or outcomes?

John K. Hudzik and Michael Stohl (2009: 14) explain De Wit's second question, what do we measure? They classify what can be measured into three dimensions:

- *Inputs*: resources (money, people, policies, etc.) available to support internationalisation efforts;
- *Outputs*: the amount and types of work or activity undertaken in support of internationalisation efforts, and
- *Outcomes*: impacts or end results. It is these that are usually most closely associated with measuring achievement and the missions of institutions.

Hudzik and Stohl (2009: 9) also underscore the importance of including curriculum, co-curriculum (associated with any activity that relates directly to one's major), and extra-curriculum activities in the scheme of assessment. These along with other important factors contribute to the international learning achievement goal of universities, which is to aid students in their pursuit of knowledge, skills and attitudes for the international market making them 'global-ready graduates'. The conclusion is 'a lack of attention to assessment ultimately weakens the priority which institutions give to internationalisation' keeping in mind that such evaluations must be aligned with core institutional missions.

The benchmarking concept, as an instrument of comparative analysis and quality assurance, has made evident the increase in interest for academic quality among universities' diverse processes of evaluation, whereby encouraging the improvement of information within and without its own institution, programmes, and diverse units. It is what is referred to as self-evaluation. It connects 'what is declared' to 'what is done' and 'what is achieved' to 'what must be changed'. Benchmarking allows one to identify, analyse and compare what a particular institution is facing and what others have implemented in their effort to reach its proposed objectives. Benchmarking is one of the many tools that facilitate the analysis of the external and internal factors. It is a modern

administrative tool that allows an institution of higher education to improve its comparative evaluation role. As complex as this may be, it is considered to be the instrument that helps an institution or organisation make better 'internal' decisions well.

1.2.2 Benefits and risks to internationalisation

There seems to be a consensus in the area of international education and within the fraternity of specialist in this field that the serious risks associated with the complex and growing trend in internationalisation need continuous examination. According to the results of the 2005 IAU survey (2006), there is overwhelming agreement (96 percent of responding institutions from 95 countries) that internationalisation brings benefits to higher education. Yet, this consensus is qualified by the fact that 70 percent also believe there are substantial risks associated with the international dimension of higher education (KNIGHT, 2005a). The survey, conducted every three years, reveals the different regional views the impact internationalisation has on cultures and peoples. According to Knight (2007), the three main risks associated with internationalisation are commercialisation and commodification of education programs; the increase in the number of foreign 'degree mills' and low-quality providers; and brain drain. Knight considers these risks to stem more from student mobility than that of 'campus-based' activities, and furthermore, contrary to common belief, that brain drain is not considered as the number-one risk factor. Rather, commercialisation is identified as number-one by both developing and developed countries. Among some of the lowest risks mentioned are the loss of cultural or national identity, jeopardy of the quality of higher education and the homogenisation of the curriculum. Somewhat surprising was the fact that 60 percent of the universities were not aware of the General Agreement on Trade Services (GATS), proving that GATS 'is not a primary catalyst for the distress about the commercialization and internationalization' (KNIGHT, 2007: 1). One of the differences noted between how developed countries and developing countries view the risks saw most African universities (81%) acknowledging more concerns about the risks to commercialisation in relation to internationalisation, a comparable difference with the 58 percent in North America. This indicates most African universities consider the commercialisation of international education to be a great risk and feel they are more vulnerable to low-quality cross-border

providers. North American universities on the other hand, have very little concerns regarding such risks.

On the other hand, Latin America universities ranked commodification and commercialisation below brain drain, elitism, and loss of cultural identity. Two possible reasons cited for such a contrast in Latin American universities are the region's longstanding history of private domestic education at the higher education level, and the low prevalence of for-profit cross border education. In respect to The Middle East, the survey identified it as the only region where the loss of cultural identity was not only given as a threat, but was ranked the number-one risk associated to the process of internationalisation.

The benefits of internationalisation presented in the report include universities having a more internationally oriented staff and student body, and improved academic quality. Interestingly, the three least important benefits have been national and international citizenship, revenue generation, and brain gain. Surely, listing revenue generation as a low priority is questionable. The rationale, however, lies in the fact that 58 of the 95 countries that participated in the survey were developing countries and the remaining 37 were developed countries. Even though Knight calls attention to the tallied responses showing that income generation was 'not a primary reason or benefit associated with internationalisation' (KNIGHT, 2007: 2), developed countries such as the United States and Australia have reported international education as being their third and fourth largest export service and, or of substantial financial earning respectively.

From a regional perspective, the Asia Pacific region in fact is noted as a region that values and sees revenue generation as both an important rationale and a benefit. Other benefits such as academic quality were listed as a high priority for African and Latin American nations while the North American region was the only one that considered fostering national and international citizenship a top priority. Except for the Middle East, all other regions ranked 'brain gain' as the lowest benefit. Another noted observation was the importance developed counties give to the benefit of having more internationally oriented students and staff. On the other hand, the developing countries placed emphasis on the fundamental elements of any higher education: academic quality, research, and curriculum. In regards to brain drain, both developing and developed countries consider it

of little importance. According to Knight (2007: 2), many educators are uncomfortable with the term brain drain/gain, when applied at the international level and will continue to be one of the most critical issues ‘as the higher education sector faces demographic changes, increased labor mobility, and growing national competitiveness for knowledge production and distribution’.

Even though more institutions are introducing international education policies and continue to view the concept of internationalisation as a positive trend for its benefits, it is mostly at the international level that policies are emerging. At the national level, governments are seen as ‘giving inadequate attention to international education and do not play the role that they should in terms of national policy and funding to facilitate international research, mobility and developing projects’ (Ibid.). Nonetheless, some countries have established international education policies (Appendix A), though the policies tend to speak vaguely to the inherent interests of international students. Knight (2007) further posits the future of internationalisation faces many challenges as commercialisation and commodification are considered a serious threat to human development, research and the national capacity benefits of internationalisation.

Thus the challenge remains the same; trying to fully understand the potential impact globalisation and internationalisation in higher education is likely to have on cultures core values. How it will impact the ‘public good’ if it brings about international standardisation and uniformity is the thinking of those who oppose the very essence of what these terms imply. According to Van Damme (2001: 4), many make the error in identifying the ‘public good’ in respect to higher education with an ‘exclusively national policy framework’. Rather, he opines the need for an international framework that ‘transcends the eroded national policy contexts and to some extent to steer the global integration of the higher education systems.’ Failure to provide such a framework he says will result in the internationalisation of higher education becoming unrestrained and wild, generating a lot of resistance and protest.

1.2.3 The brain mobility effect

The British Royal Society first coined the expression ‘brain drain’ to describe the outflow of scientists and technologists to the United States and Canada in the 1950s and

early 1960s (CERVANTES & GUELLEC, 2002). The globalisation phenomenon has generated a competitive response of most developed countries to seek better national policies that will enable higher education institutions to lure students from around the world. This trend is expected to persist as long as the globalisation and internationalisation remain. Torres (2009a) views it this way:

‘the phenomenon of globalisation has brought a competitiveness as never before between the European Union and the United States of America to capture the minds of the world—and it seems the European Union is the State model and the United States model represents the private model. Both are competing to see which of the two models is most successful, especially in the best way of developing cultural and human capital; that is, taking it (human and cultural capital) from others.’¹⁵ p. 38

The fact is statistics indicating brain drain are still not efficiently recorded as many countries do not keep data of returning residents; all that is duly required is the showing of passports for re-entry. The United States does not distinguish in their classification of skilled immigrants between those who were educated in the United States or abroad (COMMANDER et al., 2004). Hence, the official representations provided should not be taken at face value as a reflection of the seriousness, nor should the lack of credibility undermine the actual impact it has on some countries. Comparable data on immigration of both the highly skilled and highly educated are indeed incomplete (CERVANTES & GUELLEC, 2002). It is important to note that not all skilled or highly educated migrants are in search of education, economics or intellectual opportunities; others are forced to leave their homes as a result of political, ethnic or religious motives.

Traditionally, brain drain is understood to be the emigration of bright minds with employment potential (COMMANDER et al., 2004). In essence it is the emigration of highly educated and skilled individuals for the sole purpose of work; that is, the loss of human capital/resource of one country to another. In the late 1950s and during the 1960s many scientist and engineers and other highly educated foreigners were welcomed to the United States to work on their ‘Space’ programme and technology research and initiatives. Today, though the need is still great, colossal migration to the United States has dwindled as a result of competition. Presently, among some of the professionals that

¹⁵ Translated by author.

are highly sought by some OECD countries such as Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States, are teachers and nurses.

Even with the lack of concrete numbers in respect to brain drain, the OECD Developing Centre has reported evidence that foreign talent remains to be in high demand. Forty percent of the foreign born US population has tertiary level education, a mere 1 percent less than the 41 percent of total US adult population (OECD, 2011). Firms from the United States tend to use higher education as a channel to recruit highly skilled migrants. Twenty-five percent of H1B-US (professional non-immigrant) visa holders in 1999 were previously enrolled in US universities. As Canada loses a significant percent of its highly educated they too have become another major magnet for skilled immigrants. Furthermore, the numbers of highly educated immigrants to Germany and France lowered between the 1990s and 2003, propelling these countries to implement policies to attract foreign students, researchers and information technology workers. Germany in 2000 launched its “blue card” initiative which was aimed at recruiting 20,000 foreign IT specialist by the end of the said year. Half the target was met and the majority of the recruits were from European countries as oppose to developing countries. The United Kingdom increased salaries to entice the highly educated of its diaspora to return home. In addition, Australia and New Zealand in 2002 also launched programmes to attract the bright minds of their Diaspora, and since 1997 France has created over 7,000 research posts to encourage the return of post doctorates (CERVANTES & GUELLEC, 2002).

The negative and positive effects of brain drain are debatable as over the years several researchers have discussed and presented empirical evidences of the impact brain drain has had on large developing countries such as India and China, and the impact it often has on smaller countries such as Ghana, Gambia and Jamaica. Some suggest taxing those who emigrate or entice professionals to return or stay home. H. Grubel and A. Scott (1977: 9) referred to Bhagwati and Dellalfar’s ‘taxation’ proposal, which advocates taxing those who emigrate as a means of curtailing economic loss, as being ‘costly and difficult to administer’, as well as a deterrent for international mobility. Another model presented in an effort to discourage brain drain is the ‘emulating model’ theory, which speaks to home countries matching salaries of highly skilled workers that have been

offered better incentives to relocate to recruiting countries. It is also described as an 'attractive intellectual construction, but unrealistic'. According to Simon Commander et al. (2004), the theories that advocate for some form of policy intervention have ignored the benefits of remittance and 'improved skills' emigrants and returning migrants contribute to their home country. A concern presented by Commander et al. is the tendency of the main receiving countries to carefully screen the immigrants, selecting only the best. Thus, if only the best are selected, the increased incentives to emigrate will be relevant only for the individuals with highest ability and who would have chosen to pursue higher education. The concern is that less qualified individuals or potential students may not be motivated to undertake additional education if there is no such compensation.

However, that may not be the case for all countries. Empirical data also suggests that some individuals pursue higher education or obtain pertinent vocational skills with the intention to migrate. Certain disciplines such as teaching and nursing have served as an engine of emigration to Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States. Statistics also show that in India and China 1.1 and 1.4 percent respectively of their top skilled workers moved to the United States in 1990. However, for small countries the migration rate is of a significant magnitude. The pattern is said to be replicated if the reference is extended to the OECD countries. Accordingly, one quarter of Ghana's educated labour force lived in OECD countries. Over 60 percent of Gambia's and, even more alarming, 80 percent of the Jamaican educated labour force lived in OECD countries in 1990. In 1990 the US accounted for 54 percent of total migration from 70 percent of the developing countries used in the research. However, this number is not concrete as some European countries tend to consider children of immigrants born in European countries as immigrants, as well (CARRINGTON & DETRAGIACHE, 1998).¹⁶

For countries that have limited employment growth opportunities, an educated and skilled labour force with family ties and/or investment in their home country, a certain

¹⁶ The OECD record does not look at the figures as to whether or not the numbers are significant to the source country, but rather to the receiving country. An example are the numbers of immigrants from India and China that are often used when trying to measure the impact of brain drain on developing countries more so than other smaller countries like Ghana, Gambia and Jamaica.

percent of emigration (not brain drain) is believed to be beneficial to the sending country (Ibid.).

1.2.4 Trends in internationalisation

As mentioned before, internationalisation of higher education is the ‘process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purpose, functions (teaching, research and service) and delivery of higher education at the institutional and national levels’ (KNIGHT, 2008b: xi), yet not losing their cultural identity as internationalisation, to date, also ‘respects the individuality of the nation’ (KNIGHT, 1997: 6). However, could the very essence of internationalisation which speaks to the need to preserve national identity fail in its mission? To what extent is cultural identity guarded?

Integration is one of the contributing factors that sustain the international dimension, which Knight (1999a) indicates as being a risk for ‘homogenization’ or ‘MacDonaldization’ occurring. In fact, integration through the use of technology and communication, as well as other means, threaten the healthy survival of national identities and culture. Internationalisation is considered and used by some nations as a way to strengthen and promote their national identity which then becomes an important political rationale at the national level. Additionally, she argues that education exchange between countries is increasingly becoming an export product rather than a cultural agreement. As such, countries active in the globalisation of the economy are concentrating on their economic, scientific and technological competitiveness; they are working to maintain a competitive edge through a highly skilled and knowledgeable workforce, and by investing in applied science (Ibid.).

The last 20 years have seen many changes in the internationalisation of institutions of higher learning. As the landscape continues to change, universities, nations and regions employ new approaches that they deem relevant to their programme. According to De Wit (2010: 5), ‘increasing competition in higher education and the commercialisation of cross-border delivery of higher education have challenged the value traditionally attached to exchanges and partnerships.’ It is evident that the ‘international dimension and the position of higher education in the global arena are given greater emphasis in

international, national and institutional documents and mission statements than ever before.’

Such emphasis will continue to extend within and across borders as long as internationalisation maintains its ever growing importance and impact in the arena of higher education. An observation of a change in the way higher education is promoted is the shift from a cooperative approach to a competitive approach. Competition appears to be the new trend though not all have subscribed to this approach, at least not yet. While the growing emphasis seems to be on competition, markets, and entrepreneurialism, there are those who advocate for more attention to be given to ‘social cohesion and to the public role of higher education’ (DE WIT, 2010: 10). What is also evident is the growing notion that trade is as an important manifestation in this new landscape of higher education.

Universities have traditionally used a cooperative approach, but in recent decades a shift toward the competitive approach, as noted among North American institutions, is becoming quite evident and though this new trend is now evident in continental Europe, the cooperative approach to internationalisation remains prevalent as it is ‘more compatible with the traditional values of academia’ (VAN DER WENDE, 2001: 255). Today, a benchmarking exercise shows that a mixture of both approaches is used in European countries, even though the competitive approach is still not widely accepted. In Europe the European Commission is the most influential and important branch in matters pertaining to international education in the region. A good example of the co-operative approach in Europe is ERASMUS. Results of a research show that some South American institutions use the competitive approach, and the sole private institutions among the participants, if any indication of a trend, is that they may have ‘more inclination than the public ones to incorporate competitive elements in their international strategy’ (DE WIT, 2012a: 2-3).

Another fast growing trend in internationalisation is the use of technology as the main means of facilitating students, even though it does not offer students the same cultural and linguistic experience as student mobility. However, with its help higher education to a large extent continues to extend its reach, aiding the advancement of internationalisation and globalisation. In most recent years higher education has been

proffering transnational education through distance learning such as e-learning/e-mobility and virtual mobility/satellite campuses. Transnational education is actually viewed by some as a separate entity; that is to say, cross-border education is student mobility and P & I mobility is considered transnational education. The fact is both ‘cross-border education’ and ‘transnational education’ are terms used interchangeably in defining the internationalisation of higher education. This debate is looked at further in Chapter Five. P & I mobility, initially limited in scale, is becoming more important to cross-border education/transnational education as extends its reach to meet the demands of millions seeking higher education accessibility.

Whereas programme mobility is the movement of ‘courses’ across national borders and are accessible through various distance learning delivery modes, and at times entails the traditional face-to-face teaching, institutional mobility is a more high risk investment that calls for foreign institutions to establish learning centres in other countries: they may be distinctly new establishments as opposed to affiliates, or acquire complete or partial management of a foreign educational institution.

Of the two, institution mobility (provider mobility) is the more recent trend. Due to the low cost to students and also the opportunity to stay home and avoid the many challenges of studying abroad, institutional mobility is becoming more and more an attractive option for individuals who want to obtain an international degree. As noted before, having a ‘foreign’ degree provides an advantage for its holders as it implies a more amplified international perspective of a globalised economy. As the number of international students increases more national policies are being implemented to meet the challenges, and universities and colleges are doing likewise in dealing with their activities that continue to expand in volume, scope and complexity (ALTBACH & KNIGHT, 2007).

An important factor, and a growing trend not addressed sufficiently in any of the literature I have read thus far is the need to acquire a second language at an established level such as B2 for all students; in other words, a second language needs to be part of universities core curriculum requisites as opposed to being an elective. The evidence of this growing occurrence validates the statement, ‘*siempre la educacion va detrás del Mercado*’. Today, the most required second language, in respect to economic and

political demands, is English – often referred to as the ‘international language’ or ‘the language of trade’. However, there are those who refute the notion that English is the language of trade. The idea that English has displaced other languages such as Arabic, Hindi and Chinese in trade and commerce, especially given the growth of the Chinese economy, is said to be contestable (KELL & VOLG, 2012). The second most sought language is Spanish. Within the European community French is the principal trade language, however, English is widely accepted and have replaced French as the second language taught in many if not most schools.

Aware of the cultural and political differences among nations and institutions, the IAU (2009: 1) listed the following among its key principles and recommendations that may assure future improvements in accessing quality cross-border higher education:

Key Principles

- Access to higher learning should be made to all regardless of race, ethnicity, gender, economic or social class, age, language, religion, location or abilities.
- National and institutional policies and programmes should be developed through ongoing dialogue among all stakeholder groups and should acknowledge and address the broad array of academic, financial and personal barriers facing potential learners.
- International mobility, exchanges and cross-border education activities must integrate the twin goals of increased access and equitable participation.

Recommendations for Higher Education Institutions

- Reward quality teaching, curricular innovation and responsiveness to learner diversity in the academic career structure of faculty members.
- Provide faculty with pedagogical training based on a culture of student-centered learning and with a focus on learning outcomes.
- Ensure that all institutional policies for international mobility, academic exchanges as well as other cross-border educational activities take into

consideration the challenges of equitable access and broadening participation at home and abroad.

- Provide reliable and timely information on access, successful retention and graduation rates to students, the general public, employers and governments in a proactive manner.

Besides the policies and practices that have been initiated or recommended by the various pertinent actors in the internationalisation of higher education such as UNESCO, the OECD and the World Bank, matters of international curriculum development, teacher training for a diverse, multicultural classroom, and alleviating financial strains of international students are still to be addressed adequately.

The extent of an institution's commitment to diversity is measured by its inclusion of copious racial and ethnic perspectives into its curricular initiatives. Thus, 'if institutions want to be perceived by students as a community that welcomes diversity, it needs to include diversity within its curriculum' (MAYHEW et al., 2005: 408).

'The advent of trade in education changed the perspective on education and its very purpose.' Kahli Mahshi,

CHAPTER II

CROSS-BORDER HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE GATS

The academic year 2012/2013 is reported the year when the number of international students worldwide peaked at 4.5 million (EAG, 2013), and an unknown number of domestic students who benefited from cross-border education services through P & I mobility – one that undoubtedly surpasses that of international students. While these education services have long existed through non-commercial and commercial initiatives, a call for more and improved bilateral and multilateral agreements has resulted in policies that guide new approaches to access international education. A quintessential agreement that facilitates the mobility of educational services is the General Agreement and Trade in Services (GATS). Jandhyala Tilak (2011) explains the role of GATS in education as an expansion of the sector that is necessary for its growth and expansion in the global economy. This is evident in the increase in mobility of institutions in far-eastern and middle-eastern countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, the United Arab Emirates, and Qatar. Therefore, this section of the research paper presents the GATS: its rules and its policies that are pertinent to trade in education services and, specifically, their impact and implications in the area of higher education.

2.1 What is GATS?

Since its inception in 1995, a result of the Uruguay Round, the (GATS) rules and policies have been guided, managed, and implemented by the arbiter of global trade, the World Trade Organization (WTO). Whereas the internationalisation of higher education is said to be complex, the GATS is described as an extraordinarily ambitious and quite

complex agreement.¹⁷ This legal set of trade rules for services is enforceable and, as recent as 2006, was ratified by its then 149 members. The rules are applicable to all member countries participating in multilateral trade in any or all twelve service sectors of trade identified by the WTO. To date, the number of member states of the WTO has increased to 159,¹⁸ suggesting a growing interest and movement in globalised trade. The term ‘member’ does not refer only to a single country, but also to delegations (as is the case of the European Union with 27 countries), and ‘city-state’ (for example Hong Kong).

All WTO members are inadvertent participants of the GATS, of which developing countries represent approximately two-thirds of total membership. Of the other approximate one-third – developed countries and partner countries – Paige McClanahan¹⁹ notes that the European Union (EU), the United States, China and India dominate the talks. Historically, there have been nine rounds of multilateral trade talks since World War II and the most recent and current talks are still in session after eleven years. McClanahan posits that this Round, previously known as the Seattle Round, was moved to Doha, Qatar in 2001 due to the fear of ‘activists’ who viewed the meetings as nothing more than developed countries manipulating talks as, among other things, a way of preventing ‘developing nations from protecting their domestic economic interest’. The GATS and the OECD Invisible Code are said to be the only multilateral treaty regime that governs cross-border services, but the GATS is said to be the first legally enforceable multilateral agreement covering trade in services (GOTTLIEB & PEARSON, 2001).

Due to the change in location, the round is now referred to as the Doha Round and is the introductory round in the trading of education services and is said to be the first round to have focused on helping developing countries join the global market and boost

¹⁷ SINCLAIR, S. (2003): GATS: How the WTO’s new “services” negotiations threaten democracy. *Univeridade de Santiago de Compostela, Fírgoa Universidade Pública*. (<http://firgoa.usc.es/drupal/node/5549>), accessed on 7 October 2012.

¹⁸ WTO (2013a): Understanding the WTO: The Organization, Members and Observers (http://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/tif_e/org6_e.htm), accessed on 19 March, 2013.

¹⁹ MCCLANAHAN, P. (2012): Doha round trade talks – explainer, *The Guardian*, September 3, News Section (<http://www.guardian.co.uk/global-development/2012/sep/03/doha-round-trade-talks-explainer>), accessed on 12 September 2013.

their economies. The duration of this round, which is still underway, is holding true to its ideology ‘nothing is agreed until everything is agreed’.²⁰

2.2 GATS implications for higher education

Unawareness of the real impact these ‘rounds’ may or may not have on daily lives, and a lack of understanding of what the GATS objectives are have led to both exaggeration and overestimation of the potential contributions of trade in higher education (TILAK, 2011). The GATS is criticised by many, but Rupa Chanda (2002: 19) suggests that in spite of the ‘incipient nature of the agreement’ the GATS is of great significance in terms of its framework and provisions.

The Agreement has two parts. The first part addresses the general principles and rules. The framework agreement contains the rules: the Most Favoured Nation (MFN) Treatment, which speaks to ‘the principle of not discriminating between one’s trading partners’, and the National Treatment (NT) addresses ‘the principle of giving others the same treatment as one’s own nationals’. The second entails national schedules (Article 29) that lists countries’ specific commitments in respect to foreign providers’ access to their domestic market. It identifies the services the Member is offering as well as the implementation process, which includes specified standards and regulatory principles.²¹

A third section may be included if annexes are considered; they detail specific limitations for each sector and can be attached to the schedule of commitments. Furthermore, the GATS is grouped into two broad categories of obligations: general (unconditional) obligations, and commitments (conditional) obligations. General obligations apply directly and automatically to all Members and services sectors. Under Article II of the GATS general obligations relate more specifically to MFN Treatment and Transparency. The other group of obligation consists of commitments and entails matters of ‘market access’ which is a negotiated commitment in specified sectors and may be subjected to several limitations enumerated in Article XVI(2), and ‘national treatment’ in specifically designated sectors established in Article XVII.

²⁰ WTO (2002): How the negotiations are organized (http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/dda_e/work_organ_e.htm), accessed on 8 January 2013.

²¹ WTO (2013b): Structure of the GATS. (http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/gats_factfiction4_e.htm), accessed on 8 January 2013.

Jane Knight (2006a: 29) explains the role of GATS as a set enforceable rules that ‘progressively and systematically promote freer trade in services by removing many of the existing barriers to trade; and to ensure increased transparency of trade regulations.’ In other words, it is a set of rules to reduce or eliminate restrictions and barriers in order to better facilitate more and easier trading among member countries. Unlike trade in goods, Kern Alexander and Mads Tønnesson Andenæs (2008) point out that trade in services has traditionally been subjected to more barriers and regulatory restrictions.

Notwithstanding, the GATS is considered as a ‘positive list’ approach as countries have the right to select the sectors to be included in their schedule of commitments. That is to say, sectors are not automatically included in a Member’s schedule of commitments. Whether a nation is committed to a particular sector or not, the GATS, as previously mentioned, has certain obligations that are categorised as unconditional obligations – also referred to as ‘top-down’ rules/approaches – that are applicable to all member countries. These are obligations that are not subject to negotiation. The name MFN Treatment is not what it suggests, rather this obligation ensures that all member countries are equally ‘favoured’; that is, no discrimination can be made among members. The principle is, ‘favour one, favour all’.²² Table 2.1 is a summary of rules and key elements of the GATS.

On the other hand, there are some privileges to be had. A WTO member country has the right to determine which service sector(s) it will commit to and to what extent it will grant market access to foreign providers as well as the degree of national treatment it is prepared to guarantee. This is known as the ‘bottom-up aspects’ or ‘bottom-up’ rule. One of the key principles of the GATS is to recognise and honour the right of each member state to regulate means of achieving their national policy objectives (KNIGHT, 2006a). One option available to Members is the right to deny all countries access to a sector; however, this is not viewed favourably in keeping with the spirit of the GATS.

²² World Trade Organisation (2013d): The General Agreement on Trade in Services: Objectives, coverage and disciplines (http://ww.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/gatsqa_e.htm), accessed on 8 January 2013.

Table 2:1 Key Elements and Rules of GATS – Explication and Applications

GATS element or rule	Explanation	Application
Coverage	All internationally traded services are covered in the 12 different services sectors (e.g. education, transportation, finance, tourism, health, culture, communication, construction).	Applies to all services— with two exceptions: i) services provided in the exercise of governmental authority; ii) air traffic rights
Measures	All laws, regulations and practices at the national or sub-national levels affecting trade in services	Measures taken by central, regional or local governments and authorities and non-governmental bodies in the exercise of powers delegated by central, regional and local governments and authorities
Unconditional Obligations ('Top Down')	Four unconditional obligations exist in GATS - Most Favoured Nation (MFN) - Transparency - Dispute Settlement - Monopolies	They apply to all 12 service sectors regardless of whether WTO members schedule commitments or not
Most Favoured Nation (MFN) Treatment	Requires equal and consistent treatment of all foreign trading partners. Under GATS, if a country allows foreign competition in a sector, equal opportunities in that sector should be given to service providers from all WTO members. This also applies to mutual exclusion treatment. For instance, if a foreign provider establishes a branch campus in Country A, then Country A must afford all WTO members the same opportunity /treatment. Or if Country A chooses to exclude Country B from providing a Specific service, then all WTO members are excluded.	May apply even if the country has made no specific commitment to provide foreign access to its markets. Exemptions, for a period of 10 years, are permissible.
Transparency	Requires that member countries publish all measures that affect services, inform the WTO about changes and respond to any request from other members concerning information about any changes.	Applies to all sectors and all countries.
Conditional Obligation	The following conditional	Applies only to

('Bottom Up')	obligations are attached to national schedules: - National Treatment - market access.	commitments listed in national schedules. The degree and extent of obligation is determined by country.
National Treatment	Aims for equal treatment for foreign and domestic providers (or equal competitive opportunities where identical treatment is not possible) Once a foreign supplier has been allowed to supply a service in one's country there should be no discrimination in treatment between the foreign and domestic providers	Applies only where a country has made a specific commitment Exemptions are allowed.
Market Access	Means the degree to which market access is granted to foreign providers in specified sectors. Market access may be subject to one or more of six types of limitations defined by GATS.	Each country determines limitations on market access for each committed sector or determines whether to make a commitment at all.

Source: Knight 2002 (updated in 2006)

The GATS services are traded four ways referred to as the 'modes of supply': cross-border supply, consumption, commercial presence and presence of national persons. Commitments are carried out based on these four modes of supply, and the four modes are applicable to all 12 service sectors which contain 160 sub-sectors. Table 2.2 explains the different modes and provides examples of services, denoting the size and potential of the service market.

Within the education sector alone are five sub-sectors of service: primary, secondary, higher education, adult and other. Proposals have been made to add another sub-sector to include training and testing or at least to include them in the 'other' sub-sector. The penultimate sub-sector is the main focus of this research, and there are three important and very active forms of trade in this sub-sector: student mobility, programme mobility and institution mobility. The education sector covers services in all member countries whose education systems are not provided exclusively by the public sector.

Table 2:2 Examples of the four Modes of Supply (from the perspective of an "importing" country [Country B])

<p>Mode 1: Cross-border A user in country [B] receives services from abroad through its telecommunications or postal infrastructure. Such supplies may include consultancy or market research reports, tele-medical advice, distance training, or architectural drawings.</p> <p>Mode 2: Consumption abroad Nationals of country [B] have moved abroad as tourists, students, or patients to consume the respective services.</p> <p>Mode 3: Commercial presence The service is provided within country [B] by a locally-established affiliate, subsidiary, or representative office of a foreign-owned and – controlled company (bank, hotel group, construction company, etc.)</p> <p>Mode 4: Movement of natural persons A foreign national provides a service within country [B] as an independent supplier (e.g., consultant, health worker) or employee of a service supplier (e.g. consultancy firm, hospital, construction company).</p>
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Source: Knight 2002 (updated 2006)

Of the four modes and five education sub-sectors, a total of twenty types of trade services are possible in the education sector. These modes involve a change in the nature, the content and the transaction process of education (TILAK, 2011). To better understand the GATS implication for education services the modes must be examined in the context of education. Hence, education services under the GATS mode of supply may be outlined as follows:²³

- Mode 1 - *Cross-border supply* defines the services that flow between member countries; that is, they do not require the physical movement of the consumer or the provider (e.g. Programme mobility - distance or virtual education, etc.).
- Mode 2 - *Consumption abroad* refers to students who obtain a service in another member country (e.g. Student mobility - international students).
- Mode 3 - *Commercial presence* implies that a service supplier of a member country establishes a territorial presence in another member state (e.g. Institution mobility – Branch campuses, franchise, twinning, joint ventures, etc.).

²³ Adapted from Tilak (2011) and Vincent-Lancrin (2004).

- Mode 4 - *Presence of natural persons* consists of persons entering the territory of another country to supply a service (e.g. Academic mobility – faculty, researchers, etc.).

The issue of access continues to be a challenge and thus Article XVI addresses countries' obligation to remove all barriers to accessing markets. Specific to higher education services, it is recommended that education and trade policy-makers pay special attention to common, important and even 'invisible' barriers identified in the four modes of supply outlined by Knight (2006a: 33-34):

Mode 1: Cross-border supply

- Restriction on import of educational material
- Restriction on electronic transmission of course material
- Non-recognition of degrees obtained through distance mode

Mode 2: Consumption abroad

- Restriction on travel abroad based on discipline or area of study
- Restriction on export of currency and exchange
- Quota on the number of students proceeding to a country or institution
- Prescription of minimum standard or attainments

Mode 3: Commercial presence

- Insistence on local partner
- Insistence that the provider be accredited in the home country
- Insistence on partner/collaborator being from the formal academic stream
- Insistence on equal academic participation by foreign and local partner.
- Disapproval of franchise operations
- Restrictions on certain disciplines/areas/programmes that are deemed to be against national interest
- Limitations on foreign direct investments by education providers
- Difficulty in approval of joint ventures

Mode 4: Presence of natural persons

- Visa and entry restrictions
- Restriction on basis of quota for countries and disciplines
- Nationality or residence requirements
- Restriction on repatriation of earnings

While there are barriers that are mode-specific, all 12 service sectors face the same challenges. K. Powar (2003) posits the following as some of the generic barriers:

- lack of transparency in government's regulatory policy and funding frameworks;
- unfair manner of administration of a country's domestic laws and regulations;
- hidden subsidies;
- economic needs test;
- discriminatory tax treatment; and
- delays in granting of approval (and denial of explanation of information when approval is not granted).

Even the 'bottom-up' rule that allows countries to determine what degree of market access is to be given to foreign providers is considered as a kind of 'safeguard', and like any safeguard it is viewed as a barrier. To this end, the matter of 'bottom-up' and 'safeguard' has raised some controversial concerns and poses some controversial questions about GATS rules and principles. The fact is Article 1.3,²⁴ identified as probably the most controversial and critical issue to the agreement (KNIGHT, 2002a; 2006b), exempts those 'services supplied in the exercise of governmental authority'. In essence, Article 1.3 of the agreement classifies government services as providing service(s) on a 'non-commercial basis' and as being 'not in competition':

²⁴WTO (2013c): Uruguay Round Agreement, The General Agreement on Trade in Services (Article I - XXVI): (http://www.wto.org/english/docs_e/legal_e/26-gats_01_e.htm), accessed on 8 January 2013.

- First, 'services' include any service in any sector except services supplied in the exercise of governmental authority;
- Second, 'a service supplied in the exercise of governmental authority' means any service which is supplied neither on a commercial basis, nor in competition with one or more service suppliers.

The questions being asked then: Are government services inadvertently classified as 'non-competitive'? Would they not make a profit and treated as commercial entities in a foreign country? Therefore, vagueness due to a broad definition and the lack of clarity as to what services are actually covered under Article 1.3 is cause for disquiet.

Case in point, under what I call '*cross-border education (CbEd) type-2*', which corresponds to P & I mobility – that is Mode 1 and Mode 3 – a 'public education institution in an exporting country is often defined as private commercial when it crosses the border and delivers in the importing country' (KNIGHT, 2002a: 9). Thus a foreign university, whether public, private non-profit or commercial, delivering education services in another country is inevitably considered to be in competition with the government-run institutions of the importing countries.

If government 'state-run public' universities exporting abroad are privileged to the exemption provided under the Article 1.3 clause, importing countries also benefit in that they are better equipped to meet their domestic demand for higher education, while at the same time providing students with 'quality education' – given that most public state accredited universities are often benchmarked against set government national standards. Nonetheless, defining government non-commercial and non-competitive services can be challenging. Quintessential are those institutions that are public and receive private funds, or those that are private and are subsidised by government.

Another concern that skeptics have brought to the forefront is that by remaining true to the GATS principle of ensuring freer trade in services, and by promoting and enforcing the 'liberalisation of trade in services', a country's right to limit market access may be infringed upon as it is expected to continually add sectors and sub-sectors to their national schedules of commitment, as well as negotiate the further removal of limitations on market access and National Treatment (KNIGHT, 2006a). This is seen as opening up

to what may be deemed a ‘*free-for-all market*’ that guarantees, by obligation, an increase in service trade opportunities. For example, if countries that are not interested in either importing or exporting education services, they are expected and may experience pressure to provide market access to foreign providers through successive rounds of negotiations. Nonetheless, governments are said to have the freedom to tailor their education sector in respect to what sub-sectors and content will be offered in their commitments.

In essence, while it is the WTO’s duty to ensure there are no unnecessary barriers to trade during rounds of negotiations, the organisation recognises members’ right to pursue and regulate their own objectives,. The tenet is evident in the special arrangements seen in the policies in respect to developing countries:

‘developing countries are thus given flexibility for opening fewer sectors, liberalising fewer types of transactions, and progressively extending market access in line with their development situation. Other provisions also ensure that developing countries have more flexibility in pursuing economic integration policies, maintaining restrictions on balance of payments grounds, and determining access to and use of their telecommunications transport networks and services. In addition, developing countries are entitled to receive technical assistance from the WTO Secretariat.’²⁵

Countries may request a revision of their schedule if deemed necessary, but this is only applicable in cases when further liberalisation is the result; in addition, limitations should bear no semblance of protectionism. The principal objective of the GATS in respect to higher education is to ensure there are no barriers to accessing education markets; there can be no obstacle for providers to enter foreign countries or deny students access to education in any country. It is often referred to as ‘progressive liberalisation’. Market access means no limitation on: (1) the number of suppliers (2) the total value service transactions or assets (3) the total number of service operations or total quantity of service output (4) the total number of natural persons that may be employed (5) measures that restrict or require specific types of legal entry or joint venture and (6) participation of foreign capital; all of which raise a barrier that ‘can put new service providers at a disadvantage if some limitations affect fixed or marginal cost while others effectively set a ceiling on quantity supplied’ (BASHIR, 2007: 59).

²⁵ Section two of Number 13; *Are there special provisions for developing countries?* WTO (2013d): The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS): objectives, coverage and disciplines (http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/gatsqa_e.htm), accessed on 8 January 2013.

There are other issues that are pertinent to all sectors, such as subsidies and the treatment of monopolies, all with inconsistencies that need to be ironed out even though GATS has been in existence for close to two decades. Hence, educators are expected to and recommended to remain informed about new rounds of negotiations and their impact on the education sector. Susan L. Robertson et al. (2002: 472) echoed this importance by pointing out the paucity of attention that is given to education by theorists who are expected to and are held responsible for developing ‘a rigorous set of analytic categories that might enable us to make sense of the profound changes now characterising education in the new millennium.’

As alluded to, another provision of GATS is that it allows for bilateral trade in exchange of different services to take place between nations. This is known as ‘request-offer’. That is, during the negotiation process Member A may request of Member B access or greater access to a particular sector (e.g. education) and in return Member B may request access to a distinct sector (e.g. finance). For each sector, it is up to the Member to make concession and determine how much access it will allow to its domestic market.

Financing higher education in developing countries is already a challenge, and committing to the education sector, under the national treatment rule, requires of governments who provide financial assistance to their local institutions to do likewise to foreign providers. This Knight (2006b: 111) sees as ‘troublesome’ given that developing countries are already, in most cases, at an economic disadvantage and are most vulnerable to the ‘request-offer’ process.

However, offers only become commitments at the end of a round and are legally binding if they are not withdrawn before the round ends, which then becomes difficult to unbind and costly in terms of compensation (TILAK, 2011). For example, Jamaica’s commitment to higher education has been described as ‘lacking’ as there appeared to have been little or no dialoguing between the Jamaican negotiators and the education policy makers. According to Terrence Frater (2008), no policy framework that would have served as a structure to the deliberations, that would have provided clarity on underlying issues and would have facilitated an appropriate and informed decision process for drafting and formalising the commitment - made by those who appeared to

have been ill-prepared - was adequately employed. In 2004, almost six years after the 'trading' commitment, the outcry of Jamaican tertiary students called for the country to withdraw its commitment to higher education. However, what has been achieved is more transparency of the government's commitment in order to obtain better understanding of the implications of the commitment made. Jamaica to date remains committed to open trade in higher education, but has the option to withdraw before the end of the Doha Round.

The GATS rules are more flexible than believed by its dissidents. In fact, the most important feature is said to be a 'voluntary approach' to national commitments, allowing a country to set limits sector by sector and mode by mode. Countries are not held hostages in any negotiation as they are expected to negotiate in their country's best interest while not embarking upon protectionism. The WTO (2013c) offer members the right to several options:

- set limits and time-frame
- make or decline to make any commitments
- qualify their commitments in any given sector or sub-sector
- apply horizontal limitations
- suspend a commitment if it is found to cause adverse effects on their balance of payments
- invoke exceptions in the GATS articles to justify existing regulation and to enact new ones in pursuit of legitimate public policy concerns
- withdraw from the GATS and WTO altogether.

Based on both empirical evidence and statistical data, there is a general trend in the trade in higher education services that is indicative of who the main consumers and providers of cross-border higher education are. Data clearly reveals the consumer trend in student mobility is students moving from developing countries to developed countries, as well as the trend of provider in both programme and institution mobility showing developed countries offering these services to developing countries. This may help explain why there is major concern about the role of GATS in transnational/cross-border education.

There are both developing and developed nations that are in favour and against the GATS in education. Given that education is and should remain a 'public good', as well as a 'social merit want' that benefits individuals and their externalities – socio-cultural, economic, political and academic dimensions of a nation (TILAK, 2011) – then it must be protected from any possible element that would diminish any aspect of a country's educational structure or national objectives. Liberalising education as proposed by the GATS is further criticised for forcing unwarranted change of a country's social fabric, which education promotes and weaves together with its social values and religious harmony, secularism, and democracy that foreign providers are not able to understand. So real is the fear that Altbach (2006b) dreads that the 'common good nature' of education will collapse with unrestricted competition and many forms of privatisation introduced to the sector.

In many ways there are benefits and risks to the GATS in education, and each country, based on the demands and needs of its citizenship, has to exam both and decide whether or not education should be one of its commitments.

For some the problem of GATS in education is based on the fact that lead developed countries (top exporters of cross-border education) tend to direct the talks and trade in their favour. Top exporters of higher education have great presence in developing countries and partner countries, establishing institutions or programmes jointly or independent of receiving country's domestic institutions. Principal examples include Canada, which has made no commitment to education, and the United States which has committed to trade in education, but has not committed to higher education (Appendix B). Such stance may be due to the fact that developed countries have little need to import educational services. Nonetheless, under the GATS, developed countries are expected to import other services that developing and partner countries offer. In other words, bilateral or multilateral agreements must result in service trade pertinent to each country or region. Even so, removing perceived barriers may result in a complex situation where an exporter of educational services may be infringing on the legitimate defence of national identity or local control over funding and standard by the receiving country (WELCH, 2011).

In essence, it is a matter of harmonising national sovereignty and promoting cross-border trade in educational services that is needed. There is a compelling notion that if a country's education does not 'change' or evolve globally, then it is not longer competitive; hence competition is the nature of higher education in the twenty-first century. According to Jandhyala Tilak (2011), it is through curricula that ideology trade is promoted. This may help put into perspective why foreign syllabi and curricula offered in importing countries do not always reflect their culture and ideas. In fact, some disciplines such as management, engineering and information technology have been made uniformed worldwide.

2.3 The GATS implications for developed and developing countries

Some of the top exporting countries of cross border education include the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Germany and New Zealand, and some top importing countries are China, India, Malaysia and United Arab Emirates. Both developed and developing countries approach the GATS based on their perspectives of it. In the case of developed countries it is a matter of financial gain to fill the gap that is created by the decline in state support in higher education; for them it means billions of dollars in revenue for governments and institutions.

According to Khalil Mahshi (2011: 7) there are times 'the commercial aspect and financial benefit outweigh educational and philanthropic considerations in investing in education.' International students remain the popular option to subsidise the education of local students. A comparison of matriculation fees for international students and domestic students in the United Kingdom during the academic year 2011-2012 shows that international students paid at least triple the amount of domestic students. A domestic student paid an amount of £3, 375 whereas international students paid between £11, 829 and £28, 632. Fees in Canada are similar; international students pay up to C\$16, 854 while domestic students pay between C\$ 4,000 – 6000, less than half the international fees (TILAK, 2011).

Another factor to note is that developed countries by providing education services to developing countries gain access and means to control higher education in developing countries. Tilak (2011:51-52) posits that under Mode 1 foreign institutions in developing

countries and those that offer programmes and ‘off-the-shelf degrees’ offer education and training programmes that are more suited to exporting countries than they are to the labour markets of developing countries; thus making ‘graduates unemployable in their own [developing] countries and force them to emigrate to developed countries.’ This type of brain drain is what K. Gürüz (2008: 188) refers to as the ‘neo-colonialism of the mind’, which A. Welch (2011: 6) sees as a ‘less brutal but just as equal to the older form’.

On the contrary, developing countries’ perspective on cross-border education is one of access and quality benefits, even though they sight financial gain from remittance and savings. The fact that an outflow of students means not having to provide the resources needed, is a major benefit, especially for ‘resource-poor governments...[it is] a blessing in disguise’ (TILAK, 2011: 53). Quintessential are the Chinese and Indian governments that, more so in previous years, may not have had the resources to meet their millions of college age students.

The matter of quality is also very complex under the GATS. Tilak (2011) suggests that the only possibility of improving quality in education is by means of traditional forms of internationalisation given that commercial trade, franchising, and on-line /distance education programs do not have the same potential. This has been one of the concerns; the GATS purports access and not quality. This may be the reason why some developed nations are also against the GATS in education. These countries are concerned that the GATS approach does not recognise the fundamental aspects of education and treat education as a tradable commodity and a commercial activity. Developing countries perceive the ‘aid for trade’ under the Development Round (Doha Round) as nothing more than a ‘trade-off ploy’ or a sweetener to persuade them to agree to certain concessions or changes being proposed by developed countries (KNIGHT, 2006a).

In essence Tilak (2011) makes the case; the GATS impacts developed and developing countries ‘disproportionately’ in that developed countries have benefited more from trade in education, while the down-side to such trade is evident only in developing countries.

2.4 WTO members committed to higher education

Of its 159 member states the number of participants trading education services is approximately a third of total membership, and the number of those which have made commitments specifically to the higher education sector is even lower. Forty-six countries have committed to higher education indicating that there is some degree of reluctance on the part of those who have opted not to liberalise their education market. Some countries such as Canada, India, and South Africa that are major actors in cross-border education are notably absent from the list. Canada continues to be among the top five exporters of higher education and have opted not to commit to trade in higher education services. A region that shows a high level of non-commitment – with the exception of Mexico, Panama and Costa Rica – is Latin American. The same is true of the African continent: countries are underrepresented among countries committed to education under the GATS (Appendix B).

2.5 Cross-border education under the Doha Round

The most recent attempt to better enforce or improve the GATS is being examined through the Doha Round, currently underway. The Doha Round began in November of 2001 in Doha, Qatar, and the Declaration identifies its objective as ensuring provisions are made for all countries (developing to least developed countries). Accordingly, it sets out to ensure countries receive special and differential treatment that are effective. It states: ‘all member governments agreed that all special and differential treatment provisions should be reviewed with a view to strengthening them and making them more effective and operational.’²⁶ More precisely, jointly with the Decision and Implementation-Related Issues and Concerns, a mandate to the Committee on Trade and Development was given to examine and identify the special and mandatory differential treatment provisions, as well as ‘consider the legal and practical implications of making mandatory those which are currently non-binding’, and ‘to consider ways in which developing countries, particularly the least developed countries (LDCs) may be assisted to make best use of special and differential treatment’ (Ibid.).

²⁶ WTO (2013e): The Doha Round (http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/dda_e/dda_e.htm), accessed on 8 January 2013.

Some countries, Australia, the European Union (represent, among others, Germany, France and the United Kingdom), the United States, Japan, China are frustrated by the lack of increased access to trade in services and have therefore proposed three new so-called ‘complementary approaches’ for negotiations (KNIGHT, 2006a). They include a number of methods designed to push countries (especially developing countries) to commit to liberalisation and deepen market access by removing more barriers to trade. The proposed approaches are: 1) Plurilateral negotiations – designed to add pressure on a country to agree to a request. Unlike the ‘bilateral approach’, this is a ‘joint approach’ which involves a group of countries in a specific sector applying pressure. The joint approach also works in favour of smaller and less developed countries in that it allows them to pool their expertise to leverage the negotiation process; 2) Numerical targets and indicators – a ‘formula approach’ that proposes member countries include a minimum number of new or improved commitments in an agreed upon number of subsectors. With this approach the number or percentage of sub-sectors would differ for developed and developing countries. The meaningfulness of this proposal, based on the WTO fundamental principle, is the right of countries to choose which sectors to commit to; 3) Qualitative parameters for modes of supply – irrespective of the sub-sector specific barriers to all commitments would be removed. For example, by eliminating restrictions in Mode 3 (commercial presence) that limit foreign ownership might lead to doing the same across all sectors and sub-sectors. The details of these new approaches were not known back in 2006 and there is still little evidence that they are known today. Thus, leaving many developing countries doubting the favourability of these options toward them as they perceive them to ‘significantly erode the flexibilities that the countries have to liberalize the sectors they choose to and to the extent they want to’ (KNIGHT, 2006a: 41-42).

Higher education policies and practices under the GATS follow the trends of globalisation; that is, commercialisation and commodification, privatisation, marketisation, and liberalisation. These trends relate to several issues (Ibid.) that have brought about new challenges and will help determine the results of Doha negotiations.

The first set of issues deals with national governments and other bodies establishing new policies and regulations pertaining to registration, quality assurance and recognition

of cross-border provision. If providers (legitimate or rogue) do not register, they are not likely to conform to national regulations of the receiving country. There are many unanswered questions and Knight (2006a) poses several including: What conditions apply if the provider is a company that has no home-based presence and only establishes institutions in foreign countries? How does one monitor partnership between local domestic institutions/companies and foreign ones? Are there different criteria or conditions applicable to those providers who are part of, and recognized by, a national education system in their home country than for those providers who are not? Is it possible to register a completely virtual provider? To what extent will the introduction of new national regulations to license or recognise cross-border providers be interpreted as barriers for trade and, therefore, need to be modified to comply with new trade policies? These are some of the pressing questions that need to be addressed if cross-border education is to benefit developing countries and the education sector itself. Though the United States remains the number one leader in cross-border education, Australia is considered to be for some time a prime beneficiary of liberalisation of higher education under GATS (MCBURNIE & ZIGURAS, 2003).

The second relates to quality assurance and accreditation, for which bilateral agreements do not establish rules. Of course, with the increase in transnational education, 'urgent attention' is needed to ensure quality incoming and outgoing cross-border education services. Knight (2006a) also sees much risk if rogue providers or fraudulent qualifications become closely linked to cross-border education and recommends the UNESCO and the OECD guidelines (Appendix C) to all stakeholders – from students to professional associations.

One of the contributing factors leading to a commercialisation of quality assurance/accreditation is the desire to achieve accreditation status; institutions have been creating their own networks to self-appoint and engage in accrediting their members. Such activities raise concerns as the findings and assessments may not be objective and, even more unsettling, the notion that it may be done more in the interest of generating income and not improving quality. In addition to the network of institutions, the increase in the number of accreditation mills without independent assessment that 'sell' accreditation status is reason for alarm. While the legitimacy of qualifications is not part

of the GATS immediate agenda, it certainly encourages it, especially ‘professional mobility’, but the OECD and UNESCO remain the principal international organisations that establish policies pertaining to qualifications, accreditation, and quality assurance in cross-border education.

The third set focuses on the implications of GATS role in government, financing, student access and programme offer. Article 1.3 of the GATS raises concerns in respect to the role of government. According to Knight (2006a) both legal opinion and general consensus in the higher education sub-sector believe there is too much ‘wiggle room’ in defining government funded education that are exempt from the GATS rules, unless otherwise stipulated in the country’s commitment. In general the argument in favour of student access is a positive one except when the increased access is only available to those who can afford it. A possible reason for this concern is the increase in private provision of education given that public funding has fallen short of keeping up with the demand for access to higher education programmes. One of the trends in commercialising higher education is that commercial or for-profit providers are more inclined to offer programmes that are in high demand such as business, communication, and information technology that usually promise a high return on investment. As the ‘environment’ for private and commercial providers of higher education becomes more and more favourable, a caveat to government is that it may find itself with the more costly higher education programmes. If this is the case, more public support (higher taxes) will be needed to fund public higher education.

The fourth and final group deals with issues of culture, values and brain exchange (drain/gain). It is a well-known fact that education help shapes a nation and its citizens, and the values reflected in a culture traditionally dictate the education system established in a country. However, with cross-border education on the rise and limited government resources to meet today’s demand for higher education, the societal fabric is inevitably shifting.

While change is an essential factor for growth to occur, the rapid rate of increase in transnational education is a catalyst threatening distinct cultural identities and forcing them to become, not what appears at first to be new forms of hybridised cultures, but what D. Tereffa and J. Knight (2008) see as cultures homogenised. The GATS effort to

liberalise the trade in the education service market is likely to accelerate even more the ‘westernisation’ of cultures, especially those of developing countries. The fact is ‘the bottom line’ is the main if not the only interest providers of overseas programmes hold. Customising of programmes or curriculums to adapt to cultures is not an imperative in the GATS policies, and some would suggest that it now become part of the debate, even though Knight (2006b) asserts that for-profit private providers will not be willing to invest the time and resources to ensure that courses respect cultural tradition and include relevant local content.

Given that the primary objective of the GATS is to liberalise trade in services, ongoing concern about ‘brain exchange’ is more evident today. Mode 2 of the GATS supports the movement of students while Mode 4 encourages the movement of persons such as scholars, experts, teachers/professors. Competitiveness for human capital is the order of the day. In the United States, for example, President Obama has been urging the American Congress to tackle immigration reform to allow pre-eminent international students in the U.S. permanent residency.

2.6 The future of the GATS in higher education

The Doha Round, in its thirteenth year, was anticipated to end by January 2012, but the debate continues and runs the risk at failing to meet its objectives. Even though the stalling of the agreement viewed primarily a result of disagreements regarding agricultural matters between the United States and India, it appears developing countries are skeptical that the Development Agreement will not benefit their cause, nor achieve the true objectives of the Round. Such doubt can be credited to the ‘all or nothing’ premise.

The implication of the GATS in education services, in principle, is to liberalise the market. Altbach (2001: 4) refers to GATS providing trade in education services as ‘globalisation run amok’. The consequence, he suggests, of ‘subjecting academe to the rigors of a WTO-enforced marketplace...would destroy one of the most valuable institutions in any society’. A noted overt concern, shared by a consortium of European and North American organisations representing more than 500 universities and others, is

that little is known about the consequences of including trade in education services (ZIGURAS, 2003).

So what is the future of the GATS in education and, in particular, higher education? The answer is unknown. However, the notion that a failed Doha Round will mean an end to the GATS effort in liberalising trade in cross-border education services would be too hasty a call for anyone to make. Until this round comes to close, it can be assumed that the sector will continue to trade educational services across national borders at least at the same pace as it was before the education sector was added to the GATS list of services.

SECTION TWO

Comparative Elements

However, it is not enough to open doors; these students must be guided towards success... ' 2009 WCHE Report

CHAPTER III

REGIONAL TRENDS IN CROSS-BORDER EDUCATION: AN OVERVIEW

The changing global political and competitive economic environment over the past quarter century has changed roles and perspectives of government, higher education institution and the labour markets on how best to approach and respond to local, regional and international demands. It has also created a greater need to implement policies that chart a more propitious future 'for all'. It is this shift that has been the main impetus behind reforming higher education policies and curricula as well as reshaping the structure of higher education institutions in many regions and countries today.

Regionalisation has become very important in strengthening free trade efforts among countries given that the GATS does not lend the same sense of unity that regionalisation does. Regionalisation not only expands markets beyond national boundaries, it creates a single shared community space and fosters greater solidarity in fighting against threats to cultural preservation. Though the criteria in determining a region are unclear, all evidence point to shared culture and economic development and, with the exception of West Europe and North America, geographical proximity as the main ones. It appears that regions are categorised according to their cultural characteristics and affinities, while sub-regions tend to be grouped more for their (political) history. According to the World Banks' regional list there are six distinct regions,²⁷ while UNESCO divides the world countries into five distinct regions.²⁸ For this paper countries are grouped into five major regions that vary slightly from those of the

²⁷ The list does not include North America. Accordingly, the regions are Africa, East Asia and Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America & Caribbean, Middle East & North Africa, and South Asia <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/0,,pagePK:180619~theSitePK:136917,00.html>.

²⁸ Africa, Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America and Latin America and the Caribbean <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/worldwide/regions-and-countries/>.

World Bank and UNESCO. The regions, which reflect more the classifications commonly presented in many data sources, are: (1) Europe and North America, (2) Asia and the Pacific, (3) the Middle East and North Africa, (4) Sub-Saharan Africa, and (5) Latin America and the Caribbean.²⁹ Subsequently, some regions are divided into sub-regions.

Given the cost of higher education and the fact that it is more expensive than secondary, primary, and early childhood education per head, and the notion that tertiary education and knowledge societies are the key to a country's sustainable development may justify the thinking that tertiary education should be given top priority in the twenty-first century. However, empirical observation shows otherwise.

The fact is the percentage of GDP allocated to education is divided by its various sub-sectors, and in many cases the amount given to tertiary education is less than the amount budgeted for primary and/or secondary education. The fact that priority is given to one sub-sector over another may be a matter of enrolment, funding, education priorities at the time, or a combination of any pressing factors. Allocation of funds often corresponds to the number of students enrolled in a given education sub-sector, and/ or the sub-sector that is currently posing or expected to pose the greatest threat to obtaining a nation's education and development objectives. For example, in Europe the average GDP public expenditure on higher education is less than secondary education (EUROSTAT, 2012); in Latin America total average expenditure has increased to 4 percent (OECD average is 5 percent), however the average spending on tertiary education remains low (LAEO, 2012); the Sub-Saharan region has experienced an increase in spending and the region allocated 5 percent to education, which is the second highest regional proportion after Europe and North America's 5.3 percent and, though allocation to each sub-sector increased, it is recommended that more funds be allocated to the primary sub-sector than the other sub-sectors (UNESCO MS, 2011).

Each region has recognised the need to promote cross-border/transnational higher education activities, and each region's participation may be classified primarily as either exporter or importer of higher education. The region that contributes largely to and

²⁹ Regions are not presented in alphabetical order; instead they are presented according to their leadership roles and their perceived contribution to cross-border/transnational higher education.

benefits most from cross-border education is the European and North American region. The West Europe and North America sub-region is home to the major exporters of cross-border higher education and English programmes, and is deemed the hub for quality higher education. On the other hand, the major importers of cross-border education are from the Asia-Pacific region – specifically the East and South Asia sub-regions.

Other regional trends indicate the Middle East and North Africa, and the sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) sub-regions are creating a niche market for themselves. The former is increasing its importation of higher education programmes and institutions with the aim of becoming the ‘hub’ for global quality education; in other words, the region of ‘knowledge cities’. In the case of Sub-Saharan Africa, its educational systems are being developed through international and regional partnerships with the aim of transitioning from importers to exporters by encouraging regional mobility, which is anticipated to help materialise its long term aspirations of attracting many more international students to the region. For example, though not among the top ten countries, South Africa currently is one of the leading nations in cross-border higher education and is one of the major actors establishing partnerships that will ensure greater mobility to the region.

In respect to Latin America and Caribbean region, though it has made significant improvement towards augmenting its cross-border activities; that is, internationalising its curricula and establishing more regional and international partnerships at the institutional and government level, their share of the cross-border higher education market remains comparatively small to other regions.

The comparative section of this paper examines the activities of the main providers and consumers of cross-border education. In researching the various regions, it is evident that the different policies and agreements of international organisations and special interest groups place some countries in the unique position of pertaining to two distinct regions. Mexico, for example, pertains to the Latin American and the Caribbean region as well as the North America region as a result of its inclusion in the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which encompasses Canada, Mexico and the United States. In addition, Israel, though not an Arab State, is situated in the Middle East yet it is considered a European country. Likewise, according to some data banks, Armenia, Azerbaijan and Kazakhstan are considered East Europe or Central Asia. For this paper,

however, Mexico is a Latin American country though reference is made to its NAFTA activities, Israel is considered Middle East, Armenia and Azerbaijan are categorised as East Europe, and Kazakhstan is considered (Central) Asia.

This chapter does not delve into the gamut of cross-border activities in each region. Rather, it gives an overall view of some of the most important steps that have been taken towards improving the ‘internationalisation’ of higher education systems in each region; it looks at quality assurance, access and equity, academic mobility and forged governments and institutions partnerships.

According to the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS, 2012a), the regions that host the largest number of internationally mobile students are: North America and West Europe (58 percent), East Asia and the Pacific (21 percent) and Central and Eastern Europe (9 percent). Surprisingly, there are a few countries³⁰ that have more students studying abroad than at home which suggests their higher education institutions are not only insufficient to meet their demands, but also implies inadequate cross-border education activities are being carried out towards internationalising their higher education at home.

3.1 Europe and North America Region

*‘The search for knowledge has always been at the heart of the European adventure. It has helped to define our identity and our values, and it is the driving force behind our future competitiveness’.*³¹

The Europe and North America region is very heterogeneous and encompasses three distinct sub-regions: Central and East Europe, Southeast Europe, West Europe and North America. For this paper the region is presented as two separate sub-regions: West Europe and North America and East Europe (include Central and East Europe, and Southeast Europe).

³⁰Andorra, Anguilla, Bermuda, Dominica, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Monsterrat and São Tomé and Príncipe.

³¹ The sentiment is also applicable to North America. Mid-Term Review of the Lisbon Strategy – COM (2005) 24, 2.2.2005 (§ 3.3.2), <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2005:0152:FIN:EN:PDE>, accessed on 17 July 2013.

Each sub-region is as diverse as they come with various cultures, ethnicities, languages, and (political) histories. The challenges faced by these sub-regions are the same as all other sub-regions and regions, but to different degrees. Some of the concerns include the recurring theme of quality higher education – especially given the fact that there has been a significant increase in the number of poor and mediocre higher education providers that concur with the ‘open access to all’ rationale, the convergence of both Eastern Europe and Western Europe after 1989, and the fact that the rest of the world has caught on to the region’s university system paradigm, creating a more competitive sector worldwide.

Access and equity is another concern and is only noted more in some countries as a result of national policies. As described by EURYDICE (2000), from 1980 to 1998 the increase demand for higher education has not resulted in institutions abandoning their policies of selectivity; that is to say, many countries still allow institutions the right in ‘selecting their entrants’ as oppose to having a full ‘open access’ policy. In fact, Spain since 1980 is said to have imposed increased selectivity while Denmark and Norway have become less selective.

Undoubtedly some level of ‘selectivity’ such as completing secondary studies should be required, however, data suggests the access criteria has proven to be a hindrance to greater participation in respect to student mobility. Nonetheless, universities with policies of selectivity are said to have a better chance of maintaining quality education programmes. Furthermore, indicators show that the more providers a country has offering higher education to the greater mass, the lower the quality of education appears to be. This is attributed, in part, to the increase in autonomy being granted universities. With such changes over the last couple decades, the role of government in higher education is becoming more one of guiding and supervising as opposed to one of governing.

Almost ten years after the Cold War ended, several key developments contributed to the regions’ on-going dominance in providing more quality programmes and better access to international higher education. They include the *Sorbonne Declaration* of May 1998, the *Bologna Declaration* of June 1999 and the *Prague Communiqué* of May 2001. According to UNESCO (2003b: 2), these were indicators that ‘the time was ripe for a

large-scale initiative to achieve more convergence in European higher education.’ As such, the need for a principle framework to ensure long-term development of higher education in the region resulted in the foundation of the European Higher Education Area and the European Research and Innovative Area. Europe (both east and west) has around 4,000 higher education institutions, while North America has over 4, 882 degree-granting institutions; the United States alone in 2009/2010 accounted for 4,495 of the sum (IES/NCES, 2012). Europe has over 19 million students enrolled in higher education institutions and 1.5 million staff (EC, 2013a); and North America has over 21,928 million students with over 20,428 million of them are enrolled in the United States (IES/NCES, 2012).

The principal objective of this region, as presented by the European Council in its March 2000 declaration, is to ensure the European Union becomes ‘the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic and dynamic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’.³² Nonetheless, it is believed this can only be achieved by first promoting digital literacy throughout the Union. Notwithstanding, ‘virtual institutions’ are not expected to replace conventional brick and mortar institutions, but rather they are to complement each other if quality higher education for the mass is to be achieved. In general cross-culture relationships and partnerships such as the UNESCO-CEPES projects and SOCRATES³³ PHASE II programmes underscore, among other things, the need for cultural sensitivity and linguistic abilities for the region to reach its objective.

The most recognised education mobility programme in Europe, deemed a ‘civic experience’, is ERASMUS. Since its inception in 1987 the rationale for the programme has been based on the notion that ERASMUS would bring about ‘a sense of European identity and create a constituency for European integration among future elite’ (MITCHELL, 2012: 493).

One of the obstacles encountered in this region is the tremendous variations of terminologies from one system to another (UNESCO, 2003b), which may result in

³² EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT (2000): Lisbon European Council 23 and 24 March 2000, Presidency Conclusions (http://www.europarl.europa.eu/summits/lis1_en.htm), accessed on 5 June 2013.

³³ The umbrella group for Erasmus and seven other such branches, Europe Union (2007): Socrates Phase II http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/general_framework/c11043_en.htm

misinterpretations of data, and thus inadvertently make it difficult to compare and understand systems' policies and objectives.

Evidently higher education in Europe and North America, unlike any other education sub-sector, has the most autonomy as tertiary studies are widely accepted as both a public and a private good. The question as to which 'good' is weightier is debatable but, whether public or private, higher education institutions (HEIs) in this region have more autonomy and are strongly held accountable by students and the labour market for their output.

Funding higher education in Europe and North America is seen as a responsibility of both the public and private sectors. An example of government and institutions collaborating is the introduction of tuition fees for tertiary studies in the UK. Until recently the UK's funding policy produced a very slow and soft ripple effect across Europe. Now, in light of the 2008 'financial crisis', tuition fees have increased in some countries (Spain), while it is just being introduced in others (Sweden). Still, a very small minority such as Finland and Norway have yet to follow suit (MACUCCI & USCHER, 2012; EAG, 2013). Given that most governments have cut spending, competition is high in the labour market, and consumers (students and parents) are demanding their money's worth of a quality university experience, the increase in student fees should be expected. However, in most countries the State currently supplies the majority of higher education funding (a public good) and this is not expected to change due to the fact that higher education is overtly tied to the development of a nation's economy.

Employability is the end result of higher education and it is this thrust that is said to be the strongest push for change and reform to Europe's higher education system. The following excerpt from the *Salamanca Message* (EUA, 2001) best defines the objective of the European Commission and, by extension, the North American higher education area:

'Relevance to the European labour market needs to be reflected in different ways in curricula, depending on whether the competencies to be acquired are for employment after the first or the second degree. Employability in a lifelong learning perspective is best served through the inherent value of quality education, the diversity of approaches and course profiles, the flexibility of programmes with multiple entry and exit points, and the development of transversal skills and competencies such as communication and languages, ability to mobilize knowledge, problem solving, team work, and social processes' p. 8

3.1.1 Western Europe and North America

This region dominates cross-border higher education. It hosts more than half of the world's international student cohort in terms of actual numbers, it provides the majority of international academic programmes (programme and institution mobility) abroad, and is the source for the majority of cultural and academic 'exchange' programmes worldwide. Consequently, in regards to economic benefits from cross-border activities this region benefits most.

The substantial developments of 'modernising' higher education in the European and North American region are to be credited equally for strides made by both sub-regions. Nonetheless, both sub-regions have challenges they have to address and correct before achieving their objective. In regards to Europe, the European Commission sights some of the challenges of the region as being its governments' and universities' lack of management tools and funding to match their ambitions (EC, 2013a). Too few young people are said to be pursuing higher education, and too many adults have never studied at the university level; thus, the potential for this region is not being fully realised. The purpose set out by the EC is to assist national governments better aid their higher education institutions. Therefore the perennial efforts of the Commissions include:

- Working closely with policy-makers from Member States to help them develop their higher education policies.
- Actively supporting the Bologna Process, the inter-governmental process which promotes reforms in higher education with 47 countries, leading to establishing a 'European Higher Education Area'.
- Encouraging the exchange of examples of good policy practice between different countries – in particular, it gathers together a group of national experts – the 'cluster' on the modernisation of higher education – to share experiences and look at common challenges.
- Funding the Erasmus Programme by aiding around 200,000 students every year to study or work abroad, along with other projects to increase co-operation between higher education institutions and other relevant institutions.

- Promoting co-operation in higher education with countries beyond the EU, including Tempus and Erasmus Mundus.
- Launching studies on specific areas relevant to higher education policy by gathering, analysing and sharing information on the state of play across Europe.

The Commission (2011: 3-7) acknowledges its need to respond to the demands of a knowledge economy, and in September of 2011 it made public its agenda for the modernisation of Europe's higher education systems. The main five areas the Commission has identified for reform in the new agenda are:

- to increase the number of higher education graduates – (40 percent of young people, age 30 – 34, to have higher education or its equivalent by 2020);
- to improve the quality and relevance of teaching and researcher training, to equip graduates with the knowledge and core transferable competences they need to succeed in high-skill occupations;
- to provide more opportunities for students to gain additional skills through study or training abroad, and to encourage cross-border co-operation to boost higher education performance;
- to strengthen the "knowledge triangle", linking education, research and business;
- to create effective governance and funding mechanisms in support of excellence.

However, the negative economic effects derived from the economic crises since 2008 compromises the realisation of these objectives by ongoing budgetary cuts and adjustments that are hurting almost all European HEIs (EUA, 2011).

It is worth noting again that the genesis of 'modern' higher education and its institutions dates back to the late 11th Century, and it is this structure that continues to guide the trends in this 'post-modern' era. The European Commission's (2012) objectives for Erasmus coupled with that of Erasmus Mundus – to enhance quality in higher education through scholarships and academic cooperation between Europe and the rest of the world' (Appendix D) – now seems to define cross-border education for the region.

The programme's budget revealed a sum of €1180 million for its 2004-2013 project plan. In 2009 the budget for the year was €93 million. It is important to underscore that budget allocation is not awarded to each country under this programme; rather it is allocated to implement the specific programmes set out to meet the objectives of Erasmus Mundus.

With the exception of such countries as Switzerland and Norway, HEIs in most of these countries have established at least one 'partnership'; however, they don't all have participation in the three higher education cycles. Only few countries do not participate in joint masters' and doctorate programmes. The leaders in the EU region (France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom) have more than 100 participations.

The core objective of the European Commission appears to be the establishment of partnerships, as highlighted in the Education Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) Programmes 2007-2013 initiatives: Lifelong Learning Programme, Erasmus Mundus Programme, Tempus Programme, Bilateral Cooperation Programme, Intra-ACP Academic Mobility Scheme, Culture Programme, and Media Programme.

Corresponding to its namesake, the oldest 'modern' university structure, the Bologna Declaration (1999) created new dimensions to the university system in this region and has set a new trend in higher education by transitioning institutional and national systems to a more regional system with global influence. In May 2001 there were 33 member signatories to the Bologna Declaration, but today there are 47 countries in accordance with the proposals to reform their national education systems, and create a European education system more compatible, comparable, and competitive. The role of the European Union is stated in Article 165 (1)³⁴ of the Lisbon Treaty (Functioning of the European Union) as being one of assisting and encouraging development; the Union 'shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action".

³⁴ EUROSTEP-EEPA (2008 -2014): The Lisbon Treaty, 165 (<http://www.lisbon-treaty.org/wcm/the-lisbon-treaty/treaty-on-the-functioning-of-the-european-union-and-comments/part-3-union-policies-and-internal-actions/title-xii-education-vocational-training-youth-and-sport/453-article-165.html>), accessed 15 March 2013.

The Bologna Process³⁵ was later launched with its primary aim, *inter alia*, to help diverse higher education systems converge towards more transparent systems based on the three-cycle structure (Bachelor, Master, and Doctorate):

It is ‘designed to introduce a system of academic degrees that are easily recognisable and comparable, promote the mobility of students, teachers and researchers, ensure high quality teaching and incorporate the European dimension into higher education.’

In 2010 the Bologna process introduced ‘Towards the European Higher Education Area’ initiative, which allows students to choose from a broad and transparent range of high quality courses and benefit from smooth recognition procedures.

Yet, given all that, the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) 2012³⁶ report reveals that in spite of Europe’s colossal role in cross-border education and its well perceived national policies for student mobility, ‘very few European countries actually have a fully-fledged national policy for mobility in place’ that articulates specific policy elements such as:

- modes of mobility (incoming credit/degree mobility, outgoing credit/degree mobility, of various groups – student/research/faculty/staff)
- rationales behind the promotion of different modes of mobility
- purposes of mobility (e.g. for study, internship, study-related activities others),
- target level and fields of study at which student should be mobile
- target geographical regions and/or countries for different modes of mobility
- quantitative targets
- support instruments

On the other side of the Atlantic, North America’s higher education system shares similar ‘macro’ objectives to those of Europe, but their approaches are quite different.

³⁵ EUROPEAN COMMISSION (2013b): The Bologna Process – Towards the European higher Education Area (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/lifelong_learning/c11088_en.htm), accessed on 2 October 2012.

EUROPEAN UNION (2010): The Bologna Process: Setting up the European Higher Education Area, Europa Summaries of EU Legislations, (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/lifelong_learning/c11088_en.htm), accessed on 2 October 2012.

³⁶ ACADEMIC COOPERATION ASSOCIATION (2012): ENPMOB: Comparative study of European and national-level policies and practices on academic mobility (<http://www.aca-secretariat.be/?id=602>), accessed on 18 February 2013.

Dating back to over three hundred years, North American tertiary institutions, like Europe's, originated from the establishment of religious colleges that prepared men for the ministry, but the North American approach to higher education from the beginning has been to establish and maintain a decentralised educational system. In contrast to Europe's centralised system, the United States, albeit has a National Ministry of Education Department, opted for state and local government control of the nation's educational system. The Morrill Acts³⁷ of the 1800s serve as pioneers to the nation's educational system today. In 1862 the First Morrill 'land-granted' Act was passed, giving States land to either build education institutions (mainly agriculture and mechanical arts were taught), or to be sold to benefit such institutions. In 1890 the Second Morrill Act was passed which allowed higher education for Black Americans. In the case of Canada, there is no ministry of education at the federal level, thus the provincial and territorial governments have exclusive responsibilities of their education system.

Even though the North American national governments have limited control of higher education institutions, they continue to provide federal aid to special groups such as war veterans to obtain higher education, which, in fact, led to an influx of veterans to the universities in the 50s, 60s, and 70s, especially after WWII (CICIC, 2009). The 'open access' rationale to higher education is more evident in North America, but 'open access' does not translate into quality education for the mass.

Quality Assurance

The establishment of quality assurance agencies for Europe's higher education only came about in the 80s and, in respect to curricula, the last two decades have seen a significant change from 'equivalence' of accreditations to 'acceptance' of accreditations (VAN DAME, 2002). A move towards more institution autonomy is brought about by several welcomed changes to the relationship between the state and the institution field. According to Dirk Van Dame (Ibid.), deregulation increased, devolution of authority, a shifting balance between state- and market-oriented elements in steering higher education systems, and a growing weight of out-put related performance based factors directed and

³⁷ ALLEN, E. and HARTSELL, M. (2012): Laurels for Morrill, Library of Congress Blog (<http://blogs.loc.gov/loc/2012/06/laurels-for-morrill/>), accessed on 13 May 2013.

financed this change in relationship, especially in Western Europe. Noting the importance of quality assurance in higher education systems, G. Harman (1998) and Van Dame (Ibid.) observe that quality assurance has adopted a more self-regulation-oriented approach to relationships between government and institutions, a self-regulatory-approach based on the Dutch model now exported worldwide. Likewise the quality assurance model of the UK, one of the pioneers, was expanded to other countries of the Commonwealth.

Obtaining quality higher education in European universities is a primary objective of institutions and governments in this region as it is considered their sure way of remaining world leaders. Unequivocally, the financial benefits of being perceived as a quality higher education hub is also a major driving force behind the new higher education policies made and initiatives taken in this region. The launch of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010 as part of the Bologna Process shows that reform must be on-going if they are to match the performance of the best educational systems in the world.

Today, quality education must translate into employability. At last years' bi-annual meeting held in Bucharest the 46 Ministers responsible for higher education saw the need to build on the 2010-2020 priorities of the Leuven Communiqué of 2009, and therefore identified ten steps towards establishing the EHEA in the Bucharest Communiqué (EC, 2013a). Of the ten, three make reference to quality education: ensuring a quality higher education system; the active involvement of higher education institutions, that is the inclusion of teachers and students in the Bologna Process and student participation in the management of higher education; and the establishment of a European Higher Education Area and a European Research Area – two pillars of a the regions knowledge society.

In 2000 the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA)³⁸ was established, and in 2008 the European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education (EQAR) culminated the most recent efforts through the Bologna Process to enhance trust and confidence in the European higher education system by listing credible and reliable quality assurance agencies in Europe. As recent as 2010 there

³⁸ Initially known as the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, but was changed in 2004.

were about 17 quality agencies based in ten European countries; nonetheless, six countries, mostly Eastern European countries, (Azerbaijan, Iceland, Moldova, Slovakia, Turkey and Ukraine) had yet to embrace the independent quality assurance systems – and have opted to continue with a system of central management (EURYDICE, 2010).

The United States accreditation system is said to be the oldest in the world but, in spite its strengths, it is described as complex and lacking transparency. In an attempt to forge better relationships between states and the voluntary accreditation agencies the Council of Higher Education Council (CHEA), the largest institutional higher education membership organisation in the world and mirrored by many, was founded (VAN DAME, 2002). CHEA is a more inclusive association than most and has a membership of 3,000 degree-granting colleges and universities. This ‘voluntary accreditation model is also visible in many developing countries. Although not an association of accreditation agencies, a less inclusive association was established in 1900 by administrators of several universities who founded the Association of American University (AAU). The AAU has traditionally been to enhance predominantly research activities. Universities are invited into the association and are among the top Ivy League tertiary institutions in the North American sub-region and the world. Nevertheless, membership to this association represents the highest quality assurance. Today the AAU is made up of 62 leading private and public American and Canadian universities. In Canada most institutions voluntarily operate under the auspices of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC), and/or the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC). It was in the 1960s that Canada experienced a boom in public institution; however, it was only in the 1990s that universities began receiving degree-granting authority.

In general, governments and institutions in this region continue to develop their international curriculum through academic exchange programmes and second language acquisition projects. Unlike Europe, foreign language acquisition for North American tertiary students has been quite limited to a small cohort of students. Although the ‘knowledge society’ wave of Europe and North America continues to expand, quality higher education may become more difficult to attain. This is especially true in developing countries.

Access and Equity

In regards to access and equity data show female enrolment in higher education institutions in European countries is equal or even higher than their male counterparts, however, it is noted that at the teaching and research level women in higher education institutions are still underrepresented. This finding may be as a result of the fact that in OECD countries, with the exception of Italy, more men than women pursue doctoral degrees than women. Two-thirds of graduates at this level are men (UNESCO, 2003b).

Though access and quality appear to be of less concern in North America when compared to other regions, there have been some ongoing challenges that are being addressed. The Aborigines of Canada continue to receive special attention from government to ensure this indigenous group of people is awarded their rights as citizens and all their due privileges. In the United States the matter of equal access to higher education was more salient for minority groups (non-whites and females) in the late nineteenth and twentieth century, in spite of special provisions made through the Second Morrill Act, the Pell Grant, the Affirmative Action Policies, and others.

While access to higher education is considerably greater to the wider society, the scarce opportunities for success are still reason for concern. The nuances of disparity among the various ethnic and gender groups continue to pose challenges at the institutional level, as well as in the labour market. That is to say, the open access philosophy is exemplified in North America, but at the same time the ‘social fabric’ is still plagued by perennial inequities. Even so, the enormous opportunities ‘open access’ provides is commendable and must be credited, at least partially, for creating a more knowledgeable society.

The North American sub-region has the most higher education institutions, primarily US institutions, ranked among the top 500 institutions in the world³⁹ – this is evident in the various listings of world university rankings. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Rockefeller General Board played an important role in how administrators, students and faculty view their institutions and the curriculum

³⁹ ACADEMIC RANKING OF WORLD UNIVERSITIES (2013): Academic Ranking of World Universities 2013 (<http://www.shanghairanking.com/ARWU2013.html>), accessed on 23 January 2014.

they offer. These two organisations are the pioneers for adjudicating the need for academic standard by rating American universities.

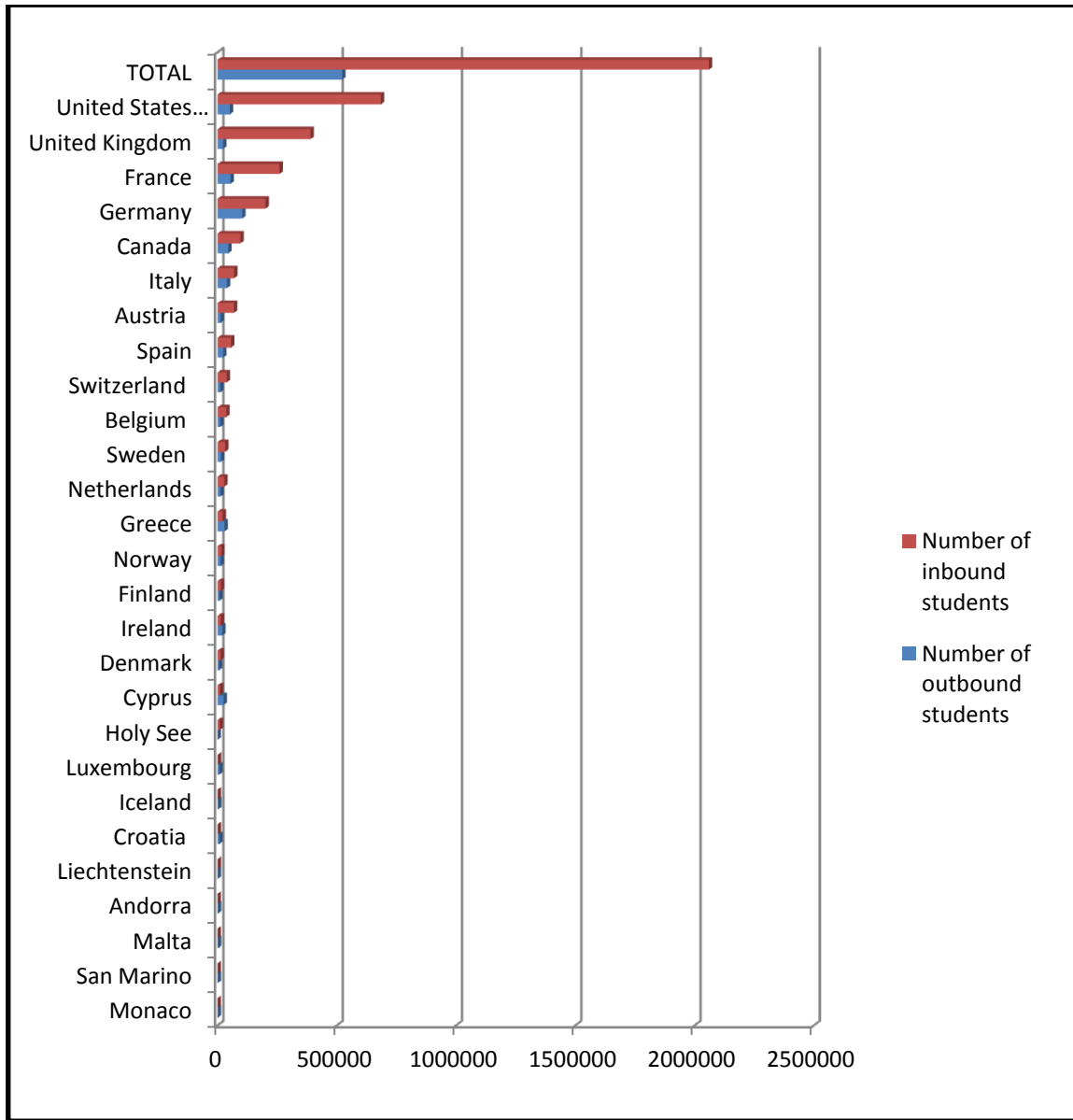
Academic Mobility

Student mobility is dominated by few countries, some of which happen to also be the major actors in this region and dictate much of the activities in cross-border higher education markets worldwide. Except for about seven countries that have more outbound students than inbound students, all other countries in the region enjoy a positive flow that almost equals their outbound flow or exceeds it significantly (Figure 3.1).

As to where international students from this region study, the UIS (2012) data revealed the top three destinations for students were within the region: the United Kingdom (23 percent), the United States (15 percent), and Germany (8 percent). Figure 3.1 also shows that six countries in the region account for more than half of the 58 percent of international students the region hosts and, unlike Canada, Germany, France and Spain whose numbers of outbound students are approximately 50 percent of their inbound students, the United Kingdom and the United States numbers of outbound students studying abroad are less than 10 percent of their inbound students.

The matter of student mobility in Europe in the last two decades has become more a responsibility for both institutions as governments alike. The success of SOCRATES initiatives (e.g. ERASMUS and LINGUA) promote intra-mobility and have led to other 'Commission-sponsored programmes' that stretch beyond European borders to their immediate neighbours. TEMPUS (Trans European Mobility Scheme for University Students) is one such programme that encourages mobility to the East Europe sub-region. Although the objective of TEMPUS is to help modernise higher education in European Union neighbouring countries, as well as create an area of cooperation, it should be seen also as a strategy to proliferate the numbers of foreign students in European institutions; a strategy that, in fact, may lower the market shares of their North American counterparts, especially the United States.

Figure 3.1: Student Mobility in Western Europe and North America



Note: Graph by author.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a.

According to Britta Baron (1993), student mobility in Europe expanded rapidly after the Second World War II. This expansion was most visible in namely the regions' current lead destinations mentioned above, the USSR, Italy and emerging leaders. Five years after the war, the next quarter century (1950-1975) saw student mobility being used as a means of mending some of the damages that resulted from the worldwide conflict. In fact, academic mobility was an element of foreign policy; in the case of the United

Kingdom it was more of a *laissez-faire* attitude in relation to the inflow of students who came mainly from former colonies of the 'British' Commonwealth. As for Germany, it was a matter of restoring its standing in the international community. Student mobility became an avenue for European governments to 'promote international university and international cooperation for development' (Ibid: 50), maintain political influence, and forge international relations in commerce and industry.

By the early 80s these countries' foreign policies began curtailing the influx of international students, namely Germany and France which set fixed quotas for foreign students by field of study, imposed higher entrance qualifications, and stricter visa regulations. England in 1979, during the Thatcher governance, introduced a 'full-cost fees' policy for non-EU students. Nonetheless, it appears the objective was to limit the influx of individuals who paid their own way without the assistance of government aid. The rationale behind such a decision, given that students with government grants and loans in principle had to return to their country may have been to keep immigration at a minimum. Baron (Ibid.) further observes that for the years to follow more public fund was allotted to grants and scholarships to non-EU foreign students. In Germany the German Academic Exchange Services (DAAD) budget more than doubled by 1990 while the British Council and the conservative government were very inclined to funding academic co-operation and exchange. In 1990/1991 the British government awarded 25,000 students, at the cost of £143 million, the opportunity to carry out their studies in the United Kingdom.

This approach to student mobility became the norm for many countries in Western Europe and North America. In fact, Alice Chandler (1989) suggested that those days of broad welcoming and indiscriminate subsidies through low-cost or no-cost tuition for international students were coming to an end. What emerged was a more 'elite' or 'selective' approach to student mobility. This may have attributed to the increase in intra-region mobility and a decrease in the number of non-EU students to the region. However, that focus seems to have been realigned in recent years through the Erasmus Mundus programme, which establishes grounds in developing countries with the hope of attracting some of the brightest minds to their universities and eventually to the region's labour force.

In 1980 the number of African and Asian students accounted for approximately a half of the foreign student population in the region, and Europe represented approximately a third. However, in 1985 the numbers revealed the outcome of this significant change in the regions' foreign student policies; Europe accounted for 50 percent of its region's foreign students, Africa dropped to 33.8 percent and Asia to 10.4 percent (BARON, 1993: 50-52). The challenge today for this region is finding a balance between ensuring national security while guaranteeing an ongoing influx of international students to its shores.

Another important academic mobility policy put in place at both the national and institutional level was the financial support for students who wished to study abroad. Baron points out that while the origin of this approach is not clear, data implies the United States popularised this modern strategy to internationalising higher education. Western Europe began adopting this approach in the late 70s to establish institutional/national programmes such as Germany's DAAD and Sweden's National Board of University and Colleges (UHA) to help students beat the obstacles that would prevent them from studying abroad. Countries, for example France and Denmark, which had very small or no public funding allotted to promoting study abroad activities benefitted from the funds made available to them through ERASMUS. The European Commission remains very instrumental in establishing such programmes and in 1984 the EC took an additional step when it decided to provide student grants as a way to ensure a more comprehensive academic mobility programme.

It was the ERASMUS programme launched in 1987 that demonstrated the EC's intention to approach student mobility with more determined political policies. Unlike its forerunner, the Joint Study Plan (JSP) scheme, ERASMUS was well received and funded and its policies reflect stronger political stands; it is said to have received almost 50 times more funds than the JSP programme in its first three years (BARON, 1993).

In 1991 two important agreements were signed by the European Commission: the Memorandum of Higher Education in November and The Maastricht Treaty in December. The Memorandum addressed such topics as access, and distance education, while the Treaty outlined and extended the Commission's role in developing the region's higher education system. In essence the Commission was able to expand its co-operative

programmes, invest more in post-graduate programmes, as well as reach across geographical borders to establish ERASMUS-Mundus schemes in developing countries.

In spite of that, it is noted even within the European Community there is still a divide between its nations as some countries, by extension of EU membership, are considered ‘developed’, but are also importers of higher education services from their more developed counterparts. Considerable divide, for example, is evident with the number of ERASMUS students lead EU providers of higher education, such as France, Germany, Spain and the UK, receive and send. The ‘asymmetric’ mobility within the region is cause for concern (IAU, 2012: 3).

On the other side of the Atlantic, cognizant of the global competitiveness from European countries and its linguistic shortfalls, the United States has taken steps to ensure its dominance and correct this trend of graduating mono-language students. At the federal level, the U.S. Department of Education, through its International and Foreign language Education (IFLE) office, is responsible for funding initiatives ‘to strengthen the capability of American education in foreign languages and international studies’.⁴⁰ In his first term of office President Obama stated his objective to have 100,000 university and college students studying in China by 2014.

For the past five decades North America has established various bilateral and trilateral programmes. One of the most recent and significant initiatives is the creation of NAFTA and its Program for North America Mobility in Higher Education, which is a grant competition run cooperatively by the governments of the United States, Canada, and Mexico. The purpose of the competition is ‘to promote a student-centred, North American dimension to education and training in a wide range of academic and professional disciplines’.⁴¹ This trilateral agreement fosters student exchange within the context of multilateral curricular development. The U. S. government has also forged through the Institute of International Education’s International Academic Partnership Program (IAPP) a substantial number of partnerships at the institutional and national level (both developed and developing countries). Canada also has forged similar foreign

⁴⁰ED.GOV (2011a): About OPE – International and foreign Language Education (<http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ope/iegps/index.html>), accessed 21 April 2013.

⁴¹ED. GOV. (2011b): Program for North American mobility in higher Education, U.S. Department of Education (<http://www2.ed.gov/programs/fipsenortham/index.html>), accessed 21 April 2013.

partnerships, and organisations such as the Canadian Bureau for the International Education are instrumental in the impetus for such bilateral agreements.

In regards to P & I mobility, with the exception of the United Kingdom, data indicates that programme and institution mobility as traditionally defined and practiced was not very evident in West Europe until recent decades. This sub-region, however, has been the magnet for student mobility which is its primary tool for cross-border higher education activities.

The Europe and North American region is home to the majority of the most industrialised countries in the world – they produce higher education to meet their demands and those of other countries. In addition, the number of partnerships speaks volume of their interest in modernising higher education and taking quality higher education to other countries that are not beneficiaries of programmes such as Erasmus Tempus IV. The regions' programme and institution mobility activities are examined more closely in Chapter V.

3.1.2 East and Southeast Europe

However heterogeneous these countries may be and are categorised into sub-regions, they are often grouped as one, greatly in part as a result of their shared political history. The internationalisation of HEIs in this region continues to experience a transition from communism to a post-communist era. Some have suggested that what has been required to effectively reform the education system after the fall of the Iron Curtain is a combination of transition and transformation process (TEDSTROM, 1996; AHRENS, 2006).

Under the auspices of the European Commission (Tempus) and the Regional Cooperation Council several initiatives have been instrumental in reforming the region's education system. In South East Europe the Novi Sad Initiative⁴² works towards building capacity for structural reform in the Western Balkan countries. Since the introduction of the ten-year plan of the Novi Sad Initiative in 2005 forums, conferences, and panel discussions have been held each year to ensure perennial efforts to establish national

⁴² NOVISADINITIATIVE (undated): Addressing Questions of Structural Reform in Higher Education 2005 – 2015 (<http://www.nsinitiative.uns.ac.rs/>), accessed 8 September 2013.

quality education systems throughout the region. The recently concluded 2012 Petrovac Conference served as a platform for discussing operational framework of the national higher education systems in the West Balkan region, and looked at benchmarking current systems and policies through new regional institutionalised arrangements.

The European University Association (EUA) is another prominent organisation that guides the reforming of higher education systems in Eastern European countries. One essential strategy is the introduction of the Bologna Process to this region. The objective is to have key stakeholders, in particular Presidents of higher education institutions, identify areas ‘where regional cooperation could be strengthened for the benefit of all’ – an important step in reaching the Bologna goals of developing quality assurance systems, and promoting the mobility of students, academic and administrative staff (EUA, 2006: 1). Besides implementing the Bologna Process, the EUA initiatives have resulted in an increase in research and innovation, as well as stakeholders trust in institutional reform and development.

Another observation and similar to the general European model, financing higher education in this sub-region is both a public and private responsibility. Central and East European countries tend to have a mixed system. That is, the best students are awarded a free place at public universities whereas others pay tuition fees (UNESCO, 2003b). Other means of financial aid, such as grants and loans, are also available to students.

Quality Assurance

After the Cold War, countries in Eastern Europe not only saw an increase in the number of higher educational providers and diverse programmes, they recognised the varied quality of programmes being offered; many of which are considered to be less than the acceptable standard. Thus, quality assurance in the region is monitored and guided by national and regional agencies, such as the Central and Eastern European Network of Quality assurance Agencies (CEENQA) and the European Network of Quality Assurance Agencies. In addition, many institutions carry-out internal evaluations of the various disciplines and activities.

Access and Equity

It is important to note that greater access as a result of new private providers does not always equate ‘massification’. In this sub-region, and like others, private providers outnumber public higher education institutions by far. In Slovenia they represent 82 percent, in Poland 63 percent, Estonia and Romania 60 percent, and in Hungary 52 percent; however, they are predominantly small operations that offer fewer programmes (UNESCO, 2003b). The increase in the number of private higher education insinuates greater access, but beyond that it also implies greater disparity between those who have the financial means to access higher education and those who do not. The Bologna process and the introduction of the European Credit Transfer System (ETCS) have been instrumental in minimising obstacles and barriers by expanding access to HEIs for students across Europe, especially those who want to obtain an international tertiary education but are financially restricted to their own country.

Academic Mobility

The Eastern Europe’s new lease on higher education not only means transition and transformation, but it also means vulnerability. A growing trend in the region is the demand for higher education by both students and beneficiaries of research. This has resulted in an increase of private education tertiary institutions. It is the emergence of the private sector of higher education (private not-for-profit, private for profit, corporate, “virtual university”, etc.) that has largely impacted the transformation of higher education in Central and Eastern Europe. For example, in 1998 Poland had a total of 72 authorised private institution and 100 pending approval (TYMOWSKI, 1998). More than a decade later, in 2012, a total of 328 private colleges were reported among the 460 established in the country (MSP.GOV, 2013).⁴³ Private institutions that are recognised by the state award both four-year degrees (*licencjat*) and five-year degrees (*magister*). Ukraine also has a significant number, while countries such as Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Hungary have been less impacted by the influx of private institutions. Andrzej Tymonwski (1998) highlights two positive impacts of such an influx. His observation has

⁴³ Only 29.4% of total university students are matriculated in private institutions.

been that many of these institutions have been founded by former *nomenklatura* with ‘good connection’ and opportunity to offer a more open-schedule of programmes to meet both day and evening students, as well as full-time and part-time students, and it allows university professors to be better financially rewarded.

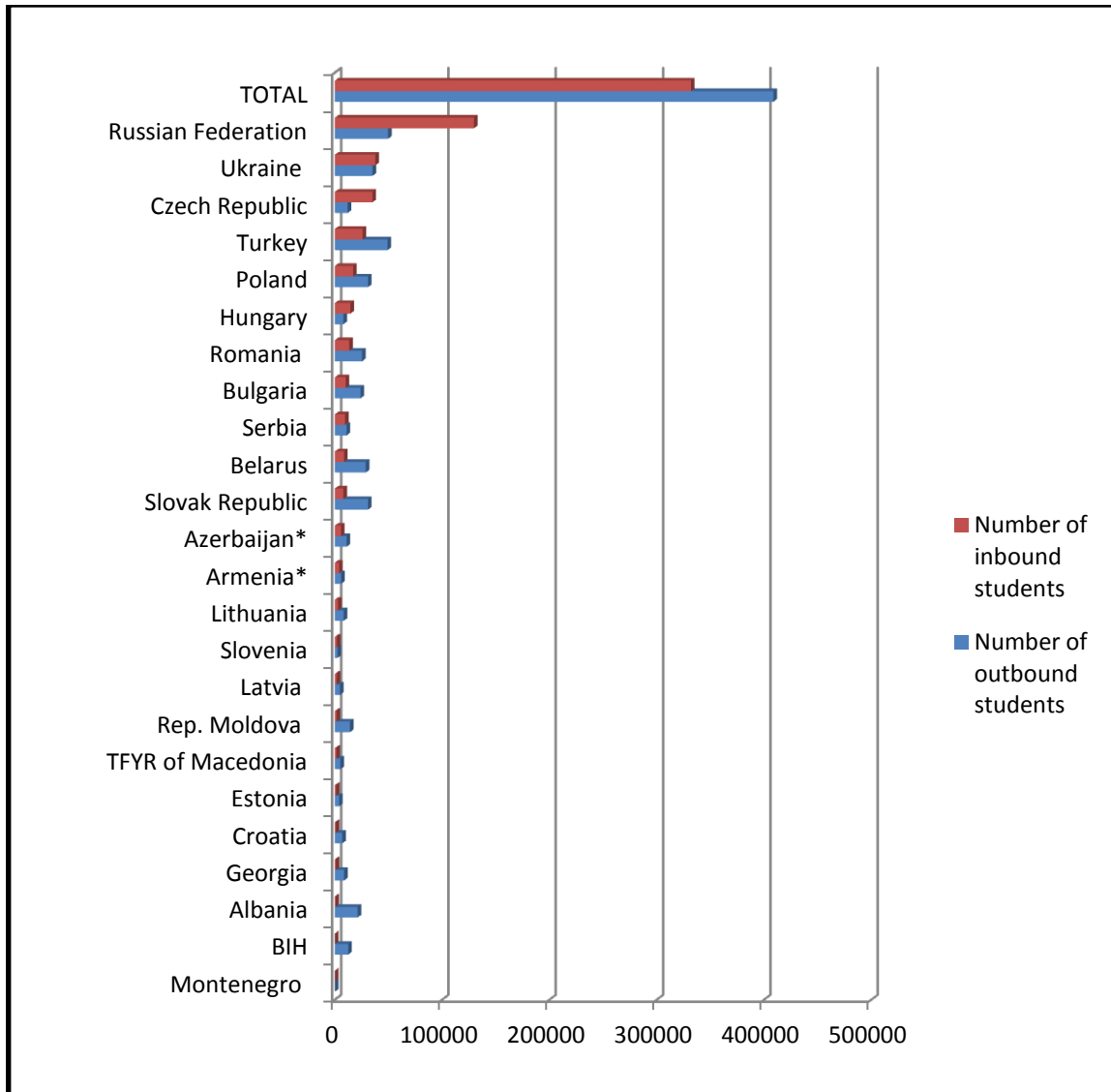
On the other hand, the negative impacts have come at the expense of greater access: it has produced an abundance of poor quality education institutions and the emigration of credible quality professors from public institutions to private ones that offer better remuneration packages, depleting the public system’s pool of experts.

One way to combat these negative impacts and possibly even the terrain are through the opportunities the Bologna process provides for all students in the region. It has created the environment and incentives to entice students to pursue quality higher education in public institutions in other countries. Bernd Wächter (2012) opines that credit mobility is a sign of a mature higher education system. Since 1989 several countries have made significant strides, while others have been making headway at a slower pace in accomplishing significant structural reform to their educational systems. Academic in-bound mobility is a sign of a ‘booming’ educational system and the number of international students the Czech Republic, Hungary, Russia, and the Ukraine host outnumber the number of their outbound students (Figure 3.2). Russia’s international students more than double the number of Russian students that study abroad. In fact, (UIS, 2012), the top three destinations for students from the region are Germany (16 percent), Russian Federation (10 percent), and the United States (8 percent).

As the European Parliament (EPP) continues to work with East European countries to improve their higher education system, some obstacles the region has to overcome, in particular South East Europe countries, include recognition of diplomas, visa (for Europe’s non-EU members), and credit transfer. Several actions have been taken to address them. TEMPUS, Erasmus MUNDUS, and the Bologna Process are some of the more popular programmes throughout the region that are part of the process geared towards relaxing students mobility conditions. Through increase partnerships between EU member states and Eastern Partnership, student mobility has been increasing over the years; 68,402 students from six Eastern Partnership countries studied outside the sub-region in 2006/07, of which 47 percent of them studied within the EU area (WÄCHTER,

2012). The top EU destinations for these students were Germany and France, while Russia is, by far, the lead destination outside the EU.

Figure 3.2: Student in Mobility in East and Southeast Europe



* Considered Euro-Asian countries

Note: Graph by author.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a.

Brain drain is a concern for this region, but considering the partnerships established with Western Europe it might be more a matter of ‘brain circulation’ in the years to come. The European Region is vast and higher education activities at the regional level are beneficial to all countries it encompasses; thus brain circulation might be more

appropriate in this context. According to UNESCO (2003b), the other concerning phenomenon, equal to the loss produced by ‘brain drain,’ is the ‘internal drain’ of faculty from public to private institutions within countries. Academic pundits are being lured away from their public institutions to private ones where they are better compensated financially; taking with them the wealth of knowledge that would benefit a greater majority of students.

Programme and institution mobility in this region does not mirror the conventional mobility activities experienced in other regions. Investment is being made under the aegis of Erasmus. The Erasmus VI branch was established to address the issue of modernising Central and South-east Europe’s higher education systems and a number of partnerships with its Western counterpart have been established. The partnerships formed through the various European Commission activities summarise the extent of programme and institution mobility in Eastern Europe.

3.2 Asia and the Pacific Region

The Asia-Pacific region comprises of half the world’s population and encompasses five distinct sub-regions: East Asia, the Pacific, Central Asia, South Asia, and Southwest Asia (Middle East). Referred to as the ‘mega-region’, the Asia-Pacific region is very diverse culturally and linguistically, and has seen enormous growth in the past 20 years. The region has been fundamentally transformed by economic growth, modernisation and globalisation, and as such the social demand for higher education and more cross-border relationships in higher education have been drastically augmented, albeit national education systems still lag behind. To help meet the demand for higher education, many new providers, mainly Anglophonic countries from the ‘north’ have entered the market sector to take advantage of the growing trend. In fact, the Asia-Pacific countries’ education relationship with its English-language providers is described as dynamic.

3.2.1 East Asia and Pacific

After World War II, cross-border education activities were mainly aid-based, and even when the economies of some East Asian countries (Japan, Korea, China Taipei and

mainland China, respectively) began to grow and consolidate. According to Altbach (2004), the United States, in keeping with its foreign aid objectives, continued to provide funding (including scholarships) for foreign students from the region. However, in the early 1980's such foreign aid began to dwindle as a result of the full fee-based international education market in the United Kingdom, and just when East and Southeast Asia were experiencing 'spectacular economic growth'. The middle class throughout the Asia-Pacific region expanded, affording many more students to study in countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand, which were actively recruiting at the time, and the globalisation of finance, communications and business augmented the value of foreign degrees.

Internationalisation in higher education is very evident in tertiary institutions in the region due to the various cross-border activities that are rapidly increasing. Neo-activities that may determine the future developments in the region include the increasing interdependency that is now prevalent in the region's economy, the intra-regional student and faculty mobility, as well as university partnerships being established. Major higher education actors responsible for the development of regional policies – governments, higher education institutions, international organisations and international university associations – are said to be collaborating to construct an education framework conducive to cross-border activities within the region, in particular East Asia. According to Angel Calderon (2012), the East Asia and the Pacific region in 2000 had a tertiary education participation rate of 1.7 percent and it is expected to have a tertiary education participation rate of more than 10 percent, the highest rate, by 2033. This indicates an annual increase of less than 0.4 percent over 23 years. Furthermore, the region is expected to exceed enrolments of 100 million students by 2021 and twice that number by 2034. East Asia and the Pacific represented 25 percent of total world enrolments in 2000 and by 2035 should increase to 42 percent (212.9 million enrolments).

East Asia is categorised geographically in this paper two ways: north and south. North-east Asia comprises of two developed countries (Japan and Korea) and a developing/OECD partner country (China), which are among the dominant leaders advancing cross-border higher education. Southeast Asia, while not leaders, comprises of developing countries that continue to make significant contribution to the increase of

cross-border education activities in the region: Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia (a partner country) all play an integral role in the internationalisation of higher education in the region. A noted difference between the North and South is their use of English in their delivery of course material. Though the entire region has given priority to English as an international requirement, data shows that Southeast Asia prides itself in offering a significant number of programmes in English while Northeast Asia countries remain more traditional in this area by sticking to their native languages.

The region's stride towards creating a knowledge economy is credited to the cooperation of the various state initiatives proposed and taken by organisations such as the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) and the Association of South East Asia Nations (ASEAN). For example, APEC advocates for greater cross-border higher education cooperation that must result in creating an Asia-Pacific higher education space that would include India from the South Asia region, as well as some 30 odd countries in the Pacific Rim such as United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (SHARMA, 2012). However, the realisation of the initiatives of these organisations have been difficult due to several challenges, such as the differences in approaches put forward by the various states in the region and the gap between aspirations and initiatives. The United States' historic tie to the region also plays an important role in how countries in the region shape their education policies; thus, explaining the clear American model in countries such as South Korea, Japan, China Taipei and the Philippines (ALTBACH, 2004).

In the East Asia and Pacific region linguistic challenges may lie at the heart of the challenges it faces in carrying out its aspired initiatives. New Guinea alone is said to be the home to over 1,000 (one-sixth) of the world's language (NETTLE & ROMAINE, 2000). The language diversity presents a problem for higher education in the region. National development is one of the pressing objectives of governments in this region, thus cross-border education and research are embraced as principal avenues in ensuring sustainable nation building. Developed countries in the region such as Australia, New Zealand, Japan and Korea have strong domestic capacity; the Anglophone countries main focus is exporting, mainly English, while the Sino-phone countries are major importers of the same. Intermediate nations in the region such as China, Indonesia, and Malaysia are

traditionally major markets for higher education providers and the focus is building a knowledge economy and domestic capacity. While essentially some countries are mere importers or exporters of the English Language, there are those in this region that operate as both importer and exporters. For example, countries such as Singapore and Hong Kong, where higher education ‘hubs’ are burgeoning, invite and partner with universities from Australia, the UK and the US in offering curricula in English at special local establishments. On the other hand, in underdeveloped nations such as Papua New Guinea, Cambodia and Myanmar the demand for higher education is low and domestic capacity is weak, thus nation building is the central focus (ALTBACH, 2004). In China and Thailand limited domestic capacity to meet the demand is a challenge, while other countries, for example the Philippines, though they have a greater capacity to meet their demand often have few quality opportunities. There are several interregional exchange programmes for both students and faculty: the Australia-Korea Teacher Exchange programme implemented in 2007 is one example, and national investment programmes such as Brain 21 in Korea is another. Influenced by the Bologna Process, East Asia also looks to Europe for developing its educational system and reorganising existing structures (NEUBAUER, 2012).

Quality Assurance

Australia is the lead provider of the region. Since 1987, and under Australia’s Dawkins Reform, the country’s higher education system has been evolving: proposal and implementation of new government policies, the amalgamation of institutions, restructuring of amalgamated institutions and the establishment of very large multi-campus institutions, increase involvement of all stake holders (including staff), more competitive research, and diverse student body. Consequently, the decision to transform the national system from a binary system (includes teachers’ colleges/universities, technical institutes) to a single system of universities pinpoints the historic change in Australia’s current education system (EL-KHAWAS et al., 1996). Today, Australia is a leader in the internationalisation in higher education due to the autonomy granted to institutions, coupled with significant funding by government and the private sector.

Quality assurance in East Asia has a history that spans more than 60 years with Japan pioneering the trend by establishing the region's first accreditation association (MORI, 2012). Today the region has over 10 established and government recognised accreditation agencies, as well as a number of American accredited agencies independent of the government.

Higher education in China has been improved as a result of incoming international students, mainly from the region, and expatriates who have influenced a more 'marketable' curriculum. In fact the Higher Education Evaluation Centre of the Ministry of Education (HEEC) was founded less than a decade ago by the government. In 2010 China's tertiary enrolment was 31 million and is said to be the largest higher education system in the World. However, this sum only represents 26.5 percent of its 18-22 age population (ZHA, 2011). The OECD *Education at a Glance* (2012) report shows an estimated 14 percent of university students will complete studies and 18 percent will graduate from vocationally-oriented programmes 'during their lifetimes'. The China Daily USA (WANGSHU, 2012) reported 6.6 million tertiary graduates in 2011, an increase of 5.45 million over the 1.15 million a decade ago (ZHA, 2011). Thus, according to Zha, prompting many universities over the years to embark on major expansion programmes, though for different reasons: pressure from various entities, competitiveness, or mere aesthetic enhancement. For whatever the reason, some 1,164 Chinese colleges and universities have found themselves in great debt to banks and under pressure from the government, which has cut its funding and is ensuring that government aid is not used to pay back loans. The debt of these institutions and government involvement may result in foreign international higher education providers becoming much more cautious about future collaboration investment in China, even if only for the immediate future. Given the demand for tertiary education in China and the country's growing influence in the global market, other East Asian countries, Australia and New Zealand continue to benefit from their local Chinese Diaspora.

Similar to most OECD countries, Japan's higher education system has evolved. The government along with business leaders in the 1990's recognised the need to change its course towards national development by shifting its efforts from a higher education research system to a science-based innovation system. The Ministry of Education,

Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in 2001 was established to replace the government's *Monbusbo* (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports). As such, government has strengthened its investment, aiding more postgraduate students and holding quality education at the international standard. Historically, Japan has given great importance to quality higher education, even though its first official quality assurance system was introduced as recent as 2004. Such a late reaction is considered an advantage for Japan as they have learnt from the mistakes their other OECD counterparts have made over the years. Accreditation organisations such as the University Accreditation Committee and the National University Education and Research Evaluation Committee of the NAID-EU have contributed in the country's quality assurance of higher education, and today a very large number of institutions are accredited (NEWBY et al., 2009).

In respect to New Zealand it has one of the most advanced internationalised higher education system both in the region and the world: government policies are aligned with institution's objectives, and evidence of financial investment by stakeholders in the internationalisation of the system shows a growing number of cross-border activities. A possible advantage New Zealand has is its small educational sector which is a contributing factor in advancing its internationalisation policies. Even so, the country still faces financial challenges to fund several of its programmes (GOEDEGEBUURE et al., 2008).

South Korea historically appears to have relied primarily on its human capital to develop the nation, and as such it is no surprise that its approach to nation building follows the global trend of placing emphasis on the need to create a 'knowledge economy'. To underscore their faith in education as the solution to both social problems and individual mobility, Norton Grubb et al. (2009: 19) echo the sentiment of D. B. Kwon⁴⁴ that 'the idea of a knowledge-based economy is enthusiastically treated like a gospel among Korean people'.

Other countries in the last decade have also taken hold of the 'Education Gospel' (GRUBB & LAZARSON, 2004). More emphasis is said to be given to international education and foreign languages and less on student mobility (incoming and out-going).

⁴⁴ D. B. Kwon 2001 unpublished paper *Adult education in Korea*.

In fact, last year English was incorporated as part of the national standardised tests. Over the last four decades the number of tertiary students in some 376 official South Korea higher education institutions has burgeoned from 200,000 in 1970 to today's 3.7 million. Quality education programmes and institutions chartered by the Korean Council for University of Evaluation (KCUE) that has been in existence since 1984.

With the more nascent regionalisation approach to economic development the ASEAN (2012) 5-Year Work Plan on Education, reveals the region is having an overhaul done to all the various educational systems. As enrolment increases and students continue to respond to the changes of globalisation in the labour market, the region's educational systems are being forced to react accordingly. The British Council (2012) report states that Indonesia will be the fifth largest tertiary system in the world come 2020 with student enrolment reaching 8 million; China leads with 37 million while India in second with 28 million. The emergence of knowledge economies is an impetus factor behind the demand for higher quality education in the region, thus the 'Plan' (ASEAN, 2012: 30) includes universities:

- Bringing internationally recognised scholars, scientist, and leaders to campus and energising the intellectual climate on campus by sponsoring conferences and cultural events.
- Exposing students to diverse cultures through study abroad programmes.
- Providing opportunities for faculty and staff to develop and broaden their intellectual and professional horizon with regard to global issues.
- Promoting community outreach by disseminating ideas and knowledge and facilitating economic opportunities that benefit local and global communities.

Activities in this region is expected to increase in Southeast Asia as countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam, and the Philippines are in the top 20 countries with high tertiary enrolment.

Access and Equity

The region must address its equity challenges given that the socio-economic structures of the countries are diverse. Greater access to higher education has augmented,

but high income families represent the majority of students who access quality higher education (PARRY, 2011; ZHA, 2011). The importance of women's role in the region is still lacking in the labour market (PARRY, 2011). However, The ASEAN (2012: 11) Five-Year Plan initiatives geared towards better access to 'relevant and effective education for all [its] citizens' is encouraging.

Academic Mobility

The issue of outbound student mobility is further addressed in the comparative section of developed countries in Chapter Four. Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning here that two-thirds of international students in the region come from Asia; 33 percent alone from East Asia and 34 percent from the rest of Asia. The remaining 33 percent represent the rest of the world. The attitude that East Asian students have towards higher education and its prestige stems from the region's traditional Confucian principles, as well as the current social and economic changes of the time (CHOI & NIEMINEN, 2013). East Asians value higher education, but more so one from a prestigious institution, and given the fact that such spaces are limited cross-border education is the next best option.

This may explain why international education for years has been Australia's third largest export trade (AEI, 2012); regional proximity and English are just two of the benefitting factors that lure Asian students to study in Australia, in spite the challenges many Asian students face in Australia and New Zealand, which are often related to adapting to a different cultural mindset and social behaviour.

The growing economic and cultural weight of the United States in the past two decades, coupled with a growing Asian population and its increasing economic weight, the demand for cross-border education, especially student mobility numbers, are unlikely to fall. Furthermore, the value added by Asian students and parents to a foreign degree obtained in another country is likely to remain a principal rational for the expected exponential growth in out-bound student mobility to OECD countries, as well as other countries with reputable cross-border activities within the region. Historically the number of outgoing students from the region is not comparable with the number of foreign students the region hosts yearly. In 2000/2001 more than a third of international students (43.9 percent) in the United States were from East Asia, and in 2012 the figures reveal

the same, though a slight decline (40.5 percent): China with 25.4 percent, Japan with 9.5 percent, Taiwan 3 percent and Japan with 2.6 percent (IIE, 2012).

After Deng Xiaoping in 1978 promoted international study in favour of the 'four modernisations' of agriculture, industry, defence and science and technology, student mobility in China began to emerge. In 1991 the number of Chinese international students stood at 7,647, however by 2003 that number augmented to 117,000. Ninety-three percent of these students were privately financed. The country in the same year also hosted 67,672 foreign students, and in 2005 that figure more than doubled to a total of 141, 087, representing 179 countries (GALLAGHER et al., 2009). Recent UNESCO figures show the outbound numbers have more than tripled to 562,889, and the in-bound numbers have augmented a few thousands to 71, 673 (Figure 3).

The career choices of students within the region are reflective of the knowledge economy industries such as ICT, financial management, research, science, and engineering. The East and Southeast region's technological advancements are results of the priority it has given to the field.

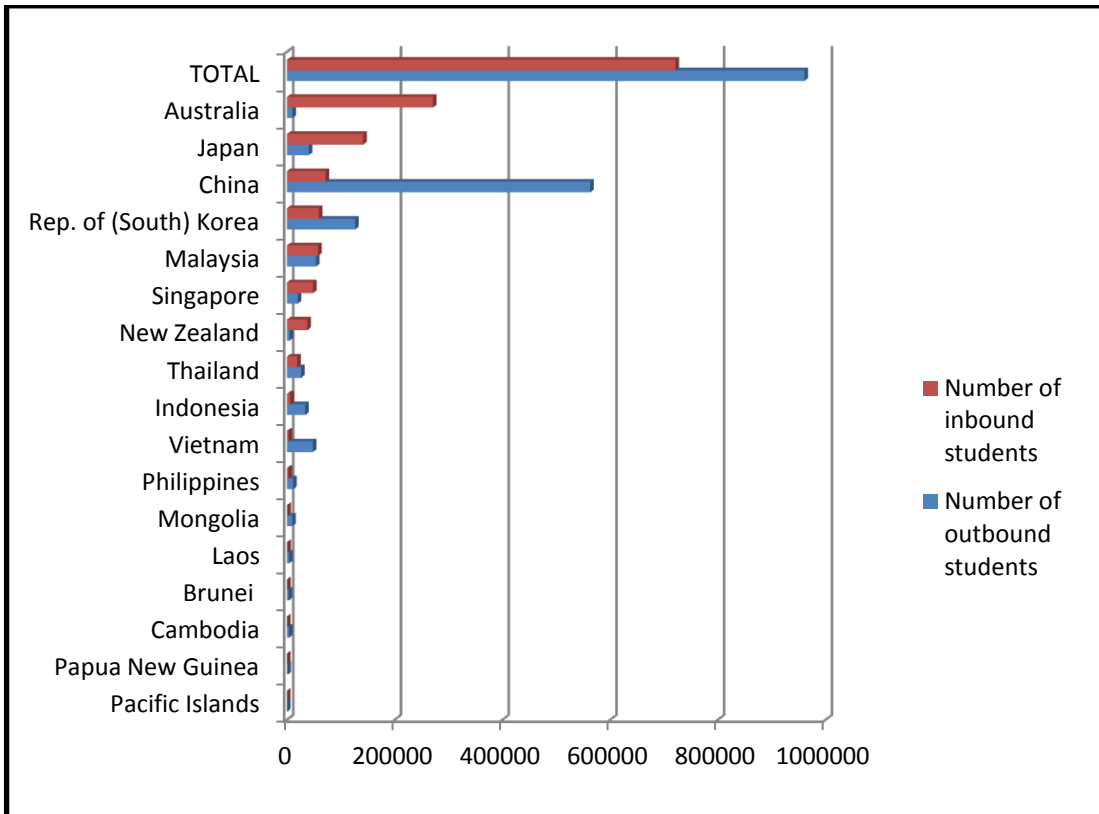
Global demand for certain professions has contributed to the 'brain drain' effect in the last two decades. Australia continues to benefit economically and brain gain may be expected to increase from the exportation of several of these disciplines in higher education to countries within the East Asia and the Pacific region.

Japan is said to have a mature and diverse higher education system (Altbach, 2010; OECD, 2009c). The country's international engagement has increased significantly since its 1983 'International Students 100,000 Plan' that has seen the number of international students enrolment in its higher education institutions augment from 10,000 in the same year to 120,000 in 2005 (NEBWY et al., 2009). Furthermore, the government's effort to strengthen their international activities resulted in the consolidation of all pertinent agencies to form the current Japanese Student Services Organisation (JASSO) and became an active participant in the University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP). Japan plays a vital role in the furtherance of international education in developing countries, both within and outside the region, through the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in spite the fact that its universities have lost international ranking in recent years (OECD, 2013d).

Korean top universities are still below international ranking. According to Zen Parry (2011), the number of international students to South Korea in 2010 was approximately 83,840 while the number of Koreans who studied abroad in the same year was about 250,000. UNESCO figure show a decline in the numbers. Figure 3.3 reveals those numbers have lowered significantly; the number of inbound students is 59,194 and the number of outbound students has decreased approximately 50 percent to 126,447. However, Parry (2011) states this may be attributed to the fact that the international experience gain from student mobility is not regarded more valuable than domestic 'quality' education.

With respect to Malaysia and Singapore, less student mobility is reported. These countries once had about one-fifth of their tertiary students pursuing studies abroad to attain quality higher education offered in English. Between 1996 and 2008 Malaysia had an approximate average of 47,000 students studying abroad yearly, while Singapore approximately 18,000 (VARGHESE, 2012). These two countries are not expected to see their outbound numbers augment significantly as they too have embarked on 'knowledge city' ventures.

Figure 3.3: Student Mobility in East Asia and the Pacific



Note: Graph by author.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a.

China is one of the major markets open to international providers. In 1981 the China Education Association for International Exchange (CEAIE), a non-governmental organisation, was established, and in 1994 the Chinese Scholarship Council (CSC) that aids both Chinese international students studying abroad and international students in China. A noted effort by the CSC is its increase scholarships geared towards PhD students, encouraging them to study abroad at (regional and non-regional) institutions, such as the University of Auckland, Monash University, Kansas State University, and University of Oxford.

In respect to P & I mobility, many international providers are establishing tertiary education institutions (TEIs) jointly with some Chinese universities, providing alternative academic programmes: joint degree programmes, dual degree programmes, greater emphasis in the teaching/learning of the other languages and exposing students to international academic staff (GALLAGHER et al., 2009). At the institutional level

internationalisation efforts are evident; however, at the national level universities have yet to establish a national association that would foster collaboration that produce the efforts needed to demonstrate substantial internationalisation of a higher education system that exemplifies massification of quality higher education.

Korea has a significant number of memorandums of understanding (MoU) which have not been fruitful to date. Up to 2004 there were no foreign providers in Korea and have complained about their inability to establish partnerships with foreign institutions (GRUBB et al., 2009). The Korean approach to internationalisation has little impact on the expected outcomes. Parry (2011) refers to the countries approach as the 'glossy approach'. An example of this is the 'World Class University' (WCU), founded in 2008, is funded by government and employs international scholars and Nobel laureates to collaborate with local faculty to improve curriculum, learning and teaching practices. Like other countries, Korea has been working towards establishing its own international branch-campus centre in the Incheon Free Economic Zone. The Songdo Global University Campus that is now home to State University New York (SUNY) Korea campus and others is expected to host several foreign institutions ensuring Koreans have access to a foreign quality education without having to leave home. The downside to this approach has been the early unexpected exit by some of scholars and Nobel laureates.

In Japan offshore programmes that seek recognition must be accredited by the Ministry of Education, culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). In the 1980's approximately 40 United States institutions with such programmes opted not to seek national recognition because of the country's onerous requirements (KIMURA et al., 2004; AOKI, 2005). By 2005 Temple University was the only offshore programme still operating in Japan and continued offering full degree programmes. Currently there are a small number of institutions, mainly from Australia and the United States, offering programmes in Japan. The Koizumi Government in 2004 with new objectives and within the framework of the GATS opened up new opportunities for both foreign providers in Japan and for Japanese universities to operate abroad. In 2005 the country had five offshore institutions in three countries: the United States, The United Kingdom and New

Zealand (AOKI, 2005).⁴⁵ Japan has also played a lead role in establishing international quality assurance networks as well as the development of the OECD/UNESCO, 2005 Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education.⁴⁶

As a region, the ASEAN members have established in its '5-Year' plan (ASEAN, 2012) the need for quality benchmarks that allow for cross-border accreditation with the hope of achieving best practices of other regions, for example Europe. The region has established a university network system known as ASEAN University Network (AUN) which collaborates with other organisations, such as SEAMEO, UNESCO and UNICEF, in order to meet the objectives set out in its '5-Year' plan.

Institutional mobility is important to the region, and Malaysia is a good example of a host country to establish branch campuses like Nottingham University (UK), Monash University and Curtin University (Australia). Furthermore, some local universities franchise their programmes to local private college enabling those who are unable to access public universities to obtain a tertiary degree.

Some ASEAN members have been more instrumental in establishing education hubs and cities, which are on the rise, in the region than others. In fact, Malaysia is said to have developed the 'hub' concept, noted in a 1990 Malaysian Ministry of Education policy documenting the vision of 'a world-class quality education which is flexible and innovative that in turn will make Malaysia a regional education hub and a centre of educational excellence' (DESSOFF, 2012: 19-20). However, it was only after the September 11 attack on the United States in 2001, when student visas became more restricted and international education from the West was harder to access, that Malaysia became the gateway to 'western education' for students within the region. The Malaysian government hopes to attract more than 200,000 students to the country by 2020. It is Singapore, however, that is lauded for first implementing the 'hub' concept in the region in the early 2000s when it began attracting foreign institutions, mainly from the United Kingdom and Australia to its shores.

⁴⁵ Aoki also noted that the Japanese government initiatives included the international mobility of Japanese students to have them eventually replace the country's foreign teachers.

⁴⁶ Annex B includes the expectation of all member countries ensuring quality. <http://www.oecd.org/edu/skills-beyond-school/35779480.pdf>

In Singapore the Global Schoolhouse is one such example. The Singapore Economic Development Board and the Ministry of Education have been most successful with their 'Singapore Education' initiative so much to the point that others look to copy Singapore's model. In fact, Singapore is considered 'ahead of the game'. The recent initiatives in the country include promoting 'Singapore Education'. The country, in addition to its 30 pre-tertiary foreign institutions offering international curricula, hosts several branch campuses, such as The University of Chicago's Booth Graduate School of Business, the Technical University of Munich, and partnership programmes with local universities including Duke University's School of Medicine, Yale University, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Britain's Imperial College. Future plans for Singapore's economic development is not limited to education, but intends to create 'a global talent hub', attracting even more students, faculty, researchers and professionals from around the world, that will be 'aligned with...varied economic sectors' (DESSOFF, 2012: 18-19).

Student mobility in this region, especially from China, usually results in significant 'brain drain'. According to the M. Gallagher et al. (2009), the Chinese government has taken steps to curb this movement by having initiated programmes to attract more returnees; of the more than one million students who have studied abroad since 1978 only 200, 000 have reportedly returned to China. Likewise the Philippines has a high outflow: about 70 percent of nurse graduates, for example, migrate each year, some temporarily to other Asian countries in the East or Middle East, and the majority of the remaining 30 percent are said to migrate to the United States.

3.2.2 Central Asia

Just a little over 22 years the Central Asian Republics (CARs) were established, thus this is a region still in its infancy stage. Since 1991 Central Asian countries with a shared history that connects them to the then Soviet Union have been challenged by their autonomous responsibility to develop their educational systems. Some of the Soviet Union quantitative indicators, such as literacy, primary and secondary coverage, and research, have resulted in the regions' reasonably successful education system and today there is still evidence of this legacy (BRUNNER & TELLET, 2007). The transitional

phase for these countries – Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Turkmenistan – towards attaining economical, social and political stability and development has been challenging.

The countries in the region continue to experience tension between setting national objectives to ensure equality for the very ethnic mix of citizens represented in the region. For example, in Tajikistan there are about 137 ethnic groups in a population of 7.8 million. The way forward for the region calls for what José Joaquín Brunner and Anthony Tellet (2007) refer to as a ‘social contract’ between the different groups because ethnic divisions make it difficult to develop social cohesion and build good institutions that meet the demands of both the local societies and the global community at large.

The higher education sector across the Soviet Union was fully integrated more than the other educational sub-sectors, thus the split resulted in infrastructural and human resource challenges. Brunner and Tellet (2007) further describe the inheritance as a mismatch between an authoritarian command economy and the demands of globalisation. The new leadership reflects the ‘elites’ who were left with the task of creating new educational systems for the new countries and, to date, the transition process continues to be met with educational challenges, and only since the Tajik armistice in June 1997 that the whole region experienced stability that has led to the progress in the region today. Still, the poverty in the region of approximately 64 million inhabitants is significant and a hindrance to many students who may aspire to access the higher education opportunities new policies have made available. Thus, according to Brunner and Tellet (Ibid.), three determinants in internationalising higher education in the region are the national education system, the labour market and international competitiveness.

National Education Systems

After becoming independent states, education reform for the Central Asian Republics was imminent. As such, concerns rested on the possible implications these new education policies would have for each state and, by extension the region, as well as their role in the free market. True reform unfolded at different times in the past two decades. As early as 1994 Tajikistan began reforming its education system, however, Turkmenistan major reform policy was only established four years ago in 2009. Two

factors that effected colossal challenges at the earlier stage of the education reform in the region, after many Russians returned to Russia and ties with country were severed, were migration and the paucity of resources. With the traditions of the Soviet Union and the need for new policies means a process of both continuity and change for the region (TEMPUS, 2012c & 2012d).

This is evident in the new language policies which inadvertently impact educational policies. The national language policies are described as divisive; the former Soviet Union states have had to decide whether or not to retain Russian as a national language. Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan have retained Russian as a legal language; Uzbekistan has opted to make it a minority language, while empirical evidence shows that it is still widely spoken in most urban areas in Tajikistan and Turkmenistan. Still, Russian is the ‘lingua franca’ of the region. A language policy is imperative for the region to effectively address the quality of the education it offers its students of all ages. Such a policy is necessary to deal with the serious issues related to national language school material, textbooks, and language teachers (TEMPUS, 2012a-c).

Radical reform is required and has been underway in these countries in the last decade. Each Republic has since implemented educational policies to ensure that there is continuity in the ongoing process of modernisation and competitiveness. There are more similarities in the approaches each country has embraced that unite them as a developing region. Some states such as Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan Republic have both public and private higher education, while all higher education institutions in Tajikistan and Turkmenistan are government owned (Table 3.1), and even those institutions that are ‘privately’ owned are still heavily governed by government policies. In the Kyrgyz Republic, for example, curriculum content is determined by the state and includes list of compulsory subjects that account for 60 to 70 percent of the total educational programme, and in some cases, such as Turkmenistan, governments determine admission requirements. Even in Kazakhstan, one of the most internationalised advanced nations in the region, neither public nor private higher education institutions have autonomy over their curricula or admissions.

All five countries in the region have placed emphasis on the sciences and research as the path to the development of country and region, and some have opted to have an

educational system free of religious influence, as in the case of the Kyrgyz Republic. Corruption to various degrees in higher education is an issue being addressed in these countries; one of the aims of the National Testing System in Tajikistan is to reduce corruption and ensure transparency.

Table 3.1 Higher Education Institutions and Enrolment (2011-2012)

	Kazakhstan	Kyrgyzstan Republic	Tajikistan	Turkmenistan	Uzbekistan
<i>Number of HEIs</i>	146	54	30	24	75
<i>Number of Public HEIs</i>	73	33	30	24	-
<i>Number of Private HEIs</i>	73	21	0	0	-
<i>Total enrollment in HEIs</i>	610,000	239,208	155,000	-	272,114

Note: Table by author

Source: Tempus, 2012 a – e

The Labour Market

Traditionally, the demand for secondary education is an indication of the potential demand for higher education, though national systems and their education environment may be quite distinct among countries. The labour market in the region, for example, shows a greater demand for graduates with management, law, and social and information science than for education and engineering, and the national competitiveness for science and technology skilled labourers play an integral part in the region's development. At present the local labour market tends to dictate students' career choices and, for the most part, governments often subsidise tertiary studies. In fact, some government policies actually award grants to students based on their choices, and given the region's rich oil resources the sciences tend to be one of the most highly valued careers in the region. On the other hand, other careers such as education are underappreciated; for example, in Turkmenistan education majors do not benefit from state funding (TEMPUS, 2012d). Incidentally, it is obligatory for students in Turkmenistan to complete two years of work

experience before they are awarded their degree; this is considered the practical business side to a more complete programme.

International Competitiveness

The region's brief history may explain the reasons why the Republics are lagging behind in the internationalisation of higher education process. The internationalisation of higher education in the region has been developed primarily by bilateral and multilateral government agreements and some HEIs forging various partnerships with international organisations such as USAID, UNESCO, TEMPUS and ERASMUS MUNDUS (External Cooperation Programmes). The approach to modernise and internationalise higher education systems vary among the countries. Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan have a three-cycle process, while the others follow a two-cycle system; however, it may be a matter of time for the three-cycle system to be widely established if they are to become more compatible with the current global trend. Except for Kazakhstan, no other country in the region has adapted to the Bologna Process and therefore they are classified as Non Bologna-Signatory Countries, even though in the Kyrgyzstan Republic and Tajikistan there are ad hoc groups implementing the Bologna Process under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. In general the Central Asian Republics distinguish between higher education and post-higher education. The former refers to the Bachelor level while the latter usually refers to both the Master and Doctoral level of studies (TEMPUS, 2012a-c).

Tempus and Erasmus Mundus have been influencing the regions' general educational system for more than a decade and have made significant strides. The objective of Erasmus Mundus in essence is to extend its reach of higher education development activities to third world economies through its various programmes. It aims to promote European higher education that will help improve and enhance the career prospects of students, as well as promote intercultural understanding through cooperation with third countries as set out in the EU external policy objectives. Erasmus Mundus initiatives are geared towards sustainable development of third countries in the field of higher education. It does this through three Actions: Action 1 – Erasmus Mundus Joint Programmes (Master Courses and Joint Doctorates) - with scholarships; Action 2 –

Erasmus Mundus Partnerships (former External Cooperation Window); and, Action 3 – Erasmus Mundus Attractiveness projects (Appendix D).

International cooperation is also visible in other activities being carried out in the region: on-line learning (2006) and multi-media centres (2008) have been established in Turkmenistan; foreign languages, especially English, are a priority; and academic mobility is augmenting. Uzbekistan foreign partnerships have resulted in better quality assurance and the country is currently described as dynamic, having the most bilateral agreements in over 45 countries, and has the fastest developing areas in higher education. It has a growing presence of foreign lecturers and scientists, and student mobility is well supported.

Some general challenges that the region faces include limited access to quality higher education programmes that correspond to a three-cycle system that is comparable to international standards, which would better facilitate academic mobility: recognising international accredited programmes, degree recognition, and transferring of credits. Even though countries in the region have established bilateral and multilateral agreements, and in some cases, signed agreements among higher education institutions, the higher education systems must be modernised in order to be truly attractive and competitive to the global market. In order for the region to continue developing its international activities in its tertiary institutions will call for more collaboration and integration of worldwide education trends (TEMPUS 2012a-e).

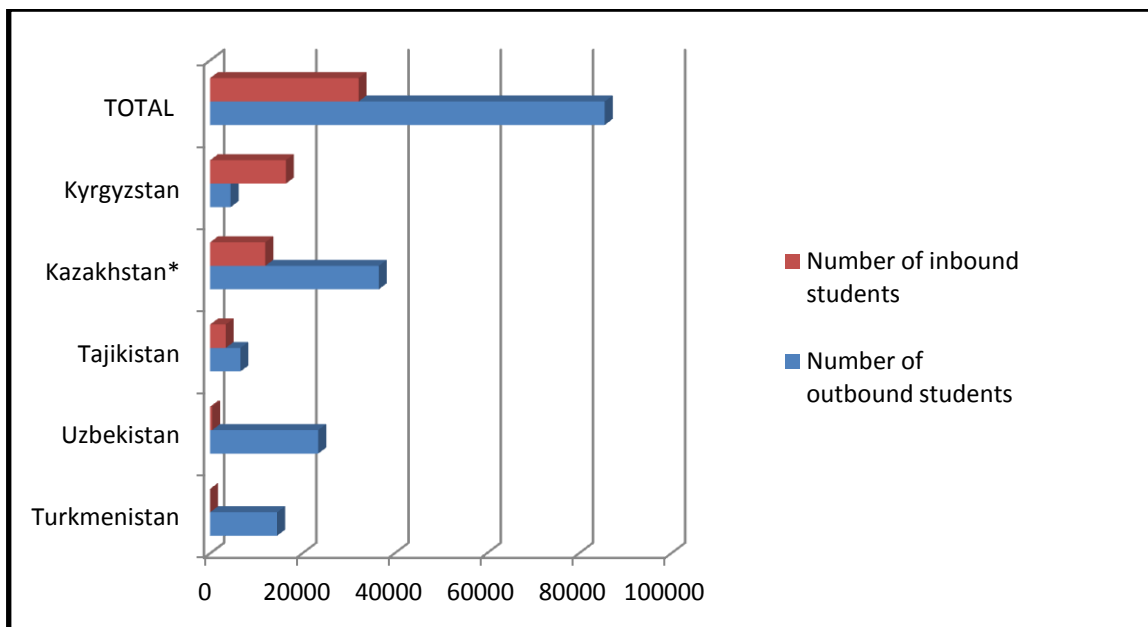
Quality Assurance

In general, student mobility in the region is promising, more so in respect to outbound students. Needless to say, the region is vulnerable and risks losing its brightest to developed or other developing countries. Preferred destinations for students in the region are Russia, Turkey, Europe and the United States. On the other hand, the majority of inbound students represent the region itself. Figure 3.4 shows Kyrgyzstan as the only country in the region that has more international students in its higher education system than the number of domestic (Kyrgyz) students studying abroad. In fact the number of students the country hosts almost quadruples that of those studying abroad. While the other four countries send more students abroad than they host, Kazakhstan has about

thrice the number of students studying abroad than it hosts, and Uzbekistan hosts about 433 international students, a mere fraction of the 23, 447 it sends abroad.

Quality and accreditation is being addressed at both the institution and national level, though data reveals the government in all five Republics appear to have the brunt of responsibility to ensure licensing, accreditation and quality assurance of higher education institutions. Kazakhstan allows higher education institutions to become members on international quality assurance networks as INQAAHE, ENQA, APQN, etc. However, its quality assurance system is too complicated and requires too much compliance. The commercialisation of higher education in its new form is sure to complicate the countries' policies aim to modernise their higher education systems. For example, in Turkmenistan fee based activities at institutions are not seen as commerce if all such income is reinvested in the schools development and improvement; this includes teachers' salaries (TEMPUS, 2012d).

Figure 3.4: Student Mobility in Central Asia



Note: Graph by author.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a

Access and Equity

With the exception of Tajikistan where space is also limited and individuals such as orphans, the medically certified disabled, people with work experience, students awarded a medal at the completion of their secondary studies, those from rural areas who receive the President's quota, members of national Olympiads in particular disciplines, and former armed forces, the fact is only those with the best scores or financial means are granted access to higher education or post-higher education. Accessing higher education in the region is highly competitive. The total population of the region is approximately 64 million, and even though the number of the tertiary student cohort is not specified, the 1, 276, 332 total student enrolment as shown in Table 3.1, enrolment in higher education programmes appears low.

In some countries the Russian language is reserved for tertiary institutions and diplomacy relations. In Turkmenistan, for example, the admission examination is administered in Russian, which may prove to put those from the more rural areas at a disadvantage. In such cases, students in the rural areas are not prepared to compete at the tertiary level; hence, they are at the outset at a disadvantage to obtaining post-secondary university studies. In the earlier stage of their independence the tertiary education situation in the region shows that it was the elite that had access to quality HEIs, such as Moscow University, institutions in Turkey or private foreign universities where English is the language of instruction.

Today, all higher education systems are governed by bodies of the Governments and, in general, quality is assured by state agencies which often stipulate an admission test. For example, Uzbekistan - the most populated in the region - has a population of approximately 29.5 million, of which 30 year olds and under represent 60 percent, and where there is currently no non-governmental institution, and a quota is established by government that limits the actual number of students who may access tertiary institutions annually. The admission quota for the 2011/2012 academic year was 56, 607, even though 37, 047 of those students were fee-paying students. In the Kyrgyzstan Republic the state educational standards (SES) also sets a limit for free and commercial access to public institutions. In Turkmenistan students must pass three exams and then the number of students admitted to each faculty is decided by the Presidential Decree (TEMPUS,

2012b-e). Education policies in the region underscore the need for equal access: in Tajikistan the national policy states the need to make special provision for women to access higher education.

3.2.3 South Asia

In the 12th Century European universities were asked to take on essential roles (ALTBACH, 2011; PERKIN, 2006), and since then the roles of universities in our societies have diversified extensively, though some more than others. Countries on the South Asian subcontinent collectively (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka) have a population of approximately 1.4 billion, and is home to half of the world's poor (WB, 2013a). It is one the least integrated regions in the world and faces long-term challenges (AUSAID, 2013); higher education and tertiary institutions must play an integral role in solving them.

Data shows that post-graduate programmes are more popular than undergraduate programmes in the region. The current state of investment in higher education in South Asia is described by the World Bank (2013b) as insufficient. Even with the progress that has been made, modernisation and improvements of higher levels of education must be of urgent priority if the area is to develop a competitive global workforce.

Public spending on education currently averages 4.1 percent of GDP – one of the lowest levels in any region. Within a four year period (2003-2007) the World Bank has reported a US\$ 2,470 million investment in education in South Asia that has benefited the education of poor people; it promotes emphasis on outcomes and less on inputs. As such, the World Bank has invested in higher education improvement projects for selected countries (Afghanistan, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka) as a step towards sustainable growth while integrating them more in the world economy.

Accordingly, even at the national and regional level tertiary outcomes have not benefited the local economy, 'employers commonly complain that education services are not responsive to demand in labour markets and fail to cultivate the skills required'⁴⁷ thus resulting in a significant number of educated youth being unemployed. The most popular

⁴⁷ World Bank (2013b): Brief on Education on South Asia (<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/SOUTHASIAEXT/0,,contentMDK:21487829~pagePK:146736~piPK:146830~theSitePK:223547,00.html>), accessed on 19 April 2013.

destination for international students from the region includes the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia and Canada.

Bangladesh, India and Pakistan are highlighted given their cross-border activities are recorded and they represent the greater part of the region. These countries have a history of migration owing their colonial ties, and English had once been their official language. In Bangladesh cross-border activities are present and are monitored to control any possible spur of growth of off-campus branches. The educational system is a legacy of the British colonial system, which may explain why private universities outnumber public universities. There are a total of 82 universities, 26 public and 56 private (ABIDI, 2012). Even though private institutions are twice the number of public, and enrolment in public surpasses that of private institutions.

Quality Assurance

Governments in the region still have a hand on approach towards quality assurance and accreditation in higher education. In Bangladesh the University Grant Commission of Bangladesh oversees recognition of private institutions on behalf of the government, but the overall measures towards quality assurance in the region appear to be under-documented.

In respect to the world's third largest higher educational system, India enrolls about 12 percent of the age cohort even though the demand for higher education has grown rapidly; like China, the demand exceeds the infrastructure and the adequate professoriate required to respond to the need (ALTBACH et al., 2009). The once described 'hum' tertiary education system is far from that today. The current state of India's tertiary system of 300 universities, 15,600 colleges and 2.5 million graduates annually is now said to be moribund; albeit the international academe is poised towards modernising higher education, the Indian university system has remained 'tradition-bound' (BASU, 2006). Ayla Mirsha (2012) echoed similar findings showing that the higher education system continues to struggle with faculty shortages, outdated curricula, administrative delays, dilapidated infrastructure and an inflexible education system. Therefore, with the directives of the University Grants Commission, the new agenda at the national and local level shows a shift in focus, from more institutions to better quality in order to take

advantage of international partnerships. While the system's current state is concerning, there certainly has been significant progress in cross-border higher education initiatives; the Indira Gandhi Open University, for example, has enjoyed considerable success with its distance-education programme, as well as India's BITS Pilani University that has been instituted in Dubai's 'Knowledge Village' since 2000.

In Pakistan higher education is regulated by the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan which was established in 2002. It is responsible for the nation's higher education policies, quality assurance, degree recognition, development of new institutions as well as monitoring all HEIs in Pakistan. The number of students who qualify for access to tertiary level studies is approximately 1,349,000, but only about 673,567 undergraduate placements are available (ABIDI, 2012). Pakistan has 158 higher education institutions: 75 private (some chartered by the HEC) and 83 public HEIs.⁴⁸ Today, quality private higher education is in demand by students, parents and employers, and data shows that in the last three to four years a significant increase of 44 percent in the number of students achieving British GCSE O and A level qualifications of which the majority hope to study abroad (ABIDI, 2012).

Access and Equity

More recent figures show access to higher education in the area has had a 10 percent increase (WB, 2013b), however, as with other regions, a growth in access usually further highlight the several existing challenges. In the case of South Asia the lack of resources underscores that quality is further compromised: staff and faculty further burdened, and the poor and females are still at a disadvantage. Even with the daunting reality they face, countries in the area continue to make strides to meet the demands of the region after identifying illiteracy as one of the major factor 'impeding the development of the vast human resources which is contributing factor to the region's economic backwardness and social imbalance'.⁴⁹ The South Asia region in 1985

⁴⁸ HIGHER EDUCATION COMMISSION, PAKISTAN (2014): HEC Recognized Universities and Degree Awarding Institutions (<http://www.hec.gov.pk/InsideHEC/Divisions/eReforms/Pages/Main.aspx>), accessed on 14 May, 2014.

⁴⁹ SOUTH ASIAN ASSOCIATION FOR REGIONAL COOPERATION (2009): Education (http://saarc-sec.org/areaofcooperation/detail.php?activity_id=12), accessed on 4 April 2013.

established the South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC) as the region's platform for citizens to address economic and socio-political prosperity of the region, and in 2007 the region's higher education system was the focus at SAARC 14th Annual Conference where members agreed to establish a 'bricks-and-mortar' regional, non-profit tertiary institution (South Asia University) in New Delhi, India which is financed by all eight countries.

The focal point to the decision to provide such a service was based on the view that the region can provide higher education comparable to prestigious American institutions such as Harvard and Yale (OBHE, 2007), an institution where students from the region may attain access not only to quality education, but also obtain a multi-visa to access any of the eight countries within the region in order to advance their studies (SAARC, 2009).

Even though the university serves primarily the needs of the immediate region, the proposed 'centre of excellence' serves the entire Asian region and beyond. Initially the proposal was met with scepticism as some leaders in the region thought the vision demonstrated a lack of prioritisation of the region's needs (OBHE, 2007); however, in 2010 the university was launched and today is a considerable achievement for the region.

In 1999 the SAARC-Integrated Programme of Action was established and the SAARC points out that a lot more has to be done by all major investors before major concrete benefits of the cooperative investments are made visible. Given that the South Asia region is said to be vulnerable to a twin problem of 'lack of access and of excellence', another attempt to regional development includes the redevelopment of India's Nalanda University established about 1,600 years ago.

In 2007 Japan and Singapore demonstrated its support of re-establishing the pan-Asian region as a competitive space for quality higher education and pledged more than US\$100 million to bringing about this reality (Ibid.). More recently, China in 2011 and Thailand in 2012 each donated US\$1 million and US\$100.000 respectively to Nalanda University,⁵⁰ demonstrating the region's objectives of renewed partisanship and to help curb the current 'brain drain' it has been experiencing in the past couple decades.

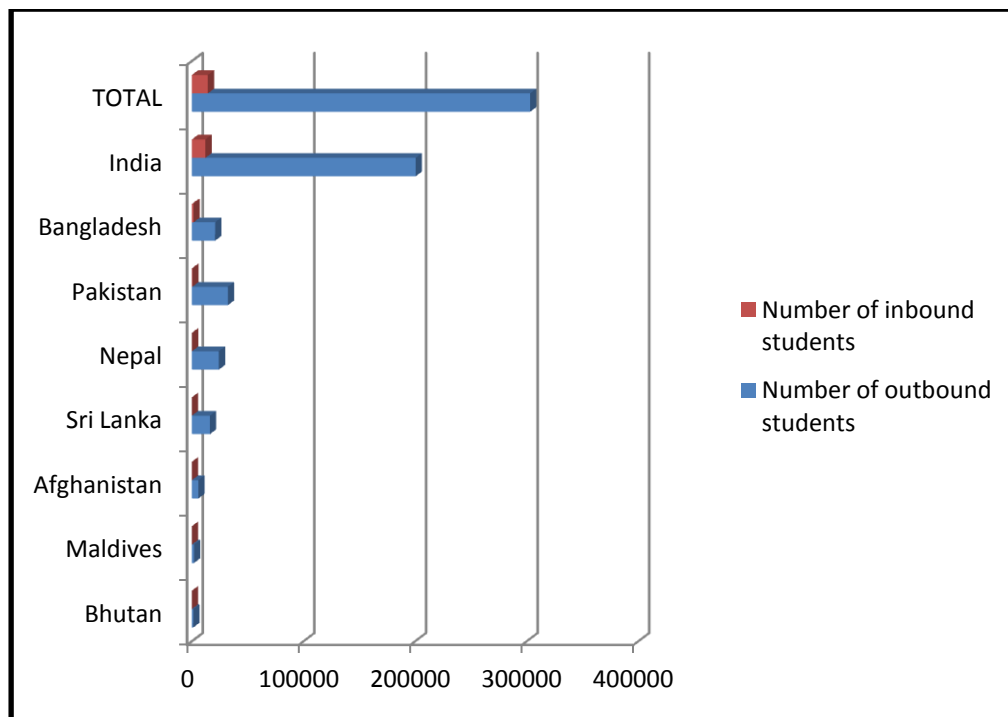
⁵⁰List of the various initiatives taken to develop quality education at this institution. Nalanda University (undated): Press Release (<http://www.nalandauniv.edu.in/press.html>), accessed 3 April 2013.

Academic Mobility

Student mobility in South Asia represents a significant percentage of gross mobility worldwide, largely in part to India⁵¹ being the second largest source of student mobility, yet inbound mobility to the region is very low (Figure 3.5). Sixty-seven percent of all international students from the region study in the US (38%), the UK (18%) and Australia (11%).

The current trend may be beneficial to the region if the return rate is high. A lack of data regarding inbound mobility prevents an accurate view of to the region's mobility activities; however, based on UNESCO data it can be deduced that the region's importation of international higher education significantly surpasses that of its export (Figure 3.5). The fact that the region is one of the least integrated regions in the world and faces long-term challenges (AUSAID, 2013) explains why there is little inbound mobility to the region.

Figure 3.5: Student Mobility in South Asia



Note: Graph by author.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a.

⁵¹India's cross-border activities are further examined in the comparative section of this paper.

Programme and institution mobility is alive and well as more individuals and institutions are encouraged to establish foreign campuses, though permission to operate must be granted by importing country. The British Council has been instrumental in attracting British higher education institution to Bangladesh (ABIDI, 2012). At present the University of London offers some of its programmes through the British Council, and other partnerships continue to be established with other OECD members. The University's Grant Commission, funded by the World Bank (US\$ 81 million), and the Ministry of Education have established Bangladesh Research and Education Network (BdREN) whose objectives include improving outcome learning, research, as well as better integration of its universities into the global knowledge economy. Universities offer both bachelor and master programmes in various disciplines; however, the national focus is on science, technology and research.

There are several collaborations between Indian tertiary institutions and foreign providers that are being established locally. Syed Abidi (2012) points out that India hosts approximately 161 foreign education providers, and 143 institutions have collaborated to offer the nation's tertiary student populace a total of 641 programmes. India's education sector is currently estimated at US \$40 billion market and is expected to reach \$116 billion market in 10 years, and an approximate US \$13 billion is spent yearly on approximately 450, 000 Indian students who pursue higher education studies abroad. The number of foreign students India hosts yearly in its institutions approximates 27,000; and though not stated, the revenue generated from inbound students can only be a mere fraction of what is spent on outbound students. The future of quality higher education institutions and cross-border higher education activities are expected to increase in the next several decades, and the country as well can expect to be greater beneficiary from its investment.

Pakistan was the 10th largest source of international students to Australia in 2012 (AUSTRADE, 2013). Private institutions in Pakistan are to be more active in establishing partnerships with foreign universities, ensuring they offer programmes at the international standard. The government has recently stated its commitment to the future of quality education by providing more than 3 billion rupees (£19.9 million) to the HEC to provide scholarships to over 10,000 doctoral students (ICEF, 2012). Higher education in Pakistan

is highly regarded and the rate of graduation is reported to be higher than that of India's. However, data indicates that the number of PhD and research students over the years has been relatively low and declining.⁵²

3.3 Middle East and North Africa Region

The Middle East and North African (MENA) region comprises of 21 states:⁵³ fourteen Middle Eastern countries – many of which are affluent petroleum states – and seven North African countries.⁵⁴ This affluent region has notable wealth disparity, gender inequality, and ongoing weighty regional and political disputes. As previously noted, Israel is a Western democracy in spite of its geographical location.

The World Bank (2013c) identifies the three main challenges in higher education as expanding capacity, maintaining quality and relevance, and ensuring equity of access. Adriana Jaramillo (2013), World Bank Senior Education Specialist, sees the challenges this region faces today as being a result of limited public resource. Traditionally the most affluent students study abroad, mainly in the United Kingdom and the United States. However, there is evidence of a significant change taking place in the higher education sub-sector. In 1998 there were 3 million higher education students in region, and in 2008 that enrolment increased to 7.6 million (GROVE, 2011). Jaramillo (2013) concurs that the last decade has seen a significant rise in enrolment, and believes without public support of a cost sharing mechanism there will be greater challenges in the future.

With the rapid expansion occurring in the MENA region higher education is becoming more varied and complex. According to Rajika Bhandari and Adnan El-Amine (2012), a regional classification and assessment of higher education institutions has not been developed, thus resulting in disparate forms of higher education that have recently emerged. They note consequences due to the absence of regional classification are evident in all sectors of the higher education system and include: difficulty of transferring credits and credentials issued both across the region and the international market at large;

⁵² HIGHER EDUCATION COMMISSION (2012): PhD Country Directory (<http://www.hec.gov.pk/INSIDEHEC/DIVISIONS/QALI/OTHERS/STATISTICS/Pages/YearWiseSummary2.aspx>), accessed on 14 May, 2014.

⁵³ Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Kingdom of Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, State of Qatar, Oman, United Arab of Emirates, West Bank and Gaza, and Yemen.

⁵⁴ Algeria, Djibouti, Egypt, Libya, Malta, Morocco, and Tunisia.

paucity of reliable and standardised data on higher education institutions; lack of a quality regional framework for quality assurance; and, low cooperation between institutions. Their recent study shows that the models of education employed by institutions in the region are aligned with foreign models – predominantly French and American. The findings also reveal that the French model is most prevalent as 45 percent of all HEIs (mostly North African countries) in the region follow that model, whereas 43 percent (mostly Gulf States and Jordan) follow the American model. An approximate 6 percent of all institutions have a mixed cultural model. Even though no data was provided regarding the percentage of HEIs in the region which have maintained an Arab/Middle East model, assuming one exists, it can be deduced from its cultural norms that, regardless of the importation of foreign models, institutions to some extent, still adhere to the regions predominant religious principles.

Quality Assurance

The Middle East and North Africa region's investment in higher education has, in fact, been relatively high in that they allot more funds (public and private) to tertiary studies more than the average OECD country (however, the results are disappointing as the MENA region is not 'giving graduates the skills needed to succeed in today's labour markets.'⁵⁵ Even with the establishment of the Regional Board of the Arab Quality Assurance and Accreditation Network for Education (ARQANNE), the principal demand from university students is good quality education and good jobs (Ibid.). According to J. Grove (2011), Hassan Diab (Minister of Education in Lebanon) concurs by highlighting the need for government to focus less on quantity and more on quality.

Indistinguishable from global trends, countries such as Qatar and the United Arab Emirates have included internationalisation of higher education in their national policies (ALTBACH et al., 2009). The region, in particular the Gulf States, is reputable for its cross-border higher education activities being an integral component to national

⁵⁵ JARAMILLO, A. (2013): Reforms Needed in Higher Education to Meet the Needs of Youth in the Middle East and North Africa; World Bank. (http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/MENAEXT/0,,contentMDK:23028342~p_agePK:146736~piPK:146830~theSitePK:256299,00.html), accessed on 29 January 2013.

development. The leaders of the region have long sought quality education and have promoted student mobility by encouraging mostly those of the elite class to study abroad (historically the UK), and more recently they continue to perpetuate the idea of quality education ‘from abroad’ by establishing programme and institution mobility through international offshore satellite or branch campuses. Now, data shows more students from the region are opting to study within the region. In fact, the number of students who studied in the region has more than doubled, it increased from 12 percent to 26 percent between 1999 and 2012 (UIS, 2014).

Access and Equity

The number of private universities is increasing about twice as fast as the public institutions in this part of the world, except in the case of Lebanon which only has one public university. Two-thirds of all universities created since 1993 in the region are private institutions; in 2008 private institutions represented 36 percent of total HEIs in the Arab world (WB, 2013c). The culture of philanthropy and proper management of funds may be two ways in going forward in creating better access and providing quality higher education.

In a male dominant culture, the number of females participating in higher education is significantly high throughout the region, but more so in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries where they currently represent 62 percent of total enrolment (Ibid.). Jaramillo (2013), however, highlights the fact that while gender equality may not be a dominant issue, and in spite the increase access to higher education, there is frustration among female graduates, noting that women are not comparatively represented in the job market.

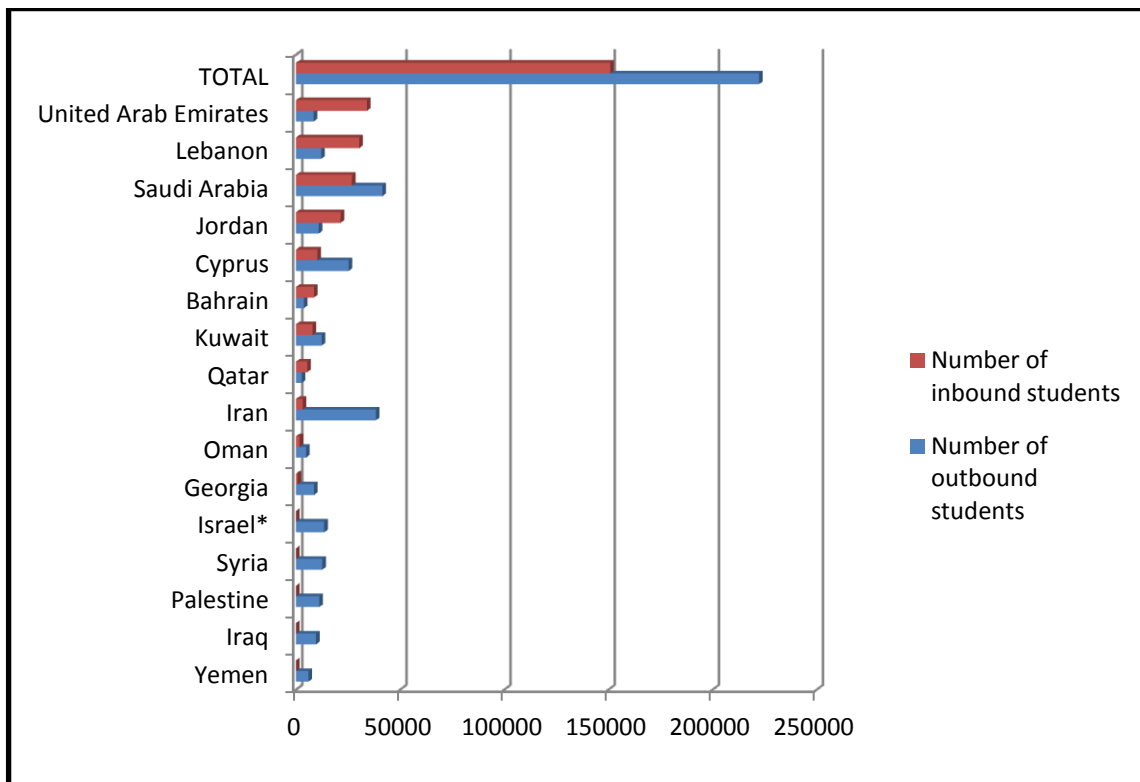
Academic Mobility

Even with the colossal increase of regional mobility, Figure 3.6 shows outbound mobility is significantly high for this region. The presence of inbound mobility is also evident and is expected to augment with establishments of ‘knowledge hubs’.

According to UNESCO (2012), top destinations for inbound students include Jordan (21,437), Lebanon (30,436), Saudi Arabia (26, 871) and the United Arab Emirates

(34,112). In fact, Bahrain, Jordan, Qatar, Lebanon, and the United Arab Emirates host more international students than they have studying abroad. The top three destinations for students from the region are France (29 percent), the United States (13 percent), and the United Kingdom (10 percent), and approximately 50 percent of these students come from Cyprus (25,340), Iran (38,380), and Saudi Arabia (41,532).

Figure 3.6: Student Mobility in the Middle East and North Africa



Note: Graph by author

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a

The Middle East is one of the pioneers of higher education hubs and hosts more than a third of the more than 100 branch campuses worldwide: 60 transnational institutions and programmes of which over 80 percent are said to be located in the Persian Gulf, with astounding concentrations in both the United Arab Emirates and Qatar. Most of these institutions represent the United States, Western and Asian countries; almost half of these partnerships are affiliated with institutions in the United States (HANAUER & PHAN, 2011). The Gulf may be considered the trailblazer in internationalising higher

education in the region and appears to host a gamut of programme and institution mobility activities due to the private sector investment initiatives to assure the region's global competitiveness is recognised. In Abu Dhabi the bold step was taken to establish a full-scale, degree-granting, research university (NYU Abu Dhabi) which is described as a replica of the original New York University. Examples of branch campuses include Weill Medical College in Doha, Manchester Business School Worldwide in Dubai, the American University in Cairo, and the American University of Sharjah in the United Arab Emirates (ranked among the top 500 best universities worldwide). Offshore or other transnational programmes are offered in local higher education institutions as well. Virtual branch campuses like the University of Phoenix and Arab Open University are present in the region. An unconventional and misleading form of internationalisation whereby local institutions without any foreign affiliation are modelling or presenting themselves as a foreign system is also present; such is the case of the American University in Dubai.

Further findings of Bhandari and El-Amine (2012) suggest that as a result of the high percentage of institutions that follow an international model, there tends to be relatively low involvement at the international level as few forms of international collaborations such as twinning are present in the region. In general, inbound student mobility to the region is weak. There are no substantial recruitment activities on the part of the region's HEIs to host international students. With the exception of some Gulf States, such as Qatar and United Arab Emirates (UAE), such concerted efforts are not inherent in internationalising these countries higher education systems. These countries with 'knowledge cities' have a significant foreign-born population mostly due to the nature of the establishments employing international faculty; this inadvertently may attract additional international students. Knowledge cities, however, must not become the trend for the region as there needs to be reform of the nation's existing HEIs if they are to become more competitive globally. Moreover, 'cities' and 'hubs' do not exemplify 'massification'; it caters to an elite cohort.

Nonetheless, with 65 percent of the total population in the Arab States being under the age of 25 (GROVE, 2011) the future of internationalisation of higher education and the increase of cross-border activities in the region is expected to follow current trends:

more knowledge cities and partnerships, and a call for an overhaul of public universities – to prepare students in the region for a global economy.

In 2010 U.S. philanthropists provided USD \$28 billion to private colleges and universities.⁵⁶ While private institutions in the U.S. complete the country's Ivy League list of universities, embracing more private higher education institutions not only opens up to an influx inferior quality education being offered, it also perpetuates the reality that the majority of university students do not have equal opportunity to access higher education and more importantly, quality higher education if public institutions are not reformed to create a 'knowledge society'.

3.4 Sub-Saharan Africa Region

Not unique to the region, social and cultural challenges are often tied to economic impediments, but the Sub-Saharan African region stands out given its wealth of natural resources, yet extensive poverty. Africa, a total of 55 countries (including North Africa) and home to 32 of the world's 39 heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC), is one of the richest regions of natural resources, if not the richest; yet it is perceived by many as having an insurmountable poverty dilemma. On the other hand, there are some, including NGOs, that regard mass education and improvement in quality education as a more sure way out for this region. The potential to establish knowledge societies throughout the region is comparable to other regions. Substantial research has identified the needs of the region and the best approaches to aiding the region. Nevertheless, one of the challenges this region faces is the paucity of reliable data available, including cross-border education activity data. The harsh reality is that insufficient data on developing countries activities hampers their efforts to advance effective clear strategies that identify and support international education as an important component of higher education in the current global context (MULUMBA et al. 2008; ANIE, 2012).

Another challenge the region faces is its reliance on colossal amounts of foreign funding, usually from international organisations such as UNESCO and the World Bank, as well as developed countries. Somewhat inconsistent with the purpose of financial aids,

⁵⁶ WORLD BANK (2013c): Middle East and North Africa: Fact Sheet (<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/MENAEXT/0,,contentMDK:23028353~pagePK:146736~piPK:146830~theSitePK:256299,00.html>), accessed on 29 August 2013.

according to some, such assistance for research and other activities have long placed African universities at a disadvantage on several levels, which include having to cope with a foreign donor's unpredictable and shifting priorities, and dealing with the serious disconnects between non-local-funder priorities and local needs and interests (TEFERRA, 2008; ALTBACH et al., 2009).

Hence, what are some of the concerns that need to be urgently addressed? First, it is evident that Africa is divided as a result of historical external influences; that is, the major cultural differences today brought about by colonialism still tie these countries more to their former colonial patriarchs than to each other. As De Wit (2012b) and others rightly point out, North Africa is categorised along with the Middle East; South Africa is more associated to the British Commonwealth, whose role in regional development strategies was unclear until recently; and East Africa is still very much Francophone, which De Wit (Ibid.) states is absent from the African higher education table. For this reason the idea held by some that internationalisation is nothing more than neo-colonialism may be warranted, given the European cultural influences and ties may be stronger than their geographical proximity and shared economic needs.

De Wit (Ibid.) further posits that Africa may have the most internationalised system in terms of the number of academics with foreign degrees, numbers of graduates with a study-abroad experience, and the amount of knowledge and concepts it has imported from abroad. In fact, he noted that international education associations such as NAFSA and European Association for International Education (EAIE) organisations usually do not attend conference in Africa, in particular, the IEASA Conference in South Africa. Nonetheless, African countries, as well as Asian and Latin American countries, attend Western conferences in large numbers and thus tend to have a more global perspective on international higher education trends.

The downside to this, however, inadvertently or not, is the perennial copying of western concepts, strategies and policies that are not necessarily conducive to national and, by extension, regional development of their own education systems that conserve their intrinsic cultural values.

In spite such observations there is still a great need for professionals and experts in the education sector. Brain drain has been detrimental to economical development of the

various societies. More research continues to highlight and advocate for more professionals and expertise in tertiary institutions that will ensure quality education is offered to students who need to be globally competitive. Without a significant number of role models in the educational system the most audible message will continue to be ‘migration for better education’.

Thirdly, the matter of investing and financing higher education must be more effective. Millions, if not billions, have been invested in the region’s education systems over the past two decades by local and international governments, special interest NGO, philanthropists and others, but improper planning and development strategies have resulted in less than satisfactory results. Finally, access and equity must be dealt with if the regions brightest are to be identified and employed to participate in further economic development activities that will ensure the region becomes a ‘hub’ for quality higher education. This includes research and development (R&D) centres that advance the regions’ objectives.

Thus, what is required is consensus among the 47 sub-Saharan countries on the issue of unity in addressing the region’s challenges: using local innovations and, when applicable, incorporate international references in solving the challenges and implementing sustainable development measurements.

Higher Education

Historically universities in former colonial countries, such as those in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean, were constructed to meet the needs of their European residents. Hence, the number of institutions was few. In the Caribbean, for example, the University of the West Indies (located on three islands: Barbados, Jamaica and Trinidad & Tobago) for decades was the only English university to serve the entire region of more than 16 countries, with some disciplines having had a limited enrolment of 100. The disparity between these developing countries and developed countries that previously governed them is a result of neglect; neglect by both government (then and now) and international organisation (Unesco, World Bank, European Union, and [in the case of Africa] the African Union) have all now acknowledge that without a stronger higher education

system, the possibility of any developing country to achieve sustainable development is almost nil (CHIEN & KOT, 2012; WB, 2009a).

Today higher education and the number of institutions and programmes in the sub-Saharan region are on the rise. A caveat from the World Bank (2009a) and others is that too rapid a growth, as in the recent past, erodes quality and undermines the contribution of tertiary education to growth. Over the past four decades higher education enrolment in the region has experienced an approximate 8.4 percent annual growth, surpassing the world's average of 4.3 percent (CHIEN & KOT, 2012). The region is currently experiencing rapid growth in the number of tertiary institutions serving the region. As to how rapid is debatable. Different sources report contradicting figures. According to the World Bank (2010), from 1991 to 2006 higher enrolment quadrupled from 2.7 million to 9.3 million. While more recent enrolment figures have not been obtained, the trend in growth continues and the 2006 total is expected to double by 2015 – between 18 and 20 million tertiary enrolments. On the other hand, the UNESCO (UIS, 2010b) reports the region is still behind in respect to absolute size, enrolling only 3.7 million between 1970 and 2008 more students in 40 years (BRUNEFORTH, 2010). Regardless the discrepancy between sources, the positive growth has resulted in a challenge for education planners who have difficulty recruiting staff for a system that may double in size every eight years.

The regional leader in internationalisation is South Africa, which has 23 public higher education institutions and more than 88 private ones. South Africa, which has had a 40 year history of apartheid until 1991, has made significant strides in restructuring its educational system to better meet the needs of those who have been denied their right to access quality education. In less than two decades, since the new 1994 government, the changes have produced three government agencies to assure quality: the Council of Higher Education (CHE), the Higher Education Quality Committee, and the South African Quality Authority.

The reform of the system saw the amalgamation of some institutions and three types of public higher education institutions: traditional universities, universities of technology, and comprehensive universities. The educational system is three-tier: bachelor, master and doctorate degrees. In addition, the region has traditionally offered free education, but is now shifting toward the more expected trend of cost sharing. In

2009, at least 26 countries had some form of charges – tuition fees, examination fees, registration fees, identity fees, etc. – added to their higher education programmes (WB, 2010).

Having recognised the need to play a greater role in sustainable development, countries in the region have established various networks to combat the gamut of regional challenges. James Jowi (2012) notes that Africa is at the periphery of the knowledge society, but within the region itself new intra-Africa initiatives are underway and include the regionalisation of internationalisation. The founding of the African Networks for Internationalisation of Education (ANIE) – a member based organisation that advocates for, what Kofi Annan argued for in 2006, the university becoming the primary tool for Africa’s development for the twenty-first century – and the establishment of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa are evidence of such initiatives. Others include the Arusha Convention which addresses the harmonisation of degree structures, credit transfer and quality assurance; the strengthening of the Africa’s Higher Education & Research Space (AHERS) that proposes to augment research and establish new centres of excellence and training; creating additional ICT developments such as open educational resources (OERs) and open device labs (ODLs); building on long-standing initiatives (AAU, CAMES, IUCEA, SARUA) in the region; and, increase academic mobility.

Another regional effort towards regional collaboration and international investment, both multilateral and bilateral, is the establishment of the Nelson Mandela’s African Institute of Science and Technology (AISTs/AUST) in some countries (Burkina Faso, Nigeria, South Africa and Tanzania) that serves Western, Eastern, Central and Southern Africa. These institutes are expected to deliver quality education comparable to Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). Another important addition to the network of higher education institutions in the region is the African Institute of Biomedical Science and Technology (AiBST), located in Zimbabwe and aims to develop drugs to solve the diseases common to Africa. Other R & D institutes for specific disciplines are on the rise in the region.

At the same time new partnerships are being formed. Recently ANIE has joined the Association for Studies in Education (ASIE).⁵⁷ ANIE data reveals that gross enrolment in higher education in the region is five percent and accounts for 1.5 percent of research productivity (JOWI, 2012).

In an effort to advance the modernisation of higher education systems in the region some countries have been receptive to the adaptation of the Bologna Process. Many French countries, with their historical ties, have opted for the LMD (*licence, master, doctorat*) degree structure, however, English speaking countries have not responded as eagerly as they continue to examine the implications the European system would have in the African higher education context (MATERU, 2007). Further joint initiatives that have continued to invest in the region's higher education development includes the African and Europe in Partnership (AEP)⁵⁸ and the Africa U.S. Higher Education Initiative.

Quality Assurance

In a research carried out by the World Bank (MATERU, 2007) that measured quality assurance at the programme, institution and national levels in six African countries (Cameroon, Ghana, Mauritius, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania) reveals national agencies are young (most less than 20 years) and that systematic quality assurance processes have been established in at least one-third of African countries. It also highlighted the resistance of public universities to the new accreditation requirements, claiming *de jure* status by virtue of being government owned and operated. The push back to such position reinforces the need for public institutions to be accredited as is the case with private ones; tax-payers fund public institutions and must be assured they are funding quality education. So far Mauritius, Nigeria, and South Africa have carried out accreditation exercises in public higher education institutions, and the others

⁵⁷ Publisher of Journal of Studies in International Education, and Project Atlas; the New York based Institute for International Education with the aim to strengthen its database: collecting, tracking and analyzing data on academic mobility both within and outside the region.

⁵⁸ The AEP views its strategic partnership which established the Tuning Approach and the African Harmonization Strategy, the outcome from its concluded 2011 workshop held in Nairobi, Kenya, as an indication of progress. The Tuning Approach – which aims to improve the key areas of skills and competences for employability and transparency of curriculum, develop a common academic credit currency, improve teaching, learning and assessing learning outcomes, ensure skills and competences, and quality assurance and enhancement – is both feasible and supportive of the African Harmonization Strategy and other regional initiatives.

have taken steps to do likewise. Good practices in these countries are said to be indicative of how other Sub-Saharan African nations will respond to providing quality higher education.

The study further supports the relevance of quality assurance in the region as one of the primary responsibilities of HEIs. Nevertheless, public tertiary institutions remain the governments' responsibility in respect to funding training and educating the public of the need and the process of accreditation. In addition, it notes that proper key indicators to assess whether or not output (graduates) meets the demands of the labour market are not in place. However, progress continues with regional and sub-regional networks being established with the aim to share best practices

Yet, it must be reiterated, while meeting the demand for higher education is critical, it is imperative that quality higher education is guaranteed if the region is to be competitive globally. P. Materu (2007) makes reference to Demeke Yeneayhu, a student at Addis Ababa University in 2006, who echoes a similar sentiment when he stated Africa's need for quality education as a priority:

'Africa needs thinkers, scientists, researchers, real educators who can potentially contribute to societal development. Most donors define African education success in terms of how many students are being graduated and how many students are in school. The quantity issue is of course one thing that should be addressed, but it shouldn't be the whole mark of any education intervention in Africa. How an African resource could be better utilized by an African child for an African development should be the issue.' (p.8)

It is clear, human capital investment is vital to the region. Kate Asheroft and Philip Rayner (2011) concur that the region needs a more professional workforce with expert services in order to effectively fight the poverty that is currently ailing the region, and cope with 'potentially crippling threats from prevalent diseases, expanding youthful and urbanizing population, and impending climate change' (World Bank, 2009a: 3) through the application of knowledge.

Access & Equity

The issue of access and equity is very present in this region and reflects the world trend. Individuals who have an economic advantage are the ones who have greater access to higher education, and even more so better access to quality higher education. The sub-Saharan region is said to have the lowest enrolment rate in the world, 5 percent of university age cohort, due to poor infrastructure, ill-prepared students at the pre-tertiary level, high cost, and overcrowding, to name a few.

The number of male students who access higher education continues to outnumber that of female students in most of these countries. Female enrolment in region is lower than the 50 percent world average; and to address the issue some countries, such as Ghana, Kenya, Uganda, and the United Republic of Tanzania, have lowered their admission cut-off to increase women enrolment in these countries (BLOOM et al., 2005). The downside to this approach to access is that women are then perceived as academically inferior to men (ALTBACH et al., 2009).

Distance learning has aided accessibility to higher education; however, low access to technology use has slowed the process. Another access and equity initiative sees some countries, such as South Africa, offering students financial loans as a way to counteract the fact that the majority of students in the region come from low-income families.

Academic Mobility

The number of foreign students that study in sub-Saharan Africa is approximately 88,523, not taking into account those who are studying in the 23 countries that have not reported data (UIS, 2012a). As mentioned before, some countries, as a result of limited access and poor quality of instruction have as many or more students abroad than at home, (UNESCO, 2006). In spite of the fact that the region's average tertiary gross enrolment rate (GER) of 6 percent (UIS, 2010b) continues to lag behind, sub-Saharan Africa is noted as the most mobile region in the world (UNESCO, 2006; UIS, 2012a).

Within the sub-Saharan African region is another sub-region that accounts for the majority of mobility activities within the region. The UIS (2012b), in fact, reports that the

South Africa Development Community (SADC), which includes 15 SSA southern countries, is the most mobile sub-region in the world. In 2009 approximately 6 percent of the 1.5 million enrolled tertiary students from this sub-region studied abroad, of which 48 percent, more than half the 89,000, studied in South Africa. Other data shows that South Africa continues to be the lead host country for regional international mobile students, and today about 17 percent of the country's foreign students represent the region. In 2009 the country hosted 61,000 international students, but most recent figures available indicate a slight decrease to 60, 856 (Figure 3.7a).

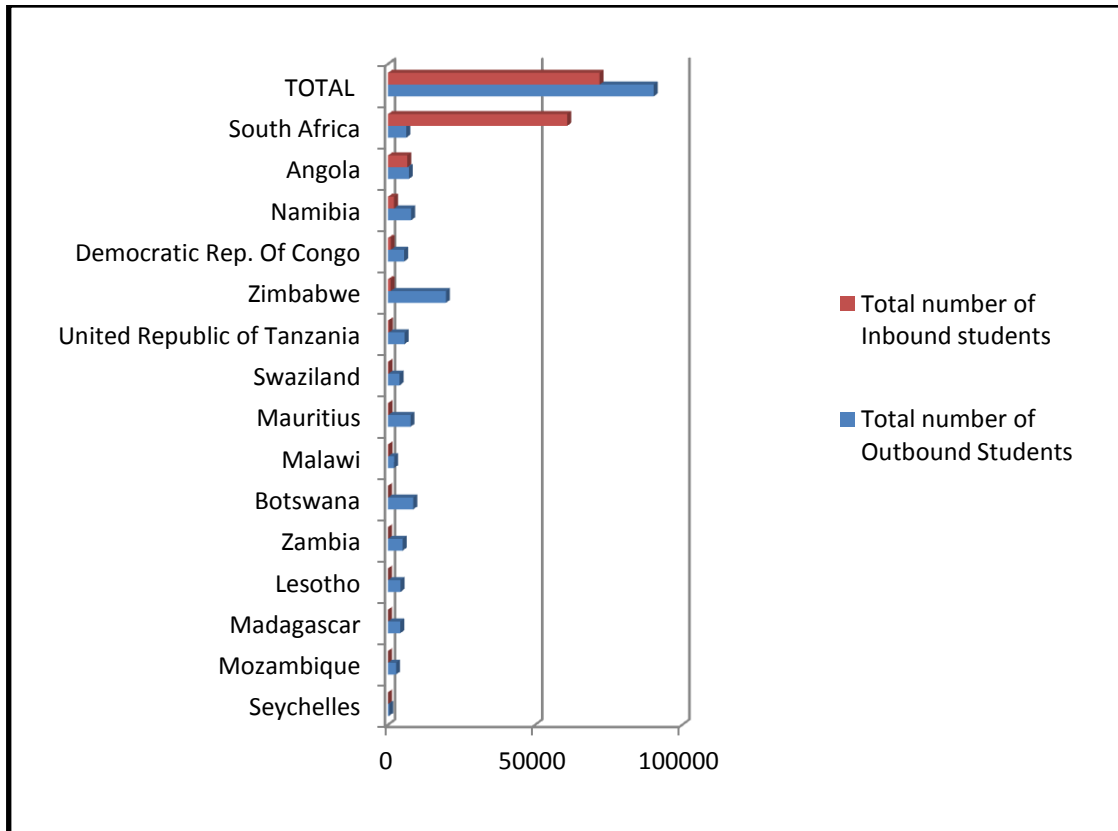
Similar to the trends of most regions over the years, the trend in student mobility in the region has revealed a trade deficit. Figure 3.7a/b shows that only Burundi and South Africa export more higher education services than they import to the region, and all other countries that have reported data have had more outbound students than they have inbound students. South Africa's outbound student number of 6,166 amounts to approximately 9.9 percent of the 60,856 inbound students it hosted according to UIS (2012a) data. Angola, Burkina Faso, Ghana and Niger numbers reflect a more balance trade between inbound and outbound mobility, albeit the later is the greater.

However, that trend has been changing as South Africa, with its ever improving quality higher education programmes, is increasingly becoming the destination of choice for students from within the SSA region as well as outside. While the rest of the world had been benefitting from the 'boom' over the last two decades, Africa only saw its 'boom' emerging between 2002 and 2008 and reported a 5.2 percent real GDP growth each year; it is considered the next BRIC (OKONJO-IWEALA, 2010). More and more pundits have suggested that the region may be the next market for cross-border education activities, even though the current economic conditions suggest high risk for international investors. Carnegie Mellon University, in collaboration with the Government of Rwanda (CMU-R)⁵⁹ is said to have provided an exciting opportunity to transform graduate education in East Africa. Known for its excellence in higher education, Carnegie Mellon is the first U.S. research institution to offer degrees in Africa with an in-country presence. The aim is to establish Rwanda as East Africa's technology hub; CMU-R – to start –

⁵⁹ Carnegie Mellon University Rwanda (undated): (<http://www.cmu.edu/rwanda/>), accessed on 12 April 2013.

offers a Masters in Science and Technology. Other institutions have demonstrated interest in the region by having entered into joint ventures with African institutions.

Figure 3.7a: Student Mobility in South Africa Development Community

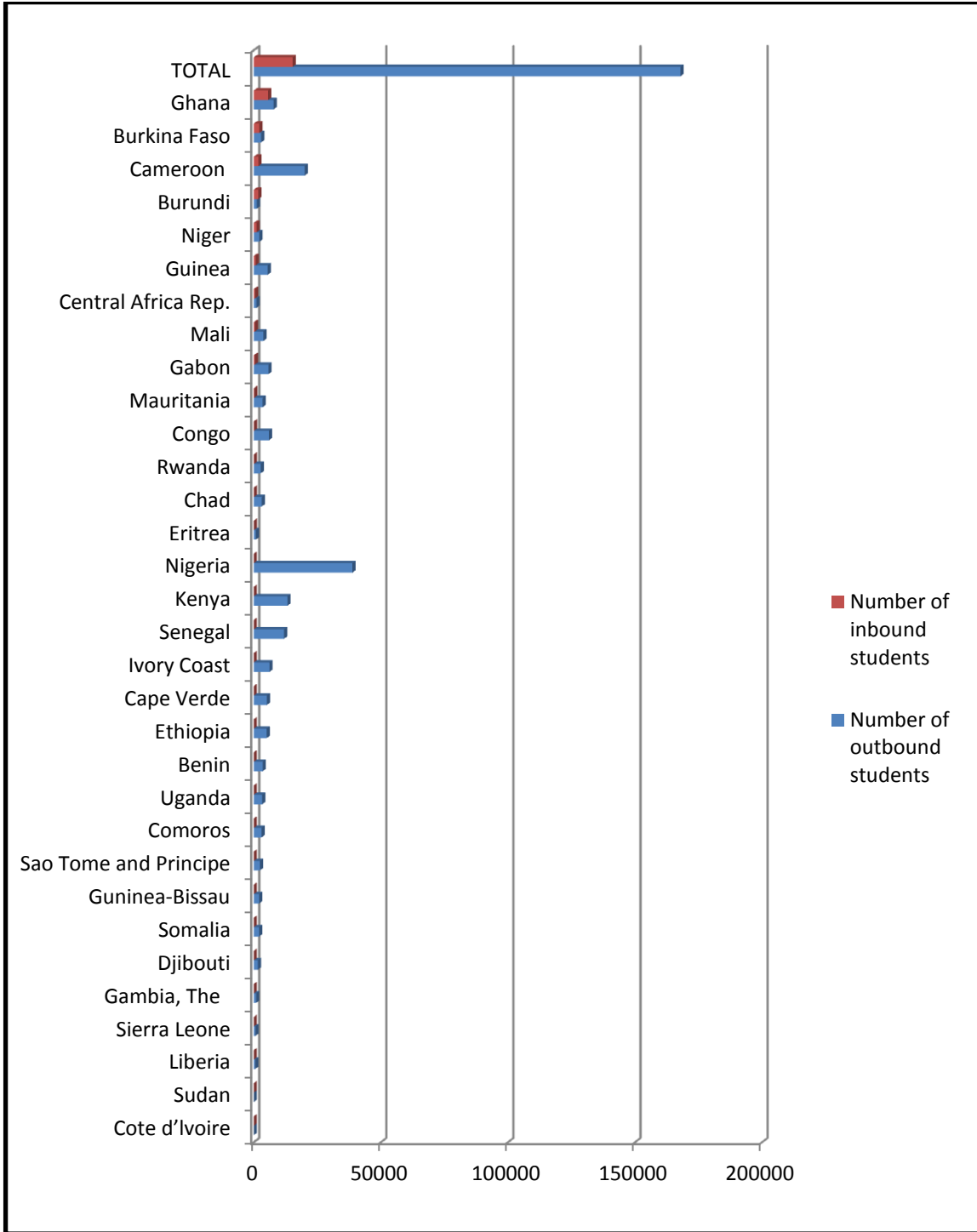


Note: Graph by author

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a

A more recent conference organised by UNESCO (UIS, 2012b) and DAAD experts, and attended by ‘hundreds’ of decision makers from West and Central Africa examined the joint Euro-Africa initiatives in the region to address, in particular, the challenges faced in this sub-region: the challenge of dealing adequately with the increase in the number of students that results in a significant decrease in the average spending per student; a growing expectation of higher education’s contribution to national development – reforming institutions to better contribute to the development of both individuals and the country, and the fact that governments are ill-equipped to define either medium or long term sustainable policies.

Figure 3.7b: Student Mobility in Sub-Saharan Africa



Note: Graph by author.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012.

African governments welcome foreign providers for several reasons: among them, they increase access to 'high-quality' education, though in some cases the higher quality is more perceived than it is real (LANE & KISNER, 2011). In South Africa, after the fall of apartheid, many providers invested in the education of South Africa, leading to the government passing the Higher Education Act to ensure that providers meet the education criteria of the nation.

Beyond GATS and the SADC, regional liberalisation and development agreements among these nations are making an impact on improving access to international education through such initiatives as the Common Market for Southern and Eastern Africa (COMESA), and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). Like other countries, the issue of quality higher education, access and equity, brain drain, etc. continue to be a part of the dialogue in sub-Saharan Africa.

International quality education for students from developing countries, whether attained in another country or locally, continues to contribute to the growing migration of the highly skilled to developed countries. Brain drain or brain exchange in this region has its positives and negatives. It continues to deplete the pool of highly qualified individuals, but in 2012 generated a remittance of about US\$31 billion to the region (WB, 2013d). The World Bank (2009a) reported the pattern of net emigration over the years from SSA as fluctuating; in 1995 it was 0.57 million, 0.29 million in 2000 and then a rose to 1.07 in 2005. One-third of this cohort is believed to be university graduates.

3.5 Latin America and the Caribbean Region

Internationalisation in higher education in the Latin America and Caribbean region has been met with some resistance by some countries, while others have fully embraced elements of interest that they deem important to solving the problem of expanding tertiary education services needed to meet the demands of their nation. With several and varied challenges facing the region, these countries at various degrees have been taking steps to seize the opportunities available through internationalisation, while addressing the risks it attracts at both the national and regional level. The risks that this region faces are in part a result of some of its countries' slow response to the internationalisation of higher education phenomenon.

According to the some experts (KNIGHT, 2006a; ALTBACH et al. 2009), the region is one of two that are more sensitive to the possible ‘loss of cultural identity’ through international engagement. The region is dynamic in that it includes both large and very small states with heterogeneous cultures and languages. Thus, there is no ‘one size fit all’ solution to internationalising the region. However, there is a regional focus and the need for joint achievements such as those that have been taken through the initiatives of the Latin America and Caribbean Higher Education Area (LACHEC) – *Espacio de Encuentro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Educación Superior* (ENLACES) – that serves as a ‘space for international dialogue and interaction that pursues the construction of new knowledge of the transversal processes related to internationalisation forwarded by various institutes of higher education in the region’, and whose objectives include:

‘...the harmonization of curricula and institutional reforms, interdisciplinary, mobility and academic exchange (intraregional mobility of students, researchers and teachers), the implementation of joint agendas for the generation of research with social relevance and priority in the framework of the training needs of human resources at the highest level of scientific and technological innovation, dissemination of knowledge and culture, and offering and increasing range of services to government and productive sectors of our nations’ (ALTBACH, et al., 2009: 28; UNESCO-IESALC, 2009: 3).

3.5.1 Latin America

The first higher education institutions in the region were established in the 16th century and were modelled after the Spanish university system. Historically they are autonomously operated. Internationalisation in Latin America has been slow in coming, but due to the demand of businesses and industries within the region important strides have been made over the last decade – though not comparable to other regions worldwide. A long accepted defining element of ‘internationalisation’ of higher education has been its ‘collegiate’ response to globalisation (KNIGHT, 1999a), yet the Latin American region, with progressive nations such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico, has had a noticeable delayed and/or measured reaction. The International Association of Universities’ (IAU) 3rd Global Survey on internationalisation reveals that governments in the region have been late in their response to the phenomenon (EGRON-POLAK & HUDSON, 2010). Today, they have yet to put in place the necessary financial investment

it requires to internationalise higher education in the region in order to meet its access demand, and materialise essential research and development goals.

According to Jocelyne Gacel-Ávila (2011), despite official discourses and plans governments have not demonstrated specific strategic plans or budgetary allocations. Traditionally, public higher education institutions worldwide are primarily funded by government, though to different degrees. Institutions from this region have reported that funding from government only amounts to 5 percent, more than 200 percent less than the 18 percent world average (WA). In Chile, El Salvador y Peru, for example, the private sector educates more than half the tertiary student population, but the contrary is true for Cuba and Colombia (UNESCO, 2009b). There seems to be discordance between government planning and the private sector objectives; there is insufficient linkage between broad national educational plans and the internationalisation of higher education.

Only as recent as 2005, as revealed in the 2005 Global Survey Report, internationalisation has become important to the development of the region (GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011; IAU, 2005). The survey indicates that institutional leaders previously viewed internationalisation important to strengthen research and knowledge; however, the 2010 Global Survey shows that a shift in focus has occurred and the new focus now, though by a small majority, is to ensure that students are prepared for a global market. That is, approximately 51 percent of regional leaders see the need for students in the region to develop their ‘international profile’ in order to be competitive and current with global trends. Only five years prior this rationale, in 2005, had 6 percent of the leaders sighting it among the reasons to internationalise higher education in the region, less than half of the world average of 15 percent (GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011). Comparable to global trends, the international education market in Latin American is complex.

The view of internationalisation in higher education in the region has evolved over the past two decades. In five years the order of priority and concerns regarding benefits and risks has changed. In 2005 the region was reportedly lacking strategies to attract foreign students and skilled scholars from abroad (HOLM-NIELSEN et al. 2005). However, Gacel-Ávila (2011) posits that the slow response may be due to one of two possible reasons: the sector at that time focused on solving the pervasive regional problems, or the late recognition by its leaders that quality education was not yet up to

international standards. However, there may be another possible reason: the decision to insulate the region from global cultural influences that may have threatened the regions' homogeneity.

Institutions view of the benefits internationalisation brings to the region, as highlighted by the IAU 2005 Global Survey, are congruent with world trends: an increased international awareness of students is now ranked most important (30%), and is above the WA (24%); strengthened research and knowledge at 18 percent; enhanced international cooperation and solidarity at 10 percent; and increased international orientation of faculty and staff (GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011).

On the other hand, noted risks included brain drain (17%); 'commodification' and commercialisation of education programmes (12%); an increase of foreign degree mills and/or low quality providers (12%); and, the loss of cultural identity which, according to the report, ranked seven but was ranked the number one risk in 2005. Internationalisation can be adapted to cultural needs, but it strongly encourages an open approach, an approach that calls for 'reaching the frontier of new knowledge...engage in the exchange of people and ideas rather than turn inward' (HOLM-NIELSEN et al., 2005: 39). The potential of regional development is threatened by brain drain. The risk of this reality is 7 percent higher than the WA (GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011).

A notable growing phenomenon in the region is the increase of non-university tertiary institutions. Noted for its highly segmented character, there seems to be no pointed regulation for these programmes: they tend to lack clear educational policy and strategy. Non-university institutions in Latin America are for profit private institutions and thus attract a cost and cater to the minority affluent group of the population. Data shows that over 3000 such institutions are in Latin America, with about 60 percent being private (SCHWARTZMAN, 2002). The World Bank (2002a, 2002b) statistics reveal that non-university institutions account for 28 percent of total higher education enrolment in Venezuela, 30 percent in Chile and 32 in Brazil. The higher education system has become more decentralized and more institutions have received autonomy to govern and steer their policies as they best see fit.

The region has a history of partnership predominantly with Spain's higher education institutions, which cemented after the Franco dictatorship that ended in 1975,

and even more so since 1990 when Spain joined the European Union (GACEL-ÁVILA et al., 2005). Spain has been the regions' main partner; in 2002 there were 60 academic networks approved by the Spain-Latin American Interuniversity Cooperation Program (PCI), and faculty mobility and human resource development programmes have increased in recent years (Ibid). In fact, 309 postgraduate scholarships for the academic year 2014-2015 are available to students in the region through the 'Red Carolina Foundation'⁶⁰ programme, which sees the majority of applicants coming from Colombia, Mexico, Venezuela, Brazil, Peru, Argentina, Ecuador, Honduras, Bolivia, Chile, and other Latin American countries respectfully. Furthermore, the establishment of the *Espacio Iberoamericano de Conocimiento (CAEU)* aims to facilitate the interaction and collaboration between universities, investigation centres and the transmission and transferring of knowledge.

Other foreign providers that have entered the region include the University of Bologna (Italy) and New York University (United States), which offer programmes and/or have established branch campuses in the region.

The region exports its educational services through internet, as in the case of Mexico's Technology Institute of Monterrey distance-learning programmes (HOLM-NIELSEN et al., 2005).

Quality Assurance

The quality of higher education in Latin America is still below standard in spite of boasting some of the best universities in the world – six of Brazil's universities are ranked among the best 500 universities worldwide (ARWU, 2013). Teaching quality is one of the main problems as professors often lack teaching material and use underdeveloped curricula. In addition, the faculty itself, for a most part, is under-qualified and there are imbalances in the labour market.

The World Bank (2002c) data reveals a trend indicative of the regions' challenge to provide quality assurance: roughly 60 percent of university teachers at public institutions and 86 percent at private institutions work part-time and many of them hold more than

⁶⁰ LA RED CAROLINA (2013): Finaliza la Convocatoria de Becas de Postgrado 2014-2015 (<http://www.redcarolina.net/>), accessed on 10 April 2014.

one job. This level of commitment to higher education at the institutional and faculty level does not lend to an attractive learning environment, at least for student and teacher interaction. Overall, the process of change to adjust pedagogical methods has been described as slow.

Regional initiatives towards improving the quality of education include establishing networks and regional accreditation agencies. The MERCOSUR countries (Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, and Uruguay), Bolivia and Chile established among themselves agreements under ARCU-SUR (formerly known as MEXA) to ensure the use of set criteria for evaluating several programmes: engineering, medicine, agronomy, architecture, dentistry, nursing and veterinary medicine. The initiatives also include mutual recognition of accreditation decisions and the recognition of accredited programmes and degrees. The Ibero-American Network for Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Higher Education (RIACES) is another initiative that focuses on capacity building and harmonising standards and procedures in keeping with those of ARCU-SUR, as well as provides guidelines for quality assurance agencies. In more recent years several countries such as Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, and Mexico have established independent national accreditation agencies, for example Mexico's CONEAU.

Competition is another tool governments in Latin America have employed to guarantee students the higher education value they need to be global ready. Institutions in the region are now competing for students with the highest scores and independent national accreditation agencies and committees are there to ensure that students know their options. In order to raise the bar, Chile grants public subsidies to student whose scores in the national university entrance exam are among the top 27,000 (ARANEDA & MARIN, 2002).

The region experiences a high level of drop-outs, thus graduation rates are low and data shows that it has deteriorated in recent decades. Another reason attributed to low graduation rate is the inefficiency in several universities and the low student-teacher ratios. For example, a little over a decade, there were nine students per teacher in Brazil; Spain had 15.9 students per teacher, while the OECD ratio was at 16.4 to one (OECD, 2002). To further highlight the inefficiency, the countries in the region lack the provisions

to accommodate diverse curriculum to include a variety of teaching methods, learning content, and programmes. Within higher education institutions there are weak departmental ties and faculties demonstrate a lack of multidisciplinary approach (ALTBACH, 2003). In fact, students are required to specialise from the beginning of their studies and not in a post-graduate programme. This system is said to generate rigidities in the learning process as well as complicate the delivery of short-term courses to an international cohort of students. Furthermore, in most of these countries where there are few language barriers it is also difficult to transfer credits from one country to another and no attempt has been made to establish cross-national transfer systems such as the case in Europe with the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), where the language are many and quite distinct in nature (HOLM-NIELSEN et al., 2005). This approach ignores a core principle for internationalising higher education.

Latin American universities in 2005 were overcrowded and deteriorating; lacking equipment and using obsolete instruction material (out-dated curricula). Holm-Nielsen et al. (2005) suggest that the region strengthens its vertical and horizontal linkages between institutions and programmes to reduce transactions costs. It would also improve efficiency, promote competition between providers, and facilitate focus on student demand as well as create learning opportunities rather than the supply of predefined programmes.

Programmes in the region are often offered based on tradition or scholar preference (LEVY, 2002). It is also imperative that time and resources are given to improve data collection. To date, availability of data pertaining to career paths of higher education graduates has been a problem. There is no way to accurately correlate discrepancies between the supply and demand of highly skilled labour. For example, Argentina is saturated with physicians while engineering and other professions are undersupplied; there are more physicians per 1000 people than in the United States (HANSEN & HOLM-NIELSEN, 2003). Furthermore, access to higher education remains highly unequal in spite the increase in the number of providers and programmes, as well as the expansion of university facilities. Higher education in the area continues to be most accessible to students of medium and high income sectors (UN ECOSOC, 2011).

International partnerships with universities outside the region, and governments allowing universities such as the University of Bologna, the University of Heidelberg, and New York University to compete in the market (Ibid.) are indicators that internationalisation in the region is taking form. Now that the region has opened up their economies by liberalising trade and encouraging foreign investments, the region has improved its productivity and innovation and recognises knowledge as an important factor in building the region's economy. Recently the presidents of Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru signed a four-nation Pacific Alliance Agreement, which specifically encourages joint research and the free movement of people, is important to the cause (QS TOP UNIVERSITIES, 2012).

Even so, internationalisation in the region is still lagging and for the region to reduce the current gap between it and other regions, while maintaining its strong cultural identity, will call for leaders at both the institutional and national level to collaborate and identify the common vision for the region in the twenty-first century.

This venture will undoubtedly be an up-hill challenge since funding is inadequate. Other challenges countries in the region continue to face is the ability to provide learning, research, and job opportunities for talented individuals to ensure sufficient supply of advanced skills to their national economies (HOLM-NEILSEN et al., 2005).

The internationalisation of curriculum poses a challenge for the region. Reporting higher education institutions disclose that many institutions have not been integrating international content into the curriculum or fostering the development of intercultural and global competencies in students (DE WIT et al., 2005; OECD, 2010; GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011). Not enough professors in the region hold doctoral degrees; in the late 90s less than 4 percent in Colombia, 4 percent in Mexico, and 30 percent in Brazil obtained full third-cycle studies, and throughout the region less than 26 percent of professors hold master's degrees (GARCIA GUADILLA, 1997).

The leading nations in internationalising higher education systems in the region have different approaches: Argentina, Mexico, Uruguay, and Venezuela have expanded and diversified their public universities offer to meet the demands; others such as Brazil, Chile and Colombia, on the other hand, continue to have quite a restricted public education system resulting in the private education sub-sector as its chief source of

opportunities. Throughout the region, with the exception of Cuba, the higher education market has been deregulated allowing for an increase of private institutions – both for profit and non-profit – to provide more coverage, and visibility. Today private institutions in Brazil enrol 75 percent of all post secondary students in the country (MCGREGOR, 2011).

Access and Equity

Accessibility must be equitable, thus making higher education more affordable to the mass. Latin America public higher education systems historically cater to the more affluent segment of the population and in the twenty-first century is still seen as being largely elitist. For example, students from the richest 20 percent of population made up 70 percent of students enrolled in public universities in Brazil in 2005. In Brazil only 3 percent of the 40 percent of the poorest segment of the population made up the student body, and 18 percent of the 60 percent in Mexico. Affluent students are overrepresented in free public higher education system forcing ill-prepared students from poor families, left with fewer options, to seek their education at private institutions as their primary avenue to obtaining a higher education. Non-university students are not eligible for financial aid and besides the colossal financial sacrifices made by underprivileged students, private institutions within the region pay less emphasis on test scores needed to access public education and, thus, some students forego higher education altogether (HOLM-NIELSEN et al., 2005).

Latin America, however, can be commended for its gender equality achievements. There are few differences in enrolment rate between males and females. In some countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Venezuela, female students are the majority (UIS, 2010a). Increasingly key to becoming competitive as a region in the twenty-first century, Latin American countries will have to collectively transition to a knowledge based economy with an advanced education and research industry.

Academic Mobility

Student mobility of Latin American students in 2005 accounted for 6 percent worldwide and is said to be the second lowest among regions; only surpassing Central Asia that had 3.2 percent at the same period. To date there is no evidence that the order has changed. The majority of international students in Latin America actually represents the region itself, and accounts for 1.9 percent of student mobility worldwide. Nonetheless, data shows that the region has made notable strides (GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011).

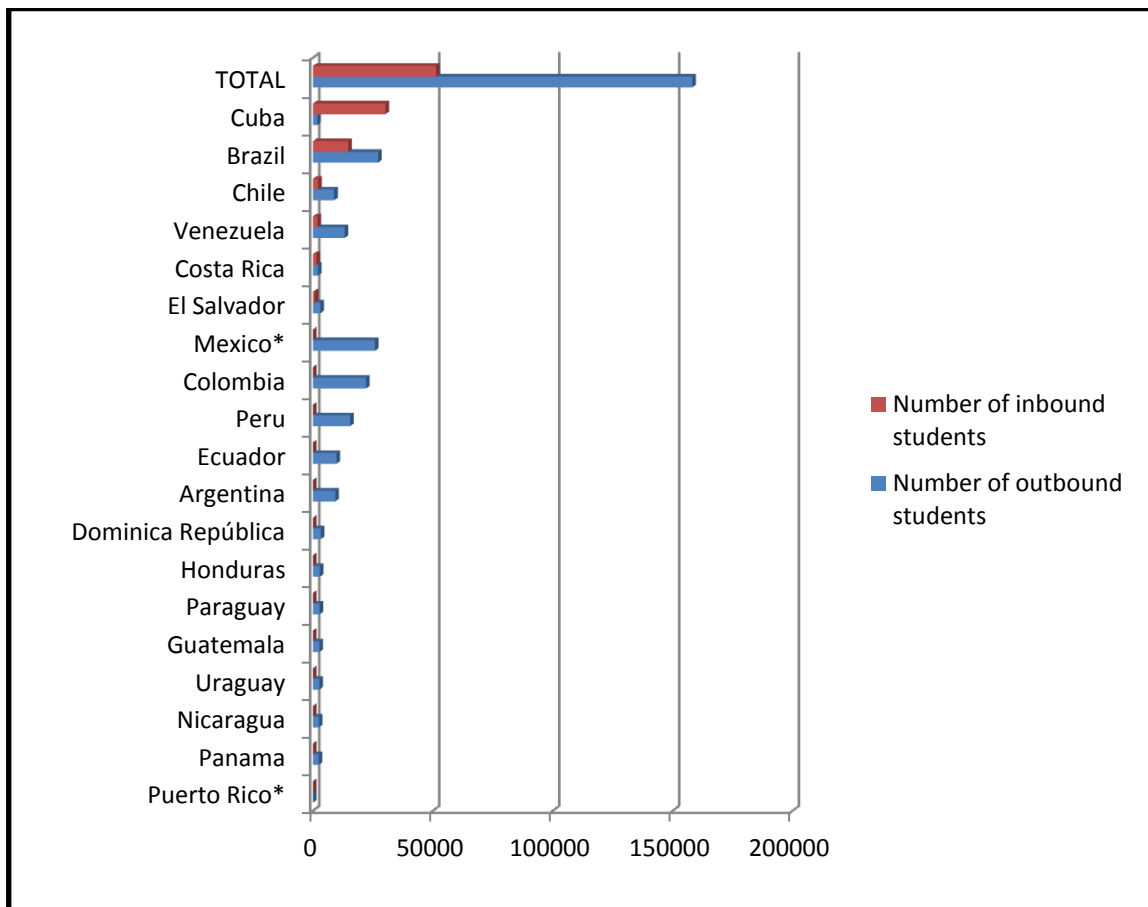
Between 1993 and 2002 the number of outgoing students to the United States increased by 50 percent, while student enrolment in postsecondary programmes more doubled over the past decades. Both the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2012a) and the 3rd IAU Global Survey (EGRON-POLAK & HUDSON, 2010) have revealed that Latin America, for incoming students to the region and students from within the region itself, is not considered a primary destination. In 2010 the number of Latin American students, not including those from the Dominican Republic (3,306) and Cuba (1,820), who studied outside their own country amounted to 172,083 (UIS, 2012a). Accurate data for inbound students to the region is unknown as many countries' did not report data (Figure 3.8). However, for the few that did the numbers reveal that there is more importing than exporting of higher education. Foreign students in Uruguay, Chile, Argentina and Mexico constitute one percent of total enrolment in higher education. Figure 3.8 shows Brazil's outbound students in actual numbers reached 27,148 and hosted 14,738. Other countries with significant outbound student mobility are Mexico (25,836), Colombia (22,153), Peru (15,507), Venezuela (13,234), Ecuador (9,813), Argentina (9,314), and Chile (8,850).

Faculty mobility is also low, tends to occur mainly in large public universities and is usually limited to an 'elite minority'; those who were educated abroad or have an international profile. This suggests that the majority of scholars in the region lack an international profile and are therefore unable to aid the internationalisation process effectively (GACEL-ÁVILA, 2011).

In order to compete globally there are some risks involved, and it may be the risk of draining scarce financial resources yearly that is of major concern to actors in the region. With a low return on international student investment continues to plague the region.

Brazil, for example, spent an estimated \$78 million on nationals studying abroad in 2000, but only generated \$4 million from foreign students to Brazil (OECD, 2002b). In comparison, top OECD countries often yield a considerable income from higher education services such as the case in Australia which profited from \$1.2 billion for the same year (Ibid.).

Figure 3.8: Student Mobility in Latin America



*No data available.

Note: Graph by author

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a.

Academic mobility to OECD countries will continue to claim a significant number of the region's better-educated population. The World Bank's recent international 'Apps for Climate' competition top 15 finalists included at least three from Latin America – Andres Quijano (winner), Ernesto Girón, and Álvaro Molina - with the winner hailing

from Argentina. According to Ernesto ‘research in Latin America is limited and few companies offer work’.⁶¹ All three expressed the desire to move to the United States where they would have greater opportunity in finding work and earning much more.

Between 5 to 14 percent of Latin Americans emigrate, of which 90 percent settle in OECD countries (Ibid.). Argentina experiences the highest migration rate in the region. Countries that have a significant number of college-educated professionals emigrating are Venezuela, Mexico, Brazil, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Chile, Paraguay and Bolivia. Some countries, such as Chile and Mexico, have created incentives to allure nationals who have obtained their PhD studies abroad to return home. The incentives include research position, higher salary and covering repatriation expenditure of 2000 Mexican researchers returning home from 33 countries. The loss of human capital to the United States from Central America amounts to 10 percent, while South American loses 8 percent or less (WODON, 2003; HOLM-NIELSON et al., 2005). At the same time, the region now hosts more international students and a more diverse student body that enriches the higher education experience for both domestic and foreign students.

3.5.2 The Caribbean

Internationalisation serves different purposes for different regions. Whereby developed countries’ interest in internationalisation has been more focused on the ‘intercultural’ dimension, for the Caribbean and the rest of the developing world it has to do more with ‘international’ than with intercultural dimension. In other words, an international degree is more valued than an intercultural experience, which explains the colossal growth of P & I mobility. Mark Bray (2010) observes that internationalisation in the Caribbean is viewed as providing access to tertiary education at international standards of scope, quality and relevance; three elements vital to the region’s economic growth.

With the constant changing global environment – the forces of globalisation, the opportunities of technology, new trade regimes, and economic crisis and volatility – there

⁶¹ WORLD BANK (2012a): Latin America: How can we retain talent to promote development? (<http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2012/08/08/latinoamerica-protoger-talento-impulsar-desarrollo>), accessed on 13 June 2013

are opportunities and challenges. The fact that the Caribbean comprises of small-States underscores some degree of dependency. This is evident in the fact that the Caribbean is one of the most heavily indebted regions in the world (WINT, 2010).

The Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) members represent some of the smallest states whose economies are highly open; they are volatile and prone to shocks and, owing to their size, high debt level and limited fiscal space also pose significant constraints on governments' ability to address development (WB, 2012b).

Wint (2010) reports the scope of tertiary (TER) enrolment for the four largest Anglophone countries in the region is about 19 percent, which is far below international standards. In countries of high human development, that percentage is about 66 percent and those of medium development is 27 percent. The data shows that Barbados TER exceeds its counterparts within the region. Barbados' TER is 38 percent, while all the other countries average at approximately 12 percent. This significant gap Wint attributes to country's 'explicit government policy to expand tertiary enrolments as a key element of the country's strategy to enhance the competitiveness of its service economy'.⁶² In other words, the government invests in its citizenry, ensuring tertiary education access to a greater proportion of this student cohort.

Other countries have made significant steps toward solving the challenge of scope the region faces; for example, Jamaica has facilitated the expansion of its domestic tertiary institutions and has liberalised the tertiary sector under the GATS, allowing foreign providers entry to respond to the growing demand. This approach presents the risk of an influx of 'degree mills' and inferior quality programmes to the country.

More than Latin America, the Caribbean has a unique blend of distinct cultures and languages, but similarly a shared history that binds them together. Higher education institutions in the Caribbean date back to 1973, the first established in Barbados. Since then most Caribbean states have been home to at least one higher education institution, and most of them have international accreditation either in North America or Europe. For

⁶² WINT, A. G. (2010): Internationalisation of Tertiary Education in the Caribbean. Boletín IESALC Informa de Educación Superior. (http://150.185.8.110/previo/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=2461%3Ainternacionalizacion-de-la-educacion-superior-en-el-caribe&catid=126%3Anoticias-pagina-nueva&Itemid=712&lang=en), accessed on 14 May 2013.

example, many programmes at the University of the West Indies are recognised in the UK; the University of the Netherland Antilles and the University of the Dutch Caribbean award Dutch bachelor degrees; those at Northern Caribbean University, University of Puerto Rico, International University of Puerto Rico, the University of Southern Caribbean, the University of the Virgin Islands are accredited in the United States. In addition, there are many medical schools throughout the Caribbean that are accredited, for which the accreditation for these schools is carried out by the Foundation for the international Medical Education and Research. Graduates from these schools sit qualification exams and apply for certification with the Educational Commission for Foreign Medical Graduates which evaluates graduates readiness for a residency programme.

Quality Assurance

The matter of quality in the Caribbean is of concern owing to the rise in the number of new foreign providers of higher education over the past two decades; often they are not committed to quality assurance, but rather they committed to the bottom-line.

Quality assurance and accreditation is primarily the responsibility of the various ministries of education in region. At the national and regional level there are registered and accreditation agencies such as University of Council of Jamaica (UCJ), the Caribbean Accreditation authority for Education in Medicine and other Health Professions and the Accreditation Council of Trinidad and Tobago (ACTT). There are several joint information and communications technology (ICT) initiatives in education: the Virtual University of Small States of the Commonwealth, Caribbean Association for Distance and Open Learning (CARADOL), and the Caribbean University Project for International Distance Education. Many of the universities are associated with accredited and reputable foreign universities in OECD countries and this implies quality programmes are offered by the aforementioned accredited tertiary institutions throughout the sub-region.

Access and Equity

The challenge higher education institutions face, for example the University of the West Indies, similar to some in Latin America, is the fact that it had supported for years a more restrictive academic environment that encouraged 'elitism'. Today, with regional and global competition, a more inclusive approach has been incorporated into institutions' policies to expand their facilities and programmes through the establishment of new locations in order to better facilitate the demand of the growing mass. Still, in particular the University of the West Indies, while considered as playing a key role in realising the ideals of the region they have remained rigid in respect to the nature of acceptance policies, as well as their reluctance to accept credits from other accredited providers (BECKLES et al., 2002). Access to higher education remains highly unequal in spite the increase in the number of providers and programmes, as well as the expansion of university facilities.

The Latin American and the Caribbean governments have the human capital potential to compete globally and, therefore, must ensure greater access for all who wish to further their post-secondary studies; granting all students the opportunity to achieve their goal, regardless of economic standing. It calls for building a reputable Latin America and Caribbean higher education space with the fundamental principle being quality that incorporates important elements: respect for diversity, academic mobility, equipping graduates to the challenge of global competitiveness, and comparable salaries available in developed countries.

Only Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago have made GATS commitments to higher education. However, the Barbadian approach of relying on a heavily public financed system to increase access to higher education is considered commendable (WINT, 2010); however, bearing in mind the low income and high debt levels of the other countries, the appropriate approach to expanding the scope of tertiary education in the region calls for a broader set of responses: a mix of public and private institutions, and local and foreign financing and investment. Barbados has allocated the highest public funding within the region, 2.28 percent of total GDP, to higher education.

Academic Mobility

In respect to student mobility, Figure 3.9 shows approximately 32,395 Caribbean students study outside their country with the majority studying in OECD countries, primarily the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada. Foreign students from the region represent about 0.8 percent of the global international mobile students, and many students remain within the region itself. Most Caribbean countries import education services than they export, with the exception of Barbados, and Grenada (Figure 3.9). Unlike any other country in the Caribbean, Cuba, in theory a Latin American country, receives colossal numbers of international students the country. It hosted 30,234, approximately the total of all other countries combined in the region (Figure 3.8). The large Anglophone countries with the most outbound students are Trinidad & Tobago (5,625), Jamaica (5,406), Haiti (3,586) and Bahamas (2, 723).

It is clearly noted that the Latin American and the Caribbean region is no longer incubated, but still has much to do if it is to become more globally and economically competitive. However, the concern about being very susceptible to the ills of ‘free trade’ leaves critics and sceptics still weighing the ‘benefits’ of internationalisation and the aforementioned challenges it brings to the developing region.

Given the challenge of access, the high debt level and the limited resources in some of these countries, addressing the issue of brain drain is of dire importance to the region’s development and competitiveness in the global market. The region continues to lose most of its brightest minds to OECD countries. With low pay and less professional recognition in their own country, many qualified skilled workers migrate or remain in their host country of tertiary studies.

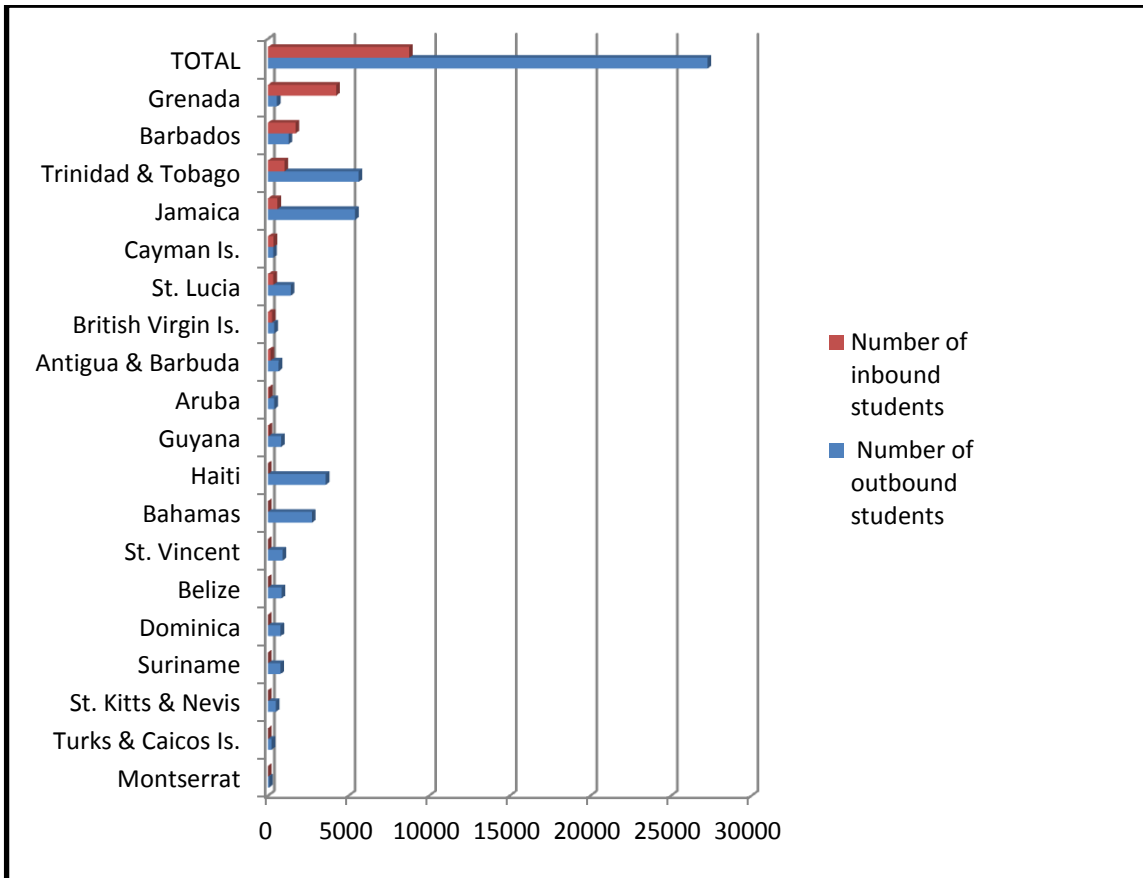
Brain Drain in Latin America and the Caribbean

For years the Caribbean, especially Guyana and Jamaica, has been losing the majority of its highly skilled workers and college educated professionals to OECD countries. Data shows that 70 percent of these skilled workers emigrate in search of better income and research opportunities in the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada. Nurses and teachers from the Caribbean have been traditionally actively recruited by international agencies, at times they offer to repay outstanding loans in order to clear their

debt and commitment. The sub-region has the highest rate of emigration of its college-educated professionals (MISHRA, 2006).

Guillermo Vargas-Salazar (2010) rightly notes that evaluation and accreditation policies in regards to international providers in Latin America [and the Caribbean] is a successful approach in circumventing the highly competitive and asymmetric components of the globalisation and internationalisation phenomenon, as it shields the people of the region against the weakening of its social fabric and the other dangers that globalisation entails. The retention of the region's highly skilled and college educated must be part of the fabric of its 'knowledge economy', a key strategy towards regional development. The way forward against the dangers requires urgent multifaceted efforts at the national and international level. For the future of internationalisation in higher education to be successful in this sub-region, it is imperative to have regional cooperation and, as pointed out at the World Conference of Higher Education (Ibid.), the process must be careful not to import models that are incompatible with national condition and should only be allowed if it respects cultural diversity and its corollary and linguistic diversity.

Figure 3.9: Student Mobility in the Caribbean



Note: Graph by author

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a.

3.6 Conclusion

The regional trends in cross-border higher education reflect regional objectives for higher education, which are comparable across regions. The rest of the world has caught on to the cross-border education policies, approaches and paradigms of West Europe and North America university systems, resulting in other regions attempting to create models and approaches that will transition their education system into one that is more competition worldwide.

The principal regional objective is to keep the majority of students within their home region, as well as attract more students from other regions. In essence the objective is to create more knowledge societies within regions. No question about it, cross-border higher education has surpassed the notion of an international degree benefitting some

individuals; it is a public and private good that determines a country's and a region's sustainable development.

Cross-border activities are augmenting in each region: East Asia, Southwest Asia/Middle East are becoming 'hub' centres and sub-Saharan Africa is considered the 'new' market by establishing more partnership programmes and policies that will ensure sustainable development. According to the OECD (EAG, 2012), Latin America and the Caribbean, and Asia and the Pacific are the emerging regions. Though individual countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico are emerging markets, the Latin America and Caribbean region still needs to invest more in attracting a myriad of international students to its higher education institutions. The way forward is to establish R&D 'cities', and participate in more academic exchange with new partnership programmes that will prepare its students for decades to come. As for the Europe and North America region, though the ACA report (2012) states that European countries are 'more cautious when it comes to adopting extremely ambitious mobility goals at the national level', one can only expect, given the history and the current trends in cross-border higher education, that this region's share of the market may decrease but its actual numbers will continue to increase.

CHAPTER IV

International Student Mobility: A Comparative View of Lead Destinations

A look at long-term growth in the number of students enrolled in foreign institutions in countries where they do not hold permanent residency, reveals student mobility's on-going contribution to the internationalisation of tertiary education. According to the OCED, between 1975 and 2007 the number of international students increased about 2.2 million. In 1975 the number of international students worldwide was 0.8 million, a decade later it was 1.1 million, in 1995 the number stood at 1.7 million, and since 2007 the number has surpassed 3 million (EAG, 2009).⁶³ International education is being treated more than ever as an export service, and it has contributed substantially to the gross national income of host countries that have a significant share of the student mobility market. These countries' international education policies indicate how much they value having international students in their countries.

This chapter examines who international/foreign students are; where these students predominantly go and where the majority of these students come from; top host countries' policies, rationales and approaches; what are the students preferred discipline of study, how much these students pay (tuition fees); the pre-requisites to access higher education in the selected countries; and why students favour these particular destinations.

⁶³ According to the OECD *Education at a Glance* (EAG) Report, "data on foreign enrolment worldwide comes from both the OECD and the UNESCO Institute of for Statistics (UIS). UIS provided the data on all countries for 1975-1995 and most of the partner countries for 2000 and 2007. The OECD provided the data on OECD countries and the other partner economies in 2000 and 2007. Both sources use similar definitions, thus making their combination possible. Missing data were imputed with the closets data reports to ensure that breaks in the data coverage do not result in time series", p. 313.

4.1 Leading destinations and origins of international student

The OECD *Education at a Glance* (EAG, 2011) report state that the general trend towards freely circulating capital, goods and services coupled with the changes in the openness of labour markets has increased demand for new kinds of educational provision in OECD countries. Governments, individuals, and the society at large ‘are looking to higher education to play a role in broadening students’ horizons and allowing them to develop a deeper understanding of the world’s languages, cultures and business methods’ (p. 318). To quote Andreas Schleicher, OECD Deputy Director of Education, ‘education today is our economy tomorrow’ (Ibid), and one of the ways countries accomplish this is by encouraging students to study in tertiary educational institutions in countries other than their own. Hence, OECD countries, and in particularly countries of the European Union (EU), have established schemes and policies promoting mobility.

The OECD (EAG, 2009) uses the terms foreign students and international students interchangeably when referring to student mobility. However, in assessing data they often use the term ‘foreign students’ and make distinction between them in cases where necessary, given that some countries’ definition differ from the preferred definition (Appendix E). According to its official Glossary of Statistical Terms, the OECD defines the term ‘foreign students’ as:

‘persons admitted by a country other than their own, usually under special permits or visas, for the specific purpose of following a particular course of study in an accredited institution of the receiving country.’ p. 308

This definition, however, is not accepted by all OECD members. A case in point is Germany’s classification of ‘international students’. The more accepted term is ‘foreign students’, which includes international students as defined by the OECD and students who have permanent residency, but received prior education outside the country:

Foreign students are defined as ‘mobile foreign students’ (Bildungsausländer), those who travel to Germany specifically for study, and ‘non-mobile foreign students’ (Bildungsinländer), those in possession of German secondary school qualifications and who likely have German residency status. Data thus include students who are long-term or permanent residents without German citizenship. (Appendix E)

In Australia the term ‘international students’ is used and refers to those students without residency; however, recipients of a scholarship as well as those from New Zealand are not counted among their international students. Hence ‘international students’ are defined as:

‘those studying onshore only with visa subclasses 570 to 575, excluding students on Australian-funded scholarships or sponsorships or students undertaking while in the possession of other temporary visas. (Data also exclude students with New Zealand citizenship because they do require a visa to study in Australia).’ (Appendix E)

While in Spain ‘international student’ is essentially defined as one who does not have Spanish nationality (Appendix E). Therefore, some 950,000⁶⁴ ‘international students’ were reported in 2012 (CUSTER, 2013), presumably predominantly ‘foreign student’ with permanent residency and Erasmus students. Cross-border education data for Spain, in respect to student mobility in its purest form, is skewed and data regarding vertical mobility is relatively lacking. Given that the European Union is treated as a single community, ERASMUS trans-border activities are not ‘international’ in the truest sense of the term. In fact, it is only as recent as 2013 that Spain’s Ministry of Industry, Energy and Tourism and the Institute for Foreign Trade (ICEX) helped launched the ‘Study in Spain’ portal⁶⁵ to attract more non-EU students. Bob Burger, marketing director at Malaga Institute, suggests the number of international students interested in participating in vertical mobility is significant. About 20 per cent of their students, he says, are in Spain studying Spanish in order to go on to some kind of university programme (CUSTER, 2013).

Currently the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, the OECD and EUROSTAT define international students ‘as those who are not residents of their country of study or those who received their prior education in another country’ (OECD ILIBRARY, 2013).

For the European Commission international students ‘mainly refer to the Erasmus Mundus programme’, yet Erasmus students are not subjected to the general immigration rules applicable to non-EU students (EC, 2012: 43). Even so, according to ICEF Monitor (2013), international students compose an important proportion of the non-EU population

⁶⁴ A number much higher than the approximate 684,714 international students the United States, the international student capital of the world, hosted during the same period according to UIS and OECD data.

⁶⁵ Study in Spain, *Portal Oficial*, (<http://www.studyinspain.info/>), accessed on 5 November 2013.

in many EU countries. A report provided by the European Migration Network (EMN) reveals the number of international students in Europe augmented between 2000 and 2010 by approximately 114 per cent, exceeding that of North America by 59 per cent during the same period. Furthermore, data reveals 21 per cent of first residence permits in 2011 were issued for education reasons to third-country nationals and only 1.4 percent of those students represented the Erasmus Mundus mobility programme (EC, 2012b: 6, 43).

As such, the OECD and UNESCO statistics for (vertical) student mobility – the intended focus of this Chapter – is somewhat skewed; however, it may be assumed that the leading host countries and their standing remain among the top ten.

In the twentieth century internationalisation of higher education took on a new role due to world events and national priorities (DUTSCHKE, 2009), resulting in rationales and policies of both nations and institutions reflecting greater dimension and more active involvement in the process.

Some of the ten lead destinations for international students in the last decade have been OECD and partner countries; the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Australia, and Canada have been constantly listed among them, others that have occasionally captured a spot on the list include China, Japan, and Spain. Two countries that have recently moved up in ranking to be included among the top ten destinations in 2011 and 2012 are the Russian Federation and South Africa OECD (EAG, 2013; UNESCO, 2014).

The international education policies of these countries, for the most part, promote student mobility. They actively recruit students to their countries and encourage their domestic students to participate in programmes abroad (usually short-term). The international education policy in Australia is a prime example. It reaffirms, among other things, the assurance of paid courses to international students, the provider of educational services must report information to relevant administrations, and the need to protect and enhance the country's reputation. This policy was amended in March, 2010 which indicates that due to the more recent racial crimes, the latter is of dire importance (Appendix A).

In Germany the recruiting efforts are geared to a particular type of foreign student. In essence their mission is to recruit 'young academic elite' who may become leaders in

their fields as well as friends and partners of Germany. It is the only country whose international education policy that appears to address the need ‘to support the process of economic and democratic reform in developing countries’ (Appendix A).

Unlike Japan’s international education policy that includes the need to preserve its tangible cultural heritage in ‘the rapid progress of globalisation’, the UK and the US have policies that speak to active recruitment and the promotion of their educational services. The UK includes the need to improve student satisfaction and the US the need to enhance educational infrastructure (Ibid.). Most of these countries have established agencies or programmes, usually in association with its Ministry of Education, that solely engage in matters pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education and student mobility, in particular recruitment. The establishment of these agencies and programmes indicates a growing trend in ‘marketisation’.

While lead host countries of international students have been the same for more than a decade, their market share have been altered. The 2008 Atlas Report (Table 4.1), for example, shows lead destinations in 2007 included the United States (21%), the United Kingdom (13%), France (9%), Germany (8%), Australia (7%), China (6%), Canada (4%), Japan (4%) and Spain (2%).⁶⁶ However, when compared to more recent statistics the country that has had its market share greatly impacted by the shift in student mobility is the United States. A 7 percent loss for the United States between 2001 and 2007 can be attributed to the growing competitive trend in internationalisation (OECD, 2009), and not necessarily as a result of the September 11, 2001 attacks.

The Report also indicates that the United Kingdom maintained a steady though small increase in its market share of international students. In 2001 it accounted for 11 percent and 13 percent in 2007. Germany also experienced a decline from a 10 percent market share to eight percent, giving lead to France (9%). Australia between 2001 and 2007 saw an increase from 4 percent to 7 percent of its proportion of the international student market share. Spain was listed among the top ten lead countries between 2001 and 2007 and its proportion of the market share during that period fluctuated between 1 to 2 percent, which also corresponds to OECD statistics.

⁶⁶ Institute of International Education (2008): Global Destination for International Students at the Post-Secondary Level (www.atlas.iienetwork.org/?p=48027), accessed on 3 May 2010.

Table 4.1 Atlas Student Mobility Chart

Top Receiving Countries			
(2001)		(2007)	
United States of America	28%	United States of America	21%
United Kingdom	11%	United Kingdom	13%
Germany	9%	France	9%
France	7%	Germany	8%
Canada (1)	5%	Australia	7%
Australia	4%	China	6%
China (1)	4%	Canada	4%
Japan	3%	Japan	4%
Spain	2%	Spain	2%

Source: IIE Atlas Mobility

1. OECD 2009 Education at a Glance Report. The percentages represent 2000 figures.

Even though there is a slight variation in the statistics, OECD and UNESCO data also support the finding that the United States' market share is dwindling, and a shift in international students now favouring other developed and developing – OECD and non-OECD – countries alike. Nevertheless, the actual number of international students to the country continues to increase.

OECD statistics (Table 4.2) reflect recent years of mobility confirming that the US market share continues to decline – a slight increment of 0.3 percent in 2011 is not indicative of a turn-around for the US. Likewise, France and Germany have experienced steady declines in their market share. On the other hand, the United Kingdom's market share has fluctuated to reach a five year high of 13 percent. Market shares for Australia, Canada and Spain have fluctuated with Spain being the only country having reported a steady increase between 2009 and 2011 (EAG, 2009 - 2013).

In spite of terrorist attacks, immigration restrictions, the current financial crisis, and the growing popularity of other cross-border programmes, student mobility invariably continues to augment. Mobility of students and teachers is considered to be the most important reason for making internationalisation a priority and is identified as the fastest growing aspect of internationalisation (KNIGHT, 2003).

Table 4.2 Distribution of foreign students* in tertiary education by country of destination (2005-2011)

Percentage of foreign tertiary students reported to the OECD who are enrolled in each country of destination

Country of Destination	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Australia	6.0	6.3	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.6	6.1
Canada	3.0	5.1	4.4	6.0	5.2	4.7	4.7
France	9.0	8.5	8.2	7.0	6.8	6.3	6.2
Germany	10.0	8.9	8.6	7.0	7.0	6.4	6.3
Spain	2.0	1.7	2.0	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5
United Kingdom	12.0	11.3	11.6	10	9.9	13	13
United States	22.0	20.0	19.7	19	18	16.6	16.9

Source: OECD EAG 2007-2013

*Here the distinction between ‘foreign students’ and ‘international students’ is blurred.

An international education benefits not only students, but it benefits institutions and countries as a whole. Table 4.3 shows that between 2000 and 2007 the actual number of international/foreign students who went abroad to pursue a tertiary education augmented from 1.9 million to over 3 million; an almost 50 percent growth in nine years. The growth in student mobility to OECD countries also shows a significant increase of 939,013 foreign students.

Table 4.3 Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin (2000 to 2007)

Number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of origin, head counts

	<u>Number of foreign students</u>							
	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
Foreign students enrolled Worldwide	3,021,106	2,924,679	2,846,423	2,697,283	2,507,551	2,267,148	1,978,507	1,901,188
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	2,522,757	2,440,657	2,368,931	2,265,135	2,085,263	1,897,866	1,642,676	1,583,744

Source: OECD *Education at a Glance* 2009

The flow of international students to and from lead host countries is indicative of the perceived value cross-border education contributes to their ‘knowledge economies’. In total, Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Spain, the UK and the US host approximately 1.96 million of the estimated world’s 4.3 million international students, almost half of the cohort (UNESCO, 2012a). On the other hand, jointly they only have some 310,460 of their student nationals participating in student mobility programmes, and Germany accounts for a third of them. The country sends the most students abroad and their outbound students is just over half the number of international students it hosts (Table 4.4): in 2007 it was ranked fourth among the top sending countries. Thus far, data suggests the key to becoming a lead destination requires hosting at least 2 percent of the total mobile student population.

Table 4.4 Flow of international/foreign students to lead destinations

Student Mobility	AUS	CAN	FRA	GER	SPA	UK	US
International students hosted	271,231	95,590	259,935	200,862	56,018*	389,958	684,714
International students abroad	10,330	45,090	54,407	103,110	22,919	23,039	51,565

*Other sources show numbers of foreign students amounted to 950,000 in 2012; not to be mistaken for the number of international students.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2012a

According to the OECD, in 2007 the percentages of international students in its institutions of higher education represented 1 to almost 20 percent of total university student population (EAG, 2009: 311). Of the five countries listed for having the largest percentage of international students in their institutions only Australia (19.5%) and the United Kingdom (14.9%) were among them (the others were Austria, New Zealand and Switzerland). By 2011 (EAG, 2013: 311) those percentages increased by 0.4 percent and 1.9 percent respectively. In 2007 Canada international students accounted for 7.7 percent of total university enrolment, the United States 3.4 percent, Japan 2.9 percent and Spain 2 percent. Figures for 2011 show the percentages appear consistent, with only Spain reflecting an increase of about 1.5 percent. In 2007 France, Germany and China were not

listed, but 2011 numbers show France, based on its definition, foreign students represented 11.9 percent of total tertiary enrolment, while in China they reflected less than 1 percent. Data for Germany was not available.

It is evident from the data that while the US leads in having the most international students in actual number its domestic/international student ratio is low. On the other hand, the UK is ranked second in both actual number and domestic/international student ratio. Traditionally, OECD countries combined host more than two-third of total international students. Another shift in student mobility is evident as the five lead destinations in 2008 (the US, the UK, France and Germany and Australia) together hosted over 50 percent of all international students (EAG, 2010: 308), that percentage has since decreased by over two percent (EAG 2013: 307), which indicates students' destination choices are expanding.

In respect to sending regions and countries, Asia is the major supplier (53%) of total international student population in OECD and partner countries. Following Asia is Europe with 25 percent, of which 17 percent of the students are EU citizens. Next are students from Africa (9%), Latin America and the Caribbean (6%), and finally North America (3%). A total of 30 percent of international students enrolled in OECD universities are from OECD countries and the major contributors are Korea (4.4%), Germany (3.9 %), Japan (2.3%), France (2.0%), the United States (1.6%), and Canada (1.8%) (Ibid: 313).

Since 2001 China has consistently held the lead position as place of origin for international students. According to the UNESCO Global Education Digest (2009: 36), the top ten sending countries in 2007 were China (421,100), followed by India (153,300), Republic of Korea (105,300), Germany (77,500), Japan (54,500), France (54,000), the United States (50,300), Malaysia (46,500) Canada (43,900) and the Russian Federation (42,900). Accordingly, they accounted for 37.5 percent of the world's mobile students in the 153 host countries that reported data. UIS (2012a; 2014) data shows that China, India and Republic of Korea have maintained their positions as top senders of international students and account for almost a fifth of all international students worldwide, and the number of international students they host is also increasing; Table 4.5 shows an increase

in the number of both inbound and outbound students for China and the Republic of Korea, whereas the outbound numbers for India have decreased.

Table 4.5: Top sending countries of international students and the number of international students they host (2012 & 2014*)

Countries	Outbound students		Inbound students	
	2012	2014	2012	2014
China	562,889	649,500	71,673	79,638
India	200,621	196,241	-	27,531
Republic of Korea	126,447	128,200	59,194	62,675

*Reflect years in which data were retrieved and not the years they were actually collected.

Source: UIS 2012 & 2014

As more international mobile students venture to unconventional destinations the shift in the market share will become more evident, assuming this trend does not desist. The rationale for the change reflects different emphases in internationalisation policies of countries. They range from proactive marketing policies embraced in the Asia-Pacific region to a more passive approach in the traditionally dominant United States (OECD, 2009).

4.2 Factors influencing students' choice of country

According to the OECD (EAG, 2009 - 2013), there are three main influencing factors determining international students' choice of destination: language of instruction (a critical factor), tuition fees and cost of living, and the immigration policies of the destination country.

Language of instruction

Countries where English is the native language, or the language of instruction is used in certain field of studies are primarily the lead destinations for international

students, both in absolute and relative terms. This factor explains the market share dominance of Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States. As mentioned in Chapter One, English is ‘the international language’ and a major pull factor for students who want to learn or improve their English, as well as for English speakers who are intimidated by the idea of studying in another language.

In Anglophone countries such as Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States, English is the primary language of instruction in almost all courses. The exception is Canada where French is also used as the primary language of instruction in some regions. In non-Anglophone countries such as France, Germany and Japan some programmes are offered in English, however, Spain offers no or nearly no programmes in English. Information regarding China was not accessible.

There is a growing trend for non-English-speaking countries to offer more and more courses in English in order to attract international students (Box 4.1). This is more evident in Nordic Countries. However, this trend does not eliminate the requirement of students taking a language exam to access universities in host countries; for example Japan requires the Examination for Japanese University (EJU), and Germany the Testdaf.⁶⁷

⁶⁷ Retrieved from the countries’ Ministry of Education and International Student/Education websites.

Box 4.1 OECD and Partner Countries Offering Tertiary Programmes in English (2007 & 2011)

Use of English in instruction	OECD and partner countries
All or nearly all programmes offered in English	Australia, Canada(1), Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the United States
Many programmes offered in English	Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden
Some programmes offered in English	Belgium -Fl.(2), the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland (3), Turkey
No or nearly no programmes offered in English	Austria, Belgium (Fr.), Brazil, Chile, Greece, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Mexico(3), Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain
<p><i>Note:</i> Assessing the extent to which a country offers a few or many programmes in English is subjective. In doing so, country size has been taken into account, hence the classification of France and Germany among countries with comparatively few English programmes, although they have more English programmes than Sweden in absolute terms.</p> <p>1. In Canada, tertiary institutions are either French- (mostly Quebec) or English-speaking.</p> <p>2. Masters programmes.</p> <p>3. At the discretion of tertiary education institutions.</p> <p><i>Source:</i> OECD, compiled from brochures for prospective international students by OAD (Austria), CHES and NARIC (Czech Republic), Cirus (Denmark), CIMO (Finland), EduFrance (France), DAAD (Germany), Campus Hungary (Hungary), University of Iceland (Iceland), JPSS (Japan), NIIED (Korea), NUFFIC (Netherlands), SIU (Norway), CRASP (Poland), Swedish Institute (Sweden) and Middle-East Technical University (Turkey)</p> <p><i>Source:</i> OECD <i>Education at a Glance</i> 2009 and 2013.</p>	

Finance: Tuition fees/Cost of Living

In recent years the neo-liberal trade of higher education services has changed the educational environment of higher education institutions and has some OECD countries specialising in education export. The implications favour greater access to international education, which has a ‘growing impact on countries’ balance payments as a result of revenue from tuition fees and domestic consumption by international students’ (EAG, 2010: 310).

Tuition fees coupled with daily expenses of international students (and families) contribute significantly to the gross domestic income of some of these countries. Tuition fees, according to the OECD report, can be classified three ways; higher tuition fees for international students than for domestic students (e.g. Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States); same tuition fees for international and domestic students

(e.g. France, Germany, Japan and Spain), and finally no tuition fees for either international or domestic students such as in some Nordic countries. (Box 4.2)

Box 4.2 Tuition fees structure

Tuition fees structure	OECD and partner countries
Higher tuition fees for international students than for domestic students	Australia (1) , Austria(2), Belgium(2), Canada , the Czech Republic(2), Denmark(2), Estonia(2), Ireland(2), the Netherlands(2), New Zealand (3), the Russian Federation, Turkey, Sweden, the United Kingdom(2) , the United States(4)
Same tuition fees for international and domestic students	France, Germany , Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico(5), Spain, Switzerland(6)
No tuition fees for either international or domestic students	Finland, Iceland, Norway,
<p>1. International students are not eligible for government-subsidised places in Australia and therefore pay the full fee. While this typically results in international students having higher tuition fees than domestic students, who are usually given subsidised places, some domestic students in public universities and all students in independent-private universities are full-fee paying and pay the same tuition fees as international students.</p> <p>2. For non-European Union or non-European Economic Area students.</p> <p>3. Except for students in advanced research programmes, or for students from Australia.</p> <p>4. International students pay the same fees as domestic out-of-state students. However since most domestic students are enrolled in-state, international students pay higher tuition fees than most domestic students.</p> <p>5. Some institutions charge higher tuition fees for international students.</p> <p>6. There is a negligible difference between the average annual tuition fees charged to domestic and mobile students.</p> <p><i>Source: OECD Education at a Glance 2009 and 2013</i></p>	

There is enough evidence to show that high tuition fees do not cripple the growth of student mobility. In 2010 Japan and the United States had some of the highest fees. The Anglophone countries, however, are among the lead countries noted for having the highest tuitions. The average tuition fees for international/mobile students in Australia was A\$10,000 (€7,000) per annum, in Canada an average C\$9,000 (€6,675) per annum, the UK (the highest among the EU nations) an average £10,000 per annum, and the U.S. has an average of US \$13,500 per annum, which may be a conservative approximation. Students in France pay between €150-500 per annum, in Germany they pay tuition fee of

up to €1000, while in Spain students pay an average of €500 - €1.500 per annum (Appendix F).

Most recent data shows some changes among countries since 2010. In Germany tuition fees range from 0€ to about 1,300€, and is expected to be abolished nationwide come the start of the new 2014-2015 academic year (NY TIMES, 2013). In the UK tuition fees for international students range from £3,500 to about £18,000 per year (UKCISA, 2013), cost in the US currently averages \$20,770 per year (QS TOP UNIVERSITIES, 2013).

In spite of the high tuition fees in the Anglophone countries, more and more international students continue to gravitate to their borders; again, confirming the growing demand for English instructed programmes. This demand may not be primarily of English speaking students, but rather of students who may have an acceptable command of the language, and in cases where the host country's native language is not English then the '2 for 1' cost is an added incentive. For example, in Nordic countries where there are no tuition fees and English is also an instruction language there is tremendous growth in enrolment. In fact, between 2000 and 2007 some of these countries experienced more than a 50 percent growth. However, such a growth burdens the host country and, therefore, Denmark and other countries such as Finland and Sweden are considering introducing tuition fees for non-EU and non-EEA international students (EAG, 2009).

One of the ways international students help meet their expenses is to obtain a scholarship. All seven countries have scholarships available to international students (e.g. Erasmus and Fulbright). However, most are often geared toward a certain cohort of students and are usually based on field of study, or country of origin – honouring bilateral or multilateral agreements.

Another way for students to meet their expenses is to procure a job. Even though proof of financial support, sometimes for the entire duration of the programme, is required to obtain a visa, all seven countries allow students to work limited hours (number of hours vary from country to country and none exceeds 20 hours per week). In Australia international students are automatically granted the right to work upon obtaining their visas and are allowed to work 20 hours weekly. In Canada and the UK

students are allowed to work up to 10 hours per week and are allowed to work off campus, but in the US where students are allowed to work a maximum of 20 hours, they are limited to campus jobs. Whereas students in France do not need a work permit, but are limited to 964 hours annually, students in Germany need a permit and are limited to 90 work days. In Spain students are also required to attain a work permit and are limited to 20 hours weekly, but the permit may only be granted after having obtained an employment offer – the process can take up to three months.⁶⁸

Like all lead countries international students is an important source of income for institutions of learning. Whereas Anglophonic countries tend to charge these students higher fees, international students in Canada (EAG, 2008b) and in the UK – non-EU/EEA students – are not only charged higher fees than those charged to national students, but fees are said to be relatively high compared with other OECD countries (EAG, 2009).

The provision of education services to full-fee paying overseas students is emerging as an important industry for the Australian economy. Education services provided in Australia to international students were valued at over \$9 billion in export earnings in the financial year 2004–05 (ABS, 2007).

Host countries immigration policies

In past years immigration policies favoured mainly the science/engineering students, but this has changed in recent years as OECD immigration policies in some countries like Australia, Canada and New Zealand facilitate foreign students who have studied in their universities the opportunity to obtain permanent residency by granting them additional points for their immigration file. These countries not only become more inviting to students, but such a strategy strengthens their knowledge economy. Due to the potential economic gain and the competitive environment of globalisation, visa granting by OECD countries has increased.

Other factors

⁶⁸ Information obtained from the various government education websites.

In addition to the three main reasons noted, there are other factors that are of real value when choosing a country in which to study abroad. The OECD (EAG 2009-2013:318) highlights the most present ones as: the reputation of particular institutions or programmes; the flexibility of programmes, with respect to time spent abroad towards degree requirements; the limitations of tertiary education provision in the home country; restrictive university admission policies at home; geographical, trade or historical links between countries; future job opportunities; cultural aspiration; government policies to facilitate transfer of credits between home and host institution; and the transparency and flexibility of courses and degree requirements are also important.

4.3 International student level and type tertiary education

Assessing the economic value of international students also requires tracking their field of studies, the level at which they study, as well as how pertinent these studies are, primarily, to students' local labour market. Student mobility in tertiary education is categorised by the level and type tertiary education pursued. The Institute of Education Sciences (IES) and the OECD classify tertiary education programmes in three ways: tertiary-type A, tertiary-type B, and advanced research qualifications (IES, 2013; OECD, 2013):

The first type is *Tertiary-type A* defined as: programmes provide an education that are largely theoretical and is intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programs and professions with high-skill requirements, such as medicine, dentistry or architecture. The minimum cumulative theoretical duration at this level is three years of full-time enrollment. These programmes are usually offered exclusively by universities.

The second being *Tertiary-type B*, which are programs typically shorter than tertiary-type A programs and focus on practical, technical, or occupational skills for direct entry into the labor market, although they may cover some theoretical foundations in the respective programs. They have a minimum duration of two years of full-time enrollment at the tertiary level.

The third classification is *Advanced Research Qualifications* which refers to tertiary programmes that lead directly to the award of an advanced research qualification, e.g., Ph.D. The theoretical duration of these programmes is three years full-time in most countries (for a cumulative total of at least seven years full-time at the tertiary level), although the actual enrolment time is typically longer. The programmes are devoted to advanced study and original research.

In all lead countries tertiary-type A programmes have the highest enrolment, followed by tertiary-type B and advanced research respectively. Bear in mind that due to the varied definitions of international student the statistics for some countries reflect both non-permanent and permanent residents. According to the OECD (EAG, 2013: 317), the majority of international and foreign students in lead countries being compared, with the exception of Germany, which did not report data, had the majority of these students enrolled in tertiary-type A programmes in 2011. The United Kingdom and Australia reported an 85.5 percent and 81.6 percent enrolment respectively, the highest percentages among lead countries. On the other hand, Spain reported the lowest enrolment of 51.1 percent. All other countries, again with exception of Germany, reported enrolment within the 70th percentile.

In respect to tertiary-type B programmes, countries with significant enrolment include Spain with 30.7 percent, the highest of the group; Canada with 18.3 percent and Australia with 12.5 percent. Enrolment in the other countries were fairly low, the United States (6.8%) and the United Kingdom (5.7%) are reported as having the lowest.

Among OECD countries the United States (19.4%) and Spain (18.2%) ranked second and third respectively after Switzerland (24.8%) for international and foreign student enrolment in advanced research programmes. Enrolment in advanced research programmes in France (11.8%), Canada (9.3%), the United Kingdom (8.8%) and Australia (5.8%) were significantly lower.

High enrolment in advanced research programmes suggests two things: (1) the attractiveness of these programmes, and (2) the preference and interest of international students at this level of education to ‘capitalise on their contribution to domestic research and development, or in anticipation of being recruited as highly qualified immigrants’ (EAG, 2009: 319). Furthermore, according to the OECD, ‘Doctoral-level research plays a crucial role in driving innovation and economic growth and contributes significantly to the national and international knowledge base’ (EAG, 2013: 295). High enrolment at this level is likely to generate higher revenue per student, given the fact that Doctoral tuitions fees in many universities almost double the Bachelor’s tuition in countries that charge international students full tuition.

*International students and their field of study*⁶⁹

The trend in international students favouring particular fields of studies persists. Social sciences, business and law attract the majority of international students in seven of the lead destinations for international students. Collectively, a large proportion of international students in Australia (55.0%), Canada (42.0%), Spain (19.0%), the United Kingdom (44.0%) and United States (33.0%) pursue these fields. In France 41.0 percent of foreign students and 27.0 percent in Germany also pursue these fields. Less than one-fifth of international students in Canada (17.0%), Germany (15.0%), and the United States (17.0%) pursue the sciences. Countries that are highly favoured for humanities, arts and education are Germany (25.0%), the UK and the US (both 15.0%). France's 19.0 percent does not reflect the preferred definition of international 'mobile' students. When compared to the other six countries Spain (18.0%) has the largest proportion of its students pursuing careers in the field of health and welfare. Australia and the UK are the two other countries that follow with 10.0 and 9.2 percent respectively. In Germany, where the preferred definition of international students is not always used and data do not include tertiary B students, 23.0 percent of international students are enrolled in engineering, manufacturing or construction. Other countries with significant enrolment are the Canada (16.0%), the UK (15.0%), and US (18.0%). More than half the students in Spain (49.0%) enroll in social sciences, business, law and health and welfare programmes, a 17 percent drop according OCED data (EAG 2011).

Given that higher education is in great demand one may assume that education is among the top fields pursued by international student, but quite the contrary; EAG 2009 data for Australia (3.0%), Germany (4.9%), the UK (3.8%), the US (3.0%), and Spain (2.9%) reveal a small percentage of international student enrolment in the field of education. A possible explanation may be the reality that the profession is likely not to compensate financially for the monetary investment made by international students. The fact that so few international students pursue education abroad indicates that 'internationalisation' of the field itself and its importance may be neglected or

⁶⁹ OECD - *Education at a Glance* 2013. Chart 4.2 Distribution of international students by field of education, p. 318.

overlooked. Even OECD 2013 data indicate enrolment is still low. The field of agriculture has even less enrolment.

Notably, countries that have large proportion of their international students enroll in agriculture, sciences and engineering programmes often deliver subject material in English.

Accessing data reporting the extent to which curricula in these popular fields entail ‘international elements’ was not feasible. It is an area that needs additional research.

4.4 Student mobility among lead destinations⁷⁰

How does student mobility measure up among lead countries? According to Atlas Student Mobility (IIE, 2008), top destinations for students from the lead countries being compared are Germany, the United States, France, Canada, Spain the United Kingdom and Australia respectively. However, EAG (2013) numbers indicate the US and the UK as the lead destinations.

Among the OECD and partner countries presented, data reflect that a significant percentage of Australian (56%) students abroad favour the United Kingdom and the United States with the majority (28.1%) going to the US. New Zealand receives a significant 21.4% of Australian students. Likewise, 57.5 percent of Canada’s outgoing mobile students favour the US, which may be as a result of proximity. Top destinations for outgoing students from France are Belgium (22.2%), UK (21.4%), Canada (12.0%), and the US (10.0%). Germany’s outbound students’ top five destinations are Austria (21.1%), the Netherlands (18.7%), the UK (16.1%), Switzerland (11.3%), and the US (7.0%). The top destinations for Spain’s outbound students are the UK (25.4%), Germany (16.3%), France (16.3%), and the US (12.7%) respectively. A significant proportion of British students seem to favour North America (29.6%); the US receives about 23.4 percent and Canada 6.2 percent, while France (8.0%) and Germany (5.5%) receive collectively 13.5 percent of British students. Other top UK destinations include New Zealand (17.9%) and Ireland (10.6%). American outbound students favour the UK (25.0%) and Canada (15.4%), while 14 percent of these students study in the other three

⁷⁰ OECD - *Education at a Glance 2013*, Table C4.3, p. 319-320.

European countries; Germany (6.5%), France (5.6%), and Spain (1.9%). The distribution of Chinese mobile students sees 21.6 percent studying in the US, 17.5 percent in Japan, 11.0 percent in Australia and 10.8 percent in the UK. The majority of Japan's outbound students favour the US (54.2%) and the UK (9.6%).

4.5 Terms of conditions for international students

As stated before, students who wish to study abroad and have been accepted to an overseas institution are usually required to show proof of financial support as a prerequisite visa granting. Such is the case in six of the seven countries compared (data regarding financial proof for France was not obtained).

Oftentimes a language test is required for non-native speakers applying to, Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States. France and Spain do not stipulate such requirement. Each country has its own standard test. For example, in the United States the TOEFL is required, while in Australia the IELTS, and the Testdaf in Germany.

All seven lead countries also require students to obtain a student visa, except students from countries that have particular bilateral or multilateral agreements such as SOCRATES/ERASMUS in the European Community, or that of Australia and New Zealand. In such cases student mobility is quite hassle free. Usually, once potential students are accepted to an accredited institution visa granting is easily facilitated. Countries like Canada and France are making their countries more attractive by encouraging students to apply for permanent residency or work for an extended period of time upon completion of studies.⁷¹

Another requirement for international students is health insurance. Except for the United Kingdom and France, the other countries require student applicants to purchase health insurance in order to be granted a student visa. In France international students who are less than 28 years old do not need private insurance as they are entitled to national basic coverage. However, international students older than 28 are required to buy

⁷¹ In 2006 students were granted the option to extend their stay in France for two years after the completion of master's degree. In June 2009, the government began issuing a visa that covers the entire duration of international students' studies in France. http://www.acenet.edu/Content/NavigationMenu/ProgramsServices/cii/pubs/ace/SizingUptheCompetition_September09.pdf

the health insurance referred to as CMU. In the case where insurance is required, not all companies provide complete coverage; for example, the United States and Canada provide partial (70%) coverage. In Australia students health insurance provides 100% coverage, while in Spain complete coverage is provided with the possible exception of dental and optical. Some potential international students to Canada, depending on their country of origin, may be even required to have a medical examination and show proof of certification before being granted a Canadian visa.⁷²

⁷² Information obtained from the various government education websites.

'To succeed, universities cannot take a one-size-fits-all approach, but must adapt their strategies according to local condition', Van-Cauter

CHAPTER V

PROGRAMME AND INSTITUTION MOBILITY: A COMPARATIVE VIEW OF LEAD PROVIDERS

Programme and institution mobility is evidence that the internationalisation of higher education is not limited to international students on university campuses. P & I mobility encompasses all other forms of academic mobility that allows students in one country to access international education in another without migrating. Providers of cross-border/transnational (higher) education (TNHE/TNE) make international degrees available to students overseas by offering 'electronic' programmes and moving institutions to other countries.⁷³ The role of TNHE is to bring education via different methods primarily to those who are unable to access international education at home, as well as serves as a tool to attract participants in international programmes to pursue additional international studies in provider countries.

Philip Altbach (2000: 5) argues that P & I mobility 'does not really contribute to the internationalisation of higher education worldwide' and that 'knowledge products are being sold across borders, but there is little mutual exchange of ideas, long-term scientific collaboration, exchange of students or faculty, and the like.'

To some extent his perspective holds some truth, given that the type of delivery determines how much P & I contributes to internationalisation. Between 2000 and 2002 my participation in a joint intense summer Masters programme in Education, with both foreign and local faculty, supports Altbachs' observation. Even though students were introduced to some of the classroom's newest 'best practice' and benefited from an international diploma, it was, in my view, the foreign faculty who gained an 'international' perspective from their field experience. Under the *in-county/flying faculty mode of delivery*, facilitators gained more from as many as 30 students in six weeks. In

⁷³ It is important to underscore, though understood, cross-border education has to cross national borders, therefore distance and online programmes provided nationally are not cross-border activities.

hindsight, the programme did not provide an ‘international’ perspective for local students and faculty, rather it were those professors from Canada and the United States who had the opportunity to observe students in their own cultural and social settings – totally uninhibited by their natural surroundings – that gained a wealth of knowledge to add to their international portfolio.

Currently there are cross-border/TNHE programmes, though maybe not an overwhelming number, that successfully address Altbach’s observation of the need to ensure mutual exchange of ideas and mobility of students and faculty, and are establishing long-term ‘regional’ and institutional scientific collaborations. From a European perspective, an Academic Cooperation Association (ACA, 2008) report highlights transnational higher education (research cooperation, brain gain and better access) as an integral part and a central tool in fulfilling the European higher education internationalisation objectives. At the time, cross-border/TNHE appeared not to have been at the core of the internationalisation debate in Europe due to the fact that little attention was given to its potential impact on both the European Commission’s Bologna Process and the Education and Training 2010 programme.

Data shows that a significant shift towards P & I mobility has been taking place as cross-border/TNHE activities in Europe, as well as the world at large, are augmenting rapidly. However, it does not indicate that transnational higher education has come to the core of the internationalisation debate, or national and regional policies. For exporters – the main ones being the Australia, France, Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States – the rationale behind promoting transnational programmes range from revenue to attracting the ‘best brains’. On the other hand, according to the Going Global 2013 Report, for importers the rationales include: building capacity of local universities and learn delivery and administrative skills from international partners; build the economy by stemming outflow of students and currency, and attract international students to their shores (as is the case of Malaysia); and ‘up-skilling’ a country’s large expatriate population by providing it increased access to higher education, such as in the United Arab Emirates (BC, 2013).

The Report apposite findings is further evidence of that countries are committed to providing international education for their post-secondary populace. Governments

committed to the task must, however, ensure their education policies and infrastructure are conducive to trade. Host countries with most favourable environment for cross-border/TNHE activities are Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and United Arab Emirates (UAE). In January 2013 the number of Hong Kong international programmes reached a total of 1,144 and Vietnamese's data, provided by the Ministry of Education, reveals that in 2011 the country hosted 179 international programmes, 60 more than the previous year. Spain was listed among the group of host countries with an average favourable environment, while Brazil, Mexico and Russian were listed among those with an environment below average (Ibid.).

Many P & I mobility activities are established through varied partnerships between providers (degree-awarding institution/country) and host institutions/countries. P & I mobility presents several variables that must be considered before stakeholders/investors may establish any form of delivery: whether distance and online learning, branch campuses, articulation/twinning, cooperative links, dual or double award/degree, joint award/degree, franchising and licensing, validation, in-country/flying faculty, foreign-backed institutions. These variables include the needs of the host country, modes of delivery, legal implications, financing, curriculum, profit, etc. The most popular P & I activities are carried out via virtual and long distance learning.

Terminologies Defined

While all international activities taking place in the education sector is referred to as cross-border education, the term transnational education at times speaks specifically to programmes and institutions crossing borders and not students. In fact, Jane Knight in 2005 noted that Australia is a pioneer in this area as it saw the need to distinguish between the two types of cross-border education – student mobility, and programme and institution mobility:

'Australia was one of the first countries to use the term 'transnational education' in the early nineties as it wanted to differentiate between international students recruited to Australian campuses and those who were studying for Australian degrees offshore. Hence, the term transnational education was used to simply describe offshore international student enrolments regardless of whether the offshore students were studying through twinning, franchise, distance or branch campus arrangements. It is interesting to note how the use of terms in Australia has evolved in such a way that

‘international education’ usually refers to foreign students studying in Australia and ‘transnational education’ refers to those studying offshore. In this conceptualisation of the term transnational, the focus is on where the student is studying.’ (Taken from Connelly et al., 2006: 7)

However, the ACA (2008) suggests that ‘cross-border provision’ and ‘collaborative provision’ in many cases are more accurate terms to describe transnational education activities. However, like ‘cross-border education’, neither terminology differentiates the fact that educational activities cross ‘national’ borders and not ‘intra-State’ borders. The term ‘transnational’ is widely accepted and many subscribe to the definition as:

‘All types of higher education study programmes (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the education system of a state different from the state in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national education system’.⁷⁴

Even though Knight acknowledges the term ‘transnational education’ to refer to P & I mobility, she apparently disputes that the above definition is limiting and gives the following counter-example, posing a question that underscores the lack of clarity that exists with the accepted UNESCO/Council of Europe transnational education definition:

‘It is unclear whether [definitions of transnational education] cover ‘new types’ of providers, especially those that establish a physical presence in the country and obtain permission from the receiving country to offer ‘recognized’ qualifications. In this scenario, the providers are clearly foreign ‘awarding’ providers, but they are not located in a different country than the student. Is this type of situation included in a definition of transnational education that is based on the student and awarding institution being situated in different locations?’ (Taken from Connelly et al. 2006: 8)

To further illustrate Knight’s point, Connelly et al. (2006) make reference to the Carnegie Mellon’s Heinz School Australia – a foreign higher education provider registered in Australia that offers US qualifications to local learners – that is accredited in Australia and therefore, in theory, is an arrangement that should not be characterised as transnational education.

Or, can it? Is it that transnational ‘higher’ education excludes foreign providers that are locally accredited? Is it the school of thought that local accreditation signifies transnational arrangements are no longer present and are therefore non-foreign? If that is

⁷⁴ Council of Europe (2002): Code of Good Practice in Provision of Transnational The OECD Guidelines (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/recognition/code%20of%20good%20practice_EN.asp), accessed on 18 September 2013.

the case, then the concern expressed is valid. Then again, it could be that an important factor is being overlooked by those who question its clarity. The definition provided by the UNESCO/Council of Europe states ‘...the learner is located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is located...’ may refer to the principal location (the home base) of the institution having to be located in another country and the subsidiary location is not the awarding institution, then. Either way, Knight’s raises a legitimate point as this arrangement would be classified as a ‘*foreign-backed institution*’ mode of delivery and, therefore, by definition is not ‘transnational’.

Considering that the prefix ‘*trans*’ contextually means ‘*across*’ or ‘*beyond*’ and the root word ‘nation’ denotes country, the single usage of the term ‘transnational education’ to refer to P & I mobility activities is aptly applied. On the other hand, the term ‘cross-border’ used to refer to international students is also inapplicable. The term suggests crossing national borders as well as interstate borders; that is, crossing province, parish, district, and county borders, and is therefore ambiguous because students who cross interstate borders are not ‘international students’, but rather they are ‘out of state’ students.

It is evident that lucid terminologies and meanings are needed to evaluate and document more accurately international education activities and their implications. Ideally, instead of *cross-border education*, the term *transnational education* should be affixed to all types of international education activities. Nonetheless, in keeping with established uses of the terminologies, and in an effort to eliminate confusion, higher education mobility terminologies may be re-classified into three broad categories: *cross-border type-one education* (CbEd-Type1), to refer to student mobility; *cross-border type-two education* (CbEd-Type 2) to refer to P & I mobility; and finally, *cross-border education* and *transnational education* should serve as generic terminologies when referring to both categories combined, thus covering the gamut of international education activities (Table 5.1). Hence, a more appropriate classification for TNE/TNHE (P & I) mobility would be *cross-border type-two education* (CbEd-Type2).

It is only in the last couple decades that interest in TNE has been given significant literature attention. This mobility is much newer than student mobility and, more than ever, it is expanding to embrace more and more an ‘open’ approach to delivering

international education. As aforementioned, it allows more individuals in the comfort of their home countries and even in their homes to pursue both accredited foreign degrees, as well as participate in certified and non-certified educational programmes that cross ‘national’ borders. In other words, CbEd-Type2 takes international education to ‘foreign’ students in their own country via several modes of delivery; while its counterpart CbEd-Type1 calls for foreign students to travel abroad in pursuit of an international education/degree, which is usually limited to face-to-face delivery.

Table 5.1 International education terminologies categorised

Classification	Descriptive terms
CbEd-Type1	Student mobility (long term and short term)
CbEd-Type2	Programme and institution (P & I) mobility, provider mobility, borderless education, offshore education,
CbEd/TNE	Cross-border education, transnational education, international education, comparative education, multi-cultural education

Source: Author

It is important to note that though most data tend to group P & I mobility as one distinct form of mobility, some data have treated the activities independent of each other; thus, programme mobility refers only the movement of programmes and institution mobility to the movement of institutions. However, whereas programme mobility does not include institution mobility, institution mobility inadvertently entails programme mobility, another contributing factor why data again may be skewed.

5.1 Modes of Delivery

Transnational education providers are active contributors to the development of higher education systems worldwide. Many countries help meet their demand for higher education through any of the several modes of delivery available today. The challenge is distinguishing one mode from the other in order to document indicating trends.

According to Nigel Healey (2012), in a research conducted by Nottingham Trent University (UK), the four GATS modes⁷⁵ used to categorise transnational education delivery modes are ‘blurred’, and classifies three variations as: ‘*blended*’ (Modes 1 & 4); ‘*2 + 1*’ (Modes 2 & 3), and *international branch campus* ‘IBC’ (Modes 3 & 4). These variations include all traditional modes of delivery, but they do not include other emerging variations of cross-border education. For example, the ‘blended’ mode should not be limited to Modes 1 & 4. Quintessential is the case of Jungyuen Choi, a South Korean student who matriculated in a two-year joint Master’s in English programme between Andrews University (Michigan, United States) and the *Istituto Avventista di Cultura Biblica* (Villa Aurora, Italy). Choi, whose sole purpose was to carry out her studies in Italy, by definition, was an international student (Mode 2). Hence, other modes of delivery, including programme mobility (Modes 3), also occur under ‘*blended*’. This indicates there other variations – (Modes 2, 3 and 4), (Modes 1, 2 & 3) and (Modes 1, 2, 3 & 4) – of cross-border modes of activities.

There is no statistics available indicating what percentage of the various ‘mixed approaches’ is represented in cross-border higher education. This ‘dual membership’ to both CbEd-Type1 and CbEd-Type2 skews the data of actual number of students participating in global cross-border/transnational education.

The matter of finance in respect to the delivery modes/instruments of international higher education abroad is central to the success of P & I mobility. Financing is usually calculated based on real cost (physical structure, staff/faculty, time, etc) of programmes to providers and students, and thus requires much financial consideration. For example, Table 5.2 shows offshore campus for German institutions is the most costly mode of delivery, while franchising appears the most economical. In many cases fees adapt to local economic conditions of host country and usually depend on the mode of delivery being used.

⁷⁵ Mode1(Cross-border supply), Mode 2 (Consumption abroad), Mode 3 (Commercial presence), and Mode 4 (Presence of natural persons).

Table 5.2 Major delivery modes and Investment in Germany

Instruments	Investment costs	
	<i>Financial</i>	<i>Staff time</i>
Offshore campus	€€€	€€€
Franchising degrees	€	€€
Distance learning	€€	€€
Direct recruitment*	€ - €€€	€ - €€€

* A wide range is possible depending on the sub-instrument used and the intensity of the activities
 €€€ = high investment, €€ = medium level investment, € = low investment
 Source: Adapted from Brandenburg et al. (2008)

A source of finance is industry sponsorships, whereby countries like Germany which have industries established in the host countries opt to sponsor transnational programmes to ensure qualified employees are readily available to work in their establishments. According to ACA findings (2008, 229), other means of financing transnational higher education include students themselves, which are often the main source, even though in some cases local students in host countries pay half the fees paid by students in the awarding country. A third method of financing is the granting of facility/land (sometimes free of cost) by host country government or local company to foreign provider.

Cross-border education has been evolving as a result of perennial global economic competition, which has taken on new approaches that call for innovative strategic planning and new modes of delivery. As previously stated, transnational higher education is one such strategy that presents several delivery modes capable of answering the call of students who prefer to pursue a foreign degree at home because a) local programmes are limited, or b) they desire a foreign degree that does not require of them to go abroad. In most cases, partnership is an integral part of TNHE establishments.

Partnerships are established by public and private organisations. Different types of partnerships take on one of three roles, be it ‘academic’ (a local higher education/postsecondary education institutions), ‘operational’ (a private company or a less prestigious local institution), or ‘funder with partner status’ (an investment company – international or local). Partnerships must consider the mode of delivery, the objectives

of the awarding institutions and the host country's regulations. The lead destinations for higher education are also the most active exporters of higher education in the form of programme and institution mobility (CbEd-Type2).

Various Good Practice Models⁷⁶ have been developed by several degree-awarding and host countries. Table 5.3 is the Swinburne⁷⁷ (Australia) conceptual framework for transnational education guidelines. The framework presents four areas – strategic guidelines, client perspective guidelines, academic guidelines and administration guidelines – that must be examined to achieve the objectives of a successful TNHE programme. The 'guidelines' consider how to develop, manage, deliver and evaluate such programmes.

Table 5.3: Good Practice Model for Transnational Education

Strategic Guidelines	Client Perspective Guidelines
Policy Framework (e.g. Internationalisation Plan) Quality Assurance Strategy Decision Making Process Partner Selection Strategy Education Plan Business Development Process	Client Needs – Information for Students Student Experience Planning Consumer Protection including Exit Strategy Client Feedback Equity Issues
Academic Guidelines	Administration Guidelines
Comparable Standards Sound Pedagogy Approval and Accreditation Process Equitable and Ethical Treatment of Students Assessment Infrastructure and Procedures Academic Staff Support Awards – Quality and Control	Project Management Partner Institution Student Administration Procedures Marketing Guidelines Financial Administration Quality Assurance System Annual Review

Source: AVCC Project carried out by Connelly and Garton (2005).

⁷⁶ INQAAHE Guidelines of Good Practice in Quality Assurance, Standard and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education, and the UNESCO/OECD Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education and three of the more prominent external quality assurance guidelines consulted by governments and institutions globally.

⁷⁷ The Good Practice Model was created by the Australian institution to address the challenges in the country and reflects the elements of the good practices of the OECD/UNESCO. (See Annex B)

Terminologies of delivery modes defined:

There are several delivery modes in TNHE and, as indicated in Table 5.2, some modes of delivery are more costly than others irrespective of the exporter and the importer. Choice of delivery mode must consider real cost and effectiveness. The last decade has seen significant evolvement of TNHE programmes, and improved documentation of these activities has indicated that transnational education strategies at the national level are still absent in most countries and not enough at the institutional level. In Europe the UK seems to lead in the 21st century in its approach to developing transnational higher education strategies and quality programmes.

In order to fully or better grasp the concept of internationalisation of higher education, defining and redefining concepts, contexts, and terminologies is imperative. For example, in the case of transnational education, the term ‘awarding institution’ refers to an institution that grants the degree; ‘awarding country’ refers to the country of the awarding institution, while ‘host country’ is the country to which the exported service (programme/institution) is located, which in fact can also be a ‘co-awarding’ institution/country.

It is also important to point out the difference between transnational education and transnational arrangements as they should not be used interchangeably. In essence, transnational education is educational activities crossing national borders, whereas the various modes of delivery and partnerships formed in TNE services are classified as transnational arrangements. Accordingly, a transnational arrangement is:

‘an educational, legal, financial or other arrangement leading to the establishment of (a) collaborative arrangements, such as: franchising, twinning, joint degrees, whereby study programmes, or parts of a course of study, or other educational services of the awarding institution are provided by another partner institution; (b) non-collaborative arrangements, such as branch campuses, offshore institutions, corporate or international institutions, whereby study programmes, or parts of a course of study, or other educational services are provided directly by an awarding institution’.⁷⁸

⁷⁸ Council of Europe (2002): Code of Good Practice in Provision of Transnational The OECD Guidelines (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/recognition/code%20of%20good%20practice_EN.asp), accessed on 18 September 2013.

Initial distance learning programmes were delivered through regular mail, but today they are executed online, and typically do not have academic partners in destination countries. Since funders are not directly involved in the delivery of programmes they are not considered partners, but providers.

As new modes of delivery are established the more blur they become. The following general classification of different delivery modes illustrate how blurry the ‘blended learning’ approach has become (ACA, 2008), and that delivery options are confusing (CLARK, 2012).

- *Articulation or Twinning* consists of the provider (an awarding institution) partnering with a local institution that has equivalent programmes to offer students, and require students to carry out from one to three years of studies at either one of the institutions.
- *Branch campus* entails mirroring the awarding institution as far as possible or sending faculty abroad to duplicate its offerings. In the case of collaboration branch campus may take on different forms such as joint degree.
- *Cooperative links* bring about collaboration with local entities which results in less competition with local provider and encourages sustainability of programmes.
- *Distance and online learning* traditionally allows for remote studies of programmes offered by the awarding institution via paper (mailing), internet (online conferences, video streaming, etc). However, more and more ‘support distance learning’ in the form of face-to-face instruction (overseas instructors, local instructors or a combination of both) is being incorporated.
- *Dual or double award/degree* is having both partners awarding a degree. Specifications are outlined as to how each partner will contribute to the programme and each applies its own process.
- *Foreign-backed institutions* are integrated into the local education system and award local degrees and, therefore, technically are not considered and do not conform to transnational education.
- *Franchising or licensing* entails a foreign partner duplicating the delivery of programmes of the awarding institution, including its quality assurance process.

The franchisee may be a recognised or non-recognised HEI, non higher education institution or a company. In the past this was a more common form of delivery.

- *In-country/flying faculty* simply means that faculty from the awarding institution deliver classes during intensive time blocks at a given location. It is sometimes combined with other modes such as distance learning, branch campuses, joint degrees, and others.
- *Joint award/degree* programme is carried out by two or more higher education institutions establishing, among other things, the model of delivery, assessment regulations, award ceremony, fees, and where each partner is expected to have equal say.
- *Validation* consists of a local institution that develops and delivers a complete programme which is then evaluated for quality assurance by an international institution (awarding institution) that requires a given standard that warrants granting its degree.

While there are other variations to the classifications of the delivery modes, Jane Knight's inclusion of countries helps bring about clearer understanding, and the UNESCO IIEP (2011: 8-9) further explains them by categorising them into two typologies: provider mobility and programme mobility (Table 5. 4a and Table 5.4b).

Massive Online Open Courses

Quintessential of distance and online programmes are 'massive online open courses' (MOOCs)⁷⁹ and 'open educational resources' (OERs), which are free online courses offered by universities or independent groups. Though 'openness in education' dates back to the early 20th century (PETERS, 2008), its latest evolutionary phase (Figure 5.1) in 2000 has brought it to the centre of the higher education dialogue. MOOCs are offered by universities in many countries. President of Stanford University, John Hennessey, described the phenomenon of MOOCs as a 'tsunami' to revolutionise higher education, but others only view the phenomenon as having created tremendous

⁷⁹The first of its kind; Conectivism and Connective Knowledge (CCK08) was created by Canadian scholars George Siemens and Stephen Downes in 2008; however, the acronym 'MOOC' was coined by Dave Cormier.

expectations that have been difficult to realise and thus have not brought about all the intended objectives. Albert Sangrà Morer (2013)⁸⁰ in his blog underscored a pointed concern addressed at a recent conference in respect to students who participate in distance and online education. Morer suggests that MOOC programmes impact students negatively, in that students invariably experience a sense of loneliness, thus resulting in 80 to 95 percent of them abandoning their MOOC studies due to unsatisfactory experience.

Table 5.4a: Typology of cross-border provider mobility

Category	Description of form/type of mobility
Branch campus	Provider in country A establishes a satellite campus in Country B to deliver courses and programmes to students in Country B (may also include Country A students taking a semester/courses abroad). The qualification awarded is from provider in Country A
Independent institution	Foreign provider A (a traditional university, a commercial company or alliance/network) establishes in Country B a standalone HEI to offer courses/programmes and awards.
Acquisition/ Merger	Foreign provider A purchases a part of or 100% of local HEI in Country B
Study centre/ Teaching site	Foreign Provider A establishes study centers in Country B to support students taking their courses/programmes. Study centres can be independent or in collaboration with local providers in Country B
Affiliation/ Networks	Different types of ‘public and private’, ‘traditional and new’ providers from various countries collaborate through innovative types of partnerships to establish networks/institutions to deliver courses and programmes in local and foreign countries through distance or face-to face modes.
Virtual University	Provider that delivers credit courses and degree programmes to students in different countries through distance education modes and that generally does not have face-to-face support services for students.

⁸⁰ Is director of the eLearn Centre of the Universitat Oberta de Catalunya (UOC), vice-president of the European Foundation for Quality in Learning (EFQUEL) and a blogger on the online newspaper *El País*.

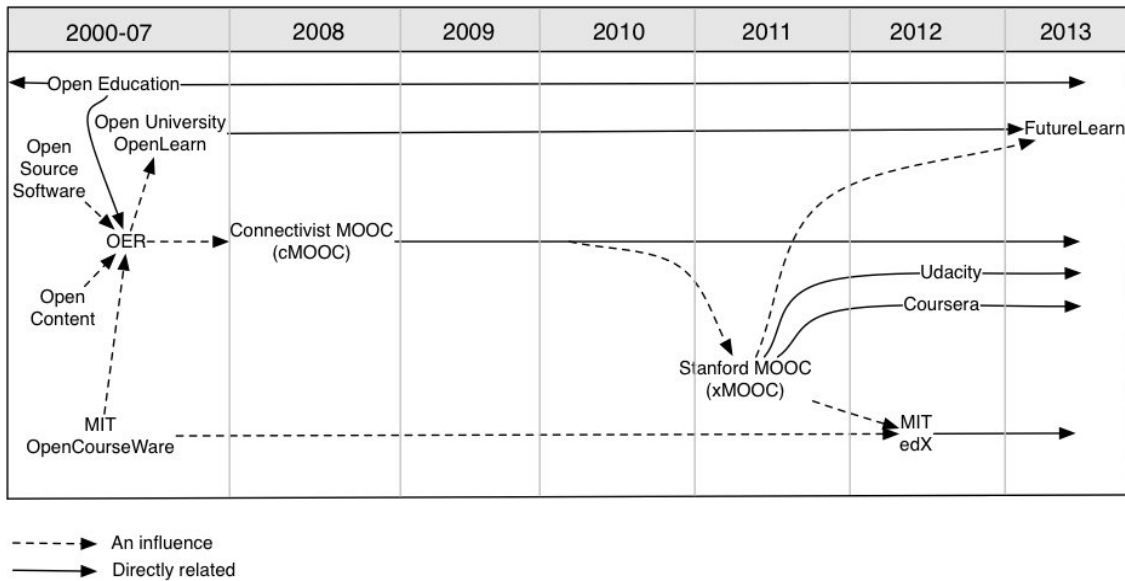
Table 5.4b Typology of cross-border programme mobility

Category	Description of form/types of mobility
Franchise	An arrangement whereby a provider in the source Country A authorizes a provider in another Country B to deliver their course/programme/service in Country B or other countries. The qualification is awarded by a provider in Country A. This is usually a for-profit commercial arrangement
Twinning	A situation whereby a provider in source Country A collaborates with a provider located in Country B to develop an articulation system allowing students to take course credits in Country B and/or source Country A. Only one qualification is awarded by the provider in the source country. This may or may not be on a commercial basis.
Double/Joint degree	An arrangement whereby providers in different countries collaborate to offer a programme for which a student receives a qualification from each provider or a joint award from the collaborating providers. Normally this is based on academic exchange
Articulation	Various types of articulation arrangements between providers in different countries permit students to gain credit for courses/programmes offered/delivered by collaborating providers.
Validation	Validation arrangements between providers in different countries which allow Provider B in receiving country to award qualification of Provider A in source country.
Virtual/Distance	Arrangements where providers deliver courses/programmes to students in different countries through distance and online modes. May include some face-to-face support for students through domestic study or support centres.

Source: UNESCO IIEP (2011)

The year 2012 was deemed the year of the MOOC (MORRISON, 2013), but a year later it was viewed by some as the year of the anti-MOOC. In spite of the negative views, Morer (2013.) believes that there are some successful MOOC programmes, but also sees the need for more active involvement on the part of professors, who are more facilitators, motivating students throughout the programme and not leaving the majority of teaching to be controlled by student peers. Of course, greater tutorial involvement may attract a cost, which is usually not associated with the principles of MOOCs.

Figure 5.1: MOOCs and Open Education Timeline



Source: Yuan and Powell, 2013

Yuan and Powell (2013) believe there is some alarm within the higher education sector due to the rapid expansion of MOOCs that demonstrates the potential to disrupt the higher education system. While MOOCs and ‘think tanks’ are believed to pose a real threat to smaller higher education institutions, as MOOC advocates continue the drive for what may be the almost extinction of conventional higher education institutions (KATSOMITROS, 2013), such alarm is not warranted. Sebastian Thrun, founder of UDACITY⁸¹, is one of those persons who want ‘brick and mortar’ HEIs to diminish in numbers to a minimum – 10 universities by 2060 (THE ECONOMIST, 2012).

The likelihood that conventional HEIs will be displaced is doubtful. MOOCs in their varied forms, for all intended purposes, serve as an excellent platform for continuing education and do not provide the same solidarity afforded bricks and mortar institutions; for now they do not award degrees, and quality assurance is ‘opaque’, thus they do not pose an imminent threat. Even with the added element, whereby students may ‘opt in and opt out’ as needed, as well as receive credit for courses if they wish, it is still not a threat to conventional institutions.

⁸¹ The philosophy of UDACITY gives credence to higher education being a human right. <https://www.udacity.com/us>

Earning credit for open online courses is becoming more attractive to students worldwide. Learning4Content (L4C)⁸² and OERs, for example, advocate the granting of formal academic credit for their on-line courses and therefore aim to provide flexible programmes. More varied forms of MOOCs include; the micro online open courses (mOOC), in essence it is defined as a subcomponent of a university, polytechnic or community college courses; cMOOCs philosophy, which is rooted in Connectivism and the work of Ivan Illich – Illich was a sharp critic of institutionalised education, and in 1970 proposed to establish “learning webs” by using new technology – and xMOOC which relies more on video presentations. These two pillars of MOOCs are explained by Debbie. Morrison (2013):⁸³

- the ‘c’ stands for connectivity and ‘emphasises creation, creativity, autonomy and social networking learning’ and ‘focuses on knowledge creation and generation.’
- the ‘x’ ‘emphasises a more traditional learning approach through video presentations and short quizzes and testing’ and ‘focus on knowledge duplication.’

Yuan and Powell’s (2013) present four important features of MOOCs that must not be overlooked, but must to be considered when evaluating their potential threat to traditional universities: profit, access, certification and credits (Table 5.5). In general, access is free or partially free, some programmes are for profit, certification fees are required by most, and institutional credits may be becoming more of an option for students. The sustainability of these programmes will be a deciding factor as to whether or not they bear a real threat to brick-and-mortar institutions.

⁸² This programme was introduced as the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) - Wiki-Educator community in 2007. It is supported by the COL and the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation. L4C may be the largest free wiki skills training effort in the world. Its objective is found in its philosophy statement: ‘Tell me and I’ll forget, show me and I may not remember, involve me, and I’ll understand.’ http://www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/L4C_brochure_web.pdf

⁸³ MORRISON, D. (2013): The Ultimate Student Guide to xMOOCs and cMOOCs. MOOC News & Reviews (<http://mooconewsandreviews.com/ultimate-guide-to-xmoocs-and-cmoocs/>), accessed on 7 September 2013.

Table 5.5: Comparison of key aspects of MOOCs or Open Education Initiatives

Initiatives	For profit	Free to access	Certification fee	Institutional credits
eDX	x	✓	✓	x
Coursera	✓	✓	✓	x ✓
Udacity	✓	✓	✓	x ✓
Udemy	✓	x ✓	✓	x ✓
P2PU	x	✓	x	x

Key

- x Not a feature
- ✓ Feature present
- x ✓ Features partially present

Even though MOOCs also offer for credit programmes they require payment for certification, but not for registration; its principle of ‘freeness’ is similar to that of OERs. According to UNESCO, OERs

‘are any type of educational materials that are in the public domain or introduced with an open license. The nature of these open materials means that anyone can legally and freely copy, use, adapt and re-share them. OERs range from textbooks to curricula, syllabi, lecture notes, assignments, tests, projects, audio, video and animation.’⁸⁴

Some of the most notable OERs include Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) OpenCourseWare, the vision for a Health OER Network in Africa (an initiative started by health and science experts across Africa), and the World Bank’s Open Knowledge Repository. The UNESCO (2012b) has also established a policy framework for OERs worldwide known as the ‘Paris Declaration’ which references previous declarations and statements that advocate education as a human right. A more blended online learning approach is emerging that ‘develops culturally, linguistically and pedagogically – useful in different languages, cultural context and educational settings’ (MA et al., 2013).

The most recognised institutions providing MOOC services since its inception include MOOCs programmes from the United States: Coursera (over 4,360,800 students and growing by the minute, 423 courses, and 84 partnerships), MIT and Harvard’s edX,

⁸⁴UNESCO (2013b): What are Open Educational Resources? (<http://www.unesco.org/new/en/communication-and-information/access-to-knowledge/open-educational-resources/what-are-open-educational-resources-oers/>), accessed on 6 June 2013.

UDACITY, UDEMY; FutureLearn from the United Kingdom; UNED COMA and UPVX of Spain; Open2Study of Australia; *Université Numerique* of France; and *iversity* of Germany. The WideWorldEd is Canada's MOOC initiative not yet established like the other.

Figures 5.2 and 5.3 below are new open learning models proposed by Designing Learning for the 21st Century (DL21C)⁸⁵ which illustrate options for traditional university students and self-learners to pursue tertiary studies for either credit or non-credit courses. In Figure 5.2 higher education in this model is more accessible, economical, and flexible for Chinese domestic students who register with the UK institution and have access to a UK educational experience via online, as well as a face-to-face interaction with Chinese local facilitators. Figure 5.3 indicates an increase in 'pay as you go support' and a combination of various delivery modes making higher learning accessible and accommodating of students' needs.

In spite the exponential use of online courses, the second diagram presents the great responsibility academic institutions will continue to have in providing students with quality education (resources and recognition - accreditation, assessment, and award).

In respect to branch campus, the delivery mode is a great option for students who may be technologically intimidated but want to benefit more from an international curriculum at home, or those who simply have a preference for face-to-face course delivery. Specifically, branch campus is beneficial to the internationalisation of higher education for several reasons. Branch campuses allow greater access to students who prefer face- to face delivery and would not have otherwise had the opportunity to pursue international studies abroad (WILKINS & BALAKRISHNAN, 2012). Besides, it is convenient and provides country-specific advantages in that it minimises expenses for students staying at home, and for some, it allows continuous religious and cultural observances hassle-free.

⁸⁵ It is not 'massive', but has the elements to be developed into one if collaborative efforts are made by the various pertinent actors. The DL21C model which is an online course developed by collaboration between a UK and Chinese University to explore new approaches for open learning courses. <http://elearningeuropa.info/sites/default/files/asset/New%20approaches%20towards%20MOOCs%20.pdf>

Figure 5.2: The New Open Learning Model A

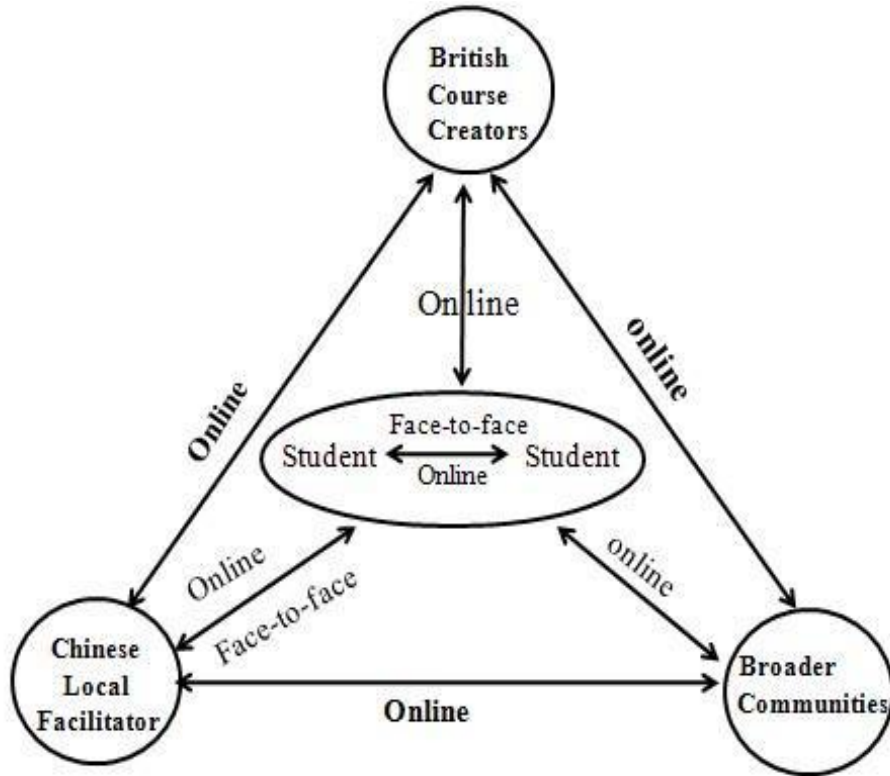
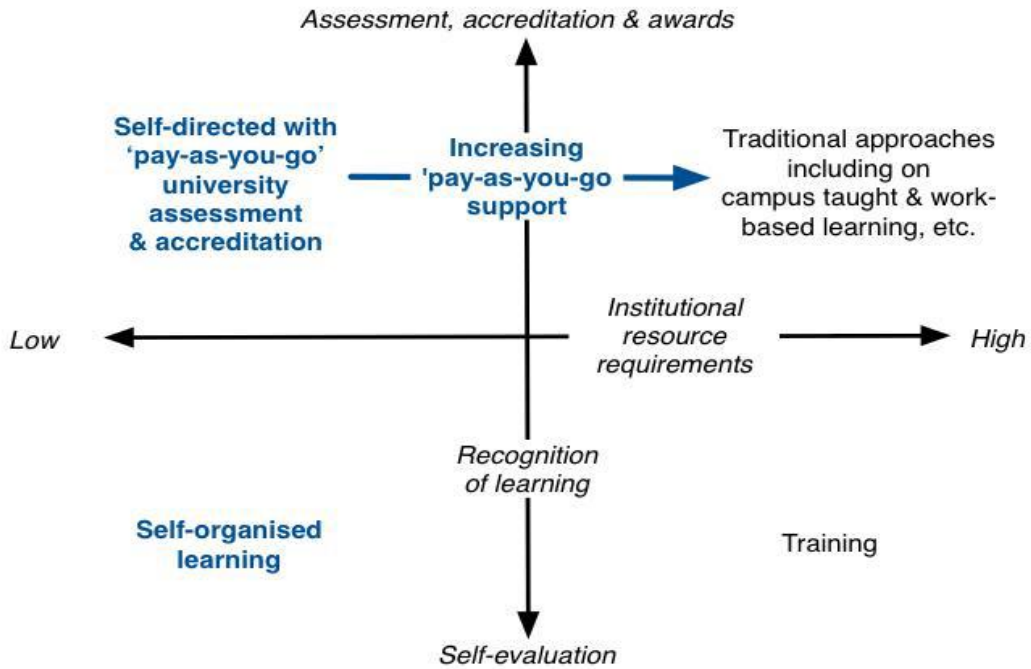


Figure 5.3: The New Open Learning Model B



Another important benefit is the increased prospects students have in their local labour market given that branch campuses tend to offer professional subjects that are relatively low-cost to deliver – business, management, and computer science/information technology – and allow many students entrepreneurial opportunities, or to establish careers in local industries. Furthermore, unlike previous years when on-campus living accommodation was lacking and library resources were insufficient, more and more branch campuses today offer these amenities, working towards making students' experience more comparable or equivalent to those matriculated at the parent institution. Thus, though insufficient research has been carried out in this area, student satisfaction with branch campus services/products is said to be generally high, especially for branch campuses, such as New York University Abu Dhabi and Paris-Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi, which are fully financed by the host government.

A 2012 research carried out by the University of Wollongong in Dubai (Research Online) in respect to students' satisfaction with their experience at an international branch campus in the United Arab Emirates shows that 65.6 percent of students regarded the programme as value for money, 72 percent pleased with university choice, and 67.3 percent would recommend university to friends (WILKINS & BALAKRISHNAN, 2012).

According to the OBHE (2006)⁸⁶ there are three basic models of branch campuses: Model A represents those wholly-funded institutions (37%) that are solely funded by the home institution. Examples include the University of Phoenix in Canada, and the Alliant International University in Mexico. Model B represents those institution that are externally funded (35%) by either government funds (central/regional) or private companies or other organisations in host or home country, examples include the University of Nottingham (UK) in Ningbo, China, and Swinburne University (Aus) in Sarawak, Malaysia. The third group is the newest model and is gaining more popularity. Model C represents institutions that are provided (rented) facilities to establish themselves and thus reduce the start-up funds required, examples in this group include

⁸⁶ Excerpt from the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education Report Line Verbik (2006) on 'International Branch Campus: Models and Trends' and was presented at the December 2006 Going Global session, 'International Branch Campuses. Does reality fit the models?'
British Council <http://ihe.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/import-content/gg2-line-verbik-paper.pdf>
(<http://www.obhe.ac.uk/products/reports/>)

the Knowledge Village in Dubai and the United Arab Emirates and Education City in Qatar. Jane Lane and Kevin Kinser (2013), however, have now identified five models (wholly owned by host campus; owned by the local government; owned by a private partner/investors; rented from a private party, and owned by an educational/academic partner), which essentially are included in the three OBHE broad models.

Most data show a steady increase in the number of awarding international branch campuses (IBCs): in 2006 a reported 82 were established worldwide, in 2009 the number doubled to 162 (HOMAYOUNPOUR, 2012), and by the end of 2011 the number stood at 200, a 23 percent increase, and 37 new IBCs were expected to open by the end of 2013 (CLARK, 2012; HOMAYOUNPOUR, 2012; LAWTON & KATSOMOTROS, 2012). However, recent data provided by Global Higher Education suggests otherwise, listing a total of 188 IBCs with 18 reportedly closed, the most recent being DeVry University Canada closed earlier this year.⁸⁷

What these numbers reveal is that growth is evident. C. Homayounpour (2012) highlights trends in IBCs shifting from the Middle East, specifically the United Arab Emirates that hosts the largest number of branch campuses in Asia, with China now leading as top host, followed by Singapore, Malaysia and South Korea. In addition, competition for the United States is growing as France and the UK are establishing IBCs at a much faster rate, and an increase in ‘South-South’ IBCs that are described as non-traditional providers from India, Malaysia and Iran now represent 20 percent of all new IBCs; for example, the Islamic Azad University from Iran have campuses in five countries (Afghanistan, Armenia, Lebanon, Tanzania and Dubai), while Malaysian and Chinese universities are expanding in the African region ‘in a big way’; and, a move towards more joint ownerships and less of the traditional fully owned and operated ‘stand alone model’.

Within the spectrum of the delivery modes that have been identified to date, Sajitha Bashir (2007) estimated 2000 programmes were offered through various modes of delivery. Large transnational education projects are said to require up to ten years to break-even (HOMAYOUNPOUR, 2012).

⁸⁷ List of IBCs available at <http://www.globalhighered.org/branchcampuses.php>

Quality Assurance in TNE

Whereas quality assurance in student mobility remains a concern, in transnational education it is of much greater concern, and rightly so. Quality assurance in TNE is a difficult concept to capture given there is no single definition of quality assurance internationally and no parameters by which to measure it (ACA, 2008), thus making some of its elements (quality control and assessment) and its outcome (student learning) opaque (CLARK, 2012). In the UK the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) for Higher Education has the national responsibility of overseeing quality higher education and provides specific guidelines for standards and auditing the TNE market;⁸⁸ it provides a simple definition of quality assurance as being ‘the means through which an institution ensures and confirms that the conditions are in place for students to achieve the standards set by it or by another awarding body’ (QAA, 2010: 83). At the regional level, the European Foundation for Quality in e-Learning is the agency that has been ensuring that quality is looked at in the European region (EFQUEL, 2013).

Robin Middlehurst and Carolyn Campbell (2003: 3) expounds on quality assurance and its role as being ‘an important part of academic professionalism’. It is considered:

‘a key mechanism for building institutional reputation or brand in a competitive local and global arena and a necessary foundation for consumer protection.’ It is considered ‘part of the armoury used by governments to increase, widen or control participation in the face of rising demand for higher education and it is central to current debates about higher education as a public good or tradable commodity.’ (Ibid)

In fact, quality assurance is fundamental to the security of qualifications and the mobility of professionals:

‘Without effective and appropriate quality assurance policies and practices, aspirations towards knowledge economies, lifelong learning, community development and social inclusion cannot be fully realised. It is for these reasons that quality assurance is receiving increasing attention at all levels.’ (Ibid)

There is some concern about the *dual/double award degree* and *joint degree* programmes that are offered by many universities in lead countries, especially European, Latin America and the United States. The ‘Evaluate-E Project’ presented by Giancarlo

⁸⁸ Section 2 of the QAA’s Code of Practice for the Assurance of Academic Quality and Standards in Higher Education. It was first published in 1999 and updated in 2010.

Spinelli (2012) at the AIEA Conference addressed the ‘valued added’ element of these programmes. The assumption is that these programmes guarantee better employability opportunities in the international labour market. However, according to Spinelli, there is no hard evidence indicating that a dual and joint degree, which is usually longer and more expensive, graduate better prepared students than those who have completed a conventional single degree. Double/joint degree programmes have been around for more than two decades and were initially part of elite programmes. A prime example of such programmes is the T.I.M.E. Association (Top Industrial Managers for Europe), which was established in 1989 and now currently has approximately 53 top university members and 3,500 graduates (T.I.M.E, 2011).

In fact, almost all European universities offer double award and/or joint degrees, but the fact that the same workload of both these modes, in some cases, delivery is the same as a single degree and have semblance of the horizontal mobility Erasmus programme. At the regional level, European countries tend to offer more double and joint degrees, and this form of transnational education is geared towards a more cooperative approach that sustains higher education programmes abroad instead of the traditionally market-oriented approach, which is motivated by financial interest more than academic/institution cooperation (ACA, 2008).

Articulation/twinning and *franchising/licensing* are distinct forms of delivery as they allow for local institutions to establish partnerships with several foreign institutions from different countries; thus, augmenting course options for students in importing countries. Since the early 1980s Malaysia has imported such programmes saving students between USD 25, 000 to USD 41, 600 for their full ‘international’ studies. Except for Spain, all other six countries being compared have a significant presence in Malaysia.⁸⁹

In-country/flying faculty has been around for decades and is one way higher education exporters may guarantee quality programmes remain comparable to those offered at home institutions. As stated before, fly-in fly-out faculty benefit more than the students in importing countries, but it is also a challenge for flying faculty as they have to adapt quickly to cultural diversity, face academic challenges such as

⁸⁹ Studymalaysia.com: Private Education Route for Bachelor’s Degree Programmes and Professional Qualification (http://www.studymalaysia.com/education/art_education.php?id=chap7), accessed on 15 September 2013.

language/communication barriers, and manage an increased workload. Even with the challenges, flying faculty, as previously stated, ‘are undoubtedly the beneficiaries of transnational education in terms of both professional and personal development’.⁹⁰

Validation programmes are popular, but like all other transnational higher education modes of delivery, the matter of quality is a concern. According Jack Grove (2013) the QAA found serious flaws in some validation programmes such as Anglia Ruskin and Loughborough University. Major flaws include inadequate external check to ensure quality of courses and academic standards – a lack of proper scrutiny of module or degree programmes.

Corporate universities are certainly nothing new. As far back as the 19th century corporations in the United States began offering training programmes to their employees, but it was in the early 1980s that the term was introduced in business and management literature (PANTON AND TAYLOR, 2002a). These programmes are customised, independent of national programmes and play three significant roles: competitor, co-existing hybrid institutions, and collaborators. Early noted pioneers of ‘corporate’ universities include Motorola, McDonald and Disney. Some even suggest that decades later some corporate universities have now surpassed expectations and have become more ‘university-like’ (PANTON & TAYLOR, 2002b). Even so, corporate universities are not seen as competing with traditional universities. On the contrary, they are seen as debasing ‘the idea of university’ (ARONOWITZ, 2002; CRAIG et al., 1999).

The OBHE Report (PANTON & TAYLOR, 2002a) highlights four phases of ‘corporate universities’: initially it began with companies offering job-related skills training; then it took on the role filling the gap that ‘compulsory state education’ did not provide; thirdly, the practical element was added which is referred to as ‘boot camps’; and finally, the last decade has seen an approach to ‘competitive advantage’ by creating learning organisations (LO) that provide contemporary ‘significant innovation in organisational practice in a wider societal context’.

Observers of this phenomenon such as S. Aronowitz (2002) have distinguished between corporations offering courses to enhance employees’ skills and universities that

⁹⁰ SMITH, K. (2012): Flying faculty teaching – who benefits? In University News Network (<http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120307143954219>), accessed on 16 July 2013.

have established research ties with corporations, which are known as ‘corporatised’ universities. Examples of corporations offering courses in Europe include the British Aerospace Virtual University, the Daimler-Benz corporation university and the Lufthansa Business School. Corporate universities are on the rise and companies such as Price Waterhouse Coopers and CorpU contribute to the growth. In 2002 there were over 2000 such initiatives to help improve corporate university establishments (PANTON & TAYLOR, 2002a).

Today, corporate universities such as those mentioned embrace the use of online and distance education approaches, but challenges such as cost to companies, programmes not being fully accepted and valued as those of traditional institutions, and the ‘moving on’ of employees may result in many corporate universities discontinuing programmes or resorting to providing basic training services.

A dearth of reliable data makes this part of the comparative studies incomplete. Back in 2008 the ACA found that:

‘because of a lack of transnational education data at national level in individual countries, a full picture is almost impossible to achieve. Virtually no European country has a central register of transnational education programmes and there is overall little or no data available on numbers of institutions or students involved in such education provision. Partial databases are available where most programmes receive regular or start-up funding from the home country government (e.g. Germany), but elsewhere data is either not available or gathered via specific surveys (e.g. for Italy by the local ENIC/NARIC).’ p. 23

However, though still insufficient, since 2005 the United Kingdom and Australia have taken steps to establish strategic guidelines that will, among other things, regulate activities and ensure quality assurance of transnational education programmes (TNEP).

Many students, if it were not for certain constraints, would prefer studying abroad than staying put in their home country. The core reasons more and more students opt for TNEP remain constant: a flexible learning path (often distance or online); the lower costs involved, family, and employment constraints (ACA, 2008).

Overall documentation on national TNHE activities may be increasing, but still not documented and published at a comparable rate as it is of student mobility. With the exception of the United Kingdom, transnational education in Europe was a marginal phenomenon, but the Bologna Process has since brought it to the core objectives of

developing a European academic area or the European brand (ACA, 2008). Examples of such efforts include the European Higher Education in a Global Setting strategy and the European Commission's Erasmus Mundus Global Promotion Project (GPP).

At the regional level, Asia has been the top importer of transnational higher education: East Asia had over 2000 TNEPs, the majority hosted by China, and were twinning and franchised/validated partnerships; South East Asia had over 150 with India hosting over 100 TNEPs; Latin America and the Caribbean hosted over 200, the majority being in the Caribbean; and Sub-Saharan Africa hosting over 60 transnational education programmes (BASHIR, 2007).

Given that Europe and North America are the principal suppliers to all other regions, their participation in TNHE activities as importers is underreported. Nonetheless, it may be deduced that they facilitate 'North-North' partnerships within the region and countries within each region. For example, the University of Valencia offers double degree programmes in International Business, at the graduate level, and a Bachelors of Science in Business Administration jointly with the University of North Carolina at Wilmington and other universities within Europe.

5.2 Lead countries' programme and institution mobility activities

Main exporters of transnational education are the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia. Other competing countries include Germany and France, as well as emerging competitors such as China and India. Given the paucity of data, only an overview of TNHE policies is presented, which highlights mere perspective on lead countries' transnational higher education activities:

Australia

Even though Australia has distinguished between the terms transnational education and cross-border education, it has not been able to differentiate between their onshore and offshore activities; Australia's definition does not include distance education, therefore, puts Australia 'out of step' with the rest of the world and thereby creating potential loopholes (CONNELLY et al., 2006). The ACA (2008) views this exclusion as prohibitive of distance education becoming an integral part of TNHE.

With over 20 years of experience, Australia offered an estimated 1,600 offshore (higher) education programmes in 2006 and 60,000 registered students (ACA, 2008). Table 5.6 outlines the Australian transnational education logistics showing the importance of offshore education to the government. In 2010 approximately 104, 678 (one-third) of international students matriculated in offshore programmes, 76,446 studied on campus and 28,232 through distance learning (Clark, 2012)⁹¹. In 2011 the offshore campus number increased to 80,000 while the vocational education and training (VET) programmes numbers totalled 65,000 (AEI, 2013; AUSTRADE, 2013).

Table 5.6: Australia Transnational Education Logistics Table

Project Initiation	Project Management	Project Review
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic assessment of proposed partnership • QA strategy integrated into planning • Provider policy and QA meet Australian regulatory requirements • Partner institution profile and background reports • Site visit • Education plan • Accreditation and approvals • Programme delivery model • Curriculum planning • Business plans in place • Market and competitor analysis undertaken • Due diligence undertaken • Risk management procedures • Contract negotiated • Third Party agreement with agents/brokers • Exit strategy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provider institution • Management arrangements • Curriculum in place • Project Management Manual distributed • Marketing guidelines issued to partner • Staffing arrangements • Staff development briefing sessions • Occupational Health and Safety issues • Student administration • Student information • Partner manual Partner institution • Management arrangements • Staffing arrangements • Student administration • Staff development briefing sessions • Course accreditation confirmed • Student support in place 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annual reviews • QA Manual • Compliance system in place • Marketing plans and reports submitted by partner institution • Student surveys conducted every semester • Staff feedback • Comparative exam results data • Exit strategy reviewed

⁹¹ Original source of data is HESA and AIE shown in Table 5.7

The drive behind Australian offshore programmes include the need to generate funding for universities, as well as provide greater access for students in an increasing competitive environment (KNIGHT, 2002a). The Government also provided grants in the sum of AU\$1.4 million to universities to support the development of their TNE services/products (evaluate credit transfer, curriculum adaptation, partner selection and course delivery in foreign languages) (VOSENSTEYN et al., 2008).

France

The definitions and policies for transnational education are contextualised according to countries. In France, offshore education provision by cooperate initiatives do not receive full privilege of universities and foreign partners are usually private, yet it involves French public institutions, and students are recipients of a French partner institution diploma. Accordingly, France offered over 200 programmes, the majority of which were at the master's level (ACA, 2008).

The top regions for French offshore programmes are North Africa (host 58 percent of French operations), Europe and Asia, and though there are no accurate data indicating the number of students participating in these programmes. The lead countries for French-exported education programmes are China, Lebanon, Morocco and Vietnam. Data provided by the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs⁹² shows 242 courses were offered in 2006 of which 39 were offshore programs, 81 were double diplomas, 11 joint diplomas and 101 national diplomas accredited by the French ministry of higher education. An estimated three quarters of double programmes are established with institutions in fellow European countries. Romania in 2006 was identified as being one of the country's top offshore markets (ACA, 2008).

Financing offshore campuses vary according to host country/partner policies, and financial support is required for at least 10 years. In China, for example *Ecole Centrale* in Beijing operates on an estimated €12 million annual budget. In general, the average tuition cost in France is a more economical option compared to the normal average of €7,000 for universities and €10,000 for *Grandes Ecoles*. French public providers, which

⁹²The government contributed €8.6 million to French European offshore programmes <http://international.cnam.fr/>

are government supported, do not exceed tuition fees of local institutions, thus they require large enrolment to remain sustainable. On the other hand, the University of Sorbonne in Abu Dhabi is subsidised by the host government and charges around €6,500 per semester to help offset the cost of running the campus. French private institutions seem to have a little more leverage to set prices charge between €17,000 annually and €45,000 bi-annually (ACA, 2008).

Data indicating profitability or loss has been difficult to obtain. Several strategies have been identified in French offshore higher education programme, and all serve the goals of its national policies. In respect to national development, offshore programmes are seen as the vehicle to controlling student mobility by importing the best minds to complete their studies in France (Ibid). The main exporters of higher education are the *Conservatoire National des arts et metiers* (CNAM) which operates in 20 countries and enrolls about 7,500 students, and the *Centre national d'enseignement à distance* (CNED). Like offshore programmes offered by Anglophone universities, those of French universities are delivered in French, but recommendation has been made for the programme to be opened to the English Language (Ibid.).

Germany

Germany's transnational programmes are largely established by the initiatives of the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD). German TNE programmes are geared towards improving the attractiveness of its educational system and its competitiveness in global higher education and science. Financing offshore German programmes is strongly supported and lobbied for by the DAAD. At the national level the DAAD since 2001 has been aiding the start-up phase of German transnational higher education programmes with an estimated amount of €3.6 million per annum (ACA, 2008).

The German approach to transnational education is not one of commercialism, and in an effort to avoid any such connotations the government instead promotes TNE activities as 'study export' and 'establishment of German study programmes abroad'. In 2007 a total of 34 projects are said to have had received funding. By law German universities' are restricted from operating according to 'market conditions'. Most recently some *Länder* (*Baden-Württemberg, Hessen and North Rhine Westphalia*) have taken

political and symbolic initiatives, including co-funding university projects. The German delivery mode is 'particular' given that they are usually independent universities that are both German-backed and German-modelled establishments.

The modes of delivery chosen by the German government are also indicative of their stance: 1) Academic backing for the development of new universities (not franchising or branch campuses), 2) German faculties or graduate schools abroad (twinning), and 3) Independent German higher education provider. The number of students enrolled in 85 German offshore programmes, in 19 countries for the 2006/2007 academic year numbered 7,900 (Ibid.). In 2012 that number of enrolment more than doubled to 20,000 (BC, 2013a). Half of the programmes were offered at the master's level (38 BA/BSc, 44 MA/MSc, and 3 other). The most important destinations are China and the Arab world, especially Egypt and Jordan). The German Jordanian University (GJU) in 2008 had 18 undergraduate programmes, the majority of which were engineering oriented. Similar to the French strategy, transnational higher education is used as a tool to expose bright foreign minds to the German education system, and aspect of that strategy is to affiliate 'German' to all their foreign programmes that are relevant to their regional economy (Ibid.).

The main subject areas covered are engineering (40%) and economics (30%). German TNE is characterised by its research-based teaching carried out by about 40 percent of German lectures and the remaining 60 percent are professors who have 'study abroad experience in Germany'. Most classes are taught in English, and double degree award and twinning arrangements are more popular. Furthermore, though German interest is eminent, there are times when programmes have been adapted or developed to fit into education and industrial context of the host countries. In 2008 foreign-backed institutions (24) in the Middle East, East Europe and Central Asia had a total of 5,000 students (Ibid.).

Spain

The EC Geographical Annex (ACA, 2008) identifies Spain's transnational activities as very few, but growing. British Council (2013a) data shows that Spain is in a fairly favourable position to engage in more transnational education activities. When compared

to the lead competitors Spain's transnational activities are quite limited to Latin America, and its main objective is seen as promoting a cultural and linguistic agenda. Though dating over a decade, this suggests 'the concept of transnational education is [still] not very well understood in Spain, and opinions about the nature of such imported education are very varied' (ADAMS, 2001: 30).

Data figures are not available to evaluate the actual reach of Spanish programmes, but desk research reveals that linguistic elements have played an important role in the dominance of programmes offered by Spanish institutions.

The Erasmus programme, which proselytises student mobility – mainly short term programmes that last from three months to a year – continues to be Spain's number one means to attract students (approximately 39,000⁹³) from the. Of the countries' 70 universities only eight in 2008 were actively offering programmes and mainly via virtual or long distance education, while only two Spanish institutions were reported having physical presence abroad. On the other hand, *La Educación Superior Transnacional* report, under the GATS (modes 1, 2, and 3) reported over 36 foreign higher education institutions operating in Spanish territories, with Spanish programmes geared towards the Latin American market, some of which are identified as 'spin-offs' and tend to be even more narrow in their focus as they are established to meet the need of emigrated Spaniards. The *Educación Superior Transnacional* report, El GATS, notes a growing trend towards Spanish universities establishing branch campuses, centres, and creating cooperation agreements with universities abroad, mainly those based in Latin America (ACA, 2008: 52-56).

Major actors responsible for augmenting transnational education activities between Spain and Latin America (primarily Modes 1 and 2) include: the *Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia* (UNED), *Universidad de Politécnica Madrid* (UPM), and the *Universidad Politécnica de Cataluña* (UPC). A recent research carried out as a result of the collaboration between UNED and UPM shows that there is substantial growth in the number of Spanish universities that have implemented the open course wares (OCW) models, while in Latin America OER in higher education remains 'incipient' (TOVAR et

⁹³ MYKLEBUST, J. P. (2013): Spain dominates Erasmus student exchange flows (<http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130817090802903>), accessed on 3 September 2013.

al., 2011). The principal supporter of Spanish universities establishing partnerships in Latin America is UNIVERSIA.⁹⁴ This internet-based initiative was founded in 2000 and supported by 35 universities – *la Conferencia de Rectores de Univesidades Españoles, and the Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas*. By 2005 *Universia* had presence in 11 countries, and today it is established in 23 Ibero-American countries and consists of 1,262 universities, home to 16.2 million professors and university students.

The United Kingdom

The United Kingdom is believed to have the longest tradition as a provider of cross-border education programmes, at least in Europe (MACHADO DOS SANTOS, 2000; ACA, 2008). Sixty-five percent of the 145 registered institutions in the UK engage in one or more of the various forms of delivery of higher education to students in another country, of which sixty percent concentrated their education activities in Asian countries: mainly China, India, Malaysia, Hong Kong and Singapore (ACA, 2008). In the academic year of 2005/2006 a total of 246,000 students were enrolled in UK offshore programmes which was the highest of such enrolments among European countries. Data provided by HESA in Table 5.7 reveals 2011 numbers almost doubled to 503,000 – 75, 570 more than the 428,225 international student enrolled in onshore UK institutions and represents one-sixth of students pursuing UK awards. In fact, A. Bohm et al. (2004) forecasted that offshore enrolment numbers would supersede the number of on-shore UK international students by 2020, but the phenomenon is such that that prediction has become a reality in six years.

The fact that it is not required of foreign providers to register in their own country contribute to the skeleton data available. The UK – the only European country – has multidisciplinary branches abroad and some institutions have multiple locations. For example, Nottingham University, the first UK institution to venture into this market, has campuses in China and Malaysia. More than three-quarters of offshore students enrolled in UK programmes in 2009/2010 were undergraduates (CLARK, 2012).

⁹⁴ UNIVERSIA. Quiénes Somos (<http://www.universia.net/nosotros/quienes-somos/>), accessed on 16 April 2014.

Table 5.7 Offshore International Provision – UK and Australia

Modes of Delivery	UK (2010-11)	Australia (2010)
Onshore	428,225	230,595
Offshore	503,795	104, 678
Offshore, On Campus	390,580	76,446
Offshore, Distance	113,060	28,232
Percent of Total International Provision Offshore	54%	31%

Sources: HESA, AEI (taken from Clark, 2012).

Table 5.8 suggests that there are over 1,000 programmes being offered in four of the country’s main destinations alone. The growth of both local and foreign students are increasing across the board, and Nottingham University’s two Malaysian partnerships, which in 2000 started with 80 Malaysian students had a total of 2,700 seven years later, of which 40 percent came from regional countries such as China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, as well as the Middle-East and Nigeria (ACA, 2008).

Table 5.8 British TNE provisions/programmes in Key Asian Markets

Country	# of Active UK Institutions	# of Active Partner Institutions	# of Programmes	Most Common Type of Provision	% Undergraduate
Singapore (2011)	66	82	471	Partner Institution In-Country	70%
China (2006)	82	223	352	Progression Agreement	N/A
Malaysia (2010)	72	107	260	Partner Institution In-Country	N/A
India (2009)	35	53	135	Partner Institution In-Country	62

Source: QAA (taken from Clark, 2012)

The UK is said to have earned a total of £17.5 billion in revenue through the export of education as a whole. In 2011 higher education earned the country £10.1 billion, but in respect to transnational higher education export that income was £300 million (MATTHEWS, 2013). Data from a report done by the Nottingham Trent University (HEALEY, 2012), as seen in Table 5.9, demonstrates a steady increase in the number of student enrolments in various TNHE programmes between 2007/2008 and 2010/2011. Distance and online learning (flexible and distributed learning) has had the greatest demand, but the increase of actual enrolments was low. On the other hand, joint/double/partner organisations enrolment has increased exponentially in the same period; in 2007 there were 29,240 reported enrolments and by 2011 that number reached 201,575. The data shows significant growth in overall TNHE activities. In 2007 total enrolment in UK universities was 196,670 and in 2011 that number was 503,700. The Going Global 2013 report (BC) also reveals that the UK has experienced a steady increase in TNHE student enrolment in recent years: in 2009/10 enrolment increased by five percent, 23 percent in 2010/11, and 13 percent in 2011/2012.

Table 5.9 Number of TNE enrolment for UK institutions:

	2007/08	2008/09	2009/2010	2010/2011
Overseas Campus	7,120	9,885	11,410	12,305
Distance, flexible and distributed learning	100,345	112,345	114,985	113,065
Other students registered at HEI	59,895	68,595	74,360	86,630
Overseas partner organisation	29,240	197,185	207,790	291,575
Other students studying overseas for HEI's award	70	35	50	125
Total	196,670	388,045	408,595	503,700

Source: HESA/SIEM (taken from Healey (2012))

The United States

Unlike Australia and the United Kingdom, TNE data is not published by the United States. It can only be presumed that TNHE activities in the United States are an integral part of its 'cross-border education' strategy. Further findings by the ACA (2008) underscore the fact that as a result the country's definition and understanding of the term

‘transnational education’ makes it difficult to elicit reliable data. Moreover, it has no national TNE stance or strategies. For example, in 2004 OECD reports shows that there were 225 offshore US programmes, a figure much lower than figures provided by for Australia which reported a total of 1,500, with an average of 100 students in 159 countries.

With over 50 years⁹⁵ of transnational education activities, a longer history than most countries, the United States remains one of the major competitors, and in 2006 had an estimated 50 universities providing over 200 offshore education programmes (ACA, 2008). The US currently leads with the number of joint- and dual-degree programmes offered, as well as the most number of international branch campuses (78) overseas (CLARK, 2012; HOMAYOUNPOUR, 2012; LAWTON & KATSOMOTROS, 2012). Top US destinations are China, South Korea, Vietnam, the Middle East and Turkey. Though the United States does not publish data on its transnational education activities, research done by countries and various organisations such as the European Commission indicate the country’s TNE export potential revenue intake; in 2003 Laureate Education Inc. total revenue from TNE alone was US\$ 473 million (ACA, 2008: 76).

5.3 Future trends

The future of transnational education is seen as an important element to the internationalisation of higher education. Though some have suggested otherwise, international higher education is being delivered across the world by foreign providers making accessibility easier for many.

However, as highlighted at the recently concluded ‘Going Global 2013’ conference in Dubai, the quality of TNHE/TNE programmes remain a concern. According to Scott Jaschik (2013), scholars are being denied entry to some Arab and Asian states (UAE and Malaysia) due to their views expressed in previous publishing, or they are required to sign contracts that prohibit teachings that are not culture sensitive. This, according to one professor at the conference, makes the issue of branch campus universities very complicated. One of the concerns is a matter of ethics. Should universities enter a country

⁹⁵ First offshore programmes, such as the John Hopkins University in Italy in 1955, were intended for American students studying abroad (ACA, 2008).

in an attempt to shape that country's worldview? Should academic freedom be contextualised so as not to be insensitive to 'foreign' students? Western democracy and academic freedom must tread carefully not to cross certain lines if they are to continue to benefit economically from these ventures.

This also raises concern about TNHE/TRN establishments, especially branch campuses that are seen as furthering the social divide in developing countries. The fact is, though foreign programmes are sometimes offered at a lower cost than they are in providers own country, not many local students can afford access and therefore it is the affluent class that continues to benefit.

Another downside Jaschik (2013) notes is the use of English in these programmes. Branch campus programmes are taught in English, and many students from non-affluent homes in these countries have not been taught English, or have not acquired the required level for entry.

Finally, though the threat of MOOCs to branch campuses is not to be taken lightly, many students who value traditional face-to face delivery will often opt for branch campuses. The benefit to MOOCs, as presented by Gallagher⁹⁶ is the 'blended learning' or the 'flipped classroom' approach which allows students to work via an interactive MOOC before coming to a class to interact with the instructor; it is the format favoured by leading universities. In effect, MOOCs are said to be 'next generation textbooks'. However, as far as Gallagher sees it, 'this is where the analogy ends' between classroom delivery and MOOCs.

Using the UK transnational education and student mobility data as an indication of global trends in TNHE, the following conclusions may be drawn: the fact that the number of offshore students matriculated in UK programmes surpasses the number of international students on its campuses suggests that CbEd-Type2 is indeed a better way to provide greater access to international higher education to the global mass, and the demand for such programmes is growing.

⁹⁶ GALLAGHER, S. (2013): MOOC means more time for different types of learning. Higher Education, The Australian (<http://www.theaustralian.com.au/higher-education/opinion/mooc-means-more-time-for-different-types-of-learning/story-e6frgcko-1226600961476>), accessed on 17 July 2013.

The ethical issue in respect to fields of study offered by offshore programmes providers brings us back to the question: who benefits more from cross-border/transnational higher education, developed or developing countries? Transnational higher education providers tend to limit their offer to fields that are in demand and are profitable, which means they are competing with local institutions, and thus leaving the burden on local institutions to provide less popular programmes that do not attract as high a return (ACA, 2008). Knight (2003: 16) also posits that there are those who may 'argue that for-profit providers will not be willing to invest the time and resources to ensure that courses respect cultural traditions and include relevant local content.' To date, there is sufficient data to support Knights' point of view, and time will determine whether or not this will be a perennial truth.

SECTION THREE

Impact of cross-border education at the individual level
& Conclusion

“Education is more about learning than about teaching”
Sheryl Bond and Jacquelyn Thayer Scott

CHAPTER VI

Cross-border Challenges and Opportunities

Understanding the implications and impact globalisation and internationalisation have on higher education is unquestionably complex. In spite its complicatedness, one thing is clear, internationalisation in higher education generates opportunities and challenges for stakeholders. Thus, the questions and doubts it attracts are necessary to the process as they provide the platform to further examine objectives and approaches employed over the years, as well as implement new and improved measures.

The on-going concerns surround the fact that ‘centre’ countries (OECD countries) dictate the global norms, global values, and global knowledge products and services to the detriment of other countries. Phillip Altbach (2001: 2-3), posits that these ‘centre’ countries:

‘are not only home to the dominant universities and research facilities, but also to the multinational corporations so powerful in the global knowledge system. [...] Smaller and poorer countries have little autonomy or competitive potential in a globalized world. Globalization in higher education exacerbates dramatic inequalities among the world universities.’

The switch from ‘aid’ to ‘trade’ by centre countries over the years is seen as a compounding factor of concern. Altbach and Teichler (2001) noted that unlike the ‘exchange paradigm’ the existing ‘competency paradigm’ not only gives rise to a lack of concern for equality of opportunity, but also neglects features of learning that don’t produce, exploit foreign students (financially and/or through poor programs), overemphasise on easily marketable products such as English/ESL and MBA – selling of knowledge products to foreigners instead of emphasising internationalisation and mutual understanding. They have become profit enterprises, delivering easily marketable programs, some with little regards for standard or quality. Nonetheless, despite the

uncertainties, it cannot be ignored that there are certain advances, such as greater access to higher education that the phenomenon yields.

6.1 Challenges and opportunities in CbEd Type 1

Since the global economic crisis began in 2008, national policies in many developed countries, and specifically the seven presented in this research paper, have been amended to facilitate international student mobility, which attracts revenue and increases their GDP. In addition, some policies provide permanent residency options for students whose studies are considered pertinent to the country's knowledge economy, as well as policies to curtail overstayers.

Whereas cross-border higher education at the national level has been proven economically beneficial to all exporting countries, it has only proven likewise favourable for some importing countries. At the personal level; that is, at the student level, the overall value of participating in CbEd-Type1 mobility has to be determined by the resulting opportunities and challenges.

International students, predominantly those who participate in vertical (degree) mobility, have both good and bad experiences that are enriching in respect to their international higher education involvement, as well as to their lifelong studies: the ability to truly relate to other cultures and embrace different teaching and learning approaches is also 'lifelong learning'.

The many challenges international students face are mainly associated with culture adaptation, curricula orientation, credit and degree recognition, disparities between domestic and international students, and prejudices; issues that can be addressed favourably with more adequate policies at the national and institutional level.

6.1.1 Culture adaption and curricula orientation: International students making the adjustments.

A glance at another culture through media and the ability to speak another language often entice international students, but the reality of being immersed into a new culture leaves many wishing to go home. Nevertheless, going home is not the popular decision

taken by most. They respect and, to a point, accept the different perspectives and customs of their host countries and endure the challenges. Non-Western cultures tend to have it more difficult. Even for those who speak the language, such as many Arab students, going to a western country means coping with stereotypes: style of dress, accents, food, music, religion, et cetera. In the case where the language of the host country is different from students' native language, stereotypes coupled with not knowing the language often inhibits socialisation for many of these students.

For instance, as Sunny Moon⁹⁷ relates in his article the experience of Jay, a student from Dubai who grew up with lots of British students in his country and spoke English fairly well, went to the United States anticipating a similar 'culture' to what he knew of the British, however, after his arrival he noted cultural differences. Unlike the British who are so up-front with their feelings, he felt a little confused in the United States as he did not know if people were being nice to him because they liked him, or because they felt obliged to be nice to others. Moon notes that Jay expressed frustration, and at times just wanted to forget everything and go back home.

For many international students a new cultural experience is an incentive. Data obtained from the international student questionnaire reveal most Respondents viewed experiencing another culture as an influencing factor in pursuing studies abroad. In fact, obtaining a different perspective specifically in the field of education was a principal element in the decision of four Respondents.

The number of students who crave the opportunity to study abroad is not reflected in the actual number of those who have been able to realise it for several reasons; but, primarily for the fact that in order to access any higher education institution abroad, international students must satisfy the academic eligibility and financial security requirements set forth by the institution and country. This is always the case for vertical international students who carry out all or most of their studies in a host country in which they obtain a full degree through the course of more than one year. Two Respondents were recipients of scholarships; however, of the remaining eight none indicated financial

⁹⁷MOON, S. (2008): A New Way of Thinking, The challenges faced by international students, (<http://fnewsmagazine.com/wp/2008/05/the-challenges-faced-by-international-students/>), accessed on 3 August 2010.

difficulties as a challenge. Empirical evidence shows that students who are more financially stable have a better chance of adjusting to their host culture.

Generally when the word equity is used in respect to education it refers to ‘equal access’ more than it does ‘completion’ and even less ‘success’ – perpetuating the notion of ‘survival of the fittest’. The findings of a UNESCO report ⁹⁸ underscore this truth, concurring that ‘higher access rates are not meaningful if they are combined with high dropout/failure rates.’

In regard to the classroom, curricula and methodology are quintessential hurdles international students face. In order to truly internationalise curricula, a study into how culture influences learning styles and processes was conducted in attempt to better ‘inform and shape the learning experiences which [professors] design for multicultural setting’ (CARUANA, 2007: 15). This goes beyond the traditional ‘infusion’ approach, whereby:

‘considerations of cultural pluralism in the selection of course content along with encouraging staff and students to think critically about their own cultural values and biases... and allowing for negotiation of assessment tasks between student and professors...’ (Ibid: 13).

Most Respondents stated quality of programme as another influencing factor in choosing host country and institution. Even though the relationship between international students and their professors is not the determining factor to their success, it is important in the realm of students’ adaptation to their new environs. The same is also true in respect to student-student relationship. Respondent #5 found the relationship between alumni and professors challenging:

‘... Uno de los mayores desafíos ha consistido en la restricción en el trato con los profesores al ámbito estrictamente formal. Echo en falta el contacto personal y el intercambio no formal de opiniones sobre diversas esferas de la vida pública, de la propia experiencia de investigación, etc. Me hace falta poder “conversar” sobre mis intereses de un modo menos restrictivo, menos formalizado. Al final pareciera que es dentro del ámbito estrictamente individual donde uno debe “parir” las ideas, para luego ser valoradas por el profesor, pero cuesta mucho tener experiencias compartidas al respecto. Eso debería ser más sencillo, podría haber más espacio para ello.’

⁹⁸ UNESCO (2009a): Equity, access and quality (<http://www.unesco.org/en/the-2009-world-conference-on-higher-education/sub-themes/equity-access-and-quality/>), accessed on 18 August 2013.

Such experience in the classroom is what Killick and Poveda (1998) highlight, postulating against the mere focus on the “large ‘C’ – art, history, literature courses; instead they encourage the small ‘c’ which focuses on attitudes, behaviours and practices. Moon (2008) adduced that some foreign students, especially those from Asia, have difficulty with the conceptual approach to art used at the School of Art Institute of Chicago (SAIC) not owing to a lack of creativity, but because ‘they were trained to concentrate on craft and skill, rather than being creative’, and reversing that thinking can be hard for them.

In the realm of international education, culture has to play a key role in international curricula development and equally in its delivery, especially at the tertiary level, bearing in mind universities serve as a place where students must give ‘birth to ideas’. This is a vital factor for international students. Respondent # 8 points out that teaching in her host country is quite different and the quality of her programme in her host institution is below standard.

Another important empirical challenge Moon (Ibid.) noted is the fact that a language deficit results very time consuming for international student whose first language is not the same as the language of instruction. In essence these students not only have the challenge to understand assignments, but also to complete them adequately and timely. Respondent #9, a ‘non-native speaker’ and PhD candidate, stated that loneliness has been her major challenge as the opportunity to interact with colleagues is absent.

Often when mention is made of the language barriers international students encounter, it is automatically assumed that reference is being made of those who study in a second language. The language challenge is not limited to international students whose first language is different from that of their host country, but extends to those whose first language is the same but have different orthography, different accentuation, or even an ‘unpopular’ accent. This is the case with many Anglophone-Caribbean students in the United States. From personal experience and those of fellow Caribbean counterparts, international students from the Caribbean who study in the United States are oftentimes penalised for their use of ‘British English’ – without the accent – as it is often considered unacceptable, as opposed to ‘different’, by some professors. For example, student-immigrants are strongly discouraged and often penalised from using the letter ‘u’ in such

words as ‘colour’ and ‘neighbour’, and the letter ‘s’ in ‘globalise’, ‘internationalise’. The old cliché ‘when in Rome, do as the Romans do’ would have been appropriate if international students were not expected to return to their home countries. Conscious of the differences and ridicule, many international students are uncomfortable participating in class discussions, at least for their first year or two. As a result of the influences, Jamaican English is often defined as a mixed use of both British English and American English, and this goes unnoticed by many of the country’s educators themselves.

Another example is cited in Ester deJong’s⁹⁹ book review of ‘Planning Language, Planning Inequality’. DeJong referenced J U Ogbu view that ‘Asians do well academically in Britain and the United States, whereas Afro-Caribbean and Mexican-American students consistently appear to fail in schools.’ However, a comprehensive research on this particular subject matter, showing the percentage and ratio of Caribbean students who have failed at the university level in comparison to that of their domestic counterparts in the United States and Britain is needed.

Findings such as those of the Rampton Report¹⁰⁰ in the UK underscore the fact that black Caribbean children are subjected to stereotyping treatment by their educators. Anglophone Caribbean students on an average have always fared well in the British education system used in their home country, which only in the last four decades these students have had the option of sitting an exam more conducive to the Caribbean social, historical and cultural relevance.

The problem arises when some students enter educational institutions in either of these two host countries and the adjustment to racial and new social prejudices, and, in some cases, a lack of understanding of their ‘unpopular’ accent that the need to excel becomes more challenging; thus, many students stand less possibility of doing better than how they had previously performed in their country of origin.

The notion that non-OECD international English and non-English speaking students who enter universities and fail to or have difficulty in completing their course of studies is a result of their incompetence should be further researched, using all pertinent

⁹⁹ DE JONG, E. (1994): Book Review of James Tollefson’s (1991) Planning Language, Planning Inequality, no.1 (Boston University, TESL-EJ) (<http://tesl-ej.org/ej01/r.2.html>), retrieved on 29 July 2010.

¹⁰⁰ Education England (1981): West Indian Children in our Schools (www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/rampton/rampton1981.html), accessed 21 September 2013.

variables – including the availability of resources available to these students, as well as their application in providing students quality education. This must be done in order to better validate the above claims.

Furthermore, some of these failing students have learning disabilities that continue to go undetected. According to Grayson & Stowe (2005), international English as a Second Language (ESL) students and domestic ESL students tend to have lower grade point averages than domestic English speaking students, at least in their first year.

Some HEIs are sensitive to the challenges international students face in area of academics. Leeds Metropolitan University (2004) is one example that has called for a review of curricula in order to meet the needs of diverse student bodies in a global knowledge economy. As such, the institution's statement in part reads:

Through global perspectives we seek to demonstrate the relationships between local actions and global consequences, ensuring we are all equipped to make considered and informed responses to the differences that we encounter, whether individual, institutional or in the external environment. Every student has needs. We have sought in the past to respond to the needs ... (p. 4)

The university has also taken certain initiatives in this respect: the introduction of the *Global Citizens* award recognises students and staff for their world-wide horizons, and the *Language Pass* makes available to both students and staff reduced rates for language study, also accompanied by mentoring and support in 25 languages. In addressing the matter of language, the university states the need to use a comprehensive range of language dictionaries and have international students use examples from their own experience (APPLETON et al. 2006).

The plans to increase international student enrolment in all seven countries – guaranteeing these students quality education – require international students to communicate effectively with their professors and domestic counterparts. Efforts by institutions to help international students learn the language of instruction and adapt to their new environs have been noted, but many students are faced with the challenges national policies also present.

Between the push for internationalisation and the threat of terrorism, international students and institutions continue to face challenges meeting these goals. A BBC News¹⁰¹

¹⁰¹ BBC News (2010): Tougher rules to stop abuse of student visa system. (<http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/8502640.stm>), accessed on 3 March 2010.

report stated that international students will face ‘tougher rules’ requiring applicants to speak English at a certain level:

‘Fewer international students, means less funds for institutions and, inherently, less funds means fewer resources. Last year the UK introduced a system requiring students wishing to enter the country to secure 40 points under its new criteria. Successful applicants from outside the EU will have to speak English to a level only just below GCSE standard, rather than beginner level as at present.’

According to the article, students ‘outside the EU’ must have a level of English close that of the GCSE; this would imply that all EU students by virtue of region have the required level of English, and non--EU native English-speaking applicants do not.

Another important challenge for international students is disempowerment. Min-Hua Hsieh (2007) in relating the experience of a Chinese student in the United States said she felt disempowered by her American classmates’ ideology and cultural homogeneity. Hsieh also states that beside cultural influences or personalities, international students may be disempowered by the very nature of their host countries higher educational settings. In accordance with Respondent #5, international students have a wealth of knowledge to contribute to the learning experience in and outside the classroom, but often the opportunity does not present itself. Furthermore, results from a survey conducted in New Zealand by Colleen Ward¹⁰² reveals:

- International students have the potential to change both content and process of education by their international perspective as they ‘challenge and encourage teachers to consider new methods of instruction that are more consistent with their previous learning experiences.’ (There has been little research done to measure the extent or outcomes of such activities. It is suggested that further attention be given to this area).
- Educators make few, if any, changes in either the process or content of their education activities.
- The usage of support services by international students remains relatively low.

¹⁰² Ward, C. (2001): The impact of international students on domestic students and host institutions. *Education Counts* (http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/international/the_impact_of_international_students_on_domestic_students_and_host_institutions), accessed on 3 August 2010.

- Even though domestic students may have favourable views of their international peers, most investigations conclude that they are uninterested to initiate contact.
- While international students desire greater contact with domestic students, cross-national contact is generally low.

6.1.2 A matter of degree recognition

The impact globalisation and internationalisation have on higher education is described as ‘an erosion of the national regulatory and policy frameworks in which universities are embedded’ (VAN DAMME, 2001: 3).

The UNESCO (1979)¹⁰³ defines recognition as the acceptance of a foreign certificate, diploma or degree of higher education by:

‘the competent authorities of a Contracting State and the granting to the holder of the rights enjoyed by persons possessing a national certificate, diploma or degree with which the foreign one is assimilated. Such rights extend to their pursuit of studies, or the practice of a profession, or both, according to the applicability of the recognition.’

It further states that the recognition of a foreign certificate, diploma or degree with the view to practice a profession does not exempt the ‘holder’ from complying with any other conditions which the competent governmental or professional authorities may present. In this regard, its aim is to promote both regional and world-wide co-operation in the matter of the recognition of studies and academic qualifications.

On the one hand, the increase competition among universities and countries in a growing global market, development and policies on national educational systems are threatened thus presenting resistance to accept credits or recognise degrees from certain universities and countries. This threat may be more evident within certain fields of study than others. For example, international students who graduate with a tertiary-type ‘A’ degree in education or nursing would not be given any preference over domestic graduates with the same qualifications, whereas certain engineering and specialised science degrees would.

¹⁰³ This definition appeared in the International Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in the Arab and European States bordering the Mediterranean, Nice, 17 December 1979 (http://www.unesco.org/education/studyingabroad/tools/conventions_med_cover.shtml), accessed on 5 May 2010.

To counteract this tendency more institutions acknowledge and adapt new approaches by forming consortia, partnerships and networks among themselves. The purpose is to bring about some uniformity through harmonisation of policy frameworks, higher education structures, degree systems and even curricula in the context of a free trade agreement.

Prior to the implementation of the Bologna Declaration in 1999, credit mobility for students, for example, from the United States going to Europe faced difficulties in matching study plans and transferring academic credits. Today with more recognition and better established accreditation systems, partnerships between and among institutions are made easier as a result of the Bologna Process and Tempus initiatives during the first cycle of post-secondary education. For European students horizontal mobility involved a very limited number of students and usually occurs between long-term partner institutions that over time have established a relationship of great mutual confidence. Likewise, with vertical mobility U.S. administrators have had difficulties ‘understanding the level of European students who still have not completed their European degree or...those who graduated from a five year integrated course’ (BORGHANS & CÖRVERS, 2010: 241; SPINELLI, 2005).

The purpose of the Bologna Declaration is intended to help alleviate such challenges. Three of the goals the Bologna Declaration¹⁰⁴ presents, geared towards solving the pointed transatlantic challenges are:

- Adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees, also through the implementation of the Diploma Supplement, to promote European citizens' employability and the international competitiveness of the European higher education system.
- Adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate. Access to the second cycle shall require successful

¹⁰⁴ EUROPEAN UNION (2010): The Bologna Process: Setting up the European Higher Education Area, Europa Summaries of EU Legislations, (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/lifelong_learning/c11088_en.htm) accessed on 2 October 2012.

completion of first cycle studies, lasting a minimum of three years. The degree awarded after the first cycle shall also be relevant to the European labour market as an appropriate level of qualification. The second cycle should lead to the master and/or doctorate degree as in Many European countries.

- Establishment of a system of credits – such as the ECTS system – as a proper means of promoting the most widespread student mobility. Credits could also be acquired in non-higher education contexts, including lifelong learning, provided they are recognized by receiving Universities concerned.

Hanna Jabłońska-Skinder (1988) considers the principal task of recognition a matter of equivalence. In essence there is need of a system that evaluates the gamut of higher education; one that compares educational programmes, contents, length of study, the methods and the results of evaluations, and appropriate assessments of the academic value of practical work. The purposes of equivalence are to permit further study in another country and/or to aid in securing employment in a given occupation in another country. Jabłońska-Skinder submits that a major problem relating to recognition is the varying concepts of what university education is in relation to higher education as a whole; the weight to be granted to post-secondary, non-university training; the whole question of length of studies; and ambiguities relative to terminology.

In an effort to alleviate some of the difficulties students encounter on their return home, the UNESCO¹⁰⁵ since 1979 has been taking steps to:

‘ensure that studies, certificates, diplomas and degrees are recognized as widely as possible, taking into account the principles of the promotion of life-long education, the democratization of education, and the adoption and application of an education policy allowing for structural, economic, technological and social changes and suited to the cultural context of each country’

¹⁰⁵ UNESCO (2009d): Equity, access and quality (<http://www.unesco.org/en/the-2009-world-conference-on-higher-education/sub-themes/equity-access-and-quality/>), accessed on 5 May 2010.

6.1.3 The challenge of discrimination

Many international students are likely to be subjected to one of the common biases such as gender, race and ethnicity that exist in all countries. Additionally, many have difficulty adjusting to the social norms of their host countries, while a large proportion also contend with financial and/or disability matters. While many international students come from financially stable families, there are those who make the sacrifice to achieve their international studies abroad and it is these students that may have greater difficulty adjusting to the social norms of a host country.

Some disparities may be less evident in private institutions of higher education where the field is more leveled than at state universities – international students are privy to scholarships or grants offered at these institutions, whereas public universities are more restrained to do likewise given that they are held accountable to taxpayers.

Disparity in higher education remains an issue in most countries for several reasons, but in many lead destinations, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, it seems to have eluded the many policies implemented to counter this problem even in the twenty-first century. In spite of the growing number of university students and the ever growing importance of higher, Patrick J. Kelly (2005: 2, 17) notes there some race/ethnic groups that are consistently in the ‘have not’ category of our societies. To reiterate, increase access is not success if dropout rates are high and the labour market maintains a ‘glass ceiling’. The United States, for example, Hispanics, African-Americans, Native-Americans and Asians with corresponding degrees to that of their white peers earn substantially less and are ‘underrepresented at each stage of the educational pipeline’. Even though the overall trend toward higher education attainment in the US has been positive, Kelly posits it no longer leads the world in the percentage of its population with college degrees. As the populations of minority groups increase, quality higher education for these groups becomes more difficult.

In Europe, discrimination is also a major concern. An ICEF¹⁰⁶ report reveals that ‘an alarming percentage of international students said they had encountered discrimination or

¹⁰⁶ ICEF MONITOR (2012): European survey reveals intentions of international students, compare legislation (<http://monitor.icef.com/2012/05/european-survey-reveals-intentions-of-international-students-compares-legislation/>), accessed on 20 April 2014.

prejudice' for the mere fact that they were foreigners: in France (39.9%), Germany (39.4%), Sweden (34.9%), The Netherlands (30.1%) and the UK (27.4%). In respect to 'regional' discrimination Shideh Hanassab¹⁰⁷ finds that at an American tertiary institution international students from the Middle East and Africa were most discriminated against than any other region.

Consequently, based on stereotypes, international students in some countries are often categorised first by race, gender, and then treated as international students (foreigners) for immigration and financial purposes. As such, universities tend to perceive international students in the same manner as their domestic students; thus, failing to understand that cultural dissimilarities outweigh gender and racial affinity. The overt and covert expectations of international students' social skills and academia performance tend to be misguided. For example, a professor at the state university I attended in the United States made a general statement that 'international students don't usually do well' in the American educational system, in other words, they tend not to have the required standard to carry out university studies in the United States.

In the Commonwealth of Australia (COA) the Australian Senate addressed the issue of the many cases of racial attacks in Melbourne and Sydney on international students from India. Subsequently, delegates were sent to India to assure prospective international students that measures have been put in place to ensure their safety. Resulting from the investigation into the incident, the government broadened its focus and examined the quality of education being marketed to foreign student. The findings were an eye-opener; 'what emerged were frustrations experienced by foreign students in their dealings with the educational institutions in which they were enrolled' (COA, 2009: 6).

6.1.4 The finance challenge

One of the challenges international students continue to face over the years is funding; access to scholarships, financial aid, and better funding for cultural/international club activities. Elaine Unterhalter and Vincent Carpentier's book title 'Global Inequalities

¹⁰⁷ HANASSAB, S. (2006): Perceived Discrimination: Implication for Educators and Counselors (<http://jsi.sagepub.com/content/10/2/157.abstract>), accessed 20 April 2014.

and Higher Education: Whose interest are we serving?’ captures the concern about cross-border/transnational education and, in particular, student mobility in higher education.

International students at public universities can pay up to four times more than domestic students and are not privileged to much financial assistance as scholarships are very few and government loans are often not available. International students for institutions of higher education are seen as ‘cash cows’ to aid domestic students (CALUYA et al., 2011), especially in lead Anglo-Saxon host countries. In the case of the US, Frank Fernandez (2014) suggests that the international students surplus should supplement other international students from developing countries who are cannot afford to study in the country.

In 2009, of the estimated 3 million students who studied in a country other than their own, 671,616 studied in the United States and contributed US\$17.8 billion to the economy. Seventy percent of these international students’ funding is said to come from outside the United States (OPEN DOORS, 2009). Higher Education is one of the top service exports of the United States. In the United Kingdom the number of international students enrolled in public institutions stood at 389,330 for the year 2008, and the financial contribution to the economy was estimated at £5.3 billion yearly (UKBA, 2010). Canada earned 6.5 billion Canadian dollars in 2008, and Australia 12.3 billion Australian dollars (Appendix F). As noted previously, unlike the United Kingdom, other European countries such as France, Germany and Spain extend to international students outside the European Union and the European Economic Community the privilege of paying the same tuition fees as that of their domestic counterparts; hence higher education is not among their primary export services, but these student’s living expenses contribute significantly to their GDP.

While all the countries allow students to work and study,¹⁰⁸ as previously mentioned, some make it more difficult than others. In Spain though students are allowed to work both on and off-campus, they must first obtain a work contract of no more than 20 hours weekly and then apply for a permit. Depending on the job, the time period to solicit a permit and being granted the permit may not be in the best interest of the employer, hence students’ job options are further limited.

¹⁰⁸ Information is taken from the pertinent Ministry of Education websites.

A case study conducted in the United States reveals financial challenges are responsible for some students experiencing homesickness, psychological stress, alienation and isolation, which reduce time for study and social activities if they need to work (EVIVIE, 2009). European students and North American students tend to have fewer challenges financing their studies abroad due to many government or private scholarships available to them, as well as the earning power they and their families have in their own countries. However, it must be noted again that a significant proportion of international students from developing countries do not have financial strains because their parents belong to the privileged social class that traditionally take pride in sending their children abroad to further their studies.

While all seven countries have scholarships available to international students, the majority is geared towards a specific group. For example, in Spain most scholarships benefit Latin American and European students.

As Caluya et al. (2011) international students are seen as ‘cash-cows’; when universities financial sources are depleting, international students are seen as the solution and this generates an increase interest, and effort to attract them become of great importance.

Here lies the problem. Today, in a globalised knowledge economy cross-border/transnational higher education continues to benefit developed countries much more than developing countries. Host countries and institutions overlook the fact that international students, like domestic students, ‘are not just buying an education, they are buying an experience and entrance to a club that membership of a particular university represents’.¹⁰⁹ Furthermore, and though limited, host countries benefit from their domestic students’ intercultural experience at home.

6.1.5 The disability challenges

In the context of globalisation and internationalisation, ‘all’ must have access to [quality] education, but again, what about success? Disabled international students endure many challenges in higher education. Little research has been done in this area, but

¹⁰⁹BUTTON, C. The Impact of Student Fee; The EVROPAEVM (<http://www.europaeum.org/feu/?q=node/103>), accessed on 12 March, 2013.

empirical evidence show disabled international students, like ordinary international students, are expected to follow the same procedure; that is, meet the academic and financial in order to be admitted into universities and granted visas, as well as maintain student status. This is owing to the fact that disability is defined in many ways, and the expectations of the disabled vary from country to country. The definition used by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities states:

‘Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others’ (UNESCO, 2009d)¹¹⁰

As previously stated, there has not been sufficient research into the experiences of disabled international students, but that may be due to the fact that there are many students who are not diagnosed as having any form of learning disability, and those who have a physical or sensory disability are not large in number. The truth is, educational system of higher learning was created to meet the needs of students who have a more natural ability to learn; they are recognised as being average or above average students.

Traditionally, most people view persons with disabilities as having a personal tragedy and a personal problem. Unfortunately this attitude is shared by many disabled people themselves. Disabled individuals are expected to live within the limitations often set by society, and as such the results are exclusion and dependency which perpetuate the stereotypes of disability (BC, 2009).

While strides are being made to bring about awareness and changes for disabled international students in the UK, the feeling of isolation for disabled international students remains real and it takes them much more effort to adjust to the social norms; they deal with biases in both their host countries and host institutions; for some it means learning a new language (sign language) and doing well. In fact, failure to access education is seen as an inequality, but their ability to succeed is seen as their responsibility. This thinking persists as higher education institutions fail to acknowledge ‘the external disabling barrier[s] present in these institutions’ (SOORENIAN, 2007).

¹¹⁰UNESCO (2009e): Three reports on higher education (http://www.unesco.org/en/wche2009/single-view/news/launch_of_three_reports_on_higher_education/back/9712/cHash/5823f646fd/), accessed on 17 October 2013.

Armineh Soorenian, a disabled international student in the UK, in pursuit of her PhD at Leeds University, has helped brought to light the challenges disabled international students continue to face. They include limited financial support, cultural and linguistic barriers.

In regards to her research which appeared in the National Postgraduate Committee (NPC) Scotland 2007 report, the increase percentage of disabled international students in British Higher Education (38.24 %) surpasses the percentage of disabled domestic students (37.02%) as well as non-disabled international Students (31.38%). This is encouraging, but these students still feel invisible as their challenges are seen as 'irrelevant' or 'added on' option. They are not embraced by disabled domestic students' groups, such as Students with Disabilities (SWD), nor are they embraced by non-disabled international students' groups, such as the Council of International Students - CIS (NPC, 2007).

Within the United States resources for disabled international students are in place, more so at community colleges, usually the same that are made available to domestic students. International student advisors are equipped to help these students understand and adjust to the expectations of persons with disability in the US. However, students are often informed of these resources when the disability is obvious or students solicit guidance. As mentioned before, expectations of the disabled vary from country to country, and in the United States disabled persons are very independent, therefore, international disabled students in that country have to be proactive and seek the necessary help in order to succeed at their studies. Due to the smaller number of students enrolled in community colleges, many disabled international students choose to attend them where they receive the personal assistance needed. Nonetheless, because these institutions are non-residential students still feel isolated (MIUSA, 2007).

Students who have been diagnosed with a learning disability struggle to obtain or maintain their desired grades, *a fortiori* to expect those who go undiagnosed to struggle more not knowing they are at a disadvantage. In an article published by Mobility International USA (2007), '*Cross Cultures – Disabilities Represented by International Students*', Janie Worrall revealed that the majority of the international students she saw

then were not diagnosed but had learning or cognitive disability, and most were from affluent homes. They are often:

‘quieter and don’t know why they are not successful.’ In the classes the professors are usually unaware and unfortunately the grades are interpreted that international students are not as astute as domestic students. Brunel University in London is one of the institutions that actively reach out to disabled international students and posits that an individual can be ‘disabled by other people’s attitudes and the way things are done...’ (Ibid.)

In other words, some international disabled students are further disempowered by faculty and peers.

6.1.6 Opportunities for international students

Being an international student has its benefits. In countries where there are fewer universities to accommodate the number of potential tertiary students, going abroad is a great option for students who would not have had the opportunity to access higher education in their own country. While many international students’ primary objective is to obtain international degree, they often gain an international perspective beyond the classroom that usually benefits them both personally and professionally. In many cases they acquire or perfect a second language. Often they establish contact with other international students from other countries and create an international network. Additionally, their earning potential often increases as a result of having an international education. This however, is not true in all cases.

As stated before, empirical evidence shows that the field of study determines whether one will be more successful professionally with a ‘foreign degree’ in his or her home country. In certain countries, such as Jamaica, some sectors appear to be more loyal to those students who are locally educated. This area of internationalisation has not been well researched, but would be worth further investigation.

Most countries offer students the opportunity to solicit residency upon completion of their study, but this is usually granted to those whose expertise are most needed. Unlike the other lead countries presented in this paper, Canada and Spain do not appear to grant international students based of their field of studies, but rather because they carried out their studies in these country. This is an incentive mainly for students with loans as it means they will have a better chance of paying off their loans, and while this

encourages students to make the financial and emotional investment in these countries, such incentives admittedly contribute to the ongoing ‘brain drain’ dilemma developing countries face.

6.2 Challenges and opportunities in CbEd Type 2

Comparable to CbEd Type-1 students, are the challenges of students who matriculate in P & I mobility programmes. Crossing culture in any form lends for more misunderstanding, and thus challenges are inevitable. However, it is crucial to bear in mind that cross-cultural exchanges in any form bring about permanent learning, one that is applicable to the students’ personal and professional life. Furthermore, the ‘differences’ encountered by students participating in such international programmes are elements that make cross-border education truly ‘international’. Unlike student mobility, CbEd Type-2 presents fewer challenges, which are mainly associated with quality and accreditation, and the same is true in respect to the benefits gain.

6.2.1 Challenges: Quality and accreditation

The challenges in this type of cross-border education are much fewer than those faced in CbEd Type-1, but though few they are very concerning for both students and host countries alike.

In short they amount to quality and accreditation. In this type of cross-border education, as noted previously, the challenge is a matter of credibility of providers and validity of programmes. The number of unaccredited programmes and institutions offering international degrees in host countries is substantial, and given that they are not obligated to be accredited in their home countries has resulted in an influx of ‘degree mills’. Students who participate in CbEd Type-2 programme often run the risk of being left with degrees that are unrecognizable abroad, credits that are not transferable, and even worse, left with uncompleted degrees as some providers tend to abandon their programmes in host countries.

6.2.2 Opportunities: International degree/mobility

The opportunities provided by CbEd Type2 are comparable to those of CbEd Type1 with a couple exceptions. The first is the cost to students in Type-2 mobility, as previously mentioned, is substantially lower than Type1 given that students are able to avoid the additional expenses migration attracts, and the high matriculation fees require of international students by some countries. Furthermore, in the case of those who are employed, they are able to retain their jobs while pursuing an international education.

Secondly, CbEd Type2 students with an accredited international degree have a greater opportunity to migrate as they are more marketable and perceived more suited for the current global labour market.

CONCLUSION

Cross-border higher education is far reaching in its implications and impacts on economies worldwide. In spite of years of research that have brought about more knowledge and greater understanding, the ‘internationalisation of higher education’ phenomenon at different levels continues to elude even the pundits.

Traditionally, higher education has been fundamental in governance; that is, in establishing policies, planning and executing plans geared towards sustainable nation building. Today, higher education is inadvertently ‘international higher education’, thus the internationalisation of higher education in the twenty-first century, a globalised world, means an international education is required to govern all sectors of any given nation more effectively and competitively.

The long term aim of internationalising higher education and allowing for freer trade policies, as presented by international organisation such as the GATS, is to level the playing field for developed, emerging and developing countries; it is also to ensure tertiary graduates employability and added opportunities in labour markets worldwide. However, with no single policy to steer the internationalisation of higher education, and with the present level of competitiveness among nations and regions to build knowledge economies, which includes strategies such as employed by developed countries to augment their ‘stay rate’ of international students, it is safe to say there is no simple way of defining this phenomena.

The concept of what internationalisation in higher education is challenges the various actors who deem it pertinent to the solution of many international problems such as sustainable nation building, poverty and social injustice. Internationalisation with its many dimensions and vast terminologies is indeed a complex phenomenon that is difficult to define as it is to contain.

If internationalisation is the response to globalisation, with an objective to maintain national and cultural identity throughout the process, then more studies must be done in respect to curricula development and teacher training. Globalisation and internationalisation in higher education call for further study for us to better grasp their implications and not necessarily to attain a single definition. A ‘shift in approach’ is

needed and that shift must require change in the curricula content and the application of general global best practices in higher education, ensuring they are culture relevant and meet the needs of those that import it.

Colleen Ward (2001) notes that in spite of the extensive literature on cross-cultural differences in educational expectations and practices, as well as considerable research carried out on cross-cultural differences in student behaviours, little to no direct investigation has been done on how they impact the international classroom. Such studies find that international students generally experience more problems than domestic students and that they are vital to the increase of cultural awareness, thus more needs to be done in this area.

The internationalisation of higher education must be considered a natural phenomenon, and while many continue to encourage the advancement of internationalisation in higher education, there are those who have unfavourable views of it. O'Doherty (2007) makes reference to Koutsantoni's (2006b) suggesting that continuing recruitment of international students by the vast majority of higher education institutions (HEIs) do so 'to the detriment of enhancing the international experience of home students or creating a culture of equality and diversity.' He submits that internationalisation at home (IaH) is nothing more than 'good housekeeping' whereas 'internationalisation abroad' is adventure and potential profit.

The demand for higher education is increasing and it is becoming more and more competitive, and competition is expected to help improve quality assurance, but it may not if 'degree mills' are not held accountable. Hence, competition must be allowed within a somewhat homogenous context with benchmark mechanisms; guaranteeing better access and quality education options.

International organisations such as the OECD, UNESCO and others will continue to examine the effects of internationalisation in higher education and continue to take initiatives that should result in developed and developing countries becoming more equal beneficiaries of cross-border education.

Whether leaders or not in cross-border/transnational higher education, all OECD and partner countries play a vital role in the development of international education and the movement toward a more globalised society in the twenty-first century.

Even though only few OECD countries, mainly Anglophone countries, have been very proactive in recruiting ‘free moving’ international students (non-participants in mobility schemes), they account for more than 50 percent of CbEd Type-1 services worldwide (OECD EAG, 2013: 305). These countries (the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Australia, and Canada) will continue to be strong actors in shaping the future of international education.

In the case of Spain, the focal point has been mainly geared towards horizontal student mobility (credit mobility) such as ERASMUS/SOCRATES programmes. Notwithstanding, from all indication there is a paradigm shift occurring. The recently launched government website promises to build awareness and attract ‘free moving’ students to their universities and should be seen as a major first step to procure a more significant proportion of this cohort of international students.

It may be argued that developed countries benefit more than other countries given the revenue gained from cross-border education. On the other hand, it may be argued that if knowledge is power and a knowledge economy is needed to eliminate poverty and inequality then over time, a couple decades at most, many developing countries will have achieved developed country status or become much more competitive as a result of the internationalisation of higher education.

The reality, however, should not be overlooked; the lead countries compared have, a ‘magnet effect’ in attracting students to their countries’ institutions and programmes. Hence, developing countries will continue to spend billions of dollars importing higher education only to keep losing some of their best human resources to developed countries. While cross-border education is not a panacea, with such a perennial trend developing countries are unlikely to achieve sustainable nation building objectives to better meet their social and economic demands.

Five years ago the OECD (2008c, 13-14) predicted several trends in higher education in respect to cross-border education that still serve as signals to what the future of this industry holds:

- women will be in the majority at the tertiary level;
- universities will be more diverse;

- the number of international students will continue to increase and a growth in migration might lead to the emergence of new issues concerning inequality;
- the social base will expand, affecting inequalities of educational opportunity between social groups;
- changes in issues and policies to minimize inequalities and to reflect access policies for students with disabilities; and
- the “academic profession will be more internationally oriented and mobile, but still structured in accordance with national circumstances.”

Universities will continue to experience ‘tension’ as the numbers of international students grow and campuses become more diverse, and governments may have to again ‘embark’ on, contrary to the GATS, a greater degree of ‘protectionism’ for the good of their citizens and countries’ development. The growing need for better institution and government policies, quality international curricula, and better access for all will advance the internationalisation of higher education.

And while there is data indicating there will be much fewer or no poor countries in the future, or as Bill Gates predicts there will be none by 2035, there is similar data suggesting that the poverty is augmenting within countries (CASSIDY, 2014). The new trend, which sees developing nations gaining ‘developed’ status while the inequality gap is widening within both developed and developing nations, may be attributed to globalisation and the overt disparities in various policies directing cross-border higher education.

The following findings of this research highlight pertinent factors impacting cross-border higher education and their implications for developed and developing countries, thus answering the pointed question above, which concur with Altbach’s postulation of developing countries being left behind:

- There is no single definition for the term ‘internationalisation’ in respect to higher education.

- There are discrepancies in statistics due to the various definitions of international students and inconsistency with the statistics provided by the various data sources and government agencies.
- The classification of international education mobility activities is still a topic of debate.
- Access to international higher education is augmenting rapidly; primarily through programme and institution mobility.
- There are quality assurance policies in place at the institutional, national, regional and international level. Nonetheless, quality assurance remains a challenge in cross-border education, especially in programme and institution mobility.
- Cross-border education is a multi-billion dollar export industry for developed countries. Student mobility is becoming more and more a multi-million dollar service industry for many developed and OECD partner countries.
- Commercialising higher education and treating it as a commodity is in the best interest of host nations and host institutions, while international students' academic success, and to some extent, social well-being remains secondary.
- Brain drain is still prevalent among developing countries, and cross-border education, in fact, encourages it given that an international education qualifies students for the international job market that offers remuneration their home country may not be able to offer them.
- International students at the personal level benefit greatly from their studies abroad, but many pay a high price financially and emotionally.
- International/higher education is vital to creating knowledge economies; a 'knowledge economy' is imperative to nation building in the twenty-first century, and a knowledge economy is a 'developed country'.
- Finally, developed countries benefit significantly more than developing countries from cross-border/transnational higher education activities, and thus the regions that consist of more developed (and partner countries) benefit more than other regions.

Hence, the answer to the question: Whose interest are we serving? For Altbach (2013) the answer is clear as he posits that while ‘brain drain’ is nothing new the situation is becoming ‘increasingly acute for all sides’, and this growth positions emerging and developing countries in a predicament that will see them being ‘left behind’ and their future permanently damaged.

In addition to maximising revenue, the bottom line appears to be that developed countries, by sourcing cross-border education services, are striving to have developing countries become more developed and therefore less dependent on their financial resources; however, not developed enough to become competitive.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

International Education Policies (IEPs)/Acts

Australia

The ESOS Acts and regulations set out the legal framework governing delivery of education to overseas students studying in Australia on a student visa. The Australian Government, through the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), administers the ESOS Act and its associated instruments. The ESOS Act and ESOS (Registration Charges) Act were amended with effect from 1 January 2007.

<http://aei.gov.au/AEI/ESOS/ESOSLegislation/default.htm>

(Amended March, 2010) This Act may be cited as the *Education Services for Overseas Students Act 2000*. The principal objects of this Act are:

- a) to provide financial and tuition assurance to overseas students for courses for which they have paid; and
- b) to protect and enhance Australia's reputation for quality education and training services; and
- c) to complement Australia's migration laws by ensuring providers collect and report information relevant to the administration of the law relating to student visas.

[www.comlaw.gov.au/ComLaw/Legislation/ActCompilation1.nsf/0/8C0D9B955D925F24CA2576E3001518E8/\\$file/EduSerforOverStud2000_WD02.pdf](http://www.comlaw.gov.au/ComLaw/Legislation/ActCompilation1.nsf/0/8C0D9B955D925F24CA2576E3001518E8/$file/EduSerforOverStud2000_WD02.pdf)

Canada

The Division works to enhance and promote the internationalization of higher education in Canada. It coordinates international Canadian activities relating to higher education in cooperation with the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (CMEC), other federal departments and non-governmental organizations. It coordinates and conducts studies and analyses of issues connected to international cooperation in higher education, relating them to the department's priorities. Lastly, it coordinates the process leading to the signing and ratification of agreements and international conventions on education-related issues and ensures that Canada complies with the obligations it has assumed through such agreements. (Modified 2009 -05 - 11)

<http://www.international.gc.ca/education/policy-politique.aspx?lang=eng>

France

The French Government created a special agency, EduFrance, which has taken the lead in developing marketing materials and outreach campaigns in English, to reach beyond France's traditional international student base in francophone Africa and the Middle East. In March 2007, EduFrance was merged with two other organizations to create CampusFrance, a new national agency with 98 offices abroad charged with the promotion of French higher education and providing advice to and services for international students. This new agency is under the supervision of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Education, and Higher Education and Research.

<http://www.iienetwork.org/page/116248/>

Germany

DAAD plays important roles in furthering the international aspects of German academic, cultural, and science policies; supporting the international relations of German colleges and universities

through international exchange and programs; and maintaining a worldwide network of offices, guest professors, and alumni who offer information and assistance on a local level.

Mission:

1. To enable young academic elites from around the world to become leaders in the fields of science, culture, economics, and politics – as well as friends and partners of Germany.
2. To qualify young German elites to assume positions of leadership in a global environment by providing them with international and intercultural experiences.
3. To enhance the internationalization of German higher education institutions, by way of increasing their attractiveness for the top students and scholars from around the world.
4. To promote scholarship on the German language, literature, and the arts in universities worldwide with a view to increasing the role of German as an important cultural and practical language and creating a better understanding of Germany's rich cultural heritage.
5. To support the process of economic and democratic reform in developing countries and in the transition countries of Middle and Eastern Europe by supporting their academic research and progress.

<http://www.daad.org/page/46391/>

Spain – Not available.

United Kingdom

In 2006 a second phase of the *Prime Minister Initiative* (known as PMI2) was launched. This five-year strategy comprises five interconnected projects (marketing and communications, HE partnerships, FE partnerships, student experience and employability) and aims to:

- attract an additional 70,000 international students to UK HE and an additional 30,000 international students to UK FE
- double the number of countries sending more than 10,000 students per annum to the UK
- improve international student satisfaction in the UK
- achieve significant growth in the number of partnerships between the UK and other countries

PMI2 therefore represents a major opportunity to increase the focus on the importance of the international student experience. UKCISA coordinates the student experience project and manages a wide range of associated activities. Some projects are being run in-house and others are being developed in consultation with experts to produce publications and resources and run events. <http://www.ukcisa.org.uk/pmi/index.php>

United States of America

NAFSA has called for a U.S. coordinated strategy that promotes the internationalization of learning in the broadest sense, including encouraging students from other countries to study in the United States, promoting study abroad by U.S. students, facilitating the exchange of scholars and

of citizens at all levels of society, supporting the learning of foreign languages and knowledge of other cultures by Americans, and enhancing the educational infrastructure through which we produce international competence and research.
http://www.nafsa.org/public_policy.sec/united_states_international/

Other Countries

China

Overall Situation of studying in China for International Students

As an important component of international exchanges and cooperation, international students' education has been given great importance by the Chinese government. Due to half-century's painstaking efforts, an international student's administration system, with distinct Chinese characteristics, has been constructed. This system has helped to produce a number of talents in the fields of science, technology, education, diplomacy, management, etc. for many countries, especially developing countries, and played an active role in enhancing the political, diplomatic and economic ties between China and those countries as well as promoting the exchange of culture, education and personnel.

The outbreak of SARS in 2003 had brought great difficulties. In order to implement the 2003-2007 Action Plan for Rejuvenating Education, the Ministry of Education had worked creatively on the policy of "expand the size, raise the level, guarantee the quality and regulate the management".

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/en/level3.jsp?tablename=1242702622613408&inford=1253167141479184&title=Overall%20Situation%20of%20Studying%20in%20China%20for%20International%20Students>

Japan

2) Respect for Cultural Diversity

Globalization, resulting from the rapid spread of the Internet, has increased the status of English in the international community. It has been pointed out that, while cultures are becoming homogenized by globalization, a dynamic coexistence between different cultures is indispensable as a basis on which each culture can develop.

As part of this trend, **the ASEAN Multinational Cultural Mission**, comprised of the Japanese Government, governments of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and 20 representatives from the private sector, was formed in 1997, making regular visits to participating countries and holding active discussions. Based on these discussions, the Multinational Cultural Mission recommended in 1998 that, "In the midst of the rapid progress of globalization, Japan and ASEAN share an awareness of the danger of losing tangible and intangible cultural heritage. In order for the sustainable development of a culture rich in creativity, it is important to further mutual understanding among people of different nationalities and to cultivate common values while at the same time maintaining respect for cultural diversity." Their recommendation encourages an appreciation for culture in today's rapidly globalizing society.

APPENDIX B

EduGATS for Higher Education



Source: Verger

EDUCATION SERVICES COMMITMENT – (Member / Sector Matrix Report)

- 05.A. Primary Education Services
- 05.B. Secondary Education Services
- 05.C. Higher Education Services
- 05.D. Adult Education
- 05.E. Other Education Services
- HC - Horizontal Commitments

Members	05.A.	05.B.	05.C.	05.D.	05.E.	Total	HC Text
Albania	X	X	X	X		4	view
Armenia			X	X		2	view
Australia		X	X		X	3	view
Austria	X	X		X		3	view
Bulgaria	X	X		X		3	view

Cambodia			X	X	X	3	view
Cape Verde		X	X	X	X	4	view
China	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Congo RP			X			1	view
Costa Rica	X	X	X			3	view
Croatia		X	X	X	X	4	view
Czech Republic	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Estonia	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
European Community	X	X	X	X		4	view
FYR Macedonia	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Gambia	X			X	X	3	view
Georgia	X	X	X	X		4	view
Ghana		X			X	2	view
Haiti				X		1	view
Hungary	X	X	X	X		4	view
Jamaica	X	X	X			3	view
Japan	X	X	X	X		4	view
Jordan	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Kyrgyz Republic	X	X	X	X		4	view
Latvia	X	X	X	X		4	view
Lesotho	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Liechtenstein	X	X	X	X		4	view
Lithuania	X	X	X	X		4	view
Mali				X		1	view
Mexico	X	X	X		X	4	view
Moldova	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Montenegro	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Nepal			X	X	X	3	view
New Zealand	X	X	X			3	view
Norway	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Oman	X	X	X	X		4	view
Panama	X	X	X			3	view
Poland	X	X	X	X		4	view
Russian Federation	X	X	X	X		4	view
Rwanda				X		1	view
Samoa	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Saudi Arabia	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Sierra Leone	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Slovak Republic	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Slovenia		X	X	X		3	view
Switzerland	X	X	X	X		4	view
Chinese Taipei		X	X	X	X	4	view

Thailand	X	X		X		3	view
Tonga	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Trinidad and Tobago			X		X	2	view
Turkey	X	X	X		X	4	view
Ukraine	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
USA				X	X	2	view
Vanuatu	X	X	X	X	X	5	view
Viet Nam		X	X	X	X	4	view
Total	39	45	46	45	29		

Source: World Trade Organization

Disclaimer

The Committee on Specific Commitments, in its third meeting held on 7 July 1997, decided that the electronic version of the schedules would have no legal validity (S/CSC/M/3, dated 7 July 1997, paragraphs 33-35). This was confirmed in its annual report to the Council for Trade in Services (S/CSC/2, dated 26 November 1997, paragraph 3) and then endorsed by the Council for Trade in Services (S/C/M/21, dated 12 January 1998, paragraphs 4-6). This implies in particular that the aggregation done by the Secretariat under its own responsibility, although verified by Members, has no legal value. Only the treaty copies are authentic and in case of dispute settlement they would be the basis on which a panel would assess the scope, the extent and the dates of the commitments.

APPENDIX C

GUIDELINES FOR QUALITY PROVISION IN CROSS-BORDER HIGHER EDUCATION – © OECD 2005

Recommendation concerning Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education

THE COUNCIL,

Having regard to Article 5 (b) of the Convention establishing the OECD of 14 December 1960;

Having regard to Rule 18 (b) of the OECD Rules of Procedure;

Recognising that cross-border provision of higher education offers students/learners new opportunities, such as increased access to higher education, and improvement and innovations in higher education systems and contributes to the building of international co-operation, which is essential to academic knowledge as well as, more generally, to national social and economic wealth;

Recognising that cross-border provision of higher education has to be managed appropriately in order to limit low-quality provision and rogue providers, and that it is increasingly important for students/learners and relevant stakeholders to be better informed of the quality of higher education programmes;

Recognising that an international framework is needed in order to minimise the risk of misleading guidance and information, low-quality provision (including rogue providers), degree mills that offer low-quality educational experience and qualifications of limited validity, and accreditation mills;

Recognising the importance of national sovereignty over higher education and the unevenness and diversity of stages of development of domestic systems to assure the quality of higher education among countries;

Recognising that some member countries have many competent bodies and relevant frameworks – some of which are non-governmental – responsible for quality assurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications, and which can take or initiate action in the field of higher education;

Noting that the present text has been elaborated in close collaboration with the UNESCO Secretariat and with the input of UNESCO Member States;

ON THE PROPOSAL OF THE EDUCATION COMMITTEE, RECOMMENDS THAT MEMBER COUNTRIES:

1. Develop appropriate frameworks for quality provision of higher education across borders, especially focusing on:
 - a) Providing students/learners with adequate information resources for informed decision-making to protect them from the risks of misleading guidance and information, low-quality provision including rogue providers, degree mills that offer low-quality educational experience and qualifications of limited validity and accreditation mills.

b) Making qualifications readable and transparent in order to increase their international validity and portability and to ease the work of recognition and credential evaluators. This objective should be facilitated by reliable and user-friendly information sources and needs to be combined with the commitment of institutions/providers to provide cross-border higher education of comparable quality to that offered in the home country.

c) Making procedures for the recognition of qualifications more transparent, coherent, fair and reliable, and imposing as little burden as possible on mobile students and professionals.

d) Intensifying international co-operation among national quality assurance and accreditation agencies in order to increase their mutual understanding.

2. Take the appropriate steps for the implementation of this Recommendation, as set forth in greater detail in the Guidelines on Quality Provision in Cross-Border Higher Education (hereafter the Guidelines), which are contained in the Annex to this Recommendation and form an integral part thereof. The Guidelines are not legally binding and member countries are expected to implement the Guidelines as appropriate in their national context;

3. Assist as appropriate non-member economies to implement the Guidelines and in particular, helping them to strengthen their capacities to that effect;

4. Widely disseminate the Guidelines to all relevant governmental departments and agencies, to higher education institutions/providers, student bodies, quality assurance and accreditation bodies, academic recognition bodies, professional bodies, and to other relevant stakeholders;

5. Encourage and support higher education institutions/providers, student bodies, quality assurance and accreditation bodies, academic recognition bodies and professional bodies to take the appropriate actions to implement the Guidelines at international, regional and national levels; and

INSTRUCTS the relevant OECD bodies, if and when possible in co-operation with the relevant UNESCO bodies, to survey developments by appropriate stakeholders in countries regarding implementation of the

Recommendation and to assess the Guidelines in light of developments in cross-border higher education, and

REPORTS to the Council as appropriate.

(Annex C)

Guidelines¹¹¹ for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education

I. Introduction

Purpose of the Guidelines

The Guidelines aim to support and encourage international cooperation and enhance the understanding of the importance of quality provision in cross-border higher education.¹¹² The

¹¹¹ These Guidelines are not legally binding and member countries are expected to implement the Guidelines as appropriate in their national context.

¹¹² In these Guidelines, cross-border higher education includes higher education that takes place in situations where the teacher, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross national jurisdictional borders. Cross-border higher education may include higher education by public/private and not-for-profit/for-profit providers. It

purposes of the Guidelines are to protect students and other stakeholders from low-quality provision and disreputable providers¹¹³ as well as to encourage the development of quality cross-border higher education that meets human, social, economic and cultural needs.

Rationale for the Guidelines

Since the 1980s, cross-border higher education through the mobility of students, academic staff, programmes/institutions and professionals has grown considerably. In parallel, new delivery modes and cross-border providers have appeared, such as campuses abroad, electronic delivery of higher education and for-profit providers. These new forms of cross-border higher education offer increased opportunities for improving the skills and competencies of individual students and the quality of national higher education systems, provided they aim at benefiting the human, social, economic and cultural development of the receiving country.

While in some countries the national frameworks for quality assurance, accreditation and the recognition of qualifications take into account cross-border higher education, in many countries they are still not geared to addressing the challenges of cross-border provision. Furthermore, the lack of comprehensive frameworks for co-ordinating various initiatives at the international level, together with the diversity and unevenness of the quality assurance and accreditation systems at the national level, create gaps in the quality assurance of cross-border higher education, leaving some cross-border higher education provision outside any framework of quality assurance and accreditation. This makes students and other stakeholders more vulnerable to low-quality provision and disreputable providers of cross-border higher education. The challenge faced by current quality assurance and accreditation systems is to develop appropriate procedures and systems to cover foreign providers and programmes (in addition to national providers and programmes) in order to maximise the benefits and limit the potential drawbacks of the internationalisation of higher education. At the same time, the increase in cross-border student, academic staff, researcher and professional mobility has put the issue of the recognition of academic and professional qualifications high on the international cooperation agenda.

There is therefore a need for additional national initiatives, strengthened international co-operation and networking, and more transparent information on procedures and systems of quality assurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications. These efforts should have a global range and should emphasise supporting the needs of developing countries to establish robust higher education systems. Given that some countries lack comprehensive frameworks for quality assurance, accreditation and the recognition of qualifications, capacity building should form an important part of the overall strengthening and co-ordination of national and international initiatives. In this light, UNESCO Secretariat and the OECD have worked closely together in the development of these Guidelines for quality provision in cross-border higher education (“Guidelines”). The implementation of these Guidelines could serve as a first step in the capacity building process.

The quality of a country’s higher education sector and its assessment and monitoring is not only key to its social and economic well-being, it is also a determining factor affecting the status of that higher education system at the international level. The establishment of quality assurance systems has become a necessity, not only for monitoring quality in higher education delivered within the country, but also for engaging in delivery of higher education internationally. As a consequence, there has been an impressive rise in the number of quality assurance and accreditation bodies for higher education in the past two decades. However, existing national quality assurance capacity often focuses exclusively on domestic delivery by domestic institutions. The increased cross-border mobility of students, academic staff, professionals, programmes and providers presents challenges for existing national quality assurance and accreditation frameworks and bodies as well as for the systems for recognising foreign qualifications. Some of these challenges are described below:

encompasses a wide range of modalities, in a continuum from face-to-face (taking various forms such as students travelling abroad and campuses abroad) to distance learning (using a range of technologies and including e-learning).

¹¹³ In this context “disreputable providers” refer to degree and accreditation mills.

- a) National capacity for quality assurance and accreditation often does not cover cross-border higher education. This increases the risk of students falling victim to misleading guidance and information and disreputable providers, dubious quality assurance and accreditation bodies and low-quality provision, leading to qualifications of limited validity.
- b) National systems and bodies for the recognition of qualifications may have limited knowledge and experience in dealing with cross-border higher education. In some cases, the challenge becomes more complicated as cross-border higher education providers may deliver qualifications that are not of comparable quality to those which they offer in their home country.
- c) The increasing need to obtain national recognition of foreign qualifications has posed challenges to national recognition bodies. This in turn, at times, leads to administrative and legal problems for the individuals concerned.
- d) The professions depend on trustworthy, high-quality qualifications. It is essential that users of professional services including employers have full confidence in the skills of qualified professionals. The increasing possibility of obtaining low-quality qualifications could harm the professions themselves, and might in the long run undermine confidence in professional qualifications.

Scope of the Guidelines

The Guidelines aim to provide an international framework for quality provision in cross-border higher education that responds to the above-mentioned challenges.

The Guidelines are based on the principle of mutual trust and respect among countries and on the recognition of the importance of international collaboration in higher education. They also recognise the importance of national authority and the diversity of higher education systems. Countries attach a high importance to national sovereignty over higher education. Higher education is a vital means for expressing a country's linguistic and cultural diversity and also for nurturing its economic development and social cohesion. It is therefore recognized that policy-making in higher education reflects national priorities. At the same time, it is recognised that in some countries, there are several competent authorities in higher education.

The effectiveness of the Guidelines largely depends on the possibility of strengthening the capacity of national systems to assure the quality of higher education. The development and implementation of the UNESCO regional conventions and further support to the ongoing capacity building initiatives of UNESCO, other multilateral organisations and bilateral donors in this area will sustain and be complementary to the Guidelines. These initiatives should be supported by strong regional and national partners.

The Guidelines acknowledge the important role of non-governmental organisations such as higher education associations, student bodies, academic staff associations, networks of quality assurance and accreditation bodies, recognition and credential evaluation bodies and professional bodies in strengthening international co-operation for quality provision in cross-border higher education. The Guidelines aim to encourage the strengthening and co-ordination of existing initiatives by enhancing dialogue and collaboration among various bodies.

Cross-border higher education encompasses a wide range of modalities that range from face-to-face (taking various forms such as students travelling abroad and campuses abroad) to distance learning (using a range of technologies and including e-learning). In implementing the Guidelines,

consideration should be given to the variety of provision and its different demands for quality assurance.

II. Guidelines for Higher Education Stakeholders

With due regard to the specific division of responsibilities in each country, the Guidelines recommend actions to six stakeholders:¹¹⁴ governments; higher education institutions/providers including academic staff; student bodies; quality assurance and accreditation bodies; academic recognition bodies;¹¹⁵ and professional bodies.

Guidelines for governments

Governments can be influential, if not responsible, in promoting adequate quality assurance, accreditation and the recognition of qualifications. They undertake the role of policy coordination in most higher education systems. However, it is acknowledged throughout these Guidelines that in some countries, the authority for overseeing quality assurance lies with sub-national government bodies or with non-governmental organisations.

In this context, it is recommended that governments:

- a) Establish, or encourage the establishment of a comprehensive, fair and transparent system of registration or licensing for cross-border higher education providers wishing to operate in their territory.
- b) Establish, or encourage the establishment of a comprehensive capacity for reliable quality assurance and accreditation of cross-border higher education provision, recognising that quality assurance and accreditation of cross-border higher education provision involves both sending and receiving countries.
- c) Consult and coordinate amongst the various competent bodies for quality assurance and accreditation both nationally and internationally.
- d) Provide accurate, reliable and easily accessible information on the criteria and standards for registration, licensure, quality assurance and accreditation of cross-border higher education, their consequences on the funding of students, institutions or programmes, where applicable and their voluntary or mandatory nature.
- e) Consider becoming party to and contribute to the development and/or updating of the appropriate UNESCO regional conventions on recognition of qualifications and establish national information centres as stipulated by the conventions.
- f) Where appropriate develop or encourage bilateral or multilateral Recognition agreements, facilitating the recognition or equivalence of each country's qualifications based on the procedures and criteria included in mutual agreements.

¹¹⁴ In the Guidelines, the distinctions among these stakeholders are made based on the functions and it is recognised that the different functions do not necessarily belong to separate bodies.

¹¹⁵ Academic recognition bodies include qualification recognition bodies, credential evaluation bodies, and advisory/information centres

- g) Contribute to efforts to improve the accessibility at the international level of up-to-date, accurate and comprehensive information on recognised higher education institutions/providers.

Guidelines for higher education institutions/providers

Commitment to quality by all higher education institutions/providers is essential.¹¹⁶ To this end, the active and constructive contributions of academic staff are indispensable. Higher education institutions are responsible for the quality as well as the social, cultural and linguistic relevance of education and the standards of qualifications provided in their name, no matter where or how it is delivered. In this context, it is recommended that higher education institutions/providers delivering cross-border higher education:

- a) Ensure that the programmes they deliver across borders and in their home country are of comparable quality and that they also take into account the cultural and linguistic sensitivities of the receiving country. It is desirable that a commitment to this effect should be made public.
- b) Recognise that quality teaching and research is made possible by the quality of faculty and the quality of their working conditions that foster independent and critical inquiry. The UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Higher Education Teaching Personnel¹¹⁷ and other relevant instruments need to be taken into account by all institutions and providers to support good working conditions and terms of service, collegial governance and academic freedom.
- c) Develop, maintain or review current internal quality management systems so that they make full use of the competencies of stakeholders such as academic staff, administrators, students and graduates and take full responsibility for delivering higher education qualifications comparable in standard in their home country and across borders. Furthermore, when promoting their programmes to potential students through agents, they should take full responsibility to ensure that the information and guidance provided by their agents are accurate, reliable and easily accessible.
- d) Consult competent quality assurance and accreditation bodies and respect the quality assurance and accreditation systems of the receiving country when delivering higher education across borders, including distance education.
- e) Share good practices by participating in sector organisations and inter-institutional networks at national and international levels.
- f) Develop and maintain networks and partnerships to facilitate the process of recognition by acknowledging each other's qualifications as equivalent or comparable.
- g) Where relevant, use codes of good practice such as the UNESCO/Council of Europe Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education¹¹⁸ and other relevant codes such as

¹¹⁶ An important and relevant initiative for this is the statement "Sharing Quality Higher Education across Borders" by the International Association of Universities, the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, the American Council on Education and the Council on Higher Education Accreditation on behalf of higher education institutions worldwide

¹¹⁷ Available at: http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13144&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

¹¹⁸ Available at: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/HigherEducation/Recognition/Code%20of%20good%20practice_EN.asp#

the Council of Europe/UNESCO Recommendation on Criteria and Procedures for the Assessment of Foreign Qualifications.¹¹⁹

- h) Provide accurate, reliable and easily accessible information on the criteria and procedures of external and internal quality assurance and the academic and professional recognition of qualifications they deliver and provide complete descriptions of programmes and qualifications, preferably with descriptions of the knowledge, understanding and skills that a successful student should acquire. Higher education institutions/providers should collaborate especially with quality assurance and accreditation bodies and with student bodies to facilitate the dissemination of this information.
- i) Ensure the transparency of the financial status of the institution and/or educational programme offered.

Guidelines for student bodies

As representatives of the direct recipients of cross-border higher education and as part of the higher education community, student bodies bear the responsibility of helping students and potential students to carefully scrutinise the information available and giving sufficient consideration in their decision making process. In this context, it is recommended that the emergence of autonomous local, national and international student bodies be encouraged and that the student bodies:

- a) Be involved as active partners at international, national and institutional levels in the development, monitoring and maintenance of the quality provision of cross-border higher education and take the necessary steps to achieve this objective.
- b) Take active part in promoting quality provision, by increasing the awareness of the students of the potential risks such as misleading guidance and information, low-quality provision leading to qualifications of limited validity, and disreputable providers. They should also guide them to accurate and reliable information sources on cross-border higher education. This could be done by increasing the awareness of the existence of these guidelines as well as taking an active part in their implementation.
- c) Encourage students and potential students to ask appropriate questions when enrolling in cross-border higher education programmes. A list of relevant questions could be established by student bodies, including foreign students where possible, in collaboration with bodies such as higher education institutions, quality assurance and accreditation bodies and academic recognition bodies. Such a list should include the following questions: whether the foreign institution/provider is recognised or accredited by a trustworthy body and whether the qualifications delivered by the foreign institution/provider are recognised in the students' home country for academic and/or professional purposes.

Guidelines for quality assurance and accreditation bodies

In addition to internal quality management of institutions/providers, external quality assurance and accreditation systems have been adopted in more than 60 countries. Quality assurance and accreditation bodies are responsible for assessing the quality of higher education provision. The existing systems of quality assurance and accreditation often vary from country to country and

TopOfPage

¹¹⁹ Available at: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/HigherEducation/Recognition/Criteria%20and%20procedures_EN.asp#TopOfPage

sometimes within the countries themselves. Some have governmental bodies for quality assurance and accreditation, and others have non-governmental bodies. Furthermore, some differences exist in the terminologies used, the definition of “quality”, the purpose and function of the system including its link to the funding of students, institutions or programmes, the methodologies used in quality assurance and accreditation, the scope and function of the responsible body or unit, and the voluntary or compulsory nature of participation. While respecting this diversity, a co-ordinated effort among the bodies of both sending and receiving countries is needed at both the regional and global level, in order to tackle the challenges raised by the growth of cross-border provision of higher education, especially in its new forms. In this context, it is recommended that quality assurance and accreditation bodies:

- a) Ensure that their quality assurance and accreditation arrangements include cross-border education provision in its various modes. This can mean giving attention to assessment guidelines, ensuring that standards and processes are transparent, consistent and appropriate to take account of the shape and scope of the national higher education system, and adaptability to changes and developments in cross-border provision.
- b) Sustain and strengthen the existing regional and international networks or establish regional networks in regions that do not already have one. These networks can serve as platforms to exchange information and good practice, disseminate knowledge, increase the understanding of international developments and challenges as well as to improve the professional expertise of their staff and quality assessors. These networks could also be used to improve awareness of disreputable providers and dubious quality assurance and accreditation bodies, and to develop monitoring and reporting systems that can lead to their identification.
- c) Establish links to strengthen the collaboration between the bodies of the sending country and the receiving country and enhance the mutual understanding of different systems of quality assurance and accreditation. This may facilitate the process of assuring the quality of programmes delivered across borders and institutions operating across borders while respecting the quality assurance and accreditation systems of the receiving countries.
- d) Provide accurate and easily accessible information on the assessment standards, procedures, and effects of the quality assurance mechanisms on the funding of students, institutions or programmes where applicable as well as the results of the assessment. Quality assurance and accreditation bodies should collaborate with other actors, especially higher education institutions/providers, academic staff, student bodies and academic recognition bodies to facilitate the dissemination of such information.
- e) Apply the principles reflected in current international documents on cross-border higher education such as the UNESCO/Council of Europe Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education.¹²⁰
- f) Reach mutual recognition agreements with other bodies on the basis of trust in and understanding of each other’s professional practice, develop systems of internal quality assurance and regularly undergo external evaluations, making full use of the competencies of stakeholders. Where feasible, consider undertaking experiments in international evaluation or peer reviews.

¹²⁰ Available at: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/HigherEducation/Recognition/Code%20of%20good%20practice_EN.asp#TopOfPage

- g) Consider adoption of procedures for the international composition of peer review panels, international benchmarking of standards, criteria and assessment procedures and undertake joint assessment projects to increase the comparability of evaluation activities of different quality assurance and accreditation bodies.

Guidelines for academic recognition bodies

The UNESCO regional conventions on the recognition of qualifications are important instruments facilitating the fair recognition of higher education qualifications, including the assessment of foreign qualifications resulting from cross-border mobility of students, skilled professionals and cross-border provision of higher education. There is a need to build on existing initiatives with additional

international action to facilitate fair processes of recognition of academic qualifications by making systems more transparent and comparable. In this context, it is recommended that academic recognition bodies:

- a) Establish and maintain regional and international networks that can serve as platforms to exchange information and good practice, disseminate knowledge, increase the understanding of international developments and challenges and improve the professional expertise of their staff.
- b) Strengthen their cooperation with quality assurance and accreditation bodies to facilitate the process of determining whether a qualification meets basic quality standards, as well as to engage in cross-border cooperation and networking with quality assurance and accreditation bodies. This cooperation should be pursued both at regional and cross-regional level.
- c) Establish and maintain contacts with all stakeholders to share the information and improve the links between academic and professional qualification assessment methodologies.
- d) Where appropriate, address the professional recognition of qualifications in the labour market and provide necessary information on professional recognition, both to those who have a foreign qualification and to employers. Given the increasing scope of the international labour markets and growing professional mobility, collaboration and co-ordination with professional associations are recommended for this purpose.
- e) Use codes of practice such as the Council of Europe/UNESCO Recommendation on Criteria and Procedures for the Assessment of Foreign Qualifications¹²¹ and other relevant codes of practice to increase the public's confidence in their recognition procedures, and to reassure stakeholders that the processing of requests is conducted in a fair and consistent manner.
- f) Provide clear, accurate and accessible information on the criteria for the assessment of qualifications, including qualifications resulting from cross-border provision.

Guidelines for professional bodies¹²²

Systems of professional recognition differ from country to country and from profession to profession. For example, in some cases, a recognised academic qualification could be sufficient for entry into professional practice, whereas in other cases, additional requirements are imposed on holders of academic qualifications in order to enter the profession. Given the increasing scope of international labour markets and growing professional mobility, the holders of academic qualifications, as well as employers and professional associations are facing many challenges.

¹²¹ Available at: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/HigherEducation/Recognition/Criteria%20and%20procedures_EN.asp#TopOfPage

¹²² This section refers to institutions with legal competence in the field of regulated professions and professional recognition. In some countries, these institutions are professional bodies; in other countries, this role is being performed by other competent authorities, such as governmental ministries.

Increasing transparency – i.e., improving the availability and the quality of the information – is critical for fair recognition processes.

In this context, it is recommended that professional bodies responsible for professional recognition:

- a) Develop information channels that are accessible both to national and foreign holders of qualifications to assist them in gaining professional recognition of their qualifications, and to employers who need advice on the professional recognition of foreign qualifications. Information should also be easily accessible to current and potential students.
- b) Establish and maintain contacts between the professional bodies of both sending and receiving countries, higher education institutions/providers, quality assurance and accreditation bodies, as well as academic recognition bodies to improve qualification assessment methodologies.
- c) Establish, develop and implement assessment criteria and procedures for comparing programmes and qualifications to facilitate the recognition of qualifications and to accommodate learning outcomes and competencies that are culturally appropriate in addition to input and process requirements.
- d) Improve the accessibility at the international level of up-to-date, accurate and comprehensive information on mutual recognition agreements for the professions and encourage the development of new agreements.

APPENDIX D

Erasmus Mundus

The objective of the Erasmus Mundus programme is to promote European higher education, to help improve and enhance the career prospects of students and to promote intercultural understanding through cooperation with third countries, in accordance with EU external policy objectives in order to contribute to the sustainable development of third countries in the field of higher education. It does this through three Actions:

Action 1 – Erasmus Mundus Joint Programmes (Master Courses and Joint Doctorates) – with Scholarships Erasmus Mundus Joint Programmes are operated by consortia of higher education institutions (HEIs) from the EU and (since 2009) elsewhere in the world. They provide an integrated course and joint or multiple diplomas following study or research at two or more HEIs. Master Courses and Joint Doctorates are selected each year following a Call for Proposals. There are currently 131 Masters and 34 Doctorates offering EU-funded scholarships or fellowships to students and scholars.

Action 2 – Erasmus Mundus Partnerships (former External Cooperation Window) – with scholarships Under Action 2, Erasmus Mundus Partnerships bring together HEIs from Europe on the one hand and those from a particular region, or geographical ‘lot’ on the other. Together the partnerships manage mobility flows between the two regions for a range of academic levels – Bachelor, Master, doctorate, post-doctorate and for academic staff.

Action 3 – Erasmus Mundus Attractiveness projects. This Action of the Programme funds projects to enhance the attractiveness, profile, image and visibility of European higher education worldwide. Action 3 provides support to activities related to the international dimension of all aspects of higher education, such as promotion, accessibility, quality assurance, credit recognition, mutual recognition of qualifications, curriculum development and mobility.

European Countries’ Participation in Erasmus Mundus Programme (2012)

	Number of participations (i) of higher education institutions in Erasmus Mundus joint masters and doctorates (2004-2001)	Number of participations (i) of higher education institutions in Erasmus Mundus partnerships (2007 – 2011) (ii) (iii)	Incoming mobilities (iv) (students and academics) (2004 -2012)	Outgoing mobilities (Students and academics) (2004-2012)
Austria	19	41	787	114
Belgium	69	96	3099	266
Bulgaria	0	18	172	88

Croatia	0	9	138	316
Cyprus	0	2	0	27
Czech Republic	28	42	922	206
Denmark	39	9	1012	32
Estonia	6	2	159	21
Finland	28	26	1029	68
France	191	150	6765	835
Germany	153	146	5650	835
Greece	14	18	807	174
Hungary	26	5	598	78
Iceland	2	1	15	8
Ireland	24	14	473	93
Italy	138	157	4947	940
Latvia	1	14	83	79
Liechtenstein	0	2	20	1
Lithuania	4	25	280	164
Luxembourg	3	0	29	4
Malta	2	0	44	1
Netherlands	99	79	3049	271
Norway	31	3	1008	38
Poland	39	66	1406	422
Portugal	85	69	2600	293
Romania	7	11	108	199
Slovakia	3	5	49	66
Slovenia	8	14	366	143
Spain	155	169	6054	872
Sweden	80	81	3285	226
Switzerland	14	0	52	44
UK	108	51	3541	179

(i) The concept of "participations" does not coincide with "HEIs". In fact the same HEI can participate more than once.

(ii) "Partnerships" action only started in 2007, that's why the period covered is different from the other columns.

(iii) Since most of the HEIs are the same in EM joint masters and doctorates and in EM partnerships, it does not seem appropriate to sum up the figures in the first two columns.

(iv) The concept of "mobilities" does not coincide with "individuals". In fact in certain cases the same student goes to a country twice during his/her mobility and this is calculated as two different mobilities.

Source: European Commission

<http://ec.europa.eu/education/focus/doc/mobilityfigures.pdf>

APPENDIX E

Lead Countries' Definitions of 'International/Foreign Student'

Australia 'International students' are defined as those studying onshore only with visa subclasses 570 to 575, excluding students on Australian-funded scholarships or sponsorships or students undertaking while in the possession of other temporary visas. (Data also exclude students with New Zealand citizenship because they do require a visa to study in Australia).

Canada 'Foreign students' are defined as temporary residents who have been approved by an immigration officer to study in Canada. Every 'foreign student' must have a student Authorization, but they may also be in possession of other types of permits or authorizations. (Students do not need a study permit for courses of six months or less if they finish the course within the period of stay authorized upon entry, which is usually six months.)

France 'Foreign students' are defined as foreign nationals who travel to France for the purpose of study or long-term or permanent residents in possession of French secondary qualification and who likely have French residency status. Data thus include students who are long-term or permanent residents without French citizenship in France and overseas territories such as Guadeloupe, Reunion and Martinique (*départments d'outre mer, or DOM*).

Germany 'Foreign student' are defined as 'mobile foreign students' (*Bildungsausländer*), those who travel to Germany specifically for study, and 'non-mobile foreign students' (*Bildungsinländer*), those in possession of German secondary school qualifications and who likely have German residency status. Data thus include students who are long-term or permanent residents without German citizenship.

Spain* An international student is one who does not have Spanish nationality. [...] University foreign students who come through the Socrates-Erasmus programme are not counted as international students; such is covered in chapter G2. (Translated by author).

Se considera como alumnado extranjero a aquel que no posee la nacionalidad española. Incluye por tanto al colectivo procedente de la emigración, pero su ámbito es más amplio. Respecto a los nacidos en España de padres extranjeros, el Ordenamiento Jurídico Español no les atribuye, con carácter general, la nacionalidad española. Ahora bien, sí otorga dicha nacionalidad

si el nacido no tiene ninguna otra, pues en ningún caso un niño puede carecer de nacionalidad.

En Educación Universitaria no se incluye como alumnado extranjero el alumnado de universidades extranjeras que viene a través del Programa Sócrates-Erasmus, el cual está recogido en el capítulo G2.

United Kingdom

‘International students are defined as students who are not UK domiciled, and whose normal residence is either in countries which were European Union (EU) members as of 1 December of the reporting period (EU students) or whose normal residence prior to commencing their programmes of study was outside the EU (non-EU students). Data thus exclude students who are permanent residents without British citizenship.

United States

‘Foreign students’ are defined as students who are enrolled at institutions of higher education in the US who are not citizens of the US, immigrants or refugees. These may include holders of F (student) visas, H (temporary worker/trainee) visas, J (temporary educational exchange-visitor) visas and M (vocational training) visas. Data thus exclude students who have long-term or permanent residency.

Source:

<http://www.wes.org/educators/pdf/StudentMobility.pdf> &
<http://www.wes.org/ewenr/research.asp>

*Fuentes de información:

- *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España niveles no universitarios*. Curso 2007-08. Oficina de Estadística del Ministerio de Educación.
- *Datos Avance de la Estadística del Alumnado Universitario*. Curso 2007-08. Subdirección General de Análisis, Estudios y Prospectiva Universitaria del Ministerio de Educación.

Retrieved: July 2010

APPENDIX F

‘International/Foreign Student’ Tuition Cost and Economic Contribution (An estimated average cost for both public and private)

I) TUITION COST

Australia	A\$14,000 – 37,000 (€9,000 to €24,000) per annum http://www.studyinaustralia.gov.au/global/australian-education/education-costs (2013)
Canada	C\$10,000 – 24,000 (€12,038) average per annum http://www.aucc.ca/canadian-universities/facts-and-stats/tuition-fees-by-university/
France	€180 – 596 per annum (Public) €3,000 – 10,000 per annum (Private) http://www.france.fr/en/studying-france/cost-studying-france?back=%2Fen%2Fen-search%2Fen-content%2Finternational%2520student%2520cost
Germany	€0 - 20.000 per annum http://www.studying-in-germany.org/scholarships-and-financing/
Spain	€680 - €1,400 per annum (Public) €15,000 - €15,000 per annum (Private) http://universidad.es/en/spain/spains-universities/spanish-university-system/cost-studying-spain
United Kingdom	£3,500 to £18,000 (€4,854 to €23,361) per annum http://www.ukcisa.org.uk/International-Students/Fees--finance/Home-or-Overseas-fees/#How-much-are-'overseas'-fees?
United States	US\$16,000 to \$46,500 average living expense per annum http://yaounde.usembassy.gov/edu_faqs.html

II) ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION TO HOST COUNTRIES

Australia	A\$12.3 billion (2008-9) http://globalhighered.files.wordpress.com/2009/04/theaustralianeducationsectorandtheeconomiccontributionofinternationalstudents-2461.pdf
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Canada	C\$ 6.5 billion (2008) http://globalhighered.wordpress.com/2009/10/29/measuring-the-economic-value-of-canada/
France	n
Germany	€9.4 billion (2009) http://www.newdelhi.diplo.de/Vertretung/newdelhi/en/08/Studieren_in_Deutschland/Seite_Made-in-Germany.html
Spain	€229,120 million (2002-2003) http://www.eduespa.org/en/sectorial_data.asp?Id_Nota=45&sm=16
United Kingdom	£5.6 billion (2007) & £10.1 billion (2011) http://globalhighered.wordpress.com/2007/09/18/44/
United States	US\$17.6 billion (2008-2009) http://www.nafsa.org/publicpolicy/default.aspx?id=17174

n = Not available

Retrieved: August 2010 and updated November 2013

APPENDIX G
(La Traducción)

La internacionalización de la educación superior: un estudio comparado de la educación transfronteriza de tipos 1&2 y su impacto en los países en desarrollo y desarrollados

RESUMEN

Este trabajo examina que significa ‘la internacionalización de la educación superior’ y como la globalización y, en particular, la internacionalización han influenciado la educación transnacional y los efectos que las políticas comerciales y económicas han tenido en la movilidad de estudiantes y en la movilidad de programas e instituciones (P & I) a lo largo de estos últimos años. Estos dos tipos de movi­lidades han sido muy relevantes en el desarrollo nacional. Por medio de la investigación cualitativa y cuantitativa, resulta evidente que para los países en desarrollo que han tenido dificultad en satisfacer las exigencias y necesidades de educación superior de su población, la educación transnacional ha sido la solución principal para ellos para así cubrir dichas demandas. No obstante, para los países que proveen la mayoría de los servicios de la educación internacional, la educación transfronteriza ha sido y seguirá siendo un medio de renta significativa. Los beneficios financieros a nivel individual, nacional y regional son evidencias de la importancia del papel de la educación transnacional en una creciente economía de conocimiento global. Este trabajo de investigación, por lo tanto, presenta las diferentes facetas e implicaciones de la educación transnacional que a nivel superior tiene para los países desarrollados y en desarrollo.

1. PRESENTACIÓN

Provenir de un país del tercer mundo y creer que estudiar en el extranjero podría ser una inversión personal que mereciera la pena, y una opción que inevitablemente sería

valiosa para los proyectos de construcción nacional de mi país, ha sido una perspectiva limitada de mi papel en la ‘internacionalización’ de la educación superior. Más allá de esa perspectiva limitada es lo que se examina en este estudio; tomando mi trabajo de investigación más allá de los objetivos individuales que se viertan en los beneficios nacionales para examinar las políticas proactivas de educación transfronteriza nacionales y regionales, y/u otras iniciativas transfronterizas nacionales y regionales que contribuyen al desarrollo nacional y regional.

Las últimas dos décadas y media he tenido la oportunidad de estudiar en cuatro instituciones de educación superior en el extranjero (Broward Community College, la Universidad de Florida, la Universidad de Andrews y ahora la Universidad de Valencia) en dos países diferentes, Estados Unidos y España. De hecho, mis estudios internacionales se llevaron a cabo bajo las dos modalidades de educación transfronteriza (Modos 1 y 2 de GATS). Empecé mi Master en Educación en un programa de verano ofrecido por la Universidad de Andrews y auspiciada por la Universidad del Norte de Caribe de Jamaica antes de que rompieran relaciones, lo cual propició mi regreso de nuevo a los EE.UU. para completar mis estudios.

Es durante esa penúltima experiencia como estudiante internacional que comencé la reflexión y comprensión de las diversas facetas de la ‘educación superior internacional’. Sin embargo, un interés más profundo en el tema de la educación transfronteriza surgió con mi experiencia como estudiante internacional en España.

El tema de la tesis se confirmó por el mero hecho de que no me era posible acceder a suficientes datos fiables sobre los resultados de los exámenes de selectividad, se llaman GCSE/CXC, para todo el Caribe anglófono. Por lo tanto, la alternativa era investigar esta pequeña cohorte de estudiantes de los cuales formo parte participando en la educación transfronteriza.

Para empezar, la introducción de este trabajo resume el propósito de esta investigación. En esencia, es identificar y entender los efectos y las implicaciones que la internacionalización de la educación superior tiene para los países desarrollados y en desarrollo.

Inicial e idealmente, el objetivo era investigar la educación transfronteriza a diferentes niveles: institucional, nacional, regional y global. Según avanzaba mi

investigación acabé encontrando mucho más relevante y asumible centrarme en los planos nacional, regional y global. Así, las iniciativas a nivel institucional han quedado excluidas a propósito de la sección comparativa de este trabajo (*Sección dos*). Este proyecto está estructurado en tres partes:

- La primera Sección define conceptos clave y examina las tendencias en la internacionalización de la educación en un mundo globalizado. El reto para definir los términos utilizados para describir actividades transfronterizas, aunque no son opuestos, no son concretos. De hecho, la definición del término ‘internacionalización’, tal y como se presenta en las páginas de la SECCIÓN UNO, es un ejemplo de ello.
 - Los primeros dos capítulos están presentados en la Sección uno. El capítulo uno presenta las terminologías y define los términos relevantes para entender el concepto y las actividades de la educación transfronteriza. Se incluye también una perspectiva general del desarrollo de la educación transfronteriza a lo largo del tiempo. El capítulo dos presenta el papel de la comunidad internacional bajo los auspicios del Acuerdo General sobre el Comercio de Servicios (AGCS).
- La segunda Sección también destaca las diferencias entre las definiciones de ‘estudiante internacional’ y ‘estudiante extranjero’ de diferentes países. Sin embargo, esta Sección comparativa examina específicamente las actividades de la educación transfronteriza a dos niveles (regional y nacional) a fin de contestar a la pregunta ¿A quién beneficia más?
 - La Sección está dividida en tres capítulos. El capítulo tres presenta una perspectiva amplia de las actividades transfronterizas y destaca la división entre ‘el mundo’ desarrollado y ‘el mundo’ en desarrollo. El capítulo cuatro presenta los datos sobre el impacto de la movilidad de los estudiantes internacionales en los siete países que ocupan los primeros puestos como destino, y el impacto que la movilidad de estudiantes tiene en el desarrollo de su economía, además de destacar los países que más estudiantes internacionales envían fuera. El capítulo cinco examina los

servicios de la movilidad de programas e instituciones a la vez que a los siete países que los suministran.

- La tercera Sección se centra en las oportunidades y desafíos a los que se enfrentan los consumidores que se dedican a conseguir un título internacional; además de los resultados de este trabajo comparativo: las implicaciones generales de la educación transfronteriza para los países desarrollados y en desarrollo.
 - El capítulo seis detalla los desafíos y oportunidades principales para los estudiantes que participan en la educación transfronteriza. El último capítulo recoge las conclusiones de este trabajo.

2. OBJETIVOS Y METODOLOGÍA

En este trabajo de investigación se ha empleado tanto el enfoque cualitativo como el cuantitativo. La primera parte del estudio consiste en el análisis cualitativo de los datos obtenidos mediante la revisión documental, entrevistas personales, y guías de los actores más influyentes (organizaciones multinacionales, ministerios gubernamentales, universidades y Organizaciones no Gubernamentales) en el campo de la educación transfronteriza; se presenta una visión general del fenómeno de la educación transfronteriza.

En el examen teórico incluyo un análisis de las publicaciones de investigación, políticas, libros y otro tipo de documentación que son pertinentes sobre tema. Los datos fueron obtenidos principalmente a través de fuentes *online* dado que resultó ser el medio más accesible.

Como estudiante internacional que ha adquirido todos los estudios terciarios fuera de mi país de origen, se hace referencia a mi experiencia personal. Sin embargo, una vez más, para no hablar sólo desde mi perspectiva limitada, se han llevado a cabo unas entrevistas personales.

También contacté con tres universidades españolas (Universidad de Granada, Universidad Complutense de Madrid y la Universidad de Valencia) que han indicado que el número de estudiantes que participan en la movilidad vertical, fuera de un programa de movilidad, fue significativamente menor que los que participaron en algún tipo de

programa de movilidad como Erasmus. Los datos en relación a la movilidad vertical de estudiantes internacionales no fueron de fácil disposición o se me dieron unos datos aproximados.

Aunque con unos 950,000 estudiantes internacionales, estudiantes predominantemente ERASMUS, según el informe del 2012, los datos de educación transfronteriza para España en cuanto a la movilidad de estudiantes verticales son relativamente escasos. De hecho, recientemente en 2013, el Ministerio de Industria, Energía y Turismo y el Instituto de Comercio Exterior (ICEX) de España ayudaron a poner en marcha el portal de 'Estudia en España'. Bob Burger, director de marketing del Instituto Malaca, sugiere que el número de estudiantes internacionales interesados en participar en la movilidad vertical es significativo. Alrededor del 20 por ciento de sus estudiantes dice que están en España estudiando español con el fin de pasar a algún tipo de programa universitario (CUSTER, 2013).

El enfoque cuantitativo se empleó en la sección comparativa. Las estadísticas se obtienen principalmente a través de la OCDE 'Education at a Glance', informes anuales, el Instituto de la UNESCO de Estadística, ATLAS Student Mobility (IIE), los sitios oficiales del Ministerio de Educación de cada país que presento en la sección comparativa, así como las organizaciones gubernamentales pertinentes con influencia en los estudios internacionales y la educación superior.

Los objetivos principales de esta sección de la investigación han sido:

- Identificar el papel de los estudiantes internacionales en el desarrollo social y economía de los países de acogida y las instituciones de acogida
- Identificar el rol que juegan en el desarrollo económico de sus propios países los estudiantes domésticos que participan en estudios internacionales a través de la movilidad de programas e instituciones y, también, en la contribución económica que hacen a los países de acogida que los reciben.

Esta Sección compara las actividades transfronterizas en la educación superior en siete destinos principales: Australia, Canadá, Alemania, Francia, España, el Reino Unido y los Estados Unidos. El método de yuxtaposición en el que se presentan los números

reales facilita la comparación y destaca aún más los verdaderos beneficiarios de la educación transnacional.

Los países elegidos para la Sección comparativa fueron seleccionados por sus rankings en los informes de varias organizaciones tales como los mencionados anteriormente como los 10 mejores destinos para estudiantes internacionales entre 2008 y 2013. Sin embargo, una excepción se ha hecho en el caso de España, que no ha sido clasificada nunca entre los 10 principales destinos en el mismo período, pero se ha incluido por una razón: mi interés personal en el enfoque del país en la internacionalización de la educación superior y, en particular, los estudiantes internacionales.

Es importante reiterar que las estadísticas utilizadas para esta investigación no reflejan con exactitud el número de estudiantes internacionales matriculados en la educación superior, ya que algunos países podrían no incluir a las instituciones privadas mientras que otros, en función de su definición de estudiantes internacionales, pueden incluir a los estudiantes extranjeros con residencia. No obstante, a pesar de las incoherencias y lagunas en la lectura de datos, se ha hecho lo posible por utilizar los números que reflejen los estudiantes a los que se han emitido visas de estudiante y han iniciado las clases.

El objetivo y el énfasis de este análisis es a la vez aumentar el conocimiento y generar un enfoque más orientado a la acción hacia el logro de los resultados finales del AGCS, la UNESCO y la OCDE que anticipan promesas de educación transfronteriza para los países en desarrollo.

3. LOS PROGRAMAS Y MODALIDADES DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR TRANSFRONTERIZA EN EL CONTEXTO DE LA GLOBALIZACIÓN Y LA INTERNACIONALIZACIÓN.

El asunto de ‘globalización’ e ‘internacionalización’ de la educación es un fenómeno complejo dado que en el contexto de la educación, no hay una sola definición para estos términos. Cambios en las prácticas en el ámbito del comercio global influyen en la necesidad de redefinir los términos, y por lo tanto su máximo impacto en el sector educativo aún no ha sido realizado. No obstante, hay algunas definiciones que son más

aceptadas que otras que ayudan a obtener una mejor comprensión de los conceptos y objetivos de los términos. Contextualizando, los términos globalización e internacionalización muy a menudo están utilizados indistintamente aunque no deberían, siendo que no son sinónimos.

La definición de la globalización, en su forma más simple, es el ‘flujo de la tecnología, la economía, el conocimiento, las personas, los valores y las ideas a través de las fronteras’, mientras la internacionalización de la educación superior se considera como la reacción a la globalización: es ‘...el proceso de integrar una dimensión internacional, intercultural o global en el propósito, las funciones o la oferta de la educación superior en los planos institucional y nacional’ (KNIGHT, 2002 & 2008). Lo que se ha hecho evidente es el punto de vista de que ‘la internacionalización está cambiando el mundo de la educación y la globalización está cambiando el mundo de la internacionalización’ (KNIGHT, 2003).

Las últimas dos décadas han experimentado un movimiento de una cifra aproximada media de 2,5 millones de estudiantes internacionales que han dejado sus países cada año por conseguir una educación internacional, muy a menudo de nivel superior. Y aún así, una cifra más significativa que la de los estudiantes móviles, es la cifra de los estudiantes que están matriculados en programas e instituciones de movilidad en sus propios países. Este modo de estudio internacional está aumentando y llegando a ser más popular entre los estudiantes que tienen un trabajo o una familia y no quieren o no pueden darse el lujo de emigrar. Mientras la movilidad del extranjero no es nada nuevo, la globalización en el siglo veintiuno ha traído consigo nuevos retos y oportunidades para los estudiantes, los cuales para este trabajo de investigación, son definidos como estudiantes que emigran temporalmente con el único propósito de asistir a instituciones de educación superior en otros países para conseguir un título al tiempo que obtienen una nueva perspectiva cultural y académica.

Asimismo la movilidad de programas e instituciones, aun en su etapa temprana, cuando la comparamos con la movilidad de estudiantes, no es inmune a los desafíos. Los estudiantes que participan en programas en el extranjero desde de su país suelen ser vulnerables a una educación de mala calidad que ofrece ‘fábricas de títulos’ a un costo más bajo que el que los estudiantes internacionales pagan; pero esto, a veces, ha

demostrado tener costes. El número de proveedores sin escrúpulos que han saturado el mercado de la educación transnacional no solo ha bajado el nivel de la educación internacional de calidad, sino que también deja a sus graduados incompetentes para entrar en el mercado de trabajo: una gran preocupación para todos los sectores de la sociedad. También muy preocupante es el número de proveedores extranjeros no acreditados que a menudo suspenden sus programas dejando a los estudiantes con estudios parciales y créditos que no son transferibles.

La cuestión de la educación de calidad es una preocupación importante en las instituciones de la educación superior en todo el mundo, pero con respecto a la educación internacional, en el tema de la educación transnacional es la de mayor preocupación. La calidad de cualquier programa de educación internacional se debe medir, entre otras cosas, por su adecuación a las necesidades culturales, sociales y económicas de los estudiantes de los países, así como a las posibilidades de empleo de los graduados. Incluso el establecimiento de la Red Internacional para el Aseguramiento de la Calidad (INQAAHE) y la Conferencia Internacional sobre la Calidad de la Educación Superior (ICQH), las estrategias de evaluación comparativa y las orientaciones de la OCDE para contrarrestar la mala calidad de las ofertas internacionales de educación superior, así como mejorar la educación superior de calidad a nivel mundial, sigue siendo de vital importancia para hacer frente continuamente a la necesidad de una mayor educación superior de calidad.

Los estudiantes internacionales se consideran un subgrupo dentro del colectivo de estudiantes extranjeros (OCDE, 2013). Los términos de estudiantes internacionales y estudiantes extranjeros pueden usarse indistintamente, y, sin embargo, las definiciones varían de país a país. En algunos países el término ‘estudiante internacional’ se refiere a las personas que residen en un país extranjero con el único propósito de estudiar y obtener un título o certificación de una institución de educación superior, centro de formación profesional, un curso intensivo de idiomas, o de otras instituciones educativas. No obstante, en países como Alemania y Francia, los estudiantes que tienen la residencia permanente pero no son ciudadanos de estos países, se consideran estudiantes extranjeros y, como tal, se cuentan como estudiantes internacionales.

Dentro de esta cohorte de estudiantes existen dos grupos: los que financian sus propios estudios con fondos personales y/o familiares, y los que reciben becas o subvenciones de organismos oficiales o particulares. Los estudiantes internacionales (el término utilizado en este trabajo para referirse a los estudiantes que tienen la residencia no permanente en otro país) tienen diferentes razones para tratar de avanzar en sus estudios en universidades extranjeras, que son por lo general, para obtener beneficios personales, tales como el desarrollo personal y mejorar el potencial de ingresos. Por otra parte, los países receptores también tienen sus razones para proporcionar a estos estudiantes la oportunidad de estudiar en sus países, en concreto: 1) el beneficio económico tanto para la institución como para el país, y 2) el enriquecimiento cultural para los estudiantes nacionales.

Los países más populares para los estudiantes internacionales son miembros de la OCDE. Estos han sido tradicionalmente el imán para los estudiantes internacionales. Los países anfitriones de la OCDE reciben más de dos tercios de los más de 4,3 millones de estudiantes internacionales de todo el mundo. Algunos de estos países tienen programas de reclutamiento activos orientados a atraer estudiantes internacionales, y también han establecido organismos que mantienen registros de sus actividades para los estudiantes extranjeros. Estados Unidos, por ejemplo, tiene el programa de ‘puertas abiertas’, mientras que el Reino Unido tiene UKCISA y Francia tiene CampusFrance.

Según el Instituto de Estadística de la UNESCO, la OCDE y otras fuentes de datos, los dos países con el mayor número de estudiantes salientes son China y la India, las dos naciones en vías de desarrollo, y son fuente de casi el 20 por ciento de los estudiantes internacionales a nivel mundial. Los datos también indican que los países anglófonos son los destinos preferidos entre los estudiantes internacionales anglófonos y no anglófonos. Sin embargo, esto está cambiando. Más movimiento Sur-Sur está ocurriendo, por ejemplo en Asia la nueva estrategia empleada es aumentar la movilidad de los estudiantes, programas e instituciones dentro la región en sí. Además, el establecimiento de ‘centros de educación’ y ‘ciudades de conocimiento’ ha añadido una nueva dimensión a la educación transfronteriza, pero específicamente a la movilidad de la P & I, lo que indica la dirección futura de la educación superior internacional. Nuevas estrategias de marketing empleadas por los países en desarrollo, como Arabia Saudita, Malasia,

Singapur y China se encuentran entre algunos de los planes estratégicos de esos países que quieren un pedazo del pastel de la educación.

La elección de un país por parte de los estudiantes depende de varios factores tales como el idioma del país anfitrión, el idioma en el que se lleva a cabo la instrucción, el coste, y por último las propias preferencias. Las políticas de la educación internacional reflejan los objetivos de un país y, en el caso de Australia, el Reino Unido, los Estados Unidos, Alemania, Francia y otros es seguir siendo los líderes como fuentes de la educación superior a nivel internacional (Anexo A). En esa perspectiva, cada vez más se hace más necesario para los países de origen contar con estrategias específicas para hacer frente al fenómeno de la ‘fuga de cerebros’, y así reducir la fuga de algunas de sus ‘mentes brillantes’ a los países desarrollados, además de poder participar de manera eficiente en una economía ‘globalizada’ e ‘internacionalizada’. Por otro lado, los estudiantes internacionales que, al término de sus estudios, optan por residir permanentemente en el país de acogida o en un país distinto del suyo, históricamente han contribuido en gran medida al producto interior bruto de sus países (PIB) gracias a los millones enviados a través de remesas cada año.

Los datos revelan que la elección de carrera de muchos estudiantes que participan en la educación superior transfronteriza tiende a estar relacionada con el desarrollo industrial y la administración de empresas. Estas opciones de estudios son por lo general la mayor demanda en los países desarrollados y en desarrollo. No obstante, a diferencia de los países desarrollados, es poco probable que los graduados internacionales sean compensados al regresar a sus países en desarrollo por la cantidad que invierten en los gastos de matrícula y subsistencia. Esta realidad contribuye al fenómeno de la fuga de cerebros que tradicionalmente ha sido el proveedor de los principales grupos de educación transfronteriza/transnacional y así aprovechar los beneficios de los estudiantes internacionales cualificados. Por otro lado los países en desarrollo han sido perennemente los consumidores primarios y se benefician, ya que de esta forma son más capaces de satisfacer la demanda de educación superior en su país.

La educación superior sin duda ha evolucionado desde la Edad Media. La educación superior en el siglo XXI no sólo aborda los problemas sociales, económicos y culturales de una nación, sino que también se ocupa de los de las regiones y del mundo en

general. La región Europea y de América del Norte es la región que alberga la mayoría de los estudiantes internacionales y la mayoría de programas que se provee en el extranjero. Aunque el comercio Norte-Sur sigue siendo principal, hay un cambio que está ocurriendo en los países del sur; hay más y más comercio Sur-Sur que se produce en el campo de la educación superior. A pesar de ese aumento notable, se espera que los países del Sur sigan siendo los consumidores principales de la educación transfronteriza.

Dado que Asia representa más de un tercio de consumidores a nivel mundial de la educación transfronteriza, y los países desarrollados son tradicionalmente los beneficiarios de la educación transnacional, en un intento de contrarrestar la fuga de cerebros de la región, se han establecido políticas para garantizar una educación de calidad local que se proporciona para retener a más estudiantes y graduados calificados en la región. Las nuevas estrategias de la región incluyen, así como en la región Oriente Medio y el Norte de África (OMNA), el establecer un nicho que atraiga algunas de las universidades más prestigiosas de Europa y de Norte América, y las mentes más brillantes del mundo a su 'ciudades de conocimiento' o 'centros de conocimiento'.

Las iniciativas y asociaciones establecidas por las regiones educativas indican la importancia de la educación superior a la hora desarrollar su economía. El África subsahariana es ahora una de las regiones de más rápido crecimiento para atraer y retener en el continente a sus estudiantes con ese tipo de nuevas iniciativas de concentración regional de la oferta de educación superior, mientras que el desarrollo en la internacionalización de la educación superior en América Latina y el Caribe es relativamente lento.

Hoy en día, la internacionalización de la educación superior no se limita a la movilidad de estudiantes y a las fronteras físicas. La educación transfronteriza -educación transnacional para algunos como un término más correcto para describir las actividades de educación superior internacionales actuales- incluye la movilidad de programas e instituciones (P & I), y está creciendo rápidamente como resultado de algunas de las nuevas formas de oferta de la educación superior. De hecho, el número de alumnos matriculados en la movilidad de P & I ha aumentado mucho en la última década que, como se mencionó anteriormente, ha superado al número total de estudiantes internacionales.

Los programas en el extranjero son cada vez más populares como un medio de ingresos para los principales proveedores de la educación superior transfronteriza. El aumento de estos programas en todo el sur de Asia y en Oriente Medio es una indicación de la demanda de la educación internacional. El sector de la educación y la formación internacional es el cuarto más grande en ingresos en exportación de Australia (se estima en AUS \$15,7 mil millones en 2011); en Estados Unidos es el tercer ingreso más grande en exportaciones con más de \$22,7 mil millones; y, aunque no se encuentra entre las cinco primeras exportaciones para el Reino Unido se considera una exportación clave que tiene unos ingresos de £17,5 mil millones (AEI.GOV, 2013; IIE.ORG, 2012; EXPORT.GOV, 2013; GOV.UK, 2013).

Tradicionalmente la tecnología ha tenido un papel importante en el aumento de la educación internacional: principalmente a través de correos electrónicos y programas virtuales. Sin embargo, la forma más reciente de la oferta es por medio de los Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC), en español Cursos en Línea Masivos y Abiertos, con sus diversas formas, ha traído otro foro internacional de aprendizaje, haciendo que la accesibilidad a la educación superior sea más fácil y sin costo para más de unos seis millones de estudiantes de todo el mundo.

Inicialmente, hace menos de tres años, los programas MOOCs se ofrecían principalmente por universidades acreditadas norteamericanas *ivy-league* como el MIT, Harvard (EDX) y Stanford (Coursera), así como algunas universidades en el Reino Unido, pero ahora se ofrecen en muchas universidades de todo el mundo. Esta nueva forma de educación transnacional es de gran alcance y se está modelando cada vez más, pero la desventaja de estos programas es su alta tasa de deserción escolar, y, muchas veces, el hecho de que la mayoría de las universidades ofrezcan cursos no-acreditados. Algunos datos indican que la mayoría de estos cursos ofrecen ahora la opción de obtener créditos universitarios o Certificados de realización de los cursos previo pago de dichas acreditaciones.

Todas las formas de oferta de la educación transfronteriza se han hecho más fáciles debido al Acuerdo General sobre el Comercio de Servicios (AGCS) y sus cuatro modos de suministro de servicios: comercio transfronterizo, consumo en el extranjero, comercial y presencia de personas físicas. Si bien el impacto del AGCS en la educación superior

transfronteriza no está completamente documentado, y ya que la actual Ronda de Doha aún no se ha finalizado y puesto en práctica, los países desarrollados han cambiado el ayudar a la educación superior en los países en desarrollo por hacer comercio con ellos; y esto puede ser un factor que favorezca la incorporación de la educación a la lista de servicios del AGCS para ser comercializados.

El Acuerdo ha sido criticado por algunos y bien recibido por otros. El debate sigue siendo si la educación es un “bien público” ¿Por qué se está haciendo de ella una gran mercancía para comerciar? El AGCS en su forma pura, en teoría, es para nivelar el campo del comercio, permitiendo a los países en desarrollo y los países menos adelantados la oportunidad del comercio justo. No obstante, comercio justo es una de las preocupaciones que los críticos han presentado contra el AGCS. De los 140 Estados miembros en la actualidad, hay 59 que se han comprometido con el comercio de servicios en educación y de ellos 46 se han comprometido con el comercio de servicios en educación superior. Algunos países líderes como Canadá no han tomado ningún compromiso con los servicios de educación, y los Estados Unidos y el Reino Unido no han adoptado ningún compromiso con el comercio de la educación superior, son los grandes ausentes de la lista.

Por la escasez de datos relevantes no se incorpora a este trabajo un estudio comparativo de la edad y del sexo de los estudiantes internacionales; sin embargo, hasta la fecha, la evidencia apunta a una cohorte de 21 a 35 años de edad la que representa el mayor porcentaje de estudiantes móviles. Del mismo modo, aunque algunos países son considerados “imanes” para ciertos campos, todavía no se ha logrado un estudio comparativo concreto que muestre hasta qué nivel los planes de estudio para estos campos superiores de estudios en los países de acogida están internacionalizados.

La cuestión de la garantía de calidad es también motivo de gran preocupación, sobre todo en lo que respecta a la movilidad de programas e instituciones. La conclusión es que una educación de calidad favorece la empleabilidad para los estudiantes y un aumento de la matrícula para las instituciones. Por lo tanto, la garantía de calidad se mantendrá en las agendas de los órganos de gobierno de todos los actores pertinentes a todos los niveles en el sector de la educación, es decir a nivel nacional, regional e internacional, así como las del sector público y expertos en políticas de educación

superior, que en general, se enfrentan constantemente a la lucha contra las nuevas formas de oferta que puedan socavar las políticas de garantía de calidad en vigor.

Por último, los participantes en la educación fronteriza enfrentan varios desafíos y disfrutan de varios beneficios. Para los estudiantes internacionales (Modo 2 –consumo en el extranjero) los desafíos a los que se enfrentan están tanto dentro como fuera del campus. Los estudiantes internacionales tienen que hacer frente a varios desafíos (lingüístico, económico, cultural, social, racial, y más) en su búsqueda de una educación superior en el extranjero. Por otro lado, los éxitos de estos estudiantes son evidentes en los intercambios culturales que contribuyen a una perspectiva más global tanto al país anfitrión como a su propio país de origen, suponiendo que regresen, y en la planificación de programas económicos y sociales en curso. En otras palabras, los retos de la obtención de visados, la financiación de los estudios en el extranjero, y hacer frente a los prejuicios raciales y culturales son constantes, pero los beneficios de obtener un título internacional, una mejor capacidad de conseguir ingresos, una perspectiva más global, y el aumento de la propia oportunidad de emigrar a otro país hace que sea una buena inversión. Para los estudiantes nacionales que participan en la movilidad de P & I (modos 1 y 3 – de suministro transfronterizo y presencia comercial) sus desafíos pueden resumirse en una sola categoría, la calidad y el reconocimiento.

Una mirada a los desafíos y las oportunidades de la educación transfronteriza, tanto a la movilidad estudiantil como a la movilidad de programas e instituciones, plantea varias preguntas tales como: ¿Seguirá siendo la educación superior siendo un bien público? ¿Cuál es el impacto negativo de los planes de estudios instrumentales para la cultura de los estudiantes internacionales? ¿Están los profesores capacitados para educar un cuerpo estudiantil tan diverso? ¿Quién se beneficia más de este tipo de educación, los países desarrollados o los países en desarrollo? Los países desarrollados, hasta el momento, han sido los más favorecidos en la práctica, dado que los servicios educativos tienden a estar entre los cinco principales servicios de sus exportaciones como es el caso de los Estados Unidos y de Australia, y, al tiempo, sirve como un vehículo para atraer a las mentes más brillantes.

4. TENDENCIAS FUTURAS: AGCS Y MOVILIDAD REGIONAL Y DE PROGRAMAS E INSTITUCIONES (P&I)

Se preveía que la Ronda de Doha, en su trigésimo año, finalizara en enero de 2012. Sin embargo el debate continúa, y se corre el riesgo de no cumplir con sus objetivos. A primera vista pareciera que el estancamiento del acuerdo ha sido el resultado de las desavenencias sobre asuntos agrícolas entre los Estados Unidos y la India. Pero, el hecho es que los países en vías de desarrollo se muestran escépticos ante los posibles acuerdos porque consideran que no beneficiarán tanto su causa, ni podrán alcanzar todos los objetivos que se les ofrecen. Estas dudas pueden estar favoreciendo una dinámica del 'todo o nada'.

La implicación del AGCS en los servicios de educación tiene como objetivo inicial liberalizar el mercado. Altbach (2001: 4) se refiere al AGCS como 'la globalización fuera de control' ya que ha permitido el comercio de servicios de educación. Como resultado, él plantea, que: 'someter a la academia a los rigores de un mercado impuesto por la OMC... destruiría una de las instituciones más valiosas de toda la sociedad'. Tomando nota de las preocupaciones manifestadas, incluyendo a un consorcio de organizaciones de Europa y Norteamérica que representa a más de 500 universidades, se sabe poco sobre las consecuencias de incluir el comercio de servicios de educación.

Entonces, ¿cuál es el futuro del AGCS en la educación y, en particular, la educación superior? La respuesta es desconocida. Sin embargo, la idea de que una Ronda de Doha no significará el fin del esfuerzo del AGCS para liberalizar el comercio de servicios de educación transfronteriza, sería una conclusión demasiado precipitada a la cual cualquiera pudiese llegar. Hasta el cierre de esta Ronda, se puede suponer que el sector continuará con el comercio de servicios educativos a través de las fronteras nacionales, al menos al mismo ritmo como lo fue antes de añadir el sector de la educación a la lista de servicios del AGCS.

Las tendencias regionales en la educación superior transfronteriza reflejan los objetivos regionales para la educación superior, que son perfectamente comparables entre regiones. En todo el mundo han alcanzado gran popularidad las políticas y enfoques de educación transfronteriza y paradigmas del sistema universitario en América del Norte y

Europa occidental, dando como resultado que en otras regiones se trate de crear modelos y enfoques similares que generarán más competencia en todo el mundo.

El objetivo ahora es mantener a la mayoría de sus estudiantes dentro de la región, así como atraer a más estudiantes de otras regiones y, en esencia, fortalecer más sus propias sociedades del conocimiento. Sin lugar a dudas, el objetivo último de la educación superior transfronteriza debe superar el mero deseo individual de alcanzar algunos la educación superior internacional. Hay que verla como un bien público y privado que puede determinar el desarrollo sostenible de un país y de una región.

Las actividades transfronterizas están aumentando en cada región: Asia Oriental, el suroeste de Asia y Oriente Medio se convierten en centros ‘hub’, el África subsahariana es considerada el ‘nuevo’ mercado, estableciendo más programas y políticas de asociación para garantizar el desarrollo sostenible. Según la OCDE (EAG, 2012), América Latina y el Caribe, y Asia y el Pacífico son los mercados emergentes. A pesar de que los distintos países, tales como Argentina, Brasil, Chile y México son mercados emergentes, la región de Latinoamérica y el Caribe todavía necesita invertir más en atraer miríadas de estudiantes a sus instituciones de educación superior. El camino a seguir es el de establecer ‘ciudades’ de investigación y desarrollo, y participar en más intercambio académico y programas de colaboración con más países con el fin de preparar a sus estudiantes para las próximas décadas. En cuanto a la región de Europa y América del Norte, aunque el informe de la ACA (2012) afirma que los países europeos son ‘más cautelosos cuando se trata de la adopción de objetivos de movilidad extremadamente ambiciosos a nivel nacional’ uno sólo puede esperar que, dada la historia y las actuales tendencias en la educación superior transfronteriza, que la cuota de mercado de esta región puede disminuir pero sus números reales seguirán aumentando.

El futuro de la educación transnacional es visto como un elemento importante para la internacionalización de la educación superior. Aunque algunos han sugerido lo contrario, la educación superior a nivel internacional se está ofertando en todo el mundo por los proveedores extranjeros que hacen más fácil la accesibilidad para muchos.

Sin embargo, como se destaca en la reciente ‘Going Global 2013’ Conferencia en Dubai, la calidad de los programas TNHE/TNE sigue siendo una preocupación. Según Scott Jaschik (2013), a los académicos se les niega la entrada a algunos países árabes y

asiáticos (EAU y Malasia) debido a sus puntos de vista expresados en obras publicadas anteriormente, o que están obligados a firmar contratos que prohíben enseñanzas que no son sensibles a la cultura del país receptor. Esto hace que el modelo de las universidades campus rama/sucursales tenga una perspectiva muy complicada. Una de las preocupaciones es una cuestión de ética ¿Deben las universidades entrar en un país con el objetivo de dar forma a la visión del mundo de ese país? ¿Cómo se concilia la libertad académica con la deseable sensibilidad a la cultura de los estudiantes ‘extranjeros’? Democracia y la libertad académica occidental deben ir con cuidado de no cruzar ciertas líneas para que puedan seguir beneficiándose económicamente con estas empresas educativas transnacionales.

Está también la preocupación por los establecimientos TNHE/TRN, especialmente las sucursales universitarias que son vistas como la oportunidad para superar la brecha social en los países en vías de desarrollo. El hecho es que, aunque los programas se ofrecen a un costo menor del que tienen en su propio país de origen, no muchos estudiantes locales pueden permitirse el acceso, y, por lo tanto, es sólo la clase acomodada la que sigue beneficiándose de esa oferta de educación superior.

Otra desventaja que Jaschik (2013) hace notar es el uso casi exclusivamente del Inglés en estos programas. Los programas de campus-sucursal se imparten en inglés, y de nuevo, a muchos estudiantes provenientes de hogares no ricos de estos países no se les han enseñado inglés, o no han adquirido el nivel necesario para la entrada.

Por último, a pesar de que la amenaza de MOOCs a las sucursales universitarias no se debe tomar a la ligera, muchos estudiantes que prefieren el modo de enseñar tradicional (cara a cara) suelen optar por sucursales universitarias. En efecto, de los MOOCs se dice que son ‘los libros de texto de próxima generación’, pero, para autores como Gallagher, ‘aquí es donde termina la analogía’ entre la presentación del aula y los MOOCs.

Del uso de la educación transnacional que hace Reino Unido y los datos de movilidad de estudiantes como una indicación de tendencia global en TNHE, se puede observar que el número de estudiantes extranjeros que atiende educados en centros del Reino Unido establecidos fuera del país supera el número de estudiantes internacionales en sus campus nacionales, lo que sugiere que CBED-Tipo 2 es de hecho una mejor

manera de proporcionar un mayor acceso a la educación superior a nivel internacional a la masa global, y que la demanda de este tipo de programas será cada vez mayor.

La cuestión ética en relación con las carreras de estudio que ofrecen programas en el extranjero nos devuelve a la cuestión, ¿quién se beneficia más de la educación superior transfronteriza, los países desarrollados o los en desarrollo? Los proveedores de educación superior transnacional tienden a limitar sus ofertas a las carreras que son rentables, lo que significa que están compitiendo con las instituciones locales y, por lo tanto, dejando la carga de proporcionar las que son de menor demanda y no son tan rentables sobre las instituciones locales (ACA, 2008). Knight (2003: 16) también plantea que hay personas que 'argumentan que los proveedores con fines de lucro no estarán dispuestos a invertir el tiempo y los recursos para asegurar que los cursos respeten las tradiciones culturales e incluyan contenidos localmente relevantes'. Hasta la fecha, hay pruebas suficientes para apoyar el punto de vista de Knight, y el tiempo determinará si es o no será una verdad perenne.

5. CONCLUSIONES

La complejidad de la educación superior transfronteriza tiene un gran impacto en las economías de todo el mundo. Tradicionalmente, la educación superior ha sido fundamental en la gobernanza; es decir, en el establecimiento de políticas, la planificación y ejecución de planes orientados a la construcción de la sostenibilidad de una nación. Hoy en día, la educación superior es, en esencia, educación superior con un referente internacional, por lo que la internacionalización de la educación superior en el siglo XXI, en un mundo globalizado, significa que se requiere una educación de carácter internacional para gobernar todos los sectores de cualquier país de la manera más eficaz y competitiva. El objetivo a largo plazo de la internacionalización de la educación superior, y teniendo en cuenta las políticas de comercio liberalizadoras presentado a través del AGCS, es nivelar el campo de juego y las reglas para los países desarrollados, los países emergentes y los en desarrollo. También es imprescindible que asegure la empleabilidad de los graduados superiores y proporcione mejores oportunidades adicionales en mercados laborales globales. Sin embargo, sin una política única capaz de impulsar la

internacionalización de la educación superior, y con el actual nivel de competitividad entre las naciones y las regiones para construir economías del conocimiento, incluyendo las estrategias empleadas por los países desarrollados para aumentar su tasa de estudiantes internacionales, no hay forma sencilla de definir este fenómeno.

El concepto de lo que en la práctica sea la internacionalización de la educación superior, debe seguir comprometiendo a los distintos actores implicados para la solución de muchos problemas internacionales como la construcción nacional sostenible, la pobreza y la injusticia social. La globalización y la internacionalización de la educación superior es un fenómeno complejo que es difícil de definir en su contenido. Sin embargo, se necesita más estudio para que comprendamos mejor sus consecuencias y no necesariamente para alcanzar una única definición.

Si la internacionalización es la respuesta a la globalización con el objetivo de mantener la identidad nacional y cultural en todo el proceso, entonces deben hacerse más estudios en relación con el desarrollo de planes de estudio y en la formación del profesorado. Se necesita un ‘cambio de enfoque’ y ese cambio debe exigir un cambio en el contenido de los planes de estudio y la aplicación de las mejores prácticas mundiales en la educación superior, asegurando que son sensibles a las culturas nacionales y que cumplan con las necesidades de aquellas. Es decir, un ‘cambio en el contenido’ en los planes de estudio para que sean relevantes para las diversas culturas que importan educación superior.

Colleen Ward (2001) afirma que hay extensa literatura sobre las diferencias interculturales en las expectativas y las prácticas educativas, y una considerable investigación sobre las diferencias transculturales en conductas de los estudiantes, pero ha habido poca o ninguna investigación directa de cómo estas impactan en una perspectiva internacional en el aula. Estos estudios muestran que los estudiantes internacionales suelen experimentar más problemas que los estudiantes nacionales y que son de vital importancia para el aumento de la conciencia cultural, por lo tanto hay mucho más que hacer en esta área.

La internacionalización debe de ser considerada como un fenómeno natural y, aunque muchos continúan fomentando el avance de la internacionalización de la educación superior, también están los que tienen puntos de vista desfavorables hacia este

fenómeno. O'Doherty (2007) hace referencia a Koustantoni (2006b) y sugiere que el continuo reclutamiento de los estudiantes internacionales por la gran mayoría de las instituciones de educación superior se hace 'en detrimento de la mejora de la experiencia internacional de los estudiantes de origen o de la creación de una cultura de la igualdad y la diversidad'. El sostiene que la internacionalización en casa (IAH) es vista por algunos como simplemente 'una buena limpieza', mientras que 'la internacionalización en el extranjero' es la aventura y el beneficio potencial.

La demanda en educación superior es cada vez mayor y más competitiva. Se espera así que la competencia ayude a mejorar la garantía de calidad, sin embargo esto no es posible si no rinden cuenta las llamadas instituciones de educación superior 'fabricas de títulos'. Por lo tanto, la competencia se debe permitir en un contexto algo homogéneo con mecanismos de referencia, para garantizar un mejor acceso y opciones de una educación de calidad.

Las organizaciones internacionales como la OCDE, la UNESCO y otras tienen como compromiso examinar los efectos de la internacionalización en la educación superior, y seguir tomando iniciativas que deberían dar lugar a que los países desarrollados y en desarrollo se conviertan en beneficiarios más equitativos de educación transfronteriza.

Ya sean o no líderes o no en la educación superior transnacional/transfronteriza, todos los países de la OCDE y países asociados desempeñan un papel vital en el desarrollo de la educación internacional, y en el movimiento hacia una sociedad más globalizada en el siglo XXI.

A pesar de que sólo unos pocos países de la OCDE, principalmente países de habla inglesa, han sido muy proactivos en el reclutamiento de estudiantes internacionales que se clasifican en el grupo de 'movimiento libre' (no participantes en programas de movilidad), en conjunto representan más del 50 por ciento del servicio de la educación transfronteriza total mundial. Estos países (Estados Unidos, Reino Unido, Francia, Alemania, Australia, Canadá, y España) seguirán siendo fuertes actores en la configuración del futuro de la educación internacional.

En el caso de España, el punto focal ha sido dirigido hacia la movilidad horizontal de estudiante (movilidad de crédito) como los programas ERASMUS/SOCRATES. No

obstante, se observa una tendencia al cambio. La iniciativa más reciente del gobierno de lanzar una página web puede aumentar la visibilidad de sus programas y atraer a estudiantes de ‘movimiento libre’ a sus universidades, y debe verse como un importante primer paso para contar con una proporción más importante de esta cohorte de estudiantes internacionales.

Se puede argumentar que los países desarrollados se benefician más de esta dinámica de la internacionalización de la educación superior, dados los ingresos obtenidos a partir de la educación transfronteriza. Por otro lado, se puede argumentar que si el conocimiento es poder, y si se necesita una economía del conocimiento para eliminar la pobreza, la desigualdad, etcétera, con el tiempo, un par de décadas en el mejor de los casos, muchos países en desarrollo habrían alcanzado el estatus de país desarrollado o habrían llegado a ser mucho más competitivos.

La realidad, sin embargo, no debe ser pasada por alto. Los países líderes estudiados en la comparación de nuestro trabajo tienen ya totalmente ganado un ‘efecto imán’ para atraer a los estudiantes a las instituciones y programas de sus países. Por lo tanto, los países en desarrollo seguirán gastando miles de millones de dólares en la importación de educación superior sólo para mantener la pérdida de algunos de sus mejores recursos humanos transfiriéndolos a los países desarrollados. La educación transfronteriza no es una panacea, y sin cambios sustanciales en la actual oferta y demanda internacional, así como en las condiciones económicas que condicionan el subdesarrollo, existen pocas probabilidades de alcanzar los objetivos de construcción de la nación para satisfacer mejor las demandas sociales y económicas de los países en desarrollo.

Hace seis años, la OCDE (2008c, 13-14) pronosticaba varias tendencias en la educación superior con respecto a la educación transfronteriza que todavía sirven como señal del futuro de esta industria educativa:

- Las mujeres serán en mayoría en el nivel terciario;
- Las universidades serán más diversas;
- El número de estudiantes internacionales seguirá aumentando y un crecimiento de la emigración puede conducir a la aparición de nuevas cuestiones relativas a la desigualdad;

- La base social se ampliará, lo que afecta la desigualdad de oportunidades educativas entre grupos sociales;
- Cambios en los asuntos y políticas para reducir al mínimo las desigualdades y para reflejar las políticas de acceso para estudiantes con discapacidades; y
- La ‘profesión académica será más orientación internacional y móvil, pero aún así seguirá estructurada de acuerdo con las circunstancias nacionales’.

Las universidades seguirán experimentando “tensión” a propósito del crecimiento del número de estudiantes y las escuelas se volverán más diversas; los gobiernos puede que tengan que emprender de nuevo, al contrario que el AGCS, un mayor grado de ‘proteccionismo’ por el bien de sus ciudadanos y del desarrollo de los países. La creciente necesidad de mejores políticas institucionales y gubernamentales, los planes de estudio de calidad internacional, y un mejor acceso para todos sería avanzar en la internacionalización de la educación superior.

Así la pregunta sigue siendo: ¿A los intereses de quién estamos sirviendo? Para Altbach (2013) la respuesta es obvia, ya que aunque la fuga de cerebros no es nada nuevo, la situación está llegando a ser ‘más aguda y generalizada’, y este aumento ha puesto a los países emergentes y en desarrollo en dificultades que les dejarán atrás y con su futuro permanente dañado.

De nuestra investigación habría que destacar, de manera general, y respondiendo a la pregunta central que orienta nuestro trabajo, la total coincidencia con la afirmación de Altbach: en este movimiento de educación transnacional las mejores ventajas y beneficios son para los países desarrollados, mientras que los países emergentes y en desarrollo ven comprometido su futuro por la incapacidad de ofertar y sostener la educación superior que necesitan, al tiempo que pierden a su mejor capital humano que busca en el exterior la educación superior que no encuentra en sus países. En toda esa dinámica que ahora apunto, del análisis comparado que realizamos en nuestra Tesis, aparecen un conjunto de evidencias que paso a señalar aquí:

- No existe una definición única para el término internacionalización con respecto a la educación superior.

- Hay políticas para asegurar una garantía de calidad de la educación superior en cada lugar; a nivel institucional, nacional, regional e internacional. No obstante, la garantía de calidad sigue siendo un reto en la educación transfronteriza, especialmente en la movilidad de programa e institución (P & I).
- Hay discrepancias en las estadísticas debido a las diferentes definiciones de los estudiantes internacionales y las diferencias encontradas entre las estadísticas proporcionadas por las diferentes fuentes de datos y los organismos gubernamentales que dificultan hoy por hoy profundizar más en el conocimiento de nuestro objeto de estudio.
- El acceso a la educación superior internacional está aumentando rápidamente, principalmente a través de la movilidad de programas e instituciones.
- La educación transfronteriza es una industria de exportación de billones de dólares para los países desarrollados. La movilidad estudiantil se ha convertido en una industria de servicios de miles de millones de dólares para muchos países desarrollados y los miembros de la OCDE.
- La comercialización de la educación superior y el tratarla como una mercancía es en beneficio del interés de los países de acogida y sus instituciones educativas, mientras el bienestar social y, hasta cierto punto, lo académico sigue siendo secundario, ya que no se ve a los estudiantes internacionales como iguales a sus pares domésticos en los países de acogida.
- Los estudiantes internacionales se benefician de sus estudios en el extranjero, pero muchos de ellos pagan un alto precio emocional y financiero.
- La fuga de cerebros está todavía muy extendida entre los países en desarrollo, y la educación transfronteriza, de hecho, la alienta dado que una educación internacional califica a los estudiantes para el mercado internacional de trabajo que ofrece una remuneración económica que su propio país no es capaz de ofrecerles.
- La educación superior internacional es vital para la creación de economías del conocimiento, y la economía del conocimiento es clave para la construcción de las naciones en el siglo XXI. Es, además, la base que puede permitir alcanzar el estatuto de 'país desarrollado'.

La conclusión parece ser que los países desarrollados, a través de la oferta externa de servicios de educación transfronteriza, se esfuerzan por asegurarse que los países en desarrollo se vuelvan más desarrollados y, por tanto, menos dependientes de sus recursos financieros, sin embargo, no para que se desarrollen lo suficiente como para llegar a ser competitivos.

APPENDIX H

QUESTIONNAIRES

A) CUESTIONARIO DE ESTUDIANTE INTERNACIONAL

Mi nombre es Jacqueline Taylor y estoy doctorándome en la Universidad de Valencia en la Facultad de Filosofía y Ciencias de la Educación. Mi Tesis, dirigida por el profesor Luis Miguel Lázaro, trata de la internacionalización de la educación superior y hace referencia a la movilidad de estudiantes.

1. Nombre y Apellido

2. Género

- h
- m

3. Nacionalidad

4. Edad

- 18-25
- 26-35
- 36 y más

5. ¿Cuáles son los factores principales que influyeron en su decisión para proseguir educación superior internacional fuera de su país?

6. ¿Cuáles son los factores que influyeron en su elección de país e institución?

7. ¿Qué tipo de clasificación de estudiante internacional tiene usted?

- Estudiante internacional con visado
- Estudiante internacional sin visado

8. ¿Es usted estudiante internacional becario?

- Si
- No

9. ¿Está llevando a cabo un grado completo o sólo créditos en el país anfitrión?

- Licenciatura
- Masters
- Doctorado

10. ¿Es el coste de la educación superior en el país anfitrión comparable al que tiene su país?

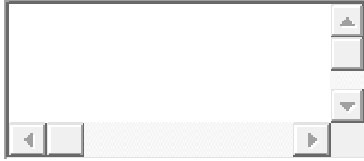
- Si
- No

11. ¿En qué carrera o tipo de estudios está matriculado usted?

12. ¿Piensa usted quedarse con residencia permanente en su país anfitrión después de sus estudios?

- Si
- No

13. ¿Cuáles son o serían los factores que influirían en su decisión para quedarse en su país anfitrión?

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14. Brevemente describa los mayores desafíos, si los ha habido, a largo su experiencia como estudiante internacional.

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15. ¿Cuáles han sido los mayores beneficios de ser estudiante internacional?

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¡Muchas gracias por su participación!

INTEREVIEW A NIVEL INSTITUCIONAL
EDUCACIÓN TRANSNACIONAL

Mi nombre es Jacqueline Taylor y me estoy doctorando en la Universidad de Valencia en la Facultad de Filosofía y Ciencias de la Educación. Mi tesis trata de la educación internacional y hace referencia a la educación transnacional.

El motivo de la misiva es que estuve hablando con _____ y ella me dio a conocer la posibilidad de contar con tu ayuda, que consistiría en contestar a estas preguntas:

1. ¿Cuál es el objetivo principal, como universidad, de recibir estudiantes extranjeros?
2. ¿Hay diferencia, de cara a la universidad, hacia los estudiantes extranjeros con residencia en España y los estudiantes extranjeros con visado de estudiante?
3. ¿Cuántos estudiantes internacionales están matriculados este año? Y, ¿cuánto es el promedio de estudiantes internacionales los últimos cinco años?
4. ¿De qué regiones provienen la mayoría?
5. ¿Qué porcentaje de ellos pertenecen a programas de intercambios como ERASMUS?
6. ¿En qué nivel de estudios suelen matricularse mayormente: licenciatura o grado, másteres o doctorado. ?
7. ¿En qué área de estudios se matriculan generalmente?
8. ¿Hay elementos en las políticas internacionales de la universidad en respeto a la movilidad vertical?
9. En respeto a la movilidad de programas e instituciones, ¿cuántos programas se ofrece la universidad y en cuántos países?
10. ¿Se ofrece programas de MOOCs?
11. Sí se ofrecen, ¿están ofrecido por créditos?

Gracias antemano por su ayuda en este asunto.