

A NEW WORLD of KNOWLEDGE

Canadian Universities and Globalization



Edited by Sheryl L. Bond and Jean-Pierre Lemasson

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Sheryl Bond
and
Jean-Pierre Lemasson

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH CENTRE
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Issues and Trends in Internationalization: A Comparative Perspective


Jane Knight

Introduction

Purpose

The previous chapters in this book addressed the changes, challenges, and activities of international cooperation during the past four decades in Canada. The first objective of this chapter is to build on this analysis and identify current trends related to Canadian universities' international work. The second objective is to place the international dimension of Canada's higher education sector in a context that includes other countries and regions of the world. These two aspects are discussed simultaneously throughout. The third objective is to stimulate reflection on several major questions and challenges facing the higher education sector regarding the international aspects of teaching, research, training, and service.

These three objectives are rather ambitious, and it is therefore prudent to identify the scope of the chapter. First, the emphasis is clearly on Canada. Reference to other countries and regions is primarily oriented to Australia, New Zealand, Southeast Asia, the United



States, and Western Europe. This chapter is based on information and insights obtained from recent comparative studies completed as part of the Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) project on internationalization (de Wit 1995; Knight and de Wit 1997) and various seminars and workshops. The purpose of the comparative analysis is to learn more about trends and challenges facing internationalization in Canada by highlighting and understanding the situation in other countries. More attention has been given to a qualitative than a quantitative approach in discussing the trends and issues.

The issues and trends identified in this chapter are primarily at the macrolevel, that is, at the system or sector level. There is no intention to minimize the importance of issues facing individual institutions at the operational level. It has also not been possible to discuss all the key issues specific to individual disciplines, stakeholder groups, or special-purpose institutes. Although these issues are of no less importance to the discussion, the focus of this chapter is on issues at the macrolevel, as they are more likely to be relevant to the Canadian higher education sector as a whole.

Assumptions

Being clear about the assumptions underlying the discussion in this chapter is important. As the previous chapters have demonstrated, there has been an interesting evolution in the nature and purpose of the international dimension and work of Canadian universities. The meaning, rationale, strategies, and outcomes of international work have changed and matured over the past several decades. Because this chapter is looking at current issues and trends and future challenges, it is necessary to articulate the fundamental understandings assumed in this discussion.

The major assumption relates to the definition of *internationalization*, as this concept means different things to different people, institutions, and countries. (In fact, one of the issues discussed below is the interpretation and use of the term *internationalization*.) The concept of the internationalization of higher education can be described and used in a variety of ways. First of all, it can be applied at the national, regional, provincial, or institutional level. It can also be described in terms of policy or program considerations. For the purposes of this chapter, the concept of internationalization is oriented to the institutional level. This is consistent with the organizing framework of the book. *Internationalization* is defined at the

institutional level as “the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the university or institution of higher education” (Knight 1994, p. 3). There are several key concepts included in this definition, which merit further elaboration.

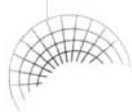
The first is that internationalization is a process, a cycle of planned and spontaneous initiatives at both the program and policy levels. A process approach responds to the evolving needs, resources, and priorities of the institution. Fundamental to the process approach is that both organizational structures and systems of the institution, as well as academic activities, are involved. This differs from other approaches, which place more emphasis on internationalization of specific activities or outcomes (Arum and Van de Water 1992). It is important to note that a process approach should be based on explicit goals for internationalization and their relationship to outcomes.

Another important element in this definition is the notion of integration. Integration ensures that the international dimension is central to the mission of the university and can be sustainably integrated into the policies, practices, and systems of the institution. Careful attention is also given to including both the international and intercultural dimensions. This rests on the belief that the diversity of cultures inherent to a country, especially Canada, is as important as the diversity and similarities between nations. Internationalization of higher education is not limited to a geographical interpretation of the concept. Finally, it is acknowledged that internationalization is part of the university's efforts to fulfill its primary functions, namely, the teaching and learning process, research and scholarly activities, and service to society.

Macrolevel issues and trends

Meaning and use of the term *internationalization*

In the previous section, diversity in the meaning and application of the concept of internationalization of higher education was noted. This illustrates the richness and complexity of the concept, but it can lead to confusion about how to use the term, as well as to dilution of the importance attached to it by governments, institutions, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). *Internationalization* emerged in common usage in higher education during the mid-1980s. As often happens, the term has been borrowed or adapted from other sectors. *Internationalization* and *globalization* are now part of everyday



language, whether one is talking about the environment, trade, communication, or even fashion. Even though *internationalization* and *globalization* are often used interchangeably, it is necessary to distinguish the meaning of these terms in discussions of the higher education sector.

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There have been many terms used over the years to describe the international dimension of education. These terms reflect the priorities and perspectives of that particular time in history and, of course, the orientation of the user. Some of the related terms often used as synonyms include *international academic relations* and *cooperation*, *international education*, *multicultural education*, and *globalization of education*. There is a tendency today to use *internationalization* in a retroactive way and have it apply to concepts and activities popular in the 1960s and 1970s. This approach is neither useful nor wise. Recognizing the development of the vocabulary of the international dimension of higher education is important. By doing so, we respect the evolution of these terms and the differences in their meaning and use. Furthermore, we acknowledge the emergence of the concept of internationalization and how it is interpreted and used in the study and practice of higher education today.

Although it is not the purpose of this chapter to study in detail the differences and similarities between these terms, it is important to explore further the relationship between globalization and internationalization. One can describe globalization in a number of ways. The description that is most relevant and appropriate to the discussion of the international dimension of the higher education sector is as follows:

Globalization is the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, ideas ... across borders. Globalization affects each country in a different way due to a nation's individual history, traditions, culture and priorities. Internationalization of higher education is one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalization yet, at the same time respects the individuality of the nation.

Knight (1997, p. 6)


Thus, internationalization and globalization are seen as different but linked concepts. One can think of globalization as the catalyst, but of internationalization as the response, albeit a proactive response. The key element in the term *internationalization* is the notion of the relationship between or among nations and cultural identities, thereby implying that nation-state and culture are preserved. A country's unique history, indigenous culture or cultures,

resources, and priorities shape its response to, and relationships with, other countries. Thus, national identity and culture are key to internationalization. The homogenization of culture is often cited as a critical concern or effect of globalization; internationalization, by respecting and helping to preserve nation-states, is therefore seen as a very different concept.

It would be remiss to leave the discussion of the relationship between globalization and internationalization without introducing the concept of civilization. A controversial hypothesis (Huntington 1996) suggests that peoples and countries with similar cultures are coming together and that this is emerging as the predominant force in international relations, not the globalization of the economy. Furthermore, devotion to one's own cultural identity is gaining increasing importance, which counters the argument that culture is being homogenized because of the impact of globalization. A key premise of the hypothesis is that groups of countries with similar cultures, classified as civilizations, will have strong alliances and a metaimpact on the world stage. This leads to an exploration of the relationship between diverse cultures–civilizations, as opposed to that between nations. Internationalization, which is often seen to be based on the concept of people–culture and state at the national level, is therefore being challenged or at least interpreted in a rather interesting and different way. How multicultural countries, such as Canada, fit into this hypothesis warrants further exploration.

Rationales

Why a country or a higher education institution believes internationalization is fundamental determines the nature and extent of its support and action in favour of internationalization. Although this is rather self-evident, the importance of having an explicit statement of the rationale for internationalization and a set of clear objectives cannot be overstated. The rationales for internationalizing higher education in general and institutions in particular are many and diverse. Rationales are changing and closely linked to each other; they can be complementary or contradictory, especially as they can differ according to the interests of diverse stakeholder groups. Furthermore, rationales can differ between and within countries. An examination of the motivation for internationalizing the higher education sector is a fascinating and complex task, but for brevity's sake the rationales for internationalization can be categorized into four groups: political, economic, academic, and social–cultural (Knight and de Wit 1995).



The political rationale is often considered more important at the national than at the institutional level. This is because international education has historically been seen as a tool for foreign policy, especially with respect to national security and peace among nations. Although this is still a consideration today, it does not have the importance it once had. At one time, bilateral cultural, scientific, and educational exchanges were seen as ways to keep communication and diplomatic relations active. However, in Australia, New Zealand, North America, and the United Kingdom, and to some extent in the four Asian economic "tigers," there is a growing trend to see education as an export product, rather than as a cultural agreement. With the massification of higher education increasing at an exponential rate, large and small countries are showing a strong interest in making the export of educational products and services and the import of foreign students a major part of their foreign policy. In fact, we can see major shifts in foreign policies, from seeing education as primarily a development assistance activity or cultural program to seeing it as an export commodity. This shift to a market orientation introduces the economic rationale for the internationalization of higher education.

The economic rationale has increasing importance and relevance in Canada and in other developed countries around the world. As a result of the globalization of the economy, a growing interdependence among nations, and the information revolution, countries are focusing on their economic, scientific, and technological competitiveness. An effective way to improve and maintain a competitive edge is to develop a highly skilled and knowledgeable work force and to invest in applied research. Both strategies involve the higher education sector. Thus, at the national level, there is a closer and closer link between internationalization of the higher education sector and the economic and technological development of the country. At the institutional level, the economic rationale is receiving more emphasis as universities are pressured to diversify their funding sources and decrease their dependence on government support. It is still unclear whether exporting educational products and services to international markets is indeed directly enhancing the international dimension of teaching, research, and service. This question is discussed several times in this chapter, as it is fundamental to what we mean by the internationalization of higher education and why we think it is important.


The academic rationale is directly linked to enhancing the teaching and learning process and achieving excellence in research and



scholarly activities. The results of the 1994 Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) survey (Knight 1995, p. 4) indicated that the number-one reason for internationalizing higher education is "to prepare students and scholars who are internationally knowledgeable and interculturally competent." The second most important reason is "to address through scholarship, the increasingly interdependent nature of the work (environmentally, culturally, economically, socially)." Clearly, the academic motivation for internationalization was uppermost in the minds of university presidents at that time. Given the policy and economic changes in the past 3 years, it is interesting to ponder what the results of a survey would reveal in the next decade.

The social-cultural rationale for internationalization is changing in light of the potential impact of globalization. As discussed above, higher education has traditionally been a part of cultural agreements and exchanges. Today's globalized economy and globalized information and communication system suggest another aspect of the social-cultural rationale. In many non-English-speaking countries, such as Indonesia and Sweden, the preservation and promotion of national culture and language constitute a strong motivation for internationalizing higher education. Countries consider internationalization a way to respect cultural diversity and counterbalance the perceived homogenizing effect of globalization. The acknowledgment of cultural and ethnic diversity within and between countries is considered a key aspect of, and a strong rationale for, the internationalization of a nation's educational system. In Canada, respect for our multicultural diversity has not been seen as an important rationale for internationalization, as is evident from the 1994 AUCC survey (Knight 1995). However, it is acknowledged that the importance of learning about other cultures stems from an appreciation and knowledge of one's own culture.

As a rationale for internationalization, the preservation and promotion of national identity and cultural values is a sensitive issue. Although some countries see internationalization (as opposed to globalization) as a way to preserve culture, other countries see it as a way to promote their cultural values abroad. Canada falls into this latter category. Since 1996 the promotion of Canadian values and culture abroad has been the "third pillar" of our foreign policy (CIDA 1995), and the role of exporting educational products and services has been clearly defined. The juxtaposition of preservation and promotion of cultural identities and values is an issue taken up elsewhere in this chapter.



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Related to the social-cultural rationale is the need to improve intercultural understanding and communication. Tied to this is the overall development of the individual as a local, national, and international citizen. Citizenship involves more than being a productive member of the wealth-generating sector, which the economic rationale clearly emphasizes.

In summary, it is important to repeat that these four types of rationales are not entirely distinct or exclusive. An individual's, an institution's, or a country's motivation is a complex and multileveled set of reasons evolving over time and in response to changing needs and priorities. It would be an oversimplification and probably unfair to try to label different countries according to their rationales for internationalization. What is more important and interesting is to note the changes in the rationales in different countries. The motivation driving the internationalization movement is discussed in the following sections.

National-level coordination, planning, and policy

In Canada, we are fortunate that many diverse groups, organizations, departments, and networks in the education, government, and private sectors have focused on the importance of internationalization. However, a shared commitment to internationalization does not necessarily mean a shared vision, rationale, or set of priorities, let alone a coordinated planning and policy framework. In fact, it must be asked whether the increased level of interest and attention at the national level has unintentionally led to a fragmented and perhaps less effective use of the efforts and resources directed to the internationalization of higher education in Canada.

Three recent reports (DFAIT 1994; Knight 1996; Tillman 1997) have identified the need to improve communication and coordination among key national players with vested interests in the internationalization of higher education in Canada. In addition to the coordination issue, several other national trends and issues identified in these reports are discussed in this section. A policy paper (DFAIT 1994), "The International Dimension of Higher Education in Canada: Collaborative Policy Framework," noted that, overall, a major weakness in efforts to bring about internationalization stems principally from a lack of coordination among governments, institutions, and organizations. The more specific areas of weakness mentioned include the following:

- ♦ Poor integration, coordination, and coherence in government policies and programs, both among federal bodies and

between federal and provincial governments, and no sense of urgency to act on this;

- ♦ No investment in international activity and no coherent strategy for building on existing strengths and achievements; and
- ♦ Ad hoc treatment of networking and partnerships.



Other issues identified include low enrollments in foreign-language classes, low levels of Canadian student and faculty mobility, diminished funding for higher education, no integrated marketing strategy for educational products and services, and limited appreciation of the influence of cultural factors on teaching, learning, and research.

A national survey (Knight 1996) conducted by the Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE), AUCC, and the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC) — major stakeholder groups in the government, education, and private sectors — identified a number of pressing internationalization issues. One of the few points on which all three sectors agreed was that there is a need for “more cooperation, new types of partnerships and better coordination among and within the sectors” (Knight 1996, p. v). In addition to calling for more coordination, they identified specific instances in which cooperation is needed. These include

- ♦ A more systematic approach to the marketing and exporting of educational products and services;
- ♦ Improved cooperation between the private and education sectors in arranging work placements, internships, and scholarships for study abroad;
- ♦ Strategic partnerships between universities–colleges and the private sector for joint research projects; and
- ♦ Stronger cooperation among federal government departments to resolve the issues related to foreign-student fees and visas.

Implicit in the call for cooperation is a need to recognize the differences and similarities among the sectors’ interests. The purpose may be explicit — to enhance and sustain the internationalization of the higher education system in Canada — but the answer to the question “In whose interests?” may not be as clear.

Other issues identified in the stakeholder survey include

- ♦ The need to achieve international standards in education;

Box 1

**International cooperation and internationalization at AUCC:
some key dates**

The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) is recognized as the focal point in Canada for promoting and exploring the implications of international relations among universities. It is interesting to note how AUCC has gradually taken on a management role — one that has not been without its controversies — and how issues relating to internationalization have been addressed in AUCC's biennial conferences. From these viewpoints, AUCC can be seen as a good mirror of Canadian universities' interests and concerns.

Some key dates in AUCC's history are the following:


- 1911 AUCC is founded.
- 1968 AUCC scholarship office takes over management of the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan and begins, for the first time, to administer international scholarships.
- 1978 The International Development Secretariat is created in AUCC, pursuant to an agreement between the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the International Development Research Centre, and AUCC. The universities are asked to identify a person in their establishment to be responsible for international development. This gives rise to a network of international liaison officers.
- 1983 The International Development Secretariat publishes its *Directory of Canadian University Resources for International Development*, the first in a series of AUCC publications dealing with the international development activities of Canadian universities and their institutional links to partners in the South.
- 1985 Two databases are created: International Development Projects of Canadian Universities, based on information compiled from the publication mentioned above, and International Exchange Agreements of Canadian Universities. These tools contain information on projects and agreements dating back to the 1970s and are regularly updated.
- 1987 The International Development Secretariat and the section responsible for academic relations with industrialized countries merge under one administrative unit.
- 1988 The Canada–China University Linkage program is created, financed by CIDA. This is the first institutional program administered by AUCC; other programs focus on scholarships and grants for students and professors.
The theme of the biennial conference is the Expanding Role of Universities in International Cooperation.
- 1990 The theme of the biennial conference is University Partnerships in a Changing World.
- 1992 The theme of the biennial conference is Seeking Innovation: Conference on International Cooperation among Universities.
- 1994 AUCC and the universities play a central role in creating the University Partnerships in Cooperation and Development program, financed by CIDA's Canadian Partnership Branch. AUCC is assigned the management of one of the program's two aspects.
The theme of the biennial conference is From Competition to Cooperation: The Evolving International Strategy of Universities.



- | | |
|------|---|
| 1995 | AUCC formulates a declaration on internationalization and Canadian universities. It testifies to the changes already helping to internationalize universities and proposes a framework for further pursuing this process. AUCC publishes Jane Knight's <i>Internationalization at Canadian Universities: The Changing Landscape</i> , the first in a series of studies dealing with various aspects of the internationalization process in Canadian universities. |
| 1996 | The Scotiabank-AUCC Awards for Excellence in Internationalization is created to recognize university achievements in internationalization and publicize their initiatives throughout the university community.
The theme of the biennial conference is Internationalization: Moving from Rhetoric to Reality. |
| 1998 | The AUCC Board of Directors approves an initiative with international financial institutions (IFIs) within the International and Canadian Programs branch. This initiative is aimed at positioning Canadian universities and AUCC to win IFI contracts.
The theme of the biennial conference is Internationalization: Building on Our Experience. |

- ♦ The impact of free trade on the globalization of the professions;
- ♦ The identification of competencies needed in new graduates working in a local and global environment;
- ♦ Fees, visas, and marketing for international students;
- ♦ Mixed messages on the importance of foreign-language teaching;
- ♦ Study abroad and work placements for Canadian students;
- ♦ The need for curricular reform to internationalize teaching and learning;
- ♦ Marketing and export of educational products and services;
- ♦ Needs and vested interests in research; and
- ♦ The impact of new information and communication technologies.

This represents an overview of the key and emerging issues identified by the stakeholders' groups in the education, government, and private sectors. Clearly, there is divergence among the sectors on the nature of the challenges and solutions to these issues. But it is important to recognize that there is agreement on the principal issues and, more importantly, on the need to improve collaboration and cooperation.



Following these two reports ACCC, AUCC, and CBIE undertook another joint project that resulted in a paper, "Internationalization of Advanced Learning: Toward a Planning Framework" (Tillman 1997). This paper moves the call for improved coordination forward by proposing a planning framework. The framework is action oriented and practical. It attempts to translate advocacy into action. It identifies the issue, describes the nature of the issue and the challenges related to it, details the desired outcome, allocates the primary responsibilities, and lists the important players. The major players and partners are federal government departments and the national NGOs with vested interests in the international dimension of higher education in Canada. It also refers to provincial governments and individual educational institutions.

The framework identifies three fundamental points and a number of specific challenges. The points are

- ♦ Improving communication, coherence, and collaboration within and among key players;
- ♦ Articulating a clear, global vision of international education as a public policy; and
- ♦ Securing adequate funding (especially for support services).

The specific challenges cited in the paper are wide ranging and in most cases duplicate and reinforce the issues identified in the two previous reports. However, the strength of the planning framework is that it identifies explicit action and desired outcomes.

The challenges include conducting research and gathering data on student and faculty mobility, overseas alumni, and the economic impact of international education; enhancing the Canadian Education Centres (CECs) network; streamlining immigration and admission procedures for international students; increasing market intelligence for export of education products and services; improving quality assurance and assessment measures; improving recognition of credits; promoting greater private-sector involvement; and developing administrative flexibility.

It is evident that internationalization of higher education is "coming of age" or at least "coming on stage" at the national level. The call for public policy, greater coherence among key players, and adequate funding is stronger than ever and is being translated, albeit cautiously, into a more coordinated approach to defining the issues and to taking action. Canada appears in a rather unique situation when our national policies are compared with those of other

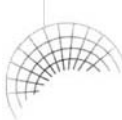


countries around the world. Education is a provincial responsibility, so national-level policy on the international dimension of higher education is not articulated by a federal ministry responsible for education, as in other countries. However, this does not diminish the need for public-policy statements on this issue in Canada and information on other countries' approaches to internationalization.

The movement in Europe to develop a more articulate and comprehensive national policy on the international dimension of higher education is very interesting. It is recognized that in Europe the most influential and important actor in international education has been the European Commission. Institutional strategies have been initiated mainly as a result of support provided by the European Commission and, in a more limited way, by national governments (de Wit and Callan 1995). The European Commission programs, such as the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS), TEMPUS, and SOCRATES, have helped institutions to increase the mobility of students, faculty, researchers, and administrators, mainly in Europe but more recently from Europe to Asia, Latin America, and North America. Many would argue that the orientation of the European Commission programs has been more to Europeanize than internationalize education, but that is not the topic to be explored here. In any event, the European Commission has had a profound influence and a strong catalytic effect on the international dimension of higher education in Europe.

In 1996, for the first time, European universities and other institutions of higher education were asked by the European Commission to develop their own international policies and to demonstrate how European Commission-funded projects fit into institutional-level policy and planning (Kalvemark and van der Wende 1997). Clearly, this is a very different approach from that in Canada, where since the early 1990s most universities and colleges have had the international dimension articulated in institutional mission statements and there has been significant work done on the development of international policies and institution-wide strategies. However, the influence of the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) should not be ignored, as Canadian universities were required to demonstrate how CIDA- and IDRC-funded projects would fit into the overall international work and policies of the universities.

The 1996 initiative of the European Commission resulted in the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) study, "National Policies for the Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe" (Kalvemark



and van der Wende 1997). The study found that in many countries national policies for internationalization of higher education do exist, but they are not always part of the wider higher education policy. This is a fascinating situation and may be more like the one that Canada is in. For instance, Austria has a variety of agreements, memoranda of understanding, and treaties to promote internationalization of research and higher education on a bilateral basis. New legislation in 1993 and 1997 on the structure and curriculum of universities in Austria has resulted in individual institutions' having more autonomy, which is expected to facilitate internationalization. Except for specific pieces of legislation, Austria is best described as not having a national policy on internationalization of higher education (Leidenfrost et al. 1997).

In contrast, Germany does have explicit national- and state-level policies on international and European cooperation that highlight the importance of student and staff exchanges (Kehm and Last 1997). Since 1974 Sweden has been the leader in acknowledging and clearly articulating the importance of internationalization in national education policies and budget bills. For example, the 1995 budget bill passed by the Swedish parliament was particularly interesting with regard to balancing cooperation with European and other international interests and commitments, as is evident from the following statement from the bill:

Cooperation in Europe must not be developed at the cost of other forms of international commitment and cooperation education has a great responsibility with regard to the broadening of knowledge and understanding of societies and cultures in other regions. This is particularly true with respect to developing countries, where more than 80 percent of the world population is to be found. Universities and colleges must actively promote knowledge about the developing countries. They must also forcefully combat every form of xenophobia and racism.

Quoted in Kalvemmark (1997, p 177)

Consortia and partnerships

The proliferation of consortia and networks dedicated to international cooperation and work is one of the more striking trends. What is so interesting about these consortia is the diversity of their sizes, types, and rationales. Once again, competitiveness and, to some extent, the globalization of the market can be identified as key factors in the growth in these networks.




During the last decade, when “partnership” was the trademark of international development, there arose the need to establish consortia to bid on, and implement, major projects. Canadian universities have developed consortia among themselves, colleges and technical institutes, private-sector companies and industry, government agencies, and NGOs. The large scale and complexity of many development projects or contracts have dictated that partners with different niches of expertise collaborate to obtain and complete a major project. The universities in the United States were probably the pioneers in setting up these kinds of consortia, but now Australia, Canada, and Europe are fully engaged in this process. The success of these consortia is uneven. Partners experience a learning curve, as the collaboration and cooperation needed to bid on projects has not always been as strong during the implementation phase. In this era of larger and more multisector interdisciplinary projects, both the need for consortia and their numbers will most likely continue to grow.

International development work is not the only reason to establish these consortia. Since the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT) began to identify educational products and services as important trade commodities increased attention has been focused on the commercial activities of both public and private education providers. Manufacturing and service companies want to explore partnerships with public and private education providers to deliver the education and training needed to win international contracts.

Even in the area of international-student recruitment, in which competition among higher education institutions is increasing, the development of consortia is under way. Canadian institutions are just beginning to realize that the major source of competition is from other countries and not from other institutions within Canadian borders. Recruitment consortia are extremely well developed in Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States, and now Canada is following their lead. The networks are of different kinds and sizes. For instance, there are large fee-based networks, such as the CEC network or smaller local and regional groups of high schools, colleges, and universities cooperating to attract students to a specific city or province.

Bilateral cooperation agreements with universities in other countries have been a part of international cooperation for several decades. More recently, we are seeing the development of international or global consortia of universities. One example is Universitas 21, which is a formal network of about 25 comprehensive universities from



around the world. Regional networks, especially in the Asia-Pacific region, are also increasing. The Capital Cities Network is an example of a European regional network. The aims of these kinds of consortia are usually well articulated and include objectives such as international benchmarks, joint research and scholarly activities, increased numbers of mobility programs for students and faculty, collaborative bids on large-scale development projects, and development of web-based courses and curriculum materials. Consortia and networks are seen as different from membership-based organizations. However, it should be noted that the number of international and regional organizations oriented to higher education and, in many cases, specifically international education is also mushrooming.

In Canada, it is too early to have solid information on the benefits, impacts, sustainability, and implications of these newly formed national, regional, and international networks. However, it is not too early to make a plea for some kind of monitoring and analysis of the lessons learned from these new consortia and partnerships.

Quality assessment and assurance of the international dimension

There are two important aspects of the discussion of quality and internationalization. The first relates to how the international dimension contributes to the improved quality of higher education. The second is how one assesses and enhances or maintains the quality of internationalization initiatives. The purpose of this section is to discuss concerns and issues related to both these aspects, but more importantly to the second.

Any discussion of quality is always challenging and, at times, contentious, as quality depends on the “eye of the beholder,” or the stakeholder. Measuring, or even defining, the concept of the quality of education, let alone the effect on it of the international dimension of higher education, is challenging. That said, it is still important to try to address some of the issues related to quality and internationalization.

The question of whether internationalization is an end in itself or a means to an end, with the end being the improvement of the quality of education, is often the subject of vigorous debate. An assumption implicit in this debate is that enhancing the international dimension of teaching, research, and service adds value to the quality of our higher education, given that we are living in a more globalized environment in which understanding and knowledge of the impact of globalization is critical. However, this is predicated on the rationale and goals of internationalization — a recurring theme in this

chapter, which especially relates to the balance of academic and economic motives.

A full discussion of if and how the quality of higher education is improved or lowered by the international dimension is beyond the scope of this chapter. However, a short discussion of two examples of the concerns illustrates the complexity of the debate.


In many countries, especially some of the Asia-Pacific countries, internationalization is seen as almost synonymous with westernization (Knight and de Wit 1997). Based on that perspective, internationalization therefore contributes to the homogenization of world culture. This leads to a legitimate concern that Western concepts are replacing indigenous knowledge and belief systems. This question is closely linked to the issue of standards and standardization. The relevance of this concern to Canada rests on the nature of our cooperation with international partners, especially as the orientation of our foreign policy emphasizes the promotion of Canadian cultural values and the export of educational products and services.

Second, those who believe that economics is driving the current interest in internationalization propose that the quality of education may be in jeopardy. This relates especially to the issue of international students. Concern has been expressed (ACA 1997) that in some countries the desire to recruit more international students to a university or college lowers the entrance requirements and the prerequisite level of English. This casts aspersions on the quality of the students and the institutions' entrance standards, which in turn affects their retention rate, the level and quality of the teaching and learning process, and the curriculum. It should be noted that this concern is not limited to English-speaking countries but is also found in many non-English-speaking countries, where there is a growing interest in offering courses in English in an attempt to capture a "market share" of international students. Some countries in Europe and Southeast Asia would fall into this category.

These two examples illustrate the concerns raised about the contribution that internationalization makes to the quality of higher education in general. Identifying them as concerns is more appropriate than calling them trends; however, attention needs to be given to these concerns before they become critical issues and trends.

Another aspect of the quality issue is the assessment and enhancement of internationalization activities. In Canada, little discussion appears to take place, even less action, on the question of assessing and assuring the quality of internationalization strategies. Canada stands out as one of the few Western countries not formally

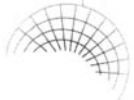




addressing the quality issue. In Australia, Europe, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom, there are considerable debate and action on assessing, monitoring, and improving the quality of internationalization. The reasons for this interest range from accountability purposes, to benchmarking and competitiveness, to a desire to improve and expand the international dimension (Wodehouse 1996).

It is interesting to analyze the different approaches and instruments used to address the issue of quality assessment and enhancement. In continental European countries, it is usually an institution's decision whether to engage in a review of the international dimension and which approach or instrument to use. No organizations require it, but national agencies are making it an issue and developing the resources to help institutions undertake self-assessments of the international dimension. For instance, the Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation in Higher Education developed a set of guidelines, "Quality in Internationalization: Guidelines for the Assessment of the Quality of Internationalization in Higher Professional Education" (NUFFIC 1995). It is an assessment tool that institutions use to rate themselves on a five-point scale regarding various academic-program and organizational aspects. It is more qualitative than quantitative and is basically a guide to help institutions identify areas in which they need improvement. The strength of this tool is its comprehensiveness, the fact that it does not limit itself to just one or two major areas of internationalization, such as exchange programs or the curriculum. The Finnish Centre for International Mobility has also developed a self-assessment checklist, which institutions are using to evaluate and improve their international work (Snellman 1995).

Since 1996, the IMHE of the OECD, in collaboration with ACA, has had a special project on quality assessment and assurance of internationalization (IMHE 1997). It emerged out of a project on internationalization strategies, in which the issue of quality was identified as very important. An approach called the Internationalization Quality Review Process (IQRP) was developed and has been piloted in eight countries, including Australia, Kenya, Malaysia, Mexico, Western and Eastern European countries, and the United States, but not in Canada (Knight and de Wit 1999). Basically it is a process to enable individual academic institutions to assess and enhance the quality of their internationalization efforts according to their own stated aims and objectives. The process includes procedures, guidelines, and tools to be adapted and used in both a self-assessment exercise and an external peer review. The emphasis is on the analysis of



the strengths and weaknesses of the institution's international dimension and on identifying steps to take to improve it. IQRP covers a very broad range of areas, from governance and organizational systems, to academic programs, to research and scholarly collaboration, to students, to staff, to external relations and services. It does not take a checklist approach, as institutions undertake the evaluation according to their stated aims and objectives for internationalization. Although data gathering is an important step, the focus is on analysis, not on description of activities or quantitative measures.

The short-term goal of the IMHE-OECD project is to develop an instrument for quality review of internationalization efforts for institutional use. The long-term objective is to ensure that the international dimension is included in all quality audits, whether they are evaluating specific subjects or disciplines, the teaching and learning process, or institutional management systems and practices. This is consistent with the philosophy advocating the integration of the international dimension into the core functions of the university, not marginalizing it in a group of special activities.

Australia is an interesting case from the point of view of quality assessment and assurance. For various reasons, its quality audit systems are directly linked to government support and funding. Accountability and merit are key factors. Australia is putting new systems and procedures in place at the institutional level. Senior management positions, such as deputy vice chancellor for quality, are not uncommon. Because international-student recruitment, offshore programs, customized training, and research contracts are major revenue sources for institutions, interest has also been increasing in quality review and enhancement of international activities. At the institutional level, there has been some interesting work done to develop and combine a number of quality-assessment tools for international activities. Performance indicators with benchmarks are being developed. In other instances, international offices have worked toward ISO 9000 accreditation, the IQRP model is being used and adapted, and certification for offshore programs is being obtained. The diversity of these approaches and instruments illustrates the importance Australia attaches to the quality of internationalization and the work it is doing to develop the right approaches.

The quality of educational programs offered offshore, either through distance education, twinning programs, or satellite campuses, is also seen as important. The New Zealand Qualifications Authority has developed a certification process and system for all public and private education providers offering education programs

offshore. Hong Kong has recently developed legislation requiring all foreign distance-education providers to be registered. These two examples illustrate that both providers and recipients of offshore or distance education are taking steps to monitor the quality of education. The Global Alliance for Transnational Education (Wodehouse 1997) is developing a certification program for transnational education, which is further evidence of the concern for quality assessment.

To date, quality assessment and enhancement have not been key issues in Canada, but as internationalization comes of age it will be critically important for Canada to address questions of accountability, merit, and improvement.

Sustainability and funding

In Canada, without question, the last decade has seen an increased interest in, and commitment to, the international dimension of higher education. The AUCC survey (Knight 1995) of university presidents clearly indicated that they are paying greater attention to internationalization. This is evident from the fact that by 1994 more than 80% of university mission statements referred to the international dimension. But is this rhetoric or reality? Is there any concrete evidence of this increased interest or is it primarily a moral commitment?

Box 2

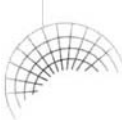
Internationalization and quality standards

The issue of quality control of international activities is problematic. Why evaluate international activities at all? For what purpose and for what audience? Quality control of academic programs is a provincial responsibility. It is generally recognized that the objectivity of a peer-review process ensures high standards in a field of expertise. This same process generally works well for international research but is less applicable, however, to nonacademic activities. How then should the matter of quality control be handled for the less academic aspects of international activities? How can a quality-assessment strategy take account of the impact of international work on, for example, students? Because a successful international-education experience achieves both an academic and a nonacademic result, is a new mechanism needed to assess the academic results of formal courses and the new forms of socialization that are shaping students on and off the campus? To assess the quality of internationalization requires a clear understanding of what internationalization means, with agreement on all facets of the concept. Clearly, the debate is complex. The variations from discipline to discipline and the tendency of international activities to be more geared to praxis than to academic considerations goes some way to explaining why the issue of quality standards and control of internationalization remains largely in limbo.

One indicator of commitment is whether funding and resource allocation for international activities have increased or decreased. It is difficult to get an accurate picture of the financial investments made by the institutions themselves in internationalization activities. However, emerging economic trends suggest that funding increases when a financial return on the investment is possible. For instance, it is interesting to ask whether more funding is available to market and recruit international students or contract education offshore than to revise the curriculum or establish student- or staff-mobility programs. A review of job postings for international work in the universities is likely to show that more international-student-recruitment positions are being created than positions for managers of study-work-abroad centres. One can cite no hard data on this, but it appears to be an emerging trend.

Another trend related to the funding and feasibility of internationalization activities is the recognition of the need to diversify sources of funding. Universities and colleges acknowledge that they have to depend less on government funding sources and are now seeking private-sector support, funding from foundations, and entrepreneurial income-generating activities. At the national and provincial levels, funding for international scholarships and research grants for Canadian students and researchers is decreasing. Since the early 1990s the level of funding for university partnership programs from CIDA has also been decreasing. The recent creation and funding of the new national program on international internships for young Canadians needs to be applauded; yet, it must be recognized that this program has as much or more to do with youth unemployment as with the internationalization of higher education. Nevertheless, the opportunity for young Canadians to become more knowledgeable and skilled in working in international and intercultural settings is extremely beneficial.

DFAIT's new emphasis on the export of educational products and services means that international-education activities are now being seen as a source of income, and institutions are more inclined to invest in those international activities when they anticipate a clear return on their investment. The income is often seen as a replacement for the loss of other government funding. The question of whether income generation from international activities is used for general education purposes or is directed to supporting and sustaining various internationalization priorities and activities needs closer examination.



A related issue, which also merits further analysis, is whether income-generation activities in international markets — for example, foreign consulting contracts, selling education products and courseware, franchising courses for delivery by foreign institutions — are in fact internationalization activities that directly contribute to the international dimension of a university's major functions. This is a controversial issue and gets us back to the question of what the major rationales and priorities are for international education and work in the university.

A number of factors affect the long-term feasibility of the academic aspects of internationalization. Funding is just one. The expertise and support of faculty are others. The engine of internationalization at the institutional level is clearly the faculty and staff. Opportunities for professional development and for recognition and reward for international work are two areas in need of attention if internationalization is to be sustainable at the institutional level.

Another important consideration is the "institutionalization" of the international elements. In the first part of the chapter the process approach to internationalization was described. It focuses on both international activities (exchanges, curriculum, international students, development projects) and organizational factors (policies and systems) needed to integrate the international dimension into all aspects of the university. The process approach is fundamental to trying to institutionalize the international dimension into the priorities, planning, policies, and procedures for the higher education institution. The process, or integrative, approach is better understood and recognized in Canada than in many other countries of the world. This is partly because we take a comprehensive approach to internationalization and have recognized the importance of the dynamic relationship between curriculum, development projects, research, etc. In other words, the "whole is greater than the sum of the parts."

In Australia, greater emphasis has been placed on the recruitment of international students and twinning programs; only recently has it looked at the internationalization of domestic students by addressing the curriculum and trying to expand student-exchange programs, etc. (Back et al. 1996). In Europe, the European Commission programs, such as SOCRATES, ERASMUS, and COMETT, have fundamentally shaped the internationalization activities of many universities and other tertiary institutions (de Wit and Callan 1995). The European Commission programs have been successful in creating institutional partnerships and exchange programs. In the evaluation of many European Commission programs, this issue, plus that of the

sustainability of these initiatives, is being carefully analyzed. Can individual institutions continue these new programs without the support of the European Commission?


In Canada, we have not had these kinds of national or provincial programs to support our internationalization work, and much of the responsibility has remained with the individual institution. Not having such external support may have hindered the extent of our internationalization efforts, but in the end it may have helped the individual institutions to be more independent and entrepreneurial in finding ways to support this dimension of activities. The major risk is that institutions may place more emphasis on the economic and commercial aspects of international work, rather than the internationalization of the academic experience for Canadian students. An appropriate balance is needed.

In Australia, it is a completely different story. A significant reduction has occurred in national funding, and the institutions have had to proactively diversify the sources of their funding. Since the advent of full cost recovery on international student fees and a systematic marketing effort "the single most important and the single largest revenue stream is international students" (ACA 1997, p. 49).

Impact of trade agreements and the labour market

Reference should be made to the growing influence of trade agreements and the labour market on the internationalization of higher education. With a more globalized economy we are seeing an internationalization of trades and professions. The creation of regional trading blocks, such as those of the European Union, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), is resulting in a greater flow of products and services across borders. This involves a significant increase in the mobility of workers and the need for international standards and accreditation programs. This, in turn can have a major impact on the education and training offered by higher education institutions, both at home and offshore. Greater attention needs to be given to developing international accreditation systems for professions and trades that currently have only national-level accreditation.

Another important factor related to the labour market is the identification of competencies essential to functioning in a more international work environment. The research, to date, in Canada and in other countries has been sporadic, but the topic is now gaining more attention (Stanley and Mason 1998; Wilson 1998). A study by the RAND Corporation, *Global Preparedness and Human Resources: College*



and Corporate Perspectives (cited in ACA 1997), examined how US higher education is responding to the needs of multinational businesses. The study concluded that corporations with a need for entry-level candidates with cross-cultural competence frequently seek non-Americans to fill these positions. To counteract this practice and to help graduates gain the prerequisite knowledge and skills, US corporations are now working more closely with colleges and universities. Firms are providing funds for curriculum development, faculty-exchange programs, and students internships. To respond to industry's human-resource requirements and the need to be competitive in world markets, the US higher education system acknowledges that it needs to produce more internationally competent graduates and to cooperate with the private sector in doing so.

In Canada, a recent survey (Knight 1997) of the private, government, and education sectors indicated that more cooperation between the academic and private sectors is desirable. Although the sectors agreed on the need for closer collaboration, they did not agree on the nature of this cooperation. The education sector suggested there was a need for private-sector involvement in the following types of activities: research partnerships, scholarships for Canadian students, support for chairs in international studies, and work placements for international students studying in Canada. The private sector proposed different types of collaborative activities, such as financial and technical support on joint international projects and the promotion and export of Canadian education and training services abroad. The sectors agreed that cooperation is needed to provide internships and work placements abroad for Canadian students and identify competencies to enable new graduates to work in the globalized marketplace. This was thought to be a good starting point for closer collaboration.

In Australia, university cooperation with the private sector has taken a more entrepreneurial approach. Building on its success in recruiting international students, Australia has taken the lead in developing offshore campuses in cooperation with a private-sector company. American universities have made similar kinds of arrangements in several Asian countries.

International standards and standardization

Often cited as an extremely important reason to internationalize higher education is the desire to achieve international academic standards. What are these standards, who sets them, and who monitors

them? These questions are still unanswered in Canada and in other countries around the world.

In the 1994 AUCC survey (Knight 1995), senior leaders of Canadian degree-granting institutions ranked "achieving international standards" as number 5 out of 10 in level of importance as a rationale for internationalization. In the 1997 survey (Knight 1997), key Canadian stakeholders (government, education, and private sector) gave a ranking of "high importance" to this same issue. The basic reason for the high ranking in the second survey was the need for Canada to be competitive in the export market for Canadian educational products and services.

A recent cross-country analysis of nine Asia-Pacific countries (Knight and de Wit 1997) revealed that the achievement of international academic standards was a primary motivating factor for investing in, and emphasizing, the internationalization of the education system. Meeting international standards was seen as a way to make their educational systems equal to those of others and make them credible for domestic and international students and scholars. However, they also indicated that international standards can be a double-edged issue. Strong concern was expressed about the uniformity and homogeneity that can result from an excessive emphasis on internationally recognized standards. Standardization was seen as a possible outcome of achieving international standards. There are many complex factors at play in the discussion of this issue. It is prudent to be aware of the expressed concern about a "cookie-cutter" approach to education while trying to achieve international standards of excellence in scholarship and research.

In the same study, Asian colleagues also referred to the potential for westernization and what some called the "McDonaldization" of their higher education sector. Often, they equated internationalization with westernization. National and indigenous cultures are perceived as being at risk and as being gradually eroded. Mixed emotions and some controversy about the long-term impacts and benefits of the increasing number of twinning programs, foreign satellite campuses, and distance-education programs were apparent. The dilemma of improving the standards of higher education while putting indigenous knowledge and belief systems at risk was clearly recognized. Is this an issue that affects Canada? As Canadian universities and colleges become more active in exporting education and setting up off-shore programs, it is important for them to be aware of the issues of the westernization and homogenization of cultures. In fact, these are



issues somewhat familiar to us from discussion of our relationship with the United States.

In conclusion it is important to note that international standards need to be looked at, not only in terms of achieving excellence and competitiveness, but also in terms of preventing uniformity and standardization of the content and processes of education.

Brain drain and elitism

Two other issues that deserves mention are the phenomena of brain drain and elitism. These do not have the same importance attached to them as the previously discussed issues, but they are worthy of discussion because they are of importance to Canada and other countries.

The potential loss of national talent has long been an issue associated with the increased mobility of students and scholars, and it continues to be a relevant issue today for both developing and developed countries. For instance, in Canada, DFAIT has recognized the issue of brain drain, primarily in the direction of the United States, as a significant national problem requiring attention. Canada is producing top-level graduates in niche areas, such as biomedical and information technologies. However, we are unable to attract these graduates to Canadian companies or even to multinational ones located in Canada. The salary packages, as well as the opportunities for diversity of responsibilities and job promotion, are definitely more attractive in the United States, and thus we are suffering brain drain to the south. We are, at the same time, attracting qualified professionals and scholars from other countries, primarily those in the Asia-Pacific region, who are beginning to fill the gap left by the brain drain to the south. Brain drain is perhaps better described as the "itinerant intellect," as it is really about international mobility or flow of brain power; it is no longer a one-way drain.

Of course, this remains a matter of major concern for developing countries, which are sending their brightest talent and future leaders to foreign shores for further education and training. The prospect of continuing to work and live in a country where a student has spent a considerable amount of time in undergraduate or postgraduate education, or both, is attractive to many. Although the desire to remain in a country for work experience after graduation is often seen as understandable, a prolonged or permanent stay jeopardizes the sending country's plans for developing the human-resource base needed to modernize its systems and infrastructure.

Another issue related to mobility, and to some extent, to internationalization in general is elitism. Many people think that international-education opportunities are only available to students or scholars who either are the most talented and thus able to access international scholarships or have the resources to finance their own work-study or research programs abroad — two reasons why international education is perceived as the reserve of the elite. For the member countries of the European Union there are many successful academic-mobility programs that over the years have provided excellent opportunities for students, researchers, and academic administrators to study abroad. Accessibility is a key issue in these schemes, and extra effort is made to make these exchange programs available, on a competitive basis, to as many participants as possible. That said, it is still only possible to accommodate 5–10% of the student population. Therefore, once again, international academic exchange programs have been seen as elitist because they cater to a very small percentage of the academic community.

Canada has no large-scale, nationally funded exchange programs like those in Europe, nor does Canada have numerous scholarship schemes. Study-abroad and exchange programs are usually organized at the institutional level, and the financial responsibility rests with the student or the sending institution. Because of the small number of students who participate, it is again often referred to as elitist. Semester- or year-abroad programs are not as popular in Canada as in Europe, the United States, and now several Asian countries like Hong Kong and Singapore. Again, finances are seen to play a major role in determining who participates. Elitism, again, seems to be at play.

Therefore, as long as internationalization is thought of in terms of academic mobility, elitism will continue to be an issue because of the small number of students and scholars who can participate. Thus, it is appropriate to consider a more comprehensive approach to internationalization. The integration of an international or intercultural dimension into the curriculum would be a key strategy to reaching a greater percentage of students. Access to information through new electronic information and communication systems like the World Wide Web are now providing rich opportunities for students to learn about other cultures and countries and even to undertake joint projects with students in other countries. If one goal of internationalization is to help students develop knowledge and critical-thinking skills to understand their own and others' culture, history, politics, and economy, then we must be creative and find

strategies to bring this dimension into the learning experiences and course work of all students. Internationalization should not be perceived as an elitist concept.

Societal trends

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Other important macrolevel trends need to be noted, but perhaps not elaborated on. When discussing trends, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the larger societal trends that are affecting higher education in general and those trends and issues that are part of one aspect of higher education, in this case, the international dimension. For example, the movement toward a knowledge-based society and economy (Strong 1996) is one trend that has profound implications for the higher education sector and obviously relates directly to the international dimension.

The development of new information and communication technologies is another example. The opportunities to internationalize the teaching process and to engage in joint research through electronic collaboration with experts, colleagues, and fellow students in other countries add to the international dimension. The availability of international sources of information has exploded through access to worldwide databases, web sites, and library collections through the Internet. Delivery of courses via the Internet or through CD-ROMs is introducing new possibilities for interactive learning, the teaching and learning process, and the role of teachers. The "sage on the stage" is also becoming the "guide on the side."

Distance and time are no longer barriers, and therefore opportunities for offshore or international delivery and access are growing rapidly. The excitement of having new ways to internationalize the curriculum, the learning process, and scholarly activities is tangible. However, unbridled enthusiasm is as much of an issue as the sceptics' cynicism. Careful thought and attention need to be given to why, when, and how the new information and communication technologies enhance higher education and its international dimension. The key challenge is to determine how these emerging technologies can be used to enhance the learning process, extend its benefits, and bring international expertise together to focus on shared problems in new and creative ways.

Another trend is an increasing focus on regionalism, or the geographic grouping of neighbouring countries, as opposed to an area within a country. As seen earlier, new networks, associations, and mobility schemes are emerging at the regional level. The University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP) program is a good example

of this, the impacts of having closer regional links resulting from new regional trade agreements, such as NAFTA, APEC, and the European Union, have been noted especially in relation to the mobility of the workforce.


The role of the European Commission in promoting academic exchange programs within the European region is well known. An interesting new initiative from the European Commission involves mobility schemes between regions. The recent European Union–Association of Southeast Asian Nations program and European Union–Latin America program are examples of these schemes and help to focus in another way on the increasing importance of regionalization. Much of the discussion of regionalism has accepted the perspective of regionalization versus internationalization. The “versus” approach is not very productive or helpful in exploring this theme. The key issue requiring further analysis is how to achieve the most appropriate balance of interests at the national, regional, and international levels. When we juxtapose the need to recognize the interdependence of nations to solve some of the global challenges facing us with the need for technological and scientific competitiveness, the importance of finding the optimal balance between national, regional, and international interests comes into a clearer focus.

Microlevel issues and trends

This section focuses on a series of microlevel trends and issues. These relate to the strategies and activities that directly enhance the international dimension of the three primary university functions. Many of these trends and issues have been addressed in previous chapters dedicated to teaching, research, and outreach; therefore, the discussion in this section is brief but does make reference to the situation in other countries.

Academic mobility

The mobility of students and scholars is one of the best known and successful strategies for internationalization, both in Canada and in the rest of the world. The Colombo Plan systematically introduced the mobility of scholars to the Commonwealth countries. In fact, many Australian, Canadian, and United Kingdom universities view the Colombo Plan, along with other international scholarship schemes, as being fundamental to shaping their international cooperation.



Following on the heels of such scholarship programs were institutional-level linkages, with the support of national aid agencies such as CIDA. European countries and Canada also refer to the important role that bilateral cultural agreements play in the mobility of students, scholars, and professors.

Today, there are many different kinds of bilateral, regional, and international mobility programs. The best known ones are sponsored by the European Commission. These include the famous ERASMUS program for university student mobility, developed in 1987. The Program to Promote the Teaching and Learning of Community Languages, which focuses on languages exchanges, came into being in 1994, followed by LEONARDO, which is dedicated to vocational training. The European Union has created a new umbrella program, SOCRATES, to include some of the former programs. All of these programs have led to the perception among many in Europe that internationalization is equivalent to student mobility (de Wit and Callan 1995).

Two other regional mobility schemes are UMAP, which is dedicated to student exchanges within the Asia-Pacific region, and the North American Regional Mobility Program for student exchanges in North America. Another example is the Commonwealth University Student Activity Consortium, established in the early 1990s. These constitute only a selection, but they amply illustrate the interest in student mobility. However, it must also be remembered that on average only about 5–10% of students per institution have the opportunity to participate in an exchange program.

Although exchange programs are the most numerous and the most popular, other types of mobility schemes are available to students, faculty, and scholars. The Fulbright program is an example — one of the largest and best known scholarship programs that promotes the mobility of scholars. Canada's participation in the Fulbright program has been increasing since the early 1990s. In contrast, international scholarships and research grants for Canadians through the three Canadian granting councils have unfortunately been decreasing over the past several years. Semester- or year-abroad programs, which are very popular in the United States but not as numerous in Canada, are another aspect of mobility.

The number of international work placements or internships made as part of an academic program is growing. Germany and the Netherlands probably have the most developed systems to facilitate these experiences for students. In Canada, increasing interest is shown in providing for international internships as part of cooperative

education programs and some postgraduate degrees. This type of academic-related work placement still has no national-level support; however, a recent initiative of Human Resources Development Canada provides international internships for young Canadian graduates. These internships are intended to provide work experiences for unemployed youth, especially in international development agencies and businesses. This program was developed in response to several factors. The high youth-unemployment rate is perhaps the most important factor, but the need to prepare young people to work and live in a more globalized, competitive, and interdependent world is another relevant reason for the emphasis on international work opportunities.




International students

The trends in the size and direction of the international-student flow is of great interest and significance at this time. Several factors are changing the dynamics of this flow. Mention has already been made in this chapter of the increasing competition among countries — especially Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States — for international students, as well as to the national agencies and networks established to recruit more international students. Even the language of recruitment has changed significantly. Enrolling international students has a distinct commercial orientation. Discussions of strategies to “capture a market share” are more common than those on how to “increase the retention and academic success rate” of visa students.

From 1985 to 1992, Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States established differential fee rates for international students. In Canada, it was not until 1996 that our foreign policy changed and increased attention and funding were allocated to recruiting international students and exporting Canadian educational products and services. This new emphasis has been a major factor in the current pressure to gain a market share of international students for Canada.

The massification of higher education, especially in the countries of the Asia-Pacific region, has played a significant role in the size and direction of the flow of international students. This is why countries such as Hong Kong, South Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, and Thailand have traditionally been the source of students; and, assuming that economic conditions remain positive, they will continue to send students. However, these countries also see the opportunity to take a market approach to the whole issue of international students and are beginning to promote themselves as a regional centres for



international students from neighbouring countries such as China and Indochina. Factors such as smaller distances, less culture shock, and lower costs are given as reasons for neighbouring countries not to send their students out of the region.

The quest for international students by the “big four” (Australia, Canada, United Kingdom, United States) is now moving to Central and South America and the Middle East, where once again national higher education capacity is not large enough to enrol all qualified students, and a growing middle class can afford to send their children abroad for a foreign education. The Eastern European market is seen as a longer term investment.

The final point to be made in this section concerns a rather disturbing trend. The arguments for recruiting students are now becoming mainly economic. Recent research from national organizations in Canada on international students includes studies of economic impacts, export readiness of higher education institutions, Canada’s competitiveness in the international student market, and the prospects for expediting visa and admission requirements. What is lacking are reports on how to monitor and increase the academic success rate and retention of these students and how to respond to their academic, linguistic, social, cultural, and financial needs. The important point here is that economic and academic motives for enrolling international students do not have to be mutually exclusive. What is critical is to achieve the appropriate balance between these two motives so that they reinforce each other.

International development cooperation

Participation in international development projects with the support of CIDA has been a key aspect and cornerstone of Canadian universities’ international cooperation since the 1970s, and development education has been an important adjunct to the development work. As already discussed in previous chapters, the extent and nature of university international development cooperation are clearly changing and in some cases diminishing. CIDA has significantly reduced the number of university partnership projects, as a result of its budget restraints, and the number of bilateral projects involving universities is decreasing, as a result of the emphasis on working with the private sector. In short, international development work is not as strong an agent for internationalization as it once was. This is an unfortunate situation, as it involves a reduction in the number of opportunities afforded through international development projects for research,

curriculum change, student participation, development education, and faculty development in Canadian institutions.


The same situation is found in the United States and to some extent in the United Kingdom. However, it appears that in the Nordic countries, development cooperation continues to have a strong role in the internationalization of the universities. Australia, Germany, and the Netherlands have also had a strong history of university involvement in international development work. These countries are experiencing a similar but less severe decline in university involvement than in Canada. It is interesting to note that at many international conferences and workshops on the international dimension of higher education, international development cooperation seems to have a very low profile; it is certainly less noticeable than other topics, such as international students, offshore and distance delivery, curriculum change, and academic mobility, for instance. Is this a reflection of the importance attached to international development work in the late 1990s and the direction for the next decade?



Foreign languages

In Canada, a substantial decline has occurred in the number of universities requiring a foreign language for graduation (Knight 1995), and generally students' interest in the study of a foreign language has decreased. In a few instances, new undergraduate and postgraduate programs in international business require students to gain a working knowledge of a foreign language as a prerequisite for working in international business. Appreciation of different cultural norms and values is part of this kind of language instruction as well.

Because of the exponential increase in the number of people speaking and learning English around the world and because English is the current working language of business, students in English-speaking countries do not realize the importance of learning other languages. In non-English-speaking countries, students are hungry to study English and, in some cases, other foreign languages as well. Foreign languages are seen as the passport to travel, study abroad, international work, and internship experiences, as well as to an international career. Therefore, we are seeing a growing number of students from Europe and several Asian countries who are fluent in English and often additional languages other than their mother tongue. Insight into different cultures and cross-cultural communication skills often characterize multilingual individuals, and these are important skills in today's world. In short, students who only speak English risk being perceived as parochial and finding themselves in



a not necessarily advantageous position. A major challenge in Canada is to encourage universities and students to recognize the importance of learning about other cultures, including, but not exclusively, learning another language.

In non-English-speaking countries, such as the Netherlands and Thailand, more and more courses are taught in English. In some cases, this is done through a twinning relationship with a foreign university; in others, the university has its own qualified English-speaking teachers. Originally, the target students were domestic, and the motivation for teaching in English was to increase their students' future opportunities for study and work abroad. A secondary motive is now coming into play, which is to attract international students who want to study in English at their university, even though English is not its native language. Although these universities are interested in internationalizing their campuses, they are also strongly interested in generating income from foreign students.

There is a substantial amount of discussion about these programs, regarding their quality, whether they should be serving more domestic students, and how cost-effective they really are. This trend is not directly relevant to Canada. However, it is necessary to be aware of it because it illustrates how strong the competition is in the world today to attract international students.

Twinning programs and offshore campuses

The 1990s will be remembered as the decade of great interest in and speculation about twinning programs and offshore campuses. Australia and the United States are taking the lead in developing these kinds of educational arrangements. Canada's involvement has been limited, to date, but interest is growing.

Asian countries, especially, do not have enough capacity in their national education systems to provide higher education to their huge number of qualified students. These countries are implementing creative alternative measures to resolve this difficulty, and thus we see the growth in the number of twinning programs. A twinning program means that students complete the first half of their degree or diploma program in their own country, and then they usually travel to the domestic campus of the foreign partner for the second half. The degree or diploma is provided by the foreign institution. In Canada, no hard data are available on the number of universities involved in these types of activities or to what extent. A recent survey of the 38 universities in Australia (Back et al. 1996) showed that 27 of them were in twinning arrangements with more than 93


overseas institutions, involving 13 000 students. These programs were predominantly in Malaysia and Singapore, but arrangements like this were also active in China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, South Africa, Thailand, and Viet Nam.

Establishing offshore campuses is yet another trend in the international marketing of education. In selected Asian and Middle Eastern countries, private companies were found to be optimistic about the return on their investments in the education sector. As a result, new campuses are built with private money, and foreign universities, with the approval of the national governments, are establishing diploma and degree programs. In some cases, existing campuses are renovated, and public-sector funds are also invested. However, the key issue is that the foreign university is responsible for the development and delivery of the educational programs, and the degree designation is from the foreign university. Data from the same survey (Back et al. 1996) indicate that seven Australian universities have established offshore campuses in Fiji, Hong Kong, Japan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Singapore, and United Arab Emirates. To date, no Canadian universities have built or set up in any way campuses to offer a range of degree programs in foreign countries, although in several cases Canadian universities are delivering their degree programs, often MBA programs, in a foreign location.

What does the future hold for Canadian involvement in twinning programs or offshore campuses? Because of demographic trends the massification of higher education in Asia and South America will increase, and it is forecast that the number of students needing higher education opportunities will continue to increase until 2025. Therefore, if the supply of students is available, Canada's foreign policy continues to emphasize trade, and the higher education sector is forced to diversify funding sources, it is likely that Canadian universities will become more creative and entrepreneurial in their approach to the international market.

Reflections and questions

Reviewing the macro- and microlevel trends and issues discussed in this chapter makes one reflect on some overarching themes and challenges facing the internationalization of higher education. One of the most critical questions that continually surfaces relates to the rationale and goals of enhancing the international dimension. The academic and economic rationales clearly have more importance today



than in yesteryears, when the political and social-cultural rationales had more prominence. However, the increased emphasis on the economic rationale raises the question of what internationalization really means. Without offering any direct benefit to academic or scholarly activities is it really internationalization? Or is it an income-generation activity in an international marketplace that funds the work of the university but does not necessarily introduce any added value to the education of Canadian students or the research work of Canadian scholars? This question has no straightforward answer, as there are many stakeholders with diverse vested interests and motives. However, it is an important question to ask, if only to ensure that institutions, NGOs, and the government are clear and explicit about their rationales and goals for the internationalization of the higher education sector.

Probably the most pervasive and consequential trend discussed in this chapter is the growing interest in the market and commercial aspects of the international dimension. Canada seems to be following the lead of Australia and the United States in this respect. Technical and scientific competitiveness, the commodification of educational products and services for export, and shrinking government funds for higher education, along with the need to diversify funding sources, are just three of the factors responsible for the new emphasis on a market approach to international education.

IDP Education Australia (Back et al. 1997) has described the shift in emphasis of Australia's international dimension in higher education as a movement from aid, to trade, to internationalization in the last three decades. Like Canada, its universities' interest in international cooperation was rooted in the Colombo Plan and development work. In 1986, a national-policy change in Australia resulted in a shift to a trade emphasis. Since the mid-1990s there has been increased interest and investment in student exchanges, curriculum changes, and other activities to internationalize the educational experience of Australian students. However, from a Canadian perspective, one can say that Australia is still a leader in the export of education and that it is still extremely active in the trade phase. The Australians have been very open about how much they have learned from Canada's academic orientation in the internationalization of its higher education sector, and we have a lot to learn from the Australians in the area of offshore education.

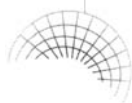
The irony of these comments about the Canadian experience is that many Canadian educators would describe our shift in a different sequence, that is, from aid, to mutual benefit (which includes

internationalization), to trade. Canada's increasing orientation to a trade and market approach, which started 10 years later than it did in Australia, is just beginning to have its full impact. It is perhaps more accurate, or maybe just more cautious and diplomatic, to describe Canada, at present, as attempting to find the optimal balance and link between the academic and economic aspects of international education.

If one had a time machine to allow us to fast forward to 2005 or 2010, what would we see as the impact of the "internationalization years" of the higher education sector? This may seem like an impractical exercise, but perhaps it is important in helping us reflect more on what we are doing and why we are doing it. The changes and benefits we would most like to see would include solutions to global issues, such as the environment, through cooperative international research and technology transfer; Canada's serving as a leader in the knowledge industry and information-service sectors; more knowledgeable young Canadians skilled to live, work, and contribute in local, national, and international environments; and greater access to higher education and lifelong-learning opportunities through electronic and other forms of international communication systems. These would be only a few observations from a Canadian perspective.

However, we may be unable or even unwilling to imagine other changes, such as the homogenization of national identities and indigenous cultures; unequal access to information sources and systems, contributing to a "knows" versus "know-nots" dichotomy; a new elite class or cadre of international business people and bureaucrats (Hersh 1997); the commodification of education in commercial products; and a new form of neocolonization through the sale of franchises for educational services. The larger question is what role is higher education playing, consciously or unconsciously, in the creation of a world culture or the enhancement of cultural pluralism.

Reality, of course, lies somewhere between these two extremes. The real purpose of trying to imagine the future is to ensure that we are taking a hard look at why we are internationalizing higher education today and the possible impacts at home and abroad. The increased interest and attention focused on internationalization are welcomed, but this should not come without serious consideration of the goals we are trying to achieve. Even though we have taken a process approach to internationalization, it is absolutely crucial that we never lose sight of the objectives we are trying to achieve in the short and long terms.



In conclusion, it is important to reiterate that many of the observations, comments, and insights in this chapter are based on information, data, and learning from diverse reports, documents, and conferences. Very little formal research has been done on most of these topics. Therefore, it is important to close the chapter with a call for research and analysis of the trends and critical issues in the international dimension of higher education. It is interesting to note that Teichler (1996a), after reviewing the major issues of research on higher education policy during the past four decades, predicted that internationalization of higher education would be the theme of a new focus of both higher education policy and research for the next decade. In light of the evolution of the international work of universities in Canada over the last four decades, as presented in previous chapters, and the trends and issues highlighted in this chapter, the research focus on the international dimension of higher education is needed and welcome.