



Faculty of Social and Human Sciences
Doctoral Program in International and Intercultural Studies

**BRAINS ON THE MOVE:
TOWARDS A SYSTEMATIZATION OF
INTERNATIONALIZATION POLICIES
IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS**

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University of Deusto, September 2015



Universidad de Deusto
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Abstract

During the last few decades, internationalization has moved from a peripheral role to the central stage of higher education programs. Many universities have shown a great interest in fostering internationalization at their institutions to provide students and staff with the skills necessary to excel in an increasingly interdependent and globalized world. However, this interest usually translates into a number of separate and unconnected activities, rather than a coherent and comprehensive institutional strategy. This, in turn, prevents an effective systematization of internationalization activities and their long-term sustainability.

This study aims to provide a deeper insight into how the internationalization policy is systematized in higher education institutions. By examining different organization models for the internationalization of higher education, this research offers an idea of some of the important practical issues to be considered in the development and implementation of a more inclusive and sustainable strategy in internationalization. In addition to the comparison and contrast of the seven organization models, this work sets the bases for a new model that moves towards a communitarian approach to internationalization.

The research is guided by the hypothesis that the internationalization policies of the universities are conditioned by the structure within which these policies are organized, be it relational, institutional or communitarian. It is built on the premise that the internationalization policies based solely on the relational model establish more fragile and less durable relations, while those based on an institutional and, to a greater extent, a *communitarian structure* encourage a strengthening of these policies and contribute to their sustainable development.

Finally, by analysing an exemplary case of internationalization, the case of Harvard University, that illustrates a practical implementation of the communitarian structure, the findings of this study confirmed the assumption that the communitarian approach encourages the harmonization and durability of internationalization policies. Therefore, this study suggests that it would be beneficial for higher education institutions to move towards the development of a communitarian scheme.

Keywords: Internationalization, higher education, universities, globalization, academic mobility, policy implementation, rankings, institutionalization.

Acknowledgements

I am exceedingly grateful to my dissertation directors, Dr. Cristina de la Cruz Ayuso and Dr. Joana Abrisketa Uriarte, without their kind support, warm encouragement and wise direction, I would never have successfully completed this program.

I express my profound gratitude to the Basque Government for a pre-doctoral scholarship to conduct this research. I am deeply appreciative of their support and the interest they took in this project.

Likewise, I am most grateful to the Institute for Research Promotion (DEIKER) and all the members of the Centre for Applied Ethics (CEA) of the University of Deusto for their valuable assistance in the completion of this study.

I extend sincerest thanks to my supervisor for the academic visit at the UCL Institute of Education, University of London, William Locke for his thoughtful guidance, insightful feedback and shared passion for international education.

My dear friends, Mariano, Aurelia and Irene, also deserve a special mention for the friendship, support, and encouragement they extended to me during the period of research. Your friendship has helped me grow, lifted my spirit and brightened my life.

Finally, this work is lovingly dedicated to my parents, Ema and Valentin for your unconditional support and love, which helped to fuel this project through to completion and gave me the strength to focus and persevere with this important work.

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List of Abbreviations

ACA	Academic Cooperation Association
ACE	American Council on Education
ARWU	Academic Ranking for World Universities
BC	British Council
CBIE	Canadian Bureau for International Education
CHE	Centre for Higher Education
CHEPS	Centre for Higher Education and Policy Studies
CHES	Centre for Higher Education Studies
CONICYT	National Commission for Scientific and Technological Research
CRE	Association of European Universities
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service
DRCLAS	David Rockefeller Center for Latin American Studies
EACEA	Education, Audiovisual & Culture Executive Agency
EAIE	European Association of International Education
ECTS	European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ERASMUS	European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
ESGs	European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the EHEA
ESU	European Students' Union
ET 2020	Education and Training 2020
EU	European Union
EUA	European University Association
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
HE	higher education
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
IAIE	International Association for Intercultural Education
IAU	International Association of Universities
ICTS	Information and Communication Technologies
IIE	Institute of International Education
IMPI	Indicators for Mapping and Profiling Internationalisation
INCHER	International Centre for Higher Education Research
IT	information technology
MINT	Mapping Internationalization
NAFSA	Association of International Educators
NGO	non-governmental organization
NUFFIC	Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education
NVAO	Accreditation Organization of the Netherlands and Flanders
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

REHEQA	Register of European Higher Education Quality Assurance Agencies
RQAR	European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education
SRHE	Society for Research into Higher Education
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats analysis
TEMPUS	Trans European Mobility Program for University Studies
UAX	Alfonso X El Sabio University
UCL	University College London
UCM	Complutense University of Madrid
UK	United Kingdom
UKOSA	United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UPF	Pompeu Fabra University
US	University of Seville
U.S/USA	United States of America
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
WTO	World Trade Organization
WWII	World War II

Introduction

There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success, than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things.

—Niccolò Machiavelli

Purpose and Significance of the Study

Internationalization has been one of the most powerful and significant developments within European higher education during the last three decades and its importance is only expected to intensify in the future. Nowadays, there are not many higher education institutions that would have no interest in enhancing their international reputation, in expanding international opportunities for their students, faculty and staff, or in deepening their engagement with national, regional and global stakeholders. Internationalization is not a new phenomenon, however, its current range and scale are totally unprecedented. With about 3 million international students in the world, a myriad of international scholars, branch campuses, twinning programs and foreign partnerships, there is a growing need to develop a comprehensive framework for internationalization strategies.

Internationalization is taking place in an entirely new, complex, dynamic and globalized context. The prevailing models and concepts do not capture or fully explain the new dimensions of higher education, therefore there is a need to utilize new theoretical categories and develop new conceptual frameworks to explain trans-national activities and forces in higher education.¹ The resulting changes in goals, activities and actors require not only a re-examination of terminology, conceptual frameworks and previous understandings but, more importantly, an increased questioning of internationalization's values, purposes, goals and means.² Broadening the research base around internationalization and its conceptual foundations is important not only to higher education scholars, but also to policy makers in most settings today. The aim of this study is to contribute to this increasingly significant

¹ Simon Marginson and Gary Rhoades, "Beyond national states, markets, and systems of higher education: A glonacal agency heuristic," *Higher education* 43, no. 3 (2002): 282.

² IAU, "Affirming academic values in Internationalization of higher education: A call for action," April 2012, accessed April 21, 2015, http://www.iau-aiu.net/sites/all/files/Affirming_Academic_Values_in_Internationalization_of_Higher_Education.pdf.

educational priority by sharing institutional insights into internationalization processes and their systematization.

A wide variety and number of internationalization policies are nowadays an intrinsic part of higher education institution's activities. Although the universities acknowledge the importance and value of internationalization, few of them, to date, have managed to successfully transform themselves accordingly.³ Moreover, not enough is known about how internationalization is systematized at the institutional level and what could be improved to ensure a solid and sustainable development of these activities in the future. Even if there is an increasing number of internationalization activities and programmes, if they are not supported by a strong organizational commitment and structure, they may disappear with a change in priorities or resources.⁴ Therefore, instead of approaching internationalization in an *ad hoc* manner, it needs to be internalized into the DNA of the institution through the curriculum, research, public engagement and the way the institution is organized.

The organization issues need to be given the same amount of consideration as the academic or programme activities themselves. They are instrumental in insuring that the different activities complement and strengthen each other and are in line with institution's strategic goals and objectives. International activities and policies tend to be more effective when they are an integral part of a larger institutional effort, with a high degree of interdependence geared towards the achievement of a common goal or completion of a task. When, in contrast, activities are fragmented and isolated, having little to do with other institutional priorities and concerns, they become weaker, less durable and, as a result, less able to achieve the desired goals. This research explores the need of a greater institutional systematization of internationalization activities as a means to ensure their sustainability, longevity and belonging to the institutional culture. It not only aspires to contribute to the knowledge and understanding of how these activities are systematized within higher education institutions, but also tries to

³ Riall Nolan and Fiona Hunter, "Institutional Strategies and International Programs: Learning from experiences of change," in *The Sage Handbook of International Higher Education*, ed. Darla Deardorff et al., (Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, 2012), 131.

⁴ Jane Knight and Hans de Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: historical and conceptual perspectives," in *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: A comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America*, ed. Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1995), 20.

determine what aspects, conditions or models can be considered as good practices for the improvement of the institutionalization of these activities.

Scientific novelty

In the past years, several efforts have been undertaken to structure organizational strategies into different models of the internationalization process. Seven different organization models have been identified in the literature. Each of these models has a different way to look at internationalization and prioritizes different aspects of the organizational strategy. The first model, developed by Neave,⁵ takes a paradigmatic perspective for discussing and categorising the structures used to support international cooperation. The second model, developed by Rudzki,⁶ has a more programmatic focus on strategies, and provides a method for evaluating levels of international activity within higher education institutions. In the third model, Davies,⁷ focuses his attention on the need for universities to establish a clear framework for their international activities in order to adapt to the changes in the external environment. The fourth model, developed by van Dijk and Meijer,⁸ serves as an initial assessment tool to facilitate the understanding of the current position of the institution and its intended future direction. The following three models take the process perspective as their basis. The fifth model, designed by van der Wende,⁹ focuses mainly on curriculum development as a specific issue. The sixth model, developed by Knight,¹⁰ presents the internationalization process as a continuous cycle instead of a linear or static process. The last model, elaborated by Rumbley¹¹ attempts

⁵ Guy Neave, "Managing Higher Education International Co-operation: Strategies and solutions," (Unpublished reference document for UNESCO, 1992), accessed August 23, 2014, <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000986/098679eb.pdf>.

⁶ Romuald E. J. Rudzki, "The Strategic Management of Internationalization: Towards a Model of Theory and Practice" (Ph.D. diss., University of Newcastle upon Tyne, 1998), accessed August 23, 2014, <https://theses.ncl.ac.uk/dspace/bitstream/10443/149/1/rudzki98.pdf>.

⁷ John L. Davies, "University Strategies for Internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings: A conceptual framework," in *Policy and Policy Implementation in Internationalization of Higher Education*, ed. Peter Blok (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1995), 3-18.

⁸ Hans van Dijk and Kees Meijer, "The Internationalization Cube. A Tentative Model for the Study of Organizational Designs and the Results of Internationalism in Higher Education," *European Education* 30, no. 4 (1998): 44-56.

⁹ Marijk C. van der Wende, "Internationalizing the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective" (Ph. D diss., Utrecht University, 1996).

¹⁰ Jane Knight, "Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints," *CBIE Research paper*, no. 7 (1994): 1-15.

¹¹ Laura E. Rumbley, "Internationalization in the Universities of Spain: Changes and Challenges at Four Institutions," in *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education: Theoretical,*

to refine Knight's model and by adding some components to the original internationalization cycle, elaborates the delta cycle for internationalization. One of the aims of this study is to provide an in-depth analysis and comparison of these seven models. This analysis will reveal patterns of strengths, that are useful for learning lessons from the best practices in internationalization, as well as notable weaknesses and gaps that are equally insightful in terms of the pitfalls to be avoided in internationalization approach, design and implementation.

Each of these seven models has a different angle to view internationalization, however, few studies have examined internationalization from the perspective of how these policies are sustained and what conditions their longevity. Among the core contributions of this study is the attempt to set the basis for an organization model that looks at internationalization through a new prism, the prism of how internationalization policies are organized and what other measures could be taken to ensure their sustainable development.

A review of the literature on internationalization of higher education reveals that several outstanding authors have generally used similar approaches¹² to internationalization. These approaches were traditionally classified in four groups:¹³ activity,¹⁴ competency,¹⁵ ethos¹⁶ and process.¹⁷ The activity approach pays particular

Strategic and Management Perspectives, ed. Felix Maringe and Nick Foskett (London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2010), 207-223.

¹² An approach to internationalization reflects or characterizes the values, priorities, and actions that are exhibited during the work toward implementing internationalization, as defined in Jane Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled: Definition, Approaches, and Rationales," *Journal of Studies in International Education* 8, no. 1 (2004): 18.

¹³ Jane Knight, "Internationalization of Higher Education: A Conceptual Framework," in *Internationalization of Higher Education in the Asia Pacific Countries*, ed. Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: European Association of International Education, 1997), 5-19.

¹⁴ The activity approach to internationalization has been used by such authors as: Maurice Harari, "The Internationalization of the Curriculum," in *Bridges to the Future: Strategies for Internationalizing Higher Education*, ed. Charles B. Klasek (Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators, 1992), 52-79; Josef Mestenhauser and Brenda Ellingboe, *Reforming the Higher Education Curriculum. Internationalizing the Campus* (Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 1998); Stephen Arum and Jack Van de Water, "The Need for a Definition of International Education in U.S Universities," in *Bridges to the Future: Strategies for Internationalizing Higher Education*, ed. Charles B. Klasek (Carbondale, IL: Association of International Education Administrators, 1992), 191-203.

¹⁵ The competency approach has been used by such authors as: Minna Soderqvist, *Internationalization and Its Management at Higher Education Institutions: Applying Conceptual, Content and Discourse Analysis* (Helsinki: Helsinki School of Economics, 2002); Graham Elkin, John Farnsworth and Andrew Templer, "Strategy and the Internationalization of Universities," *International Journal of Educational Management* 22 (2008): 239-250; Marijk van der Wende, "Internationalization of Higher Education in the OECD Countries: Challenges and Opportunities for the Coming Decade," *Higher Education* 41 (2007): 274-289.

attention to higher education activities that promote internationalization, without placing too much emphasis on the organizational issues needed to initiate, build or sustain these activities. The competency approach focuses on the development of skills needed to compete in the global marketplace. Here, too, the emphasis is on the human dimension, not on the organizational issues. The same is true for the ethos approach, which highlights the importance of creating a culture that values and supports international initiatives. The process approach, although paying attention to the integration of an international dimension into teaching, research and service through activities and procedures, does not focus so much on their systematization or sustainability. One of the innovative aspects of this study is that it proposes a new approach to the internationalization of higher education, the systematization approach. The main focus of the systematization approach is to analyse how institutions manage to arrange their international strategies according to an organized plan or scheme. It is hoped that this approach will provide a useful framework to examine how internationalization policies are organized and structured in higher education institutions and will reveal other elements that can create an enabling environment for their sustainability.

The choice of this new approach to internationalization is justified by the need to articulate the building blocks of an internationalization strategy according to a bundling logic that results from a systematic analysis of the internationalization process. Many institutions have expressed intentions for internationalization and have developed different initiatives to promote international cooperation in their institutions, however, very often, these initiatives take the form of a string of separate, generally unconnected activities or frameworks, rather than a systematic, institutionalized sequence of contributions that together form the building blocks of a coordinated, coherent and complementary internationalization strategy. Internationalization is not only about sending students abroad, attracting a great number of international students on campus, or teaching in English language, but it is

¹⁶ The ethos approach has been used by such authors as: Sarah Pickert and Barbara Turlington, *Internationalizing the Undergraduate Curriculum: A Handbook for Campus Leaders* (Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 1992); Katharine Hanson and Joel Meyerson, *International Challenges to American Colleges and Universities: Looking Ahead* (Phoenix, AZ: American Council on Education and The Oryx Press, 1995).

¹⁷ The process approach was used by: Hans de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe: A Historical, Comparative and Conceptual Analysis* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2002); Knight, "Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints."

also a mindset, an approach and a critical phase prior to internationalization, where clarification and careful organization binds institutional actors in a shared cause, makes the institution stronger and more competitive and results in better and more effective internationalization strategy in the end.

Rationale for Research Questions

Internationalization over the years has moved from a reactive to a pro-active strategic issue, from added value to mainstream, and also has seen its focus, scope and content change considerably.¹⁸ In the midst of a worldwide race for the best and the brightest, higher education institutions strive to ensure that they occupy a central position in tomorrow's global competitive environment. To achieve this, they need to develop a harmonious and comprehensive systematization of their structures, policies and procedures. They also need to ensure that their policies will be durable and long-lasting in order to actually make significant changes.

Universities have always been affected by international trends and, to a certain extent, operated within a broader international community of academic institutions, scholars, and research.¹⁹ However, the way internationalization is organized and sustained has changed considerably over the years. Since the Middle Ages, students and professors have moved between countries to continue their studies in an internationally renowned university and in disciplines not taught in their own institutions.²⁰ Many of these contacts were made during informal meetings between colleagues from different countries with shared interest in academic matters, and sustained through mutual respect and working friendships. Building upon personal contacts of this kind, many universities often accumulated a large number of memoranda of agreement with other institutions defining the terms for collaboration, commonly based upon the exchange of students and staff. However, many of such agreements rarely survived for long periods of time and commonly faded following

¹⁸ Hans de Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe and its assessment, trends and issues*, (Netherlands: NVAO, 2010), 5.

¹⁹ Philip, G. Altbach, Liz Reisberg and Laura E. Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution* (Paris: UNESCO, 2009), 7.

²⁰ Hilde de Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe: Vol. 1: Universities in the Middle Age*, ed. H. de Ridder Symoens (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1992), 287.

the departure of key enthusiasts.²¹ Under these conditions, there is very little evidence of clear organization or consistency by universities or by individual members. At that time, effective systematization of internationalization was rarely observed.

Since then, important changes have taken place in the way internationalization is managed by higher education institutions. Today, the international dimension is characterised by an increasingly structured organization, by supportive strategies and adequate planning. Most universities have an effective International Relations Office that is one of the essential building blocks of the institutional system supporting the internationalization process. They are in charge of international cooperation activities and study abroad programs, they regularly sign collaboration agreements with other institutions and their faculty and staff are actively engaged in international activities. The 1st and the 4th Global Survey on internationalization of higher education conducted by the International Association of Universities (IAU) in 2003²² and 2014²³ show that among the universities that reported to have a policy for internationalization, the percentage with dedicated offices to support international activities rose from 64% in 2003 to 83% in 2014. This is perhaps a good reflection of the increasing trend towards a more organized and institutionalised management of internationalization activities.

In spite of a more organized approach towards internationalization, some of its traditional features are still evident today. In many universities, a strong reliance on personal contacts continues to be a dominant model in the organization of internationalization activities. This is not to say that there is something inherently wrong in placing a degree of reliance on personal contacts. Ultimately, there are individual decisions and relationships behind every institutional act. Nevertheless, when international activities are in most cases systematized in an individual and decentralized way, their sustainability is under a serious threat. As the past has shown, a high reliance on a relational model in the organization of internationalization activities prevents a successful systematization and sustainability of institutional policies and their benefits are not fully exploited at the institutional level.

²¹ John Taylor, "The Management of Internationalization in Higher education: Some UK examples of strategy and practice," *IAIE Internationalization of Higher Education Handbook B 2.3* (2011), 2.

²² Jane Knight, ed., *Internationalization of Higher Education. Practices and Priorities: 2003 IAU Survey Report* (Paris: IAU, 2003).

²³ Eva Egron-Polak and Ross Hudson, *Internationalization of Higher Education: Growing expectations, fundamental values: IAU 4th Global Survey* (Paris: IAU, 2014).

Research Objectives and Questions

The primary research question for this study is defined as follows: How is internationalization systematized in higher education institutions? This study has two main objectives that emerge from the primary research question. The first is to analyse the historical evolution and current trends of the process of internationalization and to make meaning of these internationalization processes through the lens of the systematization approach. The second objective is to analyse the different organization models for the internationalization of higher education in order to offer an idea of some of the important practical issues to be considered in the development and implementation of a more sustainable strategy in internationalization.

Four secondary questions support these lines of inquiry. The first two questions guide the discussion of the historical and current development of the internationalization of higher education institutions:

1. What organizational patterns prevailed during different phases of the historical development of internationalization?
2. What approaches, rationales, strategies and trends are shaping the current state of internationalization?

The inquiry into the different organization models for the internationalization of higher education opens up the last two questions:

3. What key factors are contributing to the development of a sound and sustainable internationalization strategy?
4. How might a new model more accurately reflect the systematization of internationalization activities in terms of their sustainability?

Hypothesis

Having established the above research questions, the hypothesis that will guide this study is based on the assumption that the internationalization policies of the universities are conditioned by the structure within which these policies are organized, be it relational, institutional or communitarian. It is founded on the premise that the internationalization policies based on an institutional and, to a greater extent, on a *communitarian structure* encourage a strengthening of these policies and contribute to

their sustainable development, while those based solely on the relational model establish more fragile and less durable relations.

That is why we argue that the universities need to put more effort to advance towards the development of a communitarian structure. This does not mean that there should be a transition from a relational to an institutional, and then to a communitarian structure, a university may contain all of these models simultaneously, however it is important to find ways to overcome the obstacles that stand in the way of a beneficial and complementary coexistence among them.

Methodology

In order to test the hypothesis and to address the first two questions of this study, a comprehensive literature review was carried out on a number of relevant topics covering the following areas: the evolution of internationalization from the Middle Ages to the present day, with a focus on the main organizational patterns used for each period; the impact of globalization on higher education and the related consequences for knowledge generation, social equity and academic values; the major trends in internationalization that are causing important changes in its meanings, approaches and rationales; and, the internationalization strategies that are developed by higher education institutions to adapt to these changes. A variety of information sources were used to collect information on these topics, including specialized books, journals and dissertations, official EU reports, surveys and databases, as well as web-based articles and audio-visual recordings.

To answer the third research question, different organization models for the internationalization of higher education were analysed through the prism of the most recent goal dimensions of the Indicators for Measuring and Profiling Internationalization (IMPI), and through four most common categories of indicators used by international organizations to measure internationalization in universities. The manner by which rankings have become a key driver of global reform of higher education stresses their significance and influence on the development of internationalization strategies. Rankings “seduce as well as coerce”²⁴ and their

²⁴ William Locke, “The Institutionalization of Rankings: Managing Status Anxiety in an Increasingly Marketized Environment,” in *University Rankings: Theoretical Basis, Methodology and Impacts on Global Higher Education*, eds. Jung Cheol Shin, Robert K. Toutkoushian and Ulrich Teichler (Dordrecht: Springer, 2011), 212.

immense impact on higher education institutions cannot be ignored or underestimated. That is why, in the third part of this study, rankings and their main parameters have been used as a benchmark for comparison of the seven organization models.

The last research question, that is concerned with the proposal of bases for a new organization model, was addressed by two separate sets of analysis. First, a detailed examination of the seven organization models enabled the identification of key success factors in establishing sustainable international linkages. Second, it revealed that the internationalization practices within higher education institutions are generally underpinned by three organization structures: relational, institutional and communitarian and this finding was the major argument for the proposal of the new model. Finally, in order to test the hypothesis that the communitarian structure contributes to a more sustainable development of the internationalization practices, a case study of Harvard University was analysed, as an example of a successful implementation of this strategy in practice. And since the communitarian structure has many unexplored features, the study concluded with an analysis of its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

It is hoped that the successful development and application of this methodology will serve to justify and illustrate the main contribution of this study, which tries to fill the existing gap in the research on internationalization concerning the analysis and comparison of different organization models and a proposal for the improvement of the institutionalization of the internationalization policies.

Limitations

It is important to recognize several limitations that may have affected the final conclusions of this dissertation. The first relates to the partial nature of this study. In the first part, its focus is mainly on Europe and although other contexts are used as part of an argument throughout the research, the one-sided European perspective on internationalization is, perhaps, insufficient. As will be argued in the course of this paper, internationalization is perceived differently in different parts of the world and the European perspective, no matter how comprehensive, still has a limited standpoint. In an attempt to overcome this limitation, a case study of the oldest institution of higher education in the United States, Harvard University, was conducted in the second part of this research.

Another limitation of this study was imposed by the time constraints, that did not allow for subsequent confrontation of the findings with expert interviews. It would have been interesting to complement the findings of this research with the personal opinions of those directly involved in policy decisions in international education. The same reason led to the adoption of a single case study method. In spite of the exclusive features of the Harvard case, it would have been useful to compare the findings of this university with other examples. Nevertheless, the limitations of a single case study did not prevent the laying of a necessary groundwork for the development of a new organization model for the internationalization of higher education.

The Researcher

Apart from practical and intellectual goals, this study is also motivated by a personal interest in the topic of internationalization of higher education. It started in 2007 when I came to the University of Deusto to study a Master of Arts in Euroculture, which is also an internationalization programme initiated by the European Commission under the Erasmus Mundus scheme. I became so passionate about the topic of academic mobility, that I wrote my master thesis on “Erasmus mobility in the EU and its influence on young people’s values”, which was a qualitative research on how far the requested mobility within the European Union has an effect on the social and cultural identity of young people.

One of the conclusions that this master thesis came to was that the mobility required nowadays in the educational sector has a great impact on young people. They no longer identify themselves with only one place, they feel inspired to travel and to discover new “homes”. This opening of borders happens not only at a geographical, but also at a personal, inside level. The more inspired they feel to travel and experience “other worlds”, the broader their awareness and sensitivity to different backgrounds becomes. These findings ignited my interest to see how the international programs, that have such a great influence and effect on young people, are crafted at the institutional level. Fortunately, during my Master’s program, I had the opportunity to undertake a six-month internship at the International Relations Office of the University of Deusto that was a valuable experience that helped me learn about the practical implementation of the internationalization policies.

While the theoretical understanding of the process of internationalization, that forms the basis of the present study, has been fortified by a three-month academic visit at the Centre for Higher Education Studies (CHES) at the UCL Institute of Education in London. The privilege of access to some of the best experts in the field of internationalization of higher education and academic mobility, as well as to the rich resources of the IOE library and other London libraries, have greatly inspired and advanced this study. The visit helped to improve the theoretical framework and bibliographic content of the study and enabled to develop a detailed and comprehensive analysis of the information by comparing and contrasting the interpretation of the findings with that of the education research experts at the Institute.

After living internationalization through the eyes of a student and experiencing it for a short time as a practitioner, I am pleased to share with you the results of my attempt to approach this exciting subject as a researcher.

Organization of the Dissertation

An overview of major incentives, the stated objectives, the various models for the internationalization of higher education and the three organization structures relational, institutional and communitarian, leads to the conclusion that the communitarian structure contributes to a more sustainable internationalization policy. However, many institutions are not prepared for its implementation, as it requires a very strong internal institutional coherence and logic in terms of how rationales, strategies and objectives are designed to be mutually reinforcing towards the achievement of a common institutional goal. This conclusion was achieved using the following structure and organization.

The thesis consists of two parts. *The first part* contains the first two chapters and is dedicated more to the conceptualization of internationalization, to its historical evolution and to the major trends that shaped its development. *The second part* comprises the last two chapters and includes the analysis of the organization models for the internationalization of higher education and the exploration of a communitarian structure in the organization of international activities. Thereby, as it follows, the thesis is constituted by a general introduction, four chapters and a general

conclusion. Each chapter has an introduction describing what will be covered in each section and a conclusion summarizing the main findings.

In order to manipulate with concepts and definitions related to internationalization, the study starts by providing a broader vision on the context that shaped the internationalization of higher education. *Chapter 1: Internationalization of higher education policy and its impact in Europe* starts with a description of the main events in the historical evolution of internationalization. It then characterizes the circumstances of its present context and the emergence of a new ‘geopolitics’ of higher education, caused by the development of the information technology, the quantitative enhancement of higher education and the academic competition for excellence. Finally, it explores the challenges for global higher education in the 2020s.

In *Chapter II: Internationalization of higher education: conceptual framework*, the main theoretical basis for the study is presented to facilitate the understanding of the many faces of internationalization. In the first part, this chapter discusses the meanings and approaches to the internationalization of higher education. In the second part, it highlights the main trends of internationalization, such as the growing concern for quality assurance, the cultural diversity issue and the commodification and commercialization of higher education. In the last part, this chapter describes the main international strategies for the internationalization of higher education, as well as its changing rationales.

Chapter III: Models for internationalization of higher education, is developed with the aim to see how the previously discussed theoretical concepts operationalize in practice. This chapter consists of two parts. The first part provides a description of seven different organization models for the internationalization of higher education as identified in the literature. The described models help to identify some of the existing drawbacks in the current organizational strategies. The second part of this chapter provides a more thorough analysis and comparison of these models, highlighting some similarities and differences between them, as well as some of their strengths and weaknesses.

The analysis of the existing organization models helps to identify key success factors for the development of a sound and sustainable internationalization policy.

These factors are presented in the last chapter of this study, *Chapter IV: Towards a communitarian approach to the internationalization of higher education*. Moreover, this analysis also helps to set the basis for a new organization model for the internationalization of higher education based on three organization structures: relational, institutional and communitarian. Finally, it describes some initiatives moving towards a communitarian structure and presents a SWOT analysis of the proposed model.

1. Internationalization of Higher Education Policy and its impact in Europe

History never looks like history when you are living through it.

—John W. Gardner

Introduction

In the 21st century, like never before, the process of internationalization came to play a crucial role in most universities worldwide. We got the rare opportunity to witness a bit of history in the making and when that happens, one realizes how important it is to reflect on the challenges, events and developments that shape this process today. However, it is impossible to understand its current dynamics without referring to the original roots of the university. We will be able to identify the specific characteristics of the internationalization process only if we place the present developments in historical perspective and see how the universities were responding to the challenges of the internationalization process throughout the history.

As the central aim of this study is to analyse how the internationalization is organized within higher education institutions, it is important to start by providing a broader perspective on internationalization and its determinants. The main goal of this chapter is to put various key aspects of internationalization into a wider context for deeper understanding and more accurate reflection of how this context shaped its evolution and current state. The chapter describes the historical development of the internationalization policy, the basis of its current context and some future perspectives. Its geographical focus is Europe, however, the role of other major players in the making of internationalization history is also briefly considered, especially in the historical section. Although this chapter starts with a much earlier historical period, it pays particular attention to the major changes that occurred since the 20th century, especially from the mid-80s.

This chapter consists of six parts. The first one deals with the historical circumstances and their influence on the development of the process of internationalization from the Middle Ages to the 20th century. The second section describes the growing importance of the European internationalization process in the 21st century. The impact of globalization on the European higher education is

discussed in the third section. The fourth part describes the international higher education community and its values in the European context. The fifth portion addresses the emergence of a new ‘geopolitics’ of higher education as a consequence of the recent changes and, as a result, the transformation in the global mapping of higher education systems. In the last part, some of the challenges for the European and global higher education in the 2020s are discussed.

1.1 The Historical Context of Internationalization

Internationalization has been considered a subject of great importance in higher education, in both historical and contemporary contexts.²⁵ Many scholars share the view that the university has always been global in nature²⁶. De Wit wonders:

Are we at the beginning of a future in which we are ... on our way again to the “universalism of learning: the universal-university world”, the revival of the cosmopolitan university of the medieval times, but within the context of a new modern world and a new age, the information age, in which society, economy and knowledge are part of a global environment, a mix of local and global influences?²⁷

Edwards explains the belief that universities are essentially international institutions by arguing that the truths that universities seek about the natural world, about human societies, and about human nature itself, are universal: “They are also committed to methods of investigation and learning that are believed to be universally valid, such as intellectual rigour, disinterested analysis, and freedom of

²⁵ Charles Homer Haskins, *The rise of universities* (New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction, 1923); Maurice Harari, *Internationalization of Higher Education: Effecting institutional change in the curriculum and campus ethos* (Long Beach, CA: Center for International Education, California State University, 1989); Charles B. Klasek, *Bridges to the Future*; Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,” 5-32; Marijk van der Wende, “Internationalisation policies: About new trends and contrasting paradigms,” *Higher Education Policy* 14 (2001): 249-259; Hans de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*; Philip G. Altbach and Ulrich Teichler, “Internationalization and Exchanges in a Globalized University,” *Journal of Studies in International Education* 5, no. 1 (2001): 5-25; John Taylor, “Toward a Strategy for Internationalisation: Lessons and Practice from Four Universities,” *Journal of Studies in International Education* 8, no. 2 (2004): 149-171.

²⁶ Among them: Hilde de Ridder-Symoens, ed., *A History of the University in Europe: Vol. 1: Universities in the Middle Ages* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1992); Clark Kerr, *Higher Education Cannot Escape History, Issues for the Twenty-First Century* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1994); Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education”; Philip G. Altbach, “Comparative perspectives in higher education for the twenty-first century,” *Higher Education Policy* 11 (1998); Altbach and Teichler, “Internationalization and Exchanges in a Globalized University”.

²⁷ Hans de Wit, “Rationales for Internationalization of Higher Education,” *Millennium* 3, no. 11 (1998): 11.

communication. Thus universities have always sought to operate internationally, whether through research collaboration or by teaching international students”²⁸.

Kerr argues that universities are, by nature of their commitment to advancing universal knowledge, essentially international institutions, but they have been living in a world of nation-states that have designs on them.²⁹ The author develops this idea in the following way:

At the first glance, it might be expected that these forces of internationalization of learning and of nationalization of purpose might be almost solely antagonistic to each other, and that higher education might be caught in the middle and torn apart. Learning is an individual matter, while national purposes respond to the wishes of those who govern. Learning relies on the thought and persuasion, while national purposes rely more on the pressures and on controls. Learning is mostly for its own sake, while national purposes want learning for sake of its uses. Confrontations might seem inevitable. At the least, these two undertakings are not fully compatible, But reality... is much more complicated than this.³⁰

These observations were also made earlier by Brown, who in 1950 wrote that “the universities of the world are today aspiring to return to one of the basic concepts of their origin - the universality of knowledge.”³¹ According to the author, many are also seeking to adopt procedures that will restore the itinerant character of scholars that was an accepted part of the higher education until growing nationalism created the barriers of language.³² However, we share Kerr’s opinion that “nation states, at least thus far, have been more on the side of internationalization of learning than opposed to it”³³, as it has generally been to the advantage of nation-states to support the expansion of higher learning and its internationalization within and beyond their borders.

According to Brown, “For two thousand years the scholar was a scholar first. Then for five hundred years the scholar became more and more a citizen first. Now a new period of greater internationalization of learning appears to be developing with

²⁸ Kenneth Edwards, “The University in Europe and the US,” in *The University in the Global Age*, ed. Roger King (Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2004), 32.

²⁹ Kerr, *Higher Education Cannot Escape History*, 6.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Francis J. Brown, “Universities in World-wide Cultural Cooperation,” in *Universities of the World Outside U.S.A.*, ed. M.M. Chambers (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1950), 11.

³² Ibid.

³³ Kerr, *Higher Education Cannot Escape History*, 22.

more worldwide exchanges of scholars and students and ideas than ever before, and with increasing support from supranational agencies.”³⁴ As a consequence, the scholar is not only the citizen of one nation, but also becoming more citizen of the universal academic world, thus living increasingly in two worlds with dual citizenship.³⁵

Following the analysis of the historical aspects of the internationalisation of higher education developed by Knight and de Wit³⁶, this section goes briefly through the first three stages in the history of higher education from an international perspective: universities in the Middle Ages and Renaissance period; the nationalist period between the 18th century and World War II; and the post-war period.³⁷ After that, it offers a more detailed description of the fourth stage, called the glory days of the history of internationalization in Europe that started in the mid-80s. It is not intended to provide an exhaustive analysis of the history of internationalization but, rather, a survey and a suggestion of a selection of the key events that shaped its development. However, it does set the stage for the current discussion.

1.1.1 Internationalization in the Middle Ages and Renaissance period

Most publications on present day internationalization of higher education in Europe refer back to the days of the Middle Ages and on up to the end of the 17th century,³⁸ when academic pilgrims had to travel to the few university cities in Europe from their home towns. Medieval universities then all received these migrant students, followed the same systems of examinations and program structure. Altbach believes that “with its roots in medieval Europe, the modern university is at the center of an inter-national knowledge system that encompasses technology, communications, and culture”.³⁹ De Ridder-Symoens offers the following description of the importance of this mobility at that period and we may notice that some of these arguments are actual for our times and society:

Besides their academic knowledge they took home with them a host of new experiences, ideas, opinions, and political principles and views. Also – and this is important – they brought back manuscripts and, later on, printed books. They had become familiar with

³⁴ Brown, “Universities in World-wide Cultural Cooperation,” 26.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,” 5-9.

³⁷ These stages were originally identified by Kerr, *Higher Education Cannot Escape History*.

³⁸ Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,” 6.

³⁹ Altbach, “Comparative perspectives in higher education for the twenty-first century,” 347.

new schools of artistic expression, and with living conditions, customs, ways of life, and eating and drinking habits all previously unknown to them. As most itinerant scholars belonged to the élite of their country and later held high office, they were well placed to apply and propagate their newly acquired knowledge. The consequences of academic pilgrimage were, indeed, out of all proportion to the numerically insignificant number of migrant students.⁴⁰

However, some scholars are sceptical about the medieval universities being international. According to Neave, this phenomenon could not be called ‘international mobility’, because at the time the nation did not exist as a political unit:

Such mobility as existed is best qualified as ‘inter-territorial’. It took place within a setting – or space – defined by a common religious credence, by a uniform language amongst the scholarly – Latin – by a uniform program of study – the *studium generale*, defined primarily by its capacity to attract students from beyond the local region.⁴¹

Scott also argues that most universities are not ancient institutions that date back to the Middle Ages, “most universities, whether founded by a sixteenth-century king or duke or by a nineteenth or twentieth century democracy, are creatures, because they are creations, of the nation state.”⁴² However, as de Wit rightly points out, this medieval European space has some similar features to the recent development of a new European higher education space, especially due to the gradual emergence of English that is nowadays an academic lingua franca, just as Latin once was.⁴³

1.1.2 Internationalization in the period between the 18th century and the World War II

Between the 18th and 19th century, internationalization of higher education can be characterised by three important aspects.⁴⁴ The first and most important among them was the export of systems of higher education from the colonial powers to their colonies. According to Roberts, Rodríguez Cruz and Herbst, by the end of the

⁴⁰ Hilde de Ridder-Symoens, “Mobility,” 303.

⁴¹ Guy Neave, “The European dimension in higher education: an excursion into the modern use of historical analogues,” in *Higher education and the nation state: the international dimension of higher education*, ed. Jeroen Huisman, Peter Maassen and Guy Neave (Oxford: Pergamon, 2001), 15.

⁴² Peter Scott, “Massification, internationalisation and globalisation,” in *The globalisation of higher education*, ed. Peter Scott (Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press, 1998), 110.

⁴³ Hans de Wit and Gilbert Merkx, “The history of internationalization of higher education,” in *The SAGE handbook of international higher education*, ed. Darla K. Deardorff et al. (Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, 2012), 44.

⁴⁴ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 7.

eighteenth century numerous universities could be found in North, Central and South America, however “they had not been invented *de novo*; they were implants from the European university tradition and its stocks.”⁴⁵ For many years after independence these influences were still prevailing, and only more recently other national and international influences took hold.

The second international element of higher education was in the area of research and publications. Kolasa noted that the international academic associations and societies of the nineteenth century were private in character and dedicated to individual and professional relationship.⁴⁶ However, even if research in this period had mainly a national focus, the international exchange of ideas through conferences, publications and seminars remained a persistent feature of the academic life of this period and “this element comes closest to the notion of “universalism” that has always been present in higher education”.⁴⁷ Even though this international academic exchange was not that intense as nowadays, for most academics, international contacts in research establish the base of the internationalization on higher education.

The third international element of this period was the cross-national mobility of students and scholars. Although, there is not much statistical information on the mobility of students and scholars in the 18th and 19th centuries, mobility never completely came to an end, but changed character. If for Renaissance times study abroad was “a culmination of humanist education” for the elite⁴⁸, most of the traveling students in early modern Europe were mainly interested in the cultural and intellectual advantages of the educational travel.⁴⁹ Altbach describes the cross-border study in this period as follows:

Foreign study was influential on many occasions. Countries such as Japan and China sent delegations of students abroad in the nineteenth century to study Western knowledge with the aim of assisting in the modernization of the mother country. American students went to Europe – especially to Germany – to pursue graduate studies and returned home imbued with ideas about the importance of research, academic freedom and new models

⁴⁵ John Roberts, Agueda Maria Rodriguez Cruz and Jurgen Herbst, “Exporting models,” in *A History of the University in Europe*. Vol. II: Universities in Early Modern Europe (1500-1800), ed. Hilde de Ridder-Symoens (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996), 257.

⁴⁶ Jan Kolasa, *International Intellectual Co-operation: The League Experience and the Beginnings of UNESCO* (Warsaw: Prace Wroclawskiego Towarzystwa Naukowego, 1962), 15, 163.

⁴⁷ de Wit and Merckx “The history of internationalization of higher education,” 46.

⁴⁸ de Ridder-Symoens, “Mobility,” 417.

⁴⁹ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 9.

of academic organization. These returnees started new institutions such as Johns Hopkins and Chicago and eventually transformed American higher education.⁵⁰

We can conclude the description of the period from the end of the Renaissance to the second half of the 20th century by saying that the higher education at this time was mostly nationally oriented.⁵¹ Apart from that, the basic features of the international academic life were: the individual mobility of qualified students to the prestigious educational centres in the world, the export of the academic systems from the European colonial powers to their colonies and the increasing cooperation and exchange in academic research.

1.1.3 Internationalization after the World War II

The long period of predominantly nationally oriented higher education was followed by a new transition towards international cooperation and exchange between higher education institutions. This trend could be seen even before the World War II in the creation of the Institute of International Education (IIE) in 1919 in the United States, the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) in 1925 and the British Council (BC) in 1934. The emergence of these national agencies, the increase in scientific and cultural agreements between countries and the development of institutional study abroad programs are all signs of a growing interest in international cooperation and exchange in the educational sector during this period. This increased interest was largely due to the competition between the United States and the Soviet Union, because both superpowers were interested in promoting the international cooperation in education in order to gain a better understanding of the world, as well as to maintain and expand their sphere of influence.⁵²

Meanwhile, Europe's main concern was to recover from the damages caused by the war. It was not able to invest in international exchange and cooperation programs and lost many of its qualified academics that have been either victim of the wars or migrated to other countries, mainly the United States, Canada and Australia.⁵³ As a result, "in the post-World War II period, the balance of academic power shifted to the

⁵⁰ Altbach, "Comparative perspectives on higher education for the twenty-first century," 348.

⁵¹ As suggested by Kerr, *Higher Education Cannot Escape History*; Altbach, "Comparative perspectives in higher education for the twenty-first century," and Scott "Massification, internationalisation and globalisation."

⁵² de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 11.

⁵³ Ibid., 10.

English-speaking countries and especially to the USA.”⁵⁴ This is how Goodwin and Nacht described this change in the United States:

The worldwide scholarly community came to be seen by U.S. scholars as needing help and deserving to be tended, both from a sense of *noblesse oblige* and because so doing would strengthen the Western Alliance at the same time. Just as Britain and France in earlier years had viewed their colonial educational systems sympathetically but patronizingly, so scholars in the United States after World War II could hardly conceive of the rest of the world in more than a derivative role, except perhaps when students they had trained performed some clever extensions of practices learned in the United States.⁵⁵

At the same time, the Soviet Union extended its influence in Central and Eastern Europe. During this period, the preferred areas for international exchange were the countries belonging to the same sphere of influence and the Third World, whereas the Western world was not a priority. Although most national governments did sign cultural and academic agreements, they were more related to diplomacy than to academic exchange and cooperation.⁵⁶ Kallen offered such a description of the communist influence on higher education in Central and Eastern Europe:

School and university have, on the whole, maintained a key position in society. They have in the recent past come much less under attack than most other public institutions. This is probably only an apparent paradox. They were, of course, the chosen instruments for transforming human minds, for educating ‘communist man’, and for providing the state economy with the right numbers and the right quality of manpower. But at the same time they have to varying degrees continued teaching the traditional ideas and values and, in so far as the universities are concerned, often preserved their capacity of free and independent thinking and research.⁵⁷

Third World became extremely attractive not only to the USSR, but also to the USA, Western Europe, Canada and Australia that moved large development funds into higher education in Asia, Latin America and Africa. The international cooperation in the period between 1950-1985 in Europe (East and West), as well as in other regions, could be characterized as a one-way relationship with a lot of aspects like: student flows from South to North, faculty and funds from North to South and

⁵⁴ Altbach, “Comparative perspectives on higher education for the twenty-first century,” 349.

⁵⁵ Craufurd D. Goodwin and Michael Nacht, *Missing the boat: The failure to internationalize American higher education* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009), 8.

⁵⁶ Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,” 8.

⁵⁷ Denis Kallen, “Academic Exchange between Central/Eastern and Western Europe - Towards a New Era of Cooperation,” *Higher Education Policy* 4, no. 3 (1991): 53.

with great negative (brain drain) and positive (better understanding of the world) impact.⁵⁸

The collapse of the Soviet Union in the late 1980s and early 1990s brought new changes in the international arena. By the end of the Cold War there was a context of growing nationalism based on the exclusivity of ethnic groups and even ethnic chauvinism. This political environment shaped the tendencies toward ethnic conflicts and aggressive nationalism. The pattern of these conflicts reflects Huntington's vision of a *clash of civilizations*, which the author describes as follows:

It is my hypothesis that the fundamental source of conflict in this new world will not be primarily ideological or primarily economic. The great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict will be cultural. Nation states will remain the most powerful actors in world affairs, but the principal conflicts of global politics will occur between nations and groups of different civilizations. The clash of civilizations will dominate global politics. The fault lines between civilizations will be the battle lines of the future.⁵⁹

In retrospect we can see that the key to changing a clash of civilizations into a dialogue between them lies in cross-cultural learning and global understanding, that since the time of the Cold War have been actively encouraged through international academic actions, as a means to contribute to conflict-prevention, conflict-resolution and peace-building, thereby echoing European Union's founding motto of "Unity in Diversity". A more detailed overview of this important transition to the glory days in the history of internationalization is presented in the following section.

For now, we can conclude that internationalization during the period after the World War II can be characterised by a growing interest in international collaboration, an increased cooperation with the developing countries and a greater emphasis on mutual understanding and peace-building. Apart from that, the deliberations on the importance of creating a common regional identity have also become increasingly prominent and later on served as a catalyst for the creation of the European dimension of higher education.

⁵⁸ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 11.

⁵⁸ Ibid., 12.

⁵⁹ Samuel P. Huntington, "The clash of civilizations?" *Foreign Affairs* 72, no. 3 (1993): 22.

1.1.4 The Glory Days in the History of Internationalization in Europe

As it was shown in the previous sub-chapters, the international dimension of higher education prior to the twentieth century was more incidental than organized.⁶⁰ Only after the Second World War internationalization became an organized political and strategic process. In the 20th century there was a steady change in the extent to which higher education policy was nationally determined and oriented. A crucial role was played by geo-political factors in the change of university and government patterns regarding mobility and internationalization of higher education. After the Second World War, the governments became conscious that, if peace were to be given a chance, this would mean engaging the minds of the citizens of all nations. As a consequence in 1945 the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was launched to contribute to peace and security by promoting international collaboration through education, science and culture.

However, mobility in post-war Europe was not an easy task to accomplish. Numerous border and exchange controls as well as weak transport infrastructure would stagnate this process despite all the initiatives set up by UNESCO. A lot of international academic links had been certainly interrupted by the world conflict. According to Barblan, because of its pan-European ambitions and the East-West divide, such a development was impossible in Europe as a region.⁶¹ Therefore, recreating a European academic community and fixing new international ties was a very ambitious plan.

In the fifties and early sixties international relations were the task of the university leaders and mainly developed at institutional level. The rectors of individual institutions were in charge of managing the co-operation between their own establishments and their foreign counterparts. Well-known scientists used their prestige in establishing external ties at national and international level. It is important to mention that universities were smaller at that time, thus the collegial governance allowed their elective leaders to handle these international linkages. Multilateral collaboration existed through international organizations, such as the International Association of Universities (IAU) or the Association of European Universities (CRE)

⁶⁰ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 232.

⁶¹ Andris Barblan, "Academic co-operation and mobility in Europe: How it was and how it will be," *Higher Education in Europe* 27, no. 1-2 (2002): 41.

(today the European University Association, EUA), which helped develop the European dimension of higher education footnotes, but it rarely implied other university members than rectors, presidents, or vice-chancellors. At the end of the 60s, the CRE was more Western European than ever before. Its membership covered the countries that were members of the Council of Europe.⁶²

The radical change took place when higher education became part of the European agenda in the 1970s and one of its main objectives was to encourage international cooperation. Other priorities were: to enhance contacts between higher education institutions, to promote student mobility, and to improve the possibilities for academic recognition. It was already in this period that the first programs for student mobility and cooperation were launched, particularly the European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) programme. For Coyne these were ‘the glory days’ in the history of academic mobility and he gives the following description of this event: “It was then we understood that substantial mobility was within our grasp – that we could go forward from the small pilot activity we had been supporting for nearly 10 years, and begin to do things seriously”.⁶³ For the author, the Erasmus programme, from the very start, had the “iconic status”, because it was simple, comprehensible, and had a very wide political support, particularly within the European Parliament.

At the institutional level, the universities were facing a mass higher education, thus they had to cope with changed teaching requirements while receiving less support per student. On the other hand, there were new institutions growing, which were competing with the older universities. In the light of recent changes, the adjustment of universities within the new environment was translated from university to university collaboration, into collaboration on department level. Moving from the level of central management, universities were entering the level of departmental joint projects.

At a lesser degree, the same situation happened in the Eastern European universities. Universities as famous as Prague, Halle, Leipzig, Budapest, Cluj, Cracow, Vilnius or Tartu had all played key historical roles, similar to those of

⁶² Ibid., 40.

⁶³ David Coyne, “From regional integration to global outreach. The education policies of the European Commission,” in *Higher Education in a Changing Environment. Internationalisation of Higher Education Policy in Europe*, ed. Bernd Wächter (Bonn: Lemmens, 2004), 14.

Western institutions, in giving their countries cultural references and in making them full members of the European family of nations. Consequently after 1975 institutions had to start a process of re-discovery of the other, also in Western Europe, where an important gap between North and South could be felt.

Since the eighties Europe has embarked on reforms in higher education, as responses to the effects of economic globalization, from which new institutions were born, new teaching and learning methodologies and even new relationships that foster greater interdependence between institutions of higher education. Moreover, at the end of 80s there was a significant attempt to bring together the East and the West. It was *The Conference in Warsaw* in 1988 that discussed the role of the universities as crucial to European culture. In this conference there were 90 participants, and 30 representing universities from non-member EU countries. The countries that participated in this conference insisted on the idea to be part of a common European culture, a culture that will take into consideration ideological differences and make academic cooperation a necessity. The idea behind this conference was to launch a program for East/West cooperation in environmental sciences, which later became the Copernicus program, attributed to the Polish hosts of the meeting.

In the same year, the role of the university in building a stronger international cooperation was further emphasized by the rectors of over 400 European universities. When signing the *Magna Charta Universitatum* they mentioned that “states should become more than ever aware of the part that universities will be called upon to play in a changing and increasingly international society.”⁶⁴ The effects of the globalization forced higher education institutions to rethink and adjust quickly and appropriately to the new demands of society, because as outlined in *Sorbonne Joint Declaration* in 1998 the “national identities and common interests can interact and strengthen each other for the benefit of Europe, of its students, and more generally of its citizens.”⁶⁵

In the beginning of the 90s there were three new objectives that the EUA had to face: a) to integrate in the association the universities from Eastern and Central Europe, b) to integrate the policies of the European academic cooperation, c) to

⁶⁴ Magna Charta Observatory, “Magna Charta Universitatum,” September 18, 1988, accessed December 10, 2010, <http://www.magna-charta.org/resources/files/the-magna-charta/english>.

⁶⁵ EHEA, “Sorbonne Joint Declaration,” May 25, 1998, accessed December 10, 2010, http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/SORBONNE_DECLARATION1.pdf.

integrate the member institutions in the wider Atlantic context of collaboration with North and South America. Referring again to Barblan, in the beginning of the 90s, the commitment to Europe needed to become the commitment to ‘other Europeans’.⁶⁶ Consequently, in August 1990, the General Assembly in Helsinki, discussed the need for cooperation among Eastern and Central European universities. A lot of ideas were exchanged about the adoption of the new context of community programs like ERASMUS, COMETT or LEONARDO. Collaboration in a structured network of institutions, focusing for a few years on the specific concerns seemed the only way to cope with many different problems and ambitions of former ‘socialist’ universities. Different partners, that represented the University Association in Europe, national agencies like DAAD and the think tanks of European affairs, like the Institute for Education and Social Policy in Paris, decided to set up a consortium and propose to the European Commission the management of what was being discussed as the new SOCRATES program.

According to Barblan the new focus on strategic development at institutional level did not immediately bring the expected shift from departmental to institutional-level decision-making or from incremental decision-making to targeted strategies. In fact, it succeeded best in institutions that wanted to move into that direction anyway, which was the case only of a small minority. And although an increase in institutional committees, central level decision making and specific administrative units was observed, on the whole “Socrates did not have the snowball effect which would lead to a new stage of cooperation within higher education in Europe”.⁶⁷ However, it did enhance awareness of national system barriers to further European cooperation.

As a result, the Erasmus program was established in 1987 as a part of the European Union’s Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013 and the operational framework for the European Commission’s initiatives in higher education. The aim of the programme is to improve the quality and to increase the volume of students’ mobility and the amount of multicultural cooperation between higher education institutions in Europe. Erasmus educational and training programme enables more than two hundred thousand students to study and work abroad each year, it also

⁶⁶ Barblan, *Academic Cooperation and Mobility in Europe*, 49.

⁶⁷ Marijk van der Wende and Jeroen Huisman, “Europe,” in *On cooperation and competition. National and European policies for internationalisation of higher education*, ed. Jeroen Huisman and Marijk van der Wende (Bonn: Lemmens, 2004), 21.

supports and cooperates actions between higher education institutions across Europe. The figures have grown considerably in the recent years and the new Erasmus target of supporting three million students by 2014 was reached one year ahead of the schedule.⁶⁸

The international counterpart of the Erasmus programme is the Erasmus Mundus Programme (2003) that aims to augment the quality of European higher education and to promote dialogue and understanding between peoples and cultures through cooperation with third countries. In the increasing global competition for the best students, the quality and attractiveness of this program, requiring excellent academic, teaching and research standards, serves as a magnet attracting students from third countries to the European Universities that enhances the attractiveness of European higher education. The Programme of Erasmus Mundus gives international students not only a chance to obtain a Masters degree issued by prestigious EU higher education institutions, enhancing by this their career prospects, but also offers a possibility to get to know the culture and people of two more EU member countries.⁶⁹

In addition, academic collaboration is essential to meet the social responsibility of universities, which requires a deep reflection from the ethical perspective on the continuous improvement of quality and competitiveness through strategies that facilitate the internalization, as the main factor of development. In this context, in the *Berlin Communiqué* of 2003, the ministers reaffirmed their position that higher education is “a public good and a public responsibility”.⁷⁰ They also emphasized that in international academic cooperation and exchanges, academic values should prevail.

The above mentioned institutional agreements have settled a solid basis for the creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), while the issue of internationalization in higher education remained the key topic of the international conferences. That is why among the main themes of the *World Conference on Higher Education* in 2009 were the diverse and distinct developments of internationalization regionalization and globalization as “key factors shaping education and research

⁶⁸ European Commission, “Erasmus Facts and Figures 2012-2013,” 2014, accessed February 15, 2015, http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/statistics/ay-12-13/facts-figures_en.pdf.

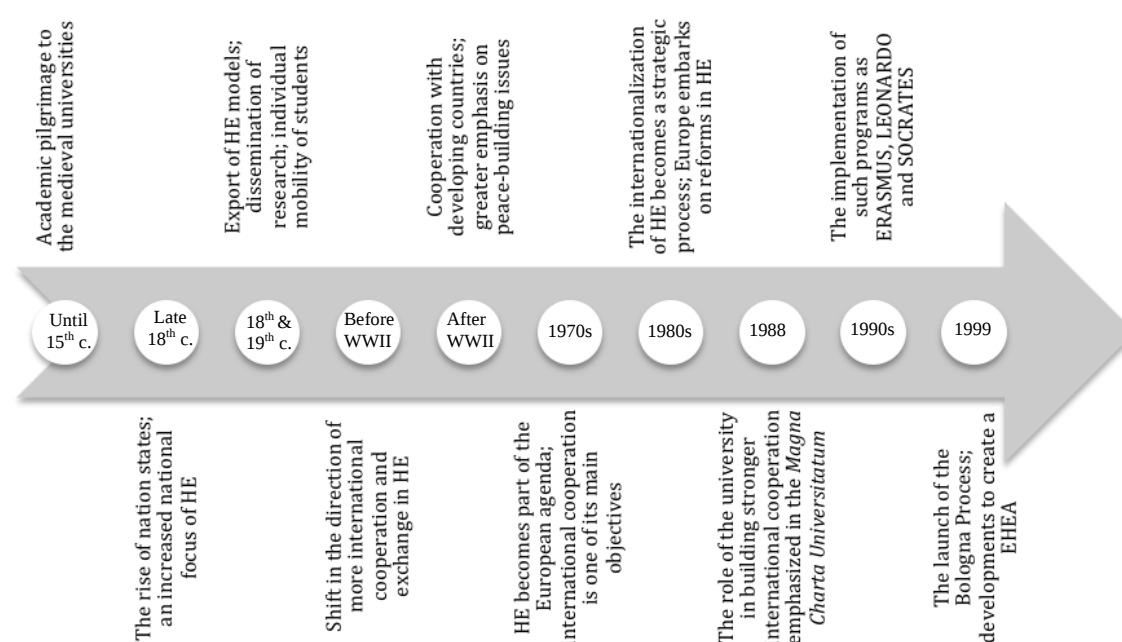
⁶⁹ Katarzyna Hadas, ed., *Studying in the European Union – chance and challenge for international students*. (Poznan: Adam Mickiewicz University, 2007).

⁷⁰ EHEA, “Berlin Communiqué. Realising the European Higher Education Area,” September, 19, 2003, accessed December 10, 2010, http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/Berlin_Communique1.pdf.

strategies at system and institutional level”.⁷¹ Another important point of this meeting was that the institutions of higher education worldwide have a social responsibility to help bridge the development gap by increasing the transfer of knowledge across borders, especially towards developing countries, thus they have to cooperate in order “to find common solutions to foster brain circulation and alleviate the negative impact of brain drain”.⁷² The continuous discussions on this subject of major relevance prompted the creation of the *The Internationalization Strategies Advisory Service*⁷³ by the IAU in 2010 to work with institutional leaders and teams to enhance their internationalization strategy and initiatives.

Figure 1 depicts the development of internationalization of higher education in Europe before the Bologna Process as described in this sub-chapter.

Figure 1. *Internationalization Timeline Before the Bologna Process*



Source: Figure by the author

⁷¹ UNESCO, “2009 World Conference on Higher Education: The New Dynamics for Higher Education and Research for Societal Change and Development. Outline,” July 5-8, 2009, accessed December 10, 2010, [http://www.unesco.org/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/ED/pdf/WCHE_2009/WD3_Outline_29June09%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.unesco.org/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/ED/pdf/WCHE_2009/WD3_Outline_29June09%20(2).pdf).

⁷² UNESCO, “2009 World Conference on Higher Education: The New Dynamics for Higher Education and Research for Societal Change and Development. Draft communiqué,” July 5-8, 2009, accessed December 10, 2010, http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/files/59301/12462631875WCHE_Communique_1stDRAFT_260609.pdf/WCHE_Communique_1stDRAFT_260609.pdf.

⁷³ IAU, “Internationalization Strategies Advisory Service,” May 10, 2012, accessed December 10, 2014, <http://www.iau-aiu.net/content/internationalization-strategies-advisory-service>.

1.2 The Increasing Importance of Internationalization in the 21st century

Internationalization developed in one of the most complex processes we face in higher education in Europe in the 21st century. It affects us not only on an individual level, but as well on a societal one. Educational internationalization policies open the door to one of the key features of European society – that is its diversity. For a student it is first of all an enriching source for his cultural, academic and social growth. It shapes a student into a European citizen with the enhanced possibility to work in the international labour market and live in a cultural diversity. These young specialists contribute to an internationalized environment both in their professional and personal lives. Academic mobility is a source of enrichment that offers fertile ground for innovation and the quest for quality for everyone.

Becoming more and more aware of the importance of the process of internationalization, political decision makers made it one of the core issues of the Bologna Process. It was named after the place it was proposed, the University of Bologna, with the signing in 1999 of the Bologna Declaration⁷⁴ by Education Ministers from 29 European countries. At its inception, the Bologna Process was designed to strengthen the competitiveness and attractiveness of the European higher education and to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher education qualifications. Between 1999 and 2010 the efforts of the Bologna Process members were targeted to creating the EHEA, meant to ensure more comparable, compatible and coherent systems of higher education in Europe. The EHEA became reality in March 2010 with the *Budapest-Vienna Declaration*,⁷⁵ making the ten year anniversary of the Bologna Process. It was an important step as students and their representatives have continuously welcomed student mobility as means for cultural and academic exchange and cooperation, for personal growth and to obtain new skills to be able to cope with today's globalized society after graduation.

The *IAU Statement on Internationalization* also emphasized the idea that preparing future leaders for a highly interdependent world requires a higher education system where internationalization promotes cultural diversity and fosters intercultural understanding, respect, and tolerance among peoples. The internationalization of

⁷⁴ Magna Charta Observatory, "Bologna Declaration," June 19, 1999, accessed April 29, 2015, http://www.magna-charta.org/resources/files/BOLOGNA_DECLARATION.pdf.

⁷⁵ EHEA, "Budapest-Vienna Declaration on the European Higher Education Area," March 12, 2010, accessed April 29, 2015, http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/news/Budapest-Vienna_Declaration.pdf.

higher education contributes to building more than economically competitive and politically powerful regional blocks; it represents a commitment to international solidarity, human security and helps to build a climate of global peace.⁷⁶

Mechtenberg and Strausz have studied the effects of student mobility on multi-cultural skills and educational quality of the universities. They highlighted two important conclusions: First of all, mobility stimulates competition among European Union member states to attract the best students. This competition urges the governments to raise the quality of education in their universities. Since tertiary education in Europe is in many countries free of charge, the dimension in which such competition takes place is quality. As a result, augmented mobility increases the quality of European universities. Secondly, higher mobility prepares graduates with higher multi-cultural competences, which are essential in a globalized world.⁷⁷

The challenges of educational globalization and the global competition for the best and the brightest have given additional impetus to initiatives to make the national systems in Europe more harmonious. Bologna Process strategies to encourage and support mobility between nations have operated for more than 15 years and have had a considerable success. The main ambitions of the Bologna Process, the mechanisms to achieve them and some of its accomplishments are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Europe's Bologna Process: aims, action lines and outcomes*

Major Aims	Initial Action Lines	Main Outcomes So Far
Improve compatibility and comparability of the systems of higher education across Europe	Adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees, also through the implementation of the Diploma Supplement	National qualifications frameworks, defining graduates' competences and learning outcomes
	Adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles: undergraduate and graduate.	Three-cycle degree structure (bachelor, master, doctorate)
	Establishment of a system of credits – such as in the ECTS system – as a proper means of promoting mobility.	Recognition of qualifications credits, and prior learning
To increase the international	Promotion of student and staff	Institutionalized supranational

⁷⁶ IAU, "IAU Statement on Internationalization: Towards a Century of Cooperation: Internationalization of Higher Education," 2000, accessed December 12, 2010, http://www.iau-hesd.net/sites/default/files/documents/internationalization_policy_statement_fr_0.pdf.

⁷⁷ Lydia Mechtenberg and Roland Strausz, "The Bologna Process: How student mobility affects multi-cultural skills and educational quality," *International Tax and Public Finance* 15, (2008): 2-3.

competitiveness of the European system of higher education	mobility by overcoming obstacles to the effective exercise of free movement.	and national mobility programs for students and staff
	Promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance with a view to developing comparable criteria and methodologies.	Internal and external quality assurance systems in almost all countries
To consolidate and enrich the idea of European citizenship	Promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education, particularly with regards to curricular development, inter-institutional co-operation, mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research.	The Social dimension of the EHEA; the least developed action line of the Bologna Process

Source: Table by the author

Every two or three years there are ministerial conferences organised to monitor the progress made within the EHEA and to decide on the new steps to be taken. In these successive meetings of the education ministers, the communiqués addressed additional action lines and priorities. The most important strategic directions of each of them are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *The adoption of additional action lines to the Bologna Process*

Nº	Year	Communiqué	Additional Action Lines	Description in the Communiqué
1	2001	Prague Communiqué	Inclusion of lifelong learning strategies to face the challenges of competitiveness	“Ministers recognized the need for a lifelong learning perspective on education [...] Lifelong learning is an essential element of the EHEA. In the future Europe, built upon a knowledge-based society and economy, lifelong learning strategies are necessary to face the challenges of competitiveness and the use of new technologies and to improve social cohesion, equal opportunities and the quality of life.” ⁷⁸
2	2003	Berlin Communiqué	Recognition of the doctoral level as the third cycle in the Bologna Process	“Ministers consider it necessary to go beyond the present focus on two main cycles of higher education to include the doctoral level as the third cycle in the Bologna Process. They emphasize the importance of research and research training and the promotion of interdisciplinarity in maintaining and improving the quality of higher education and in enhancing the competitiveness of

⁷⁸ EHEA, “Prague Communiqué. Towards the European Higher Education Area,” May 19, 2001, accessed April 30, 2015, http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/PRAGUE_COMMUNIQUE.pdf.

				European higher education more generally.” ⁷⁹
3	2005	Bergen Communiqué	The development of national and European frameworks for qualifications	“We see the development of national and European frameworks for qualifications as an opportunity to further embed lifelong learning in higher education. We will work with higher education institutions and others to improve recognition of prior learning including, where possible, non-formal and informal learning for access to, and as elements in, higher education programmes”. ⁸⁰
4	2007	London Communiqué	The adoption of the proposal for a Register of European Higher Education Quality Assurance Agencies (REHEQA)	“The purpose of the register is to allow all stakeholders and the general public open access to objective information about trustworthy quality assurance agencies that are working in line with the ESG. It will therefore facilitate the mutual recognition of quality assurance and accreditation decisions.” ⁸¹
5	2009	Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué	20% student mobility target by 2020	“Mobility is important for personal development and employability, it fosters respect for diversity and a capacity to deal with other cultures. It encourages linguistic pluralism, thus underpinning the multilingual tradition of the EHEA and it increases cooperation and competition between higher education institutions. Therefore, mobility shall be the hallmark of the EHEA. We call upon each country to increase mobility, to insure its high quality and to diversify its types and scope. In 2020, at least 20% of those graduating in the EHEA should have a study or training period abroad.” ⁸²
6	2010	Budapest-Vienna Declaration	The launch of the EHEA	“We, the Ministers responsible for higher education in the countries participating in the Bologna Process, met in Budapest and Vienna on March 11 and 12, 2010 to launch the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), as envisaged in the Bologna Declaration of 1999. [...] We commit ourselves to working towards a more effective inclusion of higher education staff

⁷⁹ EHEA, “Berlin Communiqué.

⁸⁰ EHEA, “Bergen Communiqué. The European Higher Education Area – Achieving the Goals. Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education,” May 19-20, 2005, accessed April 30, 2015, http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/Bergen_Communique1.pdf.

⁸¹ EHEA, “London Communiqué. Towards the European Higher Education Area: responding to challenges in a globalised world,” May 18, 2007, accessed April 30, 2015, http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Declarations/London_Communique18May2007.pdf.

⁸² EHEA, “Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué. The Bologna Process 2020 – The European Higher Education Area in the new decade. Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education,” April 28-29, 2009, accessed April 30, 2015, http://www.tcd.ie/teaching-learning/academic-development/assets/pdf/leuven_louvain_communique_april_2009.pdf.

				and students in the implementation and further development of the EHEA.” ⁸³
7	2012	Bucharest Communiqué	The adoption of the strategy “Mobility for Better Learning” and work towards full portability of national grants and loans across the EHEA	“Learning mobility is essential to ensure the quality of higher education, enhance students’ employability and expand cross-border collaboration within the EHEA and beyond. We adopt the strategy “Mobility for Better Learning” as an addendum, including its mobility target, as an integral part of our efforts to promote an element of internationalization in all higher education.” ⁸⁴

Source: Table by the author

The high ambition of creating an EHEA is at last turned into reality. Nowadays the EHEA contributes to the harmonization of higher education policies of its 47 EHEA member states⁸⁵ and important achievements have been made in this respect. *The Bologna Process Independent Assessment Report*⁸⁶ is useful to understand the general achievements. The report argues that most of the architectural elements of the EHEA, as those involving legislation and national regulation, have been implemented in most countries. However, the extent to which the key objective of compatibility, comparability and attractiveness will be achieved depends upon some very important factors. The report identifies three of them. First, achieving some of the desired outcomes will require many years of post-implementation experience, thus it is too early to draw any conclusions. Second, even among highly performing countries, compatibility and comparability have not yet been fully achieved. Third, there are important differences between the signatory countries. Some countries have shown considerable progress in implementing almost all action lines, while others have moved at a slower pace.

Differences between countries are therefore considerable and represent major constraints to the further development of the EHEA. One of the major reasons is the diversity of challenges in higher education systems that countries participating in the

⁸³ EHEA, “Budapest – Vienna Declaration on the European Higher Education Area.”

⁸⁴ EHEA, “Bucharest Communiqué. Making the Most of Our Potential: Consolidating the European Higher Education Area. Communiqué of the EHEA Ministerial Conference,” April 26-27, 2012, accessed April 30, 2015, <http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/%281%29/Bucharest%20Communique%202012%281%29.pdf>.

⁸⁵ The EHEA is now significantly larger than the European Union, including Russia and Southeast Europe, although with the European Commission at the very heart of the Bologna Process providing both money and political influence.

⁸⁶ CHEPS, INCHER-Kassel and ECOTEC, *The first decade of working on the European Higher Education Area: The Bologna Process Independent Assessment Vol. 1.* (Enschede, Twente University: CHEPS, 2010), 5-7.

Bologna Process had to face, ranging from inefficiencies (e.g. high drop-out rates, low participation rates across a variety of dimensions) to limited systemic flexibility, and upgrading quality during rapid expansion.⁸⁷ King predicted that universities, despite the homogenous tendencies of stratification and prestige hierarchies, are likely to become even more heterogeneous in the future, and government policies are likely to seek to reinforce this direction. He states:

Some will aim for (or seek to maintain) a world reputation in fundamental research, while others will concentrate more on teaching. Some institutions will be primarily campus- or residentially based, while others will focus more on the development of distance education programmes to all age groups. Institutions are also likely to vary more in their local or international outlooks and student bodies. This diversity exists *within* countries, but when the structural and cultural differences *between* nations are added as another dimension, the difficulties of creating a comprehensive Higher Education Area across Europe are immense.⁸⁸

The author believes that the further development of a ‘common area’ must be driven by the spontaneous activity of universities, with government actions designed to generate frameworks that will encourage and facilitate experiments that help to identify experience which has been successful and the conditions in which it has flourished, and that assist in the dissemination of good practice.⁸⁹

These different starting points, in addition to different management and governance arrangements, led to a deviation from Bologna intentions. Divergence has been strengthened by the fact that key actors in different countries interpreted elements of the Bologna reform agenda in a different way⁹⁰. Projects like *Tuning Educational Structures in Europe* have been incorporated into the Bologna Process in 2000 as a way to solve the problem of how to link the political objectives of the Bologna Process to the higher educational sector. The project aims “to make study programmes comparable and compatible, to facilitate transparency and academic recognition at European level and to build trust between institutions by offering a

⁸⁷ Ibid., 6.

⁸⁸ Edwards, “The University in Europe and the US,” 36.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁹⁰ CHEPS, INCHER-Kassel and ECOTEC, *The first decade of working on the European Higher Education Area*, 6.

methodology to assure and enhance the quality of study programs”.⁹¹ The name *Tuning* reflects the main idea behind the project, that universities “do *not* look for harmonisation of their degree programmes or any sort of unified, prescriptive or definitive European curricula, but simply for points of convergence and common understanding”.⁹² A significant advantage of this project is that it does not seek to restrict the independence of academic and subject specialists, or damage local and national academic authority; instead, it looks for common reference points. It was upon that principle that the project’s motto emerged: “Tuning of educational structures and programmes on the basis of diversity and autonomy”.⁹³

1.3 The Impact of Globalization on Higher Education

The spread of global market during the past years have considerably transformed the world of higher education. The challenges of cooperation and competition need the support of the higher education’s strategies to progress. The technological revolution has also contributed to the transformation of higher education in its mode of delivery. These changes have happened not only at a national level, but also in the international context enabling knowledge dissemination worldwide. Globalization has changed the world of higher education and continues to do so. The question is: “Will globalization be a starting point for a more coherent vision of global problems and a more equitable use of what we all produce and consume, or it will be the epitome of the globalized *laissez-faire* flow of capital, goods, entertainment and information?”⁹⁴

The rise of the knowledge economy and the importance attached to higher education as the engine of economic growth is one of the most important drivers of increased international cooperation among higher education institutions. This development of essentially commercially driven international activity has a very different character from traditional international cooperation, and is seen as threatening by many in universities, some, in turn, see it as an opportunity for

⁹¹ Julia González and Robert Wagenaar, ed., *Tuning educational structures in Europe: Universities' contribution to the Bologna process. Final Report. Pilot Project - Phase 2* (Bilbao: University of Deusto, 2005), 25.

⁹² Julia González and Robert Wagenaar, ed., *Tuning educational structures in Europe. Final Report. Pilot Project - Phase 1* (Bilbao: University of Deusto, 2003), 22.

⁹³ González and Wagenaar, *Tuning educational structures in Europe. Phase 2*, 28.

⁹⁴ Jan Sadlak, “Globalization and concurrent challenges for higher education,” in *The globalization of higher education*, ed. Peter Scott (Buckingham, UK: Open University Press, 1998), 100.

collaboration and resources gathering.⁹⁵ However, in recent years, there is a tendency to have uniformly positive perceptions of internationalization even among those for whom internationalization is an important part of their professional lives. As one higher education leader has stated: “so much of this debate on internationalization is constructed on romanticised terms as if it is simply an unqualified positive development. But is this really true?”⁹⁶ If we take a look at the 4th Global Survey on Internationalization of Higher Education, released by IAU in 2014⁹⁷, we may find interesting results that serve to support some of the ideas discussed in this subchapter. The survey analysed responses from 1,336 higher education institutions in 131 different countries. Table 3 is based on the results of this survey and comprises top three external drivers, expected benefits and potential risks, both for institutions and for society as a whole, of internationalization of higher education.

Table 3. *Top Three Drivers, Benefits and Risks of Internationalization*

Ordinate Ranking	External Drivers	Benefits	Risks for institutions	Risks for society
1	Government policy (national, state/province, municipal)	Students’ increased international awareness and engagement with global issues	International opportunities available only to students with financial resources	Commodification and commercialization of education
2	Business and industry demand	Improved quality of teaching and learning	Difficulty of local regulation of the quality of foreign programs	Unequal sharing of benefits of internationalization among partners
3	National and international rankings	Strengthening research and knowledge production	Excessive competition among higher education institutions	Growing gaps (e.g. quality/ prestige/ institutional capacity) among higher education institutions within the country

Source: Table by the author, based on the findings of the 4th IAU Global Survey on Internationalization of Higher Education⁹⁸

⁹⁵ Edwards, “The University in Europe and the US,” 33.

⁹⁶ Adam Habib, “Building partnerships in an unequal world, worldwide,” *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 13 (June 2012), quoted in Eva Egron-Polak, “Rethinking the Internationalisation of Higher education: Sharing the Benefits, Avoiding the Adverse Impacts,” in *Going Global: Identifying trends and drivers of international education*, ed. Mary Stiasny and Tim Gore (Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 2013), 220.

⁹⁷ Egron-Polak and Hudson, *Internationalization of Higher Education: Growing Expectations, Fundamental Values*.

⁹⁸ Ibid.

There are undoubtedly multiple benefits of globalization for higher education and the first one to mention is standardization. As a response to globalization the institutions had to develop a higher degree of standardisation for both admission administration and the qualification of instructors. These changes have forced institutions to adjust their policies to the international standards of professionalism and ethics in teaching and research. Another positive effect of globalization is the ease of quality assessment. Due to the numerous international exchange programmes, young researchers and faculty members get the opportunity to compare the quality of their programs and improve their cooperation and competition abilities. Consequently globalization promotes the intercultural understanding as any cross-cultural collaboration requires an awareness of what it values, what priorities it has and what is acceptable in another country.

International relations of all kinds - confrontational, collaboration, political, cultural and commercial - require people in all sides to know about each other's history, culture, strengths and weaknesses. Being in contact with each other, living in other countries and exposure to other cultures, generally creates goodwill and understanding and contributes to global peace and security. Social contacts between new arrived students and national groups spread host country's cultural and political values. Thus the numerous national and international scholarships are driven by this rationale and national policies based on it are referred to as the "mutual understanding approach" to the internationalization of higher education.⁹⁹ Therefore, globalization creates various environments in support of cultural and interactive diversity. It allows the young specialists to experiment alternative models of teaching, while at the same time borrowing ideas and practices from other institutions. As a result, globalization enhances competitiveness and helps the multicultural societies become more convivial, accumulate more positive social capital and become strong enough to fight political oppression and economic dependence.

On the other hand, we have to be aware of the risks of globalization for higher education. According to Odin and Manicas there are three dimensions of globalization and each of them may affect higher education at a different level. The first type is the *economic* globalization that may have an impact on the two "markets" in which

⁹⁹ Guruz Kemal, *Higher Education and International Student Mobility in the Global Knowledge Economy* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 2008), 141.

universities operate. First, with respect to their teaching function, “universities may see themselves as operating in a global higher education market and competing worldwide to capture a share of the demand for education.” Second, with respect to research, “rather than entertaining special relations to government offices and to firms based in their own national economy, universities may need to compete worldwide for business funding of research”.¹⁰⁰

Both of these trends are clearly identifiable in nowadays academic world. Universities have to effectively compete for dwindling research funds, attract the brightest students and specialists and keep themselves updated with evolving information technologies. They have to face these challenges and many more and all this along with their traditional basic educational and research function. In spite of that, as Edwards rightly points out:

The concept of a market is one that is not readily acceptable to many academics because it implies a commercial view of higher education. Yet the current characteristics of university systems in Europe, as indeed in the rest of the world, are at least quasi-market in that competition is forcing universities to think hard about strengths and weaknesses, and about how best they could specialize to match their strengths to new opportunities.¹⁰¹

Following Nayyar’s research on globalization and what it means for higher education, we may agree that in the world of higher education, markets and globalization are beginning to influence higher education institutions, not only in terms of what is taught but also in terms of what is researched.¹⁰² In this state of affairs students and parents have bigger expectations for the universities’ support in their employability. This is how the popularity and the availability of the courses get shaped by the markets.

The second dimension of globalization that may have a great impact on Higher Education is the *cultural* one. Odin and Manicas state that there may be something like intellectual globalization, which would mean the end of national traditions of knowledge. According to them, “some may argue that such a development is plainly to be welcomed, since those national traditions only existed because of unjustifiable

¹⁰⁰ Jaishree K. Odin and Peter T. Manicas, ed., *Globalization and Higher Education* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2004), 9.

¹⁰¹ Edwards, “The University in Europe and the US,” 35.

¹⁰² Deepak Nayyar, “Globalization: What does it mean for Higher Education?” *Economic and political Weekly* 42, no. 50 (2007): 30-35.

boundaries to scholarly communication and exchange. Globalization would then fulfil the time-honoured promise of universal knowledge.”¹⁰³ Although there is certain logic behind these assumptions, we share authors’ belief that “one should nevertheless not underestimate the value of diversity in approaches to knowledge and the contextual nature of knowledge and knowledge production.”¹⁰⁴

Xiaoming and Haitao express the same concern, arguing that universities have to consider how to preserve and develop traditional culture and how to absorb and make use of foreign culture in the course of internationalization, that is, how to move from internationalisation to localisation. In their view:

By their very nature, it is probable that universities will meet with cultural conflicts and challenges in the course of internationalisation. This reflects the conflict of the inner logic of the mission of universities with the flexibility demanded by internationalization. Cultural conflicts result from cultural differences. Internationalisation will definitely lead to the introduction of foreign culture. With technological progress, western culture is rapidly spreading to all parts of the world. This culture and local cultures originated in different environments and thus include different values and have different philosophical bases. There are sure to be divergences when they interact.¹⁰⁵

The authors believe that if the right attitude is not adopted towards the proper way to deal with the contradiction, the traditional values and systems that are still of use today may be destroyed. Escobar, in his analysis of the development and making of the ‘Third World’, states that cultures are characterised not only by rules and values but also by ways of knowing. He states that development has relied exclusively on one knowledge system namely, the modern Western one. The dominance of this knowledge system has dictated the marginalization and disqualification of non-Western knowledge systems. In these latter knowledge systems, the author concludes, researchers and activists might find alternative rationalities to guide social action away from economistic and reductionistic ways of thinking.¹⁰⁶ A more detailed discussion on homogenization, commercialization and other trends in international higher education is provided later in subchapters 2.2.2 and 2.2.3.

¹⁰³ Odin and Manicas, *Globalization and Higher Education*, 10.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

¹⁰⁵ Zhang Xiaoming and Xu Haitao, “Internationalisation: A Challenge for China’s Higher Education,” in *Current Issues in Chinese Higher Education*, OECD (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2000) 107.

¹⁰⁶ Arturo Escobar, *Encountering Development: The Making and the Unmaking of the Third World* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2011), 13.

The last influencing type described by Odin and Manicas is *political* globalization that provides the mirror image to the previous two trends. The authors argue that for universities, a weaker or less autonomous state may mean that “they can count less on what used to be in many countries the most reliable and steady source of funding for research. In turn, greater emphasis is laid on the evaluation of publicly funded research, applying a value-for-money conception that is close to business behaviour.”¹⁰⁷ At the same time, policy actors can show a decreasing commitment to educating their “own” population. For the authors, “higher education has been at the margins of policy interest in many countries for at least two decades – although there are some signs into the consequences of such neglect, even if the remorse may mostly be about what is nowadays called deficits in employability of the potential workforce.”¹⁰⁸

If globalization has such a significant impact on our higher education, then there is a good reason to assume the responsibility of discovering what measures need to be taken to improve the university’s status, diversity and independence. The university cannot avoid the influence of globalization on higher education, but it can greatly reduce its negative impact and promote positive influence for improving our education. Globalization is a multi-faced process that we cannot escape or reject, but we can find solutions to transform its considerable advantages as well as disadvantages into our best opportunities.

1.4 International Higher Education Community and its Values

The institutions and the international higher education community are not single actors in developing constructive and innovative strategies, but of course the national and international policy levels are also meant to design the roles of higher education in the making of global knowledge society. The growing impact of globalization has provoked a need to develop new institutional responses to the challenges they face.

Nowadays public policy strategies in higher education give a great deal of importance to education as a basic human right and defend the fundamental right to access to higher education on equal terms. If in the past decades the main focus of education was to increase the literacy among people, in recent years this aim became

¹⁰⁷ Odin and Manicas, *Globalization and Higher Education*, 10.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

much more complex: it has to offer a solid preparation to the young professionals, so that they can implement their knowledge in nowadays globalized world and feel confident about their educational background. This is not an easy task to achieve, because as noted by Robinson, a leading thinker on education and creativity, “children starting school this year will be retiring in 2065. Nobody has a clue what the world will look like in five years’ time, yet we’re meant to educate them for it.”¹⁰⁹ Whatever is taught, says the author, should, therefore be evergreen and, where possible, future-orientated, if not, it risks viewing the future in terms of the past, and becoming redundant.¹¹⁰ Therefore, it is indispensable for the European education policy to be considered along with the socio-economic conditions obtaining at a given time. The European countries need to pay special attention to the higher education policies they elaborate, updating their strategies according to nowadays national and international needs and making sure that today’s higher education is mainly focused to train skilled human manpower that is necessary to handle all the challenges of the globalization processes and opportunities life has to offer.

Education and globalization go shoulder to shoulder. If Europe wants to succeed, it needs to have a competitive higher education policy that would be sensitive to nowadays important issues as economic development, the promotion of civil laws and social integration. At the same time, education has to drive technology and not vice versa. Thus a number of challenges such as improving the quality of learning and teaching, curriculum design, widening participation, student employability and funding are only some of the issues that have to be addressed through higher education policy. To effectively adapt to the globalization era, Higher Education institutions need to provide updated measures to respond to those challenges in an efficient way. It is clear that updating the higher education is not possible without the internationalization of higher education, because current problems such as the access, equity and quality, cooperation and competition are common to all European countries, so it is important to prepare plans for education development, that would address these issues through an internationalization process that leads to a deep understanding and collaboration between countries. These policies have implications not only on the European level, but on the personal level as well,

¹⁰⁹ Ken Robinson, “Do schools kill creativity?” 2007, LRNteach, Accessed May 18, 2011, <http://lrnteach.com/do-schools-kill-creativity/>.

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

thus their aim should be to improve the quality of life and to adapt to the dynamics of the present society. People nowadays have to face a lot of difficulties, which may have a national origin and be internationally soluble at the same time. Therefore, commitment, dedication, cooperation and carefully thought education planning are needed to face these challenges. Table 4 describes five elements of globalization, showing their implications for higher education in general and for the international dimension in particular.

Table 4. *The implications of the elements of globalization for the internationalization of higher education*

Element of Globalization	Impact on Higher Education	Implications for the International Dimension of Higher Education
Knowledge Society Increasing importance is attached to the production and use of knowledge as a wealth creator for nations.	A growing emphasis on continual professional development creates a greater unmet demand for post-secondary education. The need to develop new skills and knowledge results in new types of programs and qualifications. Universities' role becomes more commercialized.	Programs become more responsive to market demand. Specialized training programs are developed for niche markets and professional development and distributed worldwide. The international mobility of students, academics, research and projects increases.
ICTS-Information and Communication Technologies New developments in information and communication technologies and systems.	New delivery methods are used for domestic and cross-border education, especially online and satellite-based forms.	Innovative international delivery methods are used, including e-learning, franchises. Satellite campuses require more attention to accreditation of programs/providers, more recognition of qualifications.
Market Economy Growth in the number and influence of market-based economies around the world.	The commercialization and commodification of higher education and training at domestic and international levels increases.	New concerns emerge about the appropriateness of curriculum and teaching materials in different cultures/countries. New potential develops for homogenization and hybridization.
Trade Liberalization New international and regional trade agreements develop to decrease barriers to trade.	Import and export of educational services and products increases as barriers are removed.	The emphasis increases on the commercially oriented export and import of education programs; international development projects continue to diminish in importance.
Governance The creation of new international and regional governance structures and systems.	The role of national-level education actors both government and non-government is changing. New regulatory and policy framework is being considered at all levels.	Consideration is given to new international/regional frameworks to complement national and regional policies and practices, especially in quality assurance, accreditation, credit transfer, recognition of qualifications, and student mobility.

Source: Knight, shortened version¹¹¹

Although the universities nowadays have numerous ties that link them to the social environments that they belong to and limit the amount of autonomy that they need in exercising their functions, it is important to recognize conceptually and politically the autonomy of higher education institutions and the importance of their own value system. According to the former President of the EUA Jean-Marc Rapp: “beyond the traditional functions of teaching, research and innovation, universities are expected to fulfil new roles and tasks and respond to new challenges in an increasingly complex and global environment.”¹¹² That is why EUA believes that increasing institutional autonomy is the key to enabling universities to respond to these new demands. This belief is underlined in its Prague Declaration (2009) that specifies that for strong and flexible universities pursuing excellence in their different missions this also requires “shaping, reinforcing, and implementing autonomy: universities need strengthened autonomy to better serve society and specifically to ensure favourable regulatory frameworks which allow university leaders to design internal structures efficiently, select and train staff, shape academic programmes and use financial resources, all of these in line with their specific institutional missions and profiles.”¹¹³

Indeed, in many countries higher education is seen by the state as a separate sector. It can be explained by the fact that both nationally and internationally higher education has its own set of rules, principles and even language. Academic leaders are free to establish their own institutional connections, create international association, produce publications and organize conferences. Thus, we may say that they share a common professional identity, based on particular sets of knowledge, ethical practices and underpinning values. Among these core values we can mention: the understanding that knowledge should be free and available to everyone regardless of their economic situation; that collaboration across distances should be easier not harder; that those who contribute to education and research should receive financial

¹¹¹ Jane Knight, *Higher education in turmoil: The Changing World of Internationalization* (Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers, 2008), 6.

¹¹² Thomas Estermann and Terhi Nokkala, *University autonomy in Europe I. Exploratory Study* (Brussels: EUA, 2009)

¹¹³ EUA, “Prague Declaration,” 2009, accessed May 21, 2011, http://www.eua.be/Libraries/Publications/EUA_Prague_Declaration.sflb.ashx.

remuneration or credit; and that higher education is no longer an option but a necessity and must be treated accordingly.

These common traits can make us presume intuitively that the potential impact of globalization on academic practice will bring a greater cultural homogeneity. According to Middlehurst there are several factors that suggest a trend towards homogeneity of provision, offered by a smaller number of international providers. Among them we can mention the strength of English language and of Western economies, the search for mass markets and economies of scale in the delivery of education (particularly distance or virtual education) and economic competition between countries for trade in goods and services. However, there are also pointers towards greater diversity in higher education. According to the same author it happens because “individuals and companies are seeking customized educational opportunities, different countries offer the potential for niche markets in particular fields, and technological connections provide the potential for educational content tailored to cultural preferences and political sensitivities.”¹¹⁴ Therefore, for the moment, institutions and academic units would be wise to back both horses. However, in the future, technology will offer possibilities for ‘mass customization’, enabling universities and colleges to provide individualized learning opportunities for mass markets.

In the First Global Forum on International Quality Assurance in Paris (2002) van Damme shares a very interesting point in this respect. He agrees that an old hegemony probably will not be replaced by a new dominance and that rather increasing diversity and heterogeneity will characterize the landscape of post-secondary education. Nevertheless the professor shares some key questions that are really intriguing: for example, will employers and the state still value the specific ways in which universities fulfil their functions in the process of human capital formation? Will students define themselves solely as consumers of whatever educational service or will they still seek to be qualified as academic professionals and to engage themselves as partners in the academic enterprise? Of even of greater importance, will the higher education remain strong and internally coherent enough to defend its common value system in an environment that makes its borders devoid of

¹¹⁴ Robin Middlehurst, “The international context for UK higher education,” in *The effective academic: a handbook for enhanced academic practice*, ed. Steve Ketteridge, Stephanie Marshall and Heather Fry (London: Kogan Page, 2002), 16.

any meaning?¹¹⁵ And the answer to these questions lies in the core of the academic value-system that will have to be open and flexible in order to be responsive to the needs of a global knowledge society.

Although there is no detailed analysis of the value system of the international academic community, we may deduce its basic traits analysing the agreements and conventions signed by the international academic community throughout the history. One of these documents is the *Magna Charta Universitatum*. Among the fundamental principles described in this document, the rectors emphasized, just as it had been discussed before, the autonomous character of the higher educational institutions and states as follows: “The university is an autonomous institution at the heart of societies differently organized because of geography and historical heritage; it produces, examines, appraises and hands down culture by research and teaching. To meet the needs of the world around it, its research and teaching must be morally and intellectually independent of all political authority and economic power.”¹¹⁶ It also states the importance of international cooperation between the universities: “Universities - particularly in Europe - regard the mutual exchange of information and documentation, and frequent joint projects for the advancement of learning, as essential to the steady progress of knowledge.”¹¹⁷ Apart from that, a great deal of importance is given to freedom in research and training as the fundamental value of university life, it states that “governments and universities, each as far as in them lies, must ensure respect for this fundamental requirement. Rejecting intolerance and always open to dialogue, the university is an ideal meeting-ground for teachers capable of imparting their knowledge and well equipped to develop it by research and innovation and students entitled, able and willing to enrich their minds with that knowledge.”¹¹⁸

The same statements appear in more recently approved conventions as for example, we may encounter the same value of freedom in research and training and institutional autonomy described in *Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education* in 2009 where it says that “the necessary

¹¹⁵ Dirk van Damme, “Outlooks for the international higher education community in constructing the global knowledge society,” in *Higher Education in a changing Environment, International Higher Education Policy in Europe*, ed. Bernd Wachter (Bonn: Lemmens, 2004), 38.

¹¹⁶ Magna Charta Observatory, “Magna Charta Universitatum.”

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

ongoing reform of higher education systems and policies will continue to be firmly embedded in the European values of institutional autonomy, academic freedom and social equity and will require full participation of students and staff.”¹¹⁹

Nevertheless, we have to accept the fact that the effects of globalization in the last decades have influenced the basic values of the international academic community. It is normal that the change of the university into the motor of economic development will have an impact on its values. The university will encounter itself in a difficult position where it will have to combine on one hand teaching and research and on the other hand the responsibility for economic development. Apart from that, the traditional academic value system of the higher education community is constantly under the pressure to respond to new demands of a globalized world. In this context, the universities are not always willing to adapt and reform themselves. They see this radical change as a potential threat to their long-established set of values, but at the same time, they realize that flexibility and cooperation are the keys to progress and development. In the same order of ideas we find very intriguing the current debate on whether the universities will change as a result of their own “internal drive” to adapt to the current changes in the society, or they will rather be “forced or seduced to change”.¹²⁰

In any case, according to Clark the “academic heartland” must be able to combine traditional academic values with managerial ideas for the university to succeed.¹²¹ According to him, an entrepreneurial reaction to new challenges offers the universities better possibilities to control their activities and build the identity of their organization according to their own principles and rules, rather than keeping their old models of action or being passive.¹²² The universities will not be able to function properly if they choose a passive approach towards entrepreneurship, because they need to grow and develop, and adaptation is one of the basic steps in this process. Nevertheless, they should preserve their basic values of a good teaching and

¹¹⁹ EHEA, “Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué.”

¹²⁰ van Damme, “Outlooks for the international higher education community in constructing the global knowledge society,” 39.

¹²¹ Burton R. Clark, *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organisational Pathways of Transformation, Issues in Higher Education* (Oxford: Pergamon Press for International Association of Universities, 1998), quoted in Risto Rinne and Jenni Koivula, “The Changing of the University and a Clash of Values. The Entrepreneurial University in the European Knowledge Society,” *Higher Education Management and Policy* 17, no. 3 (2005): 111.

¹²² *Ibid.*, 112.

functioning, because economic success will be a result of academic success and it will be a win-to-win situation for both sides. Apart from that, having their role in the entrepreneurship will offer the universities the freedom of participation and the option to change those aspects that are in contradiction to their basic principles.

However, as stated above, the universities are not always willing to respond to these changes, as they see it as a threat and we may find the expression of this conviction in various declarations as the Joint Declaration on Higher Education and the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) that underlines the following core principles:

Higher education exists to serve the public interest and is not a “commodity”, a fact which WTO Member States have recognized through UNESCO and other international or multilateral bodies, conventions, and declarations. The mission of higher education is to contribute to the sustainable development and improvement of society as a whole by: educating highly qualified graduates able to meet the needs of all sectors of human activity; advancing, creating and disseminating knowledge through research; ... and protecting and enhancing civil society by training young people in the values which form the basis of democratic citizenship and by providing critical and detached perspectives in the discussion of strategic choices facing societies.¹²³

Moreover, it is specified that “authority to regulate higher education must remain in the hands of competent bodies as designated by any given country. Nothing in international trade agreements should restrict or limit this authority in any way.”¹²⁴ In this way, universities try to protect their authority and independence. Some experts, though, see it as a little hypocrite, taking into account that nowadays almost any university embraces commercial activities in a variety of areas. In the Lisbon Declaration of 2007, for example, EU committed to the better use and commercialisation of university research. The declaration states that the multiple challenges of the twenty-first century require investigation, fundamental research as well as technological and social innovation which will solve problems as they arise and ensure economic success combined with social stability in many different societies. It underlines that the universities of Europe, themselves diverse, are together

¹²³ EUA, “Joint Declaration on Higher Education and the General Agreement on Trade in Services,” September 28, 2001, accessed May 25, 2011, http://www.aic.lv/rec/Eng/new_d_en/gats/jointdec.html.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

ready to meet these challenges.¹²⁵ Additionally, it emphasizes the importance of university-enterprise collaboration: “University-business collaboration is a process of ‘Co-Innovation’ with knowledge transfer seen as a core mission of universities.”¹²⁶

As we could notice, the values of International Higher Education community can be seen from a different prospective and all of them have significant weight and are equally important. Nevertheless, we accept that a detailed and trustworthy picture of the changes in the academic culture could be offered only after some longitudinal studies that would allow a full spectrum of analysis and understanding. Even so, instead of being over protective with short-term academic interests, academic institutions could instead focus more on their long-term progress and development. There is no development without change and this doesn’t necessary mean the giving up or a drastic alteration of their set of academic values. Moreover, academics were most of the times very flexible, they could implement the strategies that they like (or find beneficial) and reject or change the ones that they find inappropriate. They are aware of the fact that in any case the academic values that exist now will change as a result of the globalization processes and instead of resisting this process, it would be wiser to study it and take advantage of the benefits it may bring.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the higher education institutions will only gain if they will adapt a more open and innovative attitude. By applying non-traditional approaches, the universities may become more attractive to new providers and will aid in improving the overall quality in education and learning. Development is about doing new stuff, not about excellence in doing old stuff and this could be applied to many aspects of international academic community life. The society is continuously changing, thus in order to be in step with the current developments, the universities should adopt a more forward-looking approach by encouraging competitiveness and innovation. A strategic reassessment of academic value system is needed in order to deal not only with the current difficulties that the universities have to face, but all those issues that may emerge in the future. A fruitful strategic plan and the acknowledgement of the real advantages that these changes may bring, are necessary for the better functioning of the university in a thoroughgoing manner.

¹²⁵ EUA, “The Lisbon Declaration: Europe’s Universities beyond 2010: Diversity with a Common Purpose,” April 13, 2007, accessed May 25, 2011, <http://firgoa.usc.es/drupal/node/35773>.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

1.5 The emergence of a New ‘Geopolitics’ of Higher Education

The age we are living in is dominated by the technological advances that modify the effects of geography on our planet. Distance doesn't mean protection or insulation anymore. Nevertheless, outdated mental maps and obsolete beliefs still impact our daily lives and make it difficult to broaden our views and understanding regarding the need to change and adapt to new realities. These processes have a great impact on higher education as well, as in order to respond strategically to these changes, it is indispensable to prepare the young citizens for the threats of the coming decades and offer them an adaptive education that would form the basis of their critical, creative and practical thinking. Therefore, all students need to possess certain knowledge, skills and abilities that could help them to seize the opportunities that life has to bring and, at the same time, be prepared to face the challenges that will come along. For that, they need to improve their skills to recognize these global changes, to develop strategically planned responses and have a critical thinking mindset. Moreover, they need to sharpen their collaboration skills with different partners, especially those from different countries and cultures. Borderless education is therefore the key to this collaboration, by removing the borders or barriers to knowledge and learning, students will share among each other their experience and will have better chances to improve things on a local, regional, national and global scale. In this sub chapter we will observe the emergence of a ‘new geopolitics’¹²⁷ of higher education as a consequence of these changes and, as a result, the transformation in the global mapping of higher education systems.

1.5.1 Information Technology and its Impact on Higher Education

The latest developments have caused major changes in higher education, modifying regional arrangements for higher education and transforming territory systems. There are of course many factors that foster these alterations, but among the most evident ones are modern telecommunications and information technologies. Powerful networks nowadays have the capacity to deliver educational services to anyone in any part of the world. Modern technology offers an open learning environment where a diverse body of students is allowed the academic freedom to

¹²⁷ Jan Sadlak, “The emergence of a new ‘Geopolitics’ of higher education: context, causes and frameworks,” in *Beyond 2010: Priorities and challenges for higher education in the next decade*, ed. Maria Kelo (Bonn: Lemmens, 2008), 133.

pursue new ideas without any boundaries and territorial limitations. The information technologies develop so quickly and we embrace them so hastily, that virtual universities, for example, that are relatively new (1960), have already become an integral part of our academic reality. According to Attali: “The impact of information technology will be even more radical than the harnessing of steam and electricity in the 19th century. Rather it will be more akin to the discovery of the fire by the early ancestors, since it will prepare the way for a revolutionary leap into a new age that will profoundly transform human culture”¹²⁸ Indeed, the information technology revolution makes borders obsolete and allows the access of information from any place of the world, converting us into ‘digital nomads’. IT-based education provides a useful support to the education process and nowadays students cannot imagine their academic life without internet that has become a ‘fifth power’.

There is also another side to the matter, many scholars suggest that as a result of nowadays technology revolution and growing competition, the very survival of the university may be at risk. Kurzveil states that although the traditional mode of a human teacher instructing a group of children is still prevalent, schools are increasingly relying on software approaches, leaving human teachers to attend primarily to issues of motivation, psychological well being and socialization. The author also mentions that “the majority of reading is done on displays, although the ‘installed base’ of paper documents is still formidable. The generation of paper documents is dwindling, however, as the books and other papers of largely twentieth-century vintage are being rapidly scanned and stored.”¹²⁹

However, most believe that the university will be able to survive the digital age, yet this will have a big influence on the mission and strategic objectives of the university. We are used to picturing the university as a physical place, a campus, where the students are involved in a pedagogical process by the help of expert professors, but the academic reality has changed. If before universities were distant from each other geographically, and it was relatively difficult to transfer people and practices between them consequently, different universities would choose independent paths; nowadays, however, that independence exists only if educators

¹²⁸ Jacques Attali, *Millennium: Winners and Losers in the Coming World Order* (New York: Times Books, 1992) p.11.

¹²⁹ Ray Kurzweil, *The age of spiritual machines: When Computers Exceed Human Intelligence* (New York: Penguin Books, 2000), 185.

actively choose to foster it. However, a more common practice is to embrace information technology and collaborate with one another as the best way to meet their goals and build good relationships. Duderstadt in his objective assumptions about the future in *Higher education in the digital age*, raises some thought-provoking questions concerning this topic. The author asks himself if we are entering just another period of evolution for the university, or will the dramatic nature and compressed timescales characterizing the technology-driven changes of our time trigger a process more akin to revolution in higher education? He wonders if a tidal wave of technological, economic, and social forces sweep over the academy, transforming the university in unforeseen and perhaps unacceptable ways and creating new institutional forms to challenge both our experience and our concept of the university?¹³⁰ In the future, rapidly evolving digital technology will have extraordinary implications for education, research, learning and the concept of the university as a whole. Learning communities will use technology to share knowledge and therefore best practices, thus any geographical constraints will be obsolete.

As technology will become more and more interwoven into the fabric of academic life, this new reality has to be reflected in different areas of policy on higher education. A challenge is to build academic strategies that take into account some of the realities of the relationship between higher education institutions and continuously advancing digital technology. Scholars and university leaders should be prepared to develop updated strategic frameworks that would combine technological advances and education practices and make them a tool for educational progress, as information technology can be used to improve higher education. Nevertheless, in order to use information technology in a constructive way, university leaders have to reinvent it, adapt it to university's needs and fit modular components into a whole. They should be aware of potential impacts of the changes their decisions may have over time. Although technology is designed to make our education system more efficient, it should not dictate the important, valuable changes in higher education institutions. Technology has to serve us, not the other way around, therefore it is important to carefully use this tool and apply it for our own benefit without sacrificing individuality.

¹³⁰ James J. Duderstadt, Daniel E. Atkins and Douglas E. Van Houweling, *Higher education in the digital age: Technology issues and strategies for American colleges and universities* (Westport: Praeger Publishers, 2002), ix.

1.5.2 Quantitative Enhancement of Higher Education

Apart from information technology, another factor that influences the emergence of a new ‘geopolitics’ of higher education is a quantitative growth of higher education. On the word of Sadlak in the late 1970 there was a belief that in order to grow and develop economically, a society needs to assure that at least 20 percent of its young people between 18-23 years old have access to higher education. Nowadays many believe that this percentage should be at range of 50 percent. European Union member states are still below this benchmark, while countries like Japan, Canada and the US are approaching 70 percent. Nevertheless, even if we can argue over numerical taxonomy, we have to admit that we are entering into an era of mass higher education systems, the main characteristic of which is high participation rates and in which there is a combination of traditional forms of study and those provided in response to lifelong learning needs.¹³¹

It is equally interesting to notice the development of those countries and regions which until recently were behind many developed countries and that now are quickly improving their systems of higher education and augmenting their research capacity. This is the case of China, whose higher education since the later 1990s presents two extraordinary characteristics: qualitative enhancement and quantitative growth. Compared with many developed countries, enrolment in China is still much lower, but the total number of students in Chinese higher education institutions has already reached approximately 19 million and China has become the country with the largest number of students in higher education institutions, surpassing the number in the United States. Chinese government is making great efforts to stimulate massification of higher education, through increasing enrolment in the existing public sector, supplemented by encouragement of growth in the non-government sector and institutions in cooperation with foreign partners. Moreover, much of the existing research on China’s higher education focuses on certain aspects of the higher education system. Much literature deals with some important issues in China’s higher education, as issues concerning private higher education, financial problems, or

¹³¹ Jan Sadlak, “Why higher education is changing – Implications for Access, governance, quality evaluation and funding,” (conference, Bilkent University, December 3, 2007), accessed June 3, 2011, http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/ehea2010/bilkent/Presentation_%20Jan%20Sadlak.pdf.

administrative reforms.¹³² Indeed, research has become a very competitive activity that needs to be financed accordingly and organised in a manner that is suitable for its increasing levels of responsibility.

No less intriguing is the situation of the majority of the countries in Central and Eastern Europe, particularly the new EU member states. They are recently experiencing notable economic development based on relatively well qualified but not very expensive labour force. Lately, though, this beneficial factor is quickly disappearing as a result of the influence of the global market and the way it dictates the cost of the labour force. Moreover, facing the new challenges brought by globalization, these countries found themselves unprepared because their general educational standards are not as perfect as they would want them to be. Therefore, what these countries need to do if they want their economies to boom, is to develop bold reforms of higher education structures and programs and several more years to evaluate the performance of these changes and make the necessary adjustments. In this respect the Bologna Process may provide really useful tips for further developments of educational policies of these countries.

Moreover, in most countries of Europe, the process of massification of higher education came along with all its modern social and cultural diversity that of course requires various arrangements regarding pedagogy, new dimensions in administration of staff and students and a specific type of training that would allow to rapidly acquire sufficient skills to face these changes. It is generally accepted that higher education is not only expected to train human resources for national development, but also to be prepared to respond to world-wide influences and be a part of a healthy international competition and cooperation. Therefore, more emphasis should be placed on collaboration, responsibility and efficiency of higher education institutions, as well as on enhancement of teaching and research activities and the fulfilment of world-class research achievements.

Apart from that, internationalization of higher education is strongly linked with the objective to improve the quality of education. Thus internationalization should not be regarded as an end in itself, but as a tool for quality enhancement. International cooperation along with the exchange of students, staff and researchers contributes to

¹³² Futao Huang, "Qualitative Enhancement and Quantitative Growth: Changes and trends of China's Higher Education," *Higher Education Policy* 18, no. 2 (2005): 117.

the mutual learning, cross-cultural understanding, innovative approaches and new teaching techniques. As a result, this kind of collaboration is beneficial at the individual, institutional and even the system level and will contribute to the quality of processes and their positive outcomes. In this respect, the role of such international bodies as *European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education* is really important as its mission is to “further the development of the European Higher Education Area by increasing transparency of quality assurance, and thus enhancing trust and confidence in European higher education.”¹³³

An interesting opinion was shared in this respect by Baker at the Worldwide Universities Network conference in London. When the question was asked: “What nowadays defines a global ‘superpower’?” the following answer was provided: “In the past, it was the size of national armies or possession of nuclear weapons. But now there is a more important (and peaceful) benchmark: the size and prestige of university systems”.¹³⁴ The education journalist emphasizes the fact that being a genuinely global university does not mean packing in more and more overseas students just to benefit from the relatively high fees they pay, and that there are already signs that a growing number of international students feel they are not getting value for money at UK universities. It does mean, though, collaborating on international research projects, taking a genuinely global view of academic issues, and fully integrating domestic and overseas students and faculty. As David Eastwood, chief executive of the Higher Education Funding Council for England told the conference: “We cannot assume that students will continue to come to the UK just because they always have”.¹³⁵ Cost is only part of the calculation. The UK and the US lead on overseas student recruitment, although they are amongst the most expensive places in the world to study. So it seems fair to assume that quality remains the key.

1.5.3 Academic Competition for Excellence

Another important factor that has a great influence on geopolitical map of higher education is the global competition for talent and academic excellence. As it was mentioned before, globalization of higher education should be embraced not

¹³³ RQAR, “EQAR Mission Statement,” accessed June 4, 2011, <http://www.eqar.eu/about/mission-statement.html>.

¹³⁴ Mike Baker, “China’s bid for world domination,” BBC News, November 17, 2007, accessed June 5, 2011, http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/uk_news/education/7098561.stm.

¹³⁵ Ibid.

feared and its consequences should be changed into beneficial factors. As a result of this phenomenon, leading universities are competing for human talent, innovative research and the ability to produce perceptive and well-informed graduates that would contribute to the developments of knowledge-based economies. Wildavsky has an interesting essay in *The Chronicle* where he states that global competition should not be feared because the best students are nowadays ‘shopping’ for the best universities just as consumers in a worldwide marketplace and the universities are eager to recruit best students and faculty members seeking world-class status. According to the author: “Just as free trade in manufacturing provides the lowest-cost goods, benefiting both consumers and the most-efficient producers, global academic competition is making free movement of people and ideas, on the basis of merit, more and more the norm, with enormously positive consequences for people, for universities, and for nations.”¹³⁶ It is also mentioned that global academic competition will surely create winners and losers along the way, but as with other kinds of free trade, the net benefits will be significant, because “there is nothing wrong with nations competing, trying to improve their citizens’ human capital and to reap the economic benefits that come with more and better education.”¹³⁷

Indeed, the economic benefits of a global academic culture are significant but not only that; there is also a diplomatic asset that helps to reduce the tension between countries. European Union, for instance, is paying a lot of attention to the development of its regional cooperation with third countries through programs like Erasmus Mundus External Co-operation Window, that have as an objective to achieve “better understanding and mutual enrichment between the European Union and third countries co-operation in the field of higher education through promoting the exchange of persons, knowledge and skills at higher education level.”¹³⁸ This action will promote partnerships and institutional co-operation exchanges between European Higher Education Institutions and Third Country institutions and a mobility scheme addressing student and academic exchanges and, as a result, in many cases, it will

¹³⁶ Ben Wildavsky, “Why Colleges Shouldn’t Fear Global Competition,” *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, April 4, 2010, accessed June 6, 2011, <http://chronicle.com/article/The-Global-Benefits-of/64932/>.

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ EACEA, “Erasmus Mundus External Cooperation Window. Overview of the Action,” accessed June 7, 2011, <http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/extcoop/call/index.htm>.

contribute to establish open and secure borders between the EU and the neighbouring countries and a favourable political climate.

There are a lot of positive initiatives within the European higher education policy; however, things have to be improved when it comes to world-class status with regard to teaching and research performance. A lot of European universities are aware of world-class standards, but it doesn't help them to become globally competitive because some important steps in their development are missing. In fact, the majority of the universities are not involved in the world-class global competition; nevertheless their function in the society is not less important, as they serve the majority of students and communities all over the world. World-class universities are those special places with a high concentration of excellence, talent and quality of education; they conduct multidisciplinary research, provide quality research that stimulates economic activity, and deliver highly skilled people to the labour market. This is how world-class universities contribute to nation's knowledge heritage, economy and international competitiveness.

It doesn't mean, though, that world-class universities don't have challenges to face, they do, for example ongoing investment is needed to maintain a world-class learning level. The nature of research is also changing, research challenges have become increasingly complex, they now combine a number of different disciplines, and are global in their scope. Therefore, there is a growing need for collaborating internationally and across disciplines. Moreover, technology developments have provoked a need for better and more sophisticated equipment. As a consequence, all of these factors have increased the cost of research. Even so, academic excellence is one of the main target areas of public investment which real interest is not to support the academic research as such, but to serve as a vehicle for creativity to generate social and technological innovations. European countries are therefore interested to have more world-class universities and invest in projects that might have the potential to be successfully implemented and serve the needs of community.

Moreover, the European Commission has stated that the EU needs millions of skilled migrants to remain competitive, this is the main argument behind the Blue Card initiative, which is an attempt to attract non-EU skilled migrants that will enable them to gain work and residence permits in EU member states. According to the former president of the European Commission José Manuel Barroso, "labour

migration into Europe boosts our competitiveness and therefore our economic growth. It also helps tackle demographic problems resulting from our ageing population. This is particularly the case for highly skilled labour. With today's proposal for an EU Blue Card we send a clear signal: highly skilled migrants are welcome in the EU!"¹³⁹ To maintain and improve economic growth in the EU, it is indispensable for Europe to become a magnet for the highly skilled. Highly qualified migrants prefer the USA, Canada and Australia, that is why further appropriate actions should be taken if Europe wants to become at least as attractive as these favourite migration destinations.

The above mentioned trends of institutional expansion represent a valid proof of the changes on the geopolitical map of higher education that will shape the way it responds to the challenges and opportunities of globalization. Every institution will have its own way to meet the demands of the knowledge-based economy, nevertheless all of them operate in a complex set of financial, political and social organization, thus major international collaboration is needed to expand research and make education as effective as possible. The most successful systems of higher education have a high degree of diversity and that is related to their functionality and progress, so the unity in diversity of the European Union should be reflected as well in its higher education policy in order to assure the quality and exclusiveness of its institutions.

1.6 Challenges for Global Higher Education in the 2020s

Taking into account the rapid changes and developments in higher education, it is not that easy to picture the academic world in the 2020s. While some are likely to think that the future will be like the present, others predict that potential changes may occur very quickly without taking into account the institutional barriers to change. The multiple changes are generated by the process of globalization, unbalanced development among nations and their increased interdependency. It is very difficult to give long-term predictions because one never knows what kind of side-effects the changes in one part of the world may cause in other parts. The evolution in

¹³⁹ European Commission Press Release Database, "Making Europe more attractive to highly skilled migrants and increasing the protection of lawfully residing and working migrants," October 23, 2007, accessed June 8, 2011, <http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=IP/07/1575&format=HTML&aged=0&language=EN&guiLanguage=en>.

technology will surely have one of the leading roles in these changes, yet it will not determine the future development in the dominant way. The scope of any nation, though, will be to face these changes and the main responsibility lies in its educational system. This will surely shape higher education policy for the next two decades and will have global implications. So what will the higher education be like in 2020s? What are the major challenges it is going to face and how should educational institutions prepare for this scenario? The next paragraphs are an attempt to explore these and other questions and to provide suggestions as to how they could be addressed.

From an institutional perspective, 2020 might seem a long way away. As stated by Coyne in 2008 “Between now and then we have two sets of European Commission, three European Parliaments, and probably about 80 national elections in the 27 Member States – or more, if the European Union is enlarged between now and then.”¹⁴⁰ Nevertheless, in planning terms, it is the day after tomorrow, because the decisions that are taken today will have an impact on the academic system of tomorrow. If we were to start designing a new undergraduate course today, says the same author, the first person to complete it, and to go through full academic cycle to PhD, would probably not complete much earlier.¹⁴¹ Effective education in the future depends on today’s significant and efficient changes in the educational structure, format and assumptions. Change is already dramatically impacting nowadays higher education: students’ lifestyles, increased use of technology, numerous options for curriculum and increased competition, are affecting the lives of many even today, what to speak of 2020.

It is generally accepted that universities are the driving forces of the national economic development. It is important to be aware of the vital input that universities can provide to the knowledge economy at all levels whether local or international and to accept that most probably Europe’s universities and business will achieve more intense forms of collaboration and more structured relationships between two sides in order to better meet the challenges of the globalization. Ján Figel, the former European Commissioner for Education, Training, Culture and Youth, underlined the

¹⁴⁰ David Coyne, “Beyond 2010: European higher education and employment in the next decade,” in *Beyond 2010: Priorities and challenges for higher education in the next decade*, ed. Maria Kelo (Bonn: Lemmens, 2008), 119.

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

urgent need for closer ties between business and education: “In difficult times, it is vital that we work together, that we exchange our ideas, discuss and debate together problems and possible solutions. This is all the more important in the area of university-business collaboration, which has traditionally not been one of Europe's strong points. Working in partnership is more important than ever, especially for academia, research and businesses.”¹⁴² It is coherent to suppose that business and higher education will experience further consolidation in the next decades and will be a win for both sides as it inspires knowledge transfer, provides new opportunities and helps prepare students for future success in the professional workplace.

According to Scott, when it comes to the future of the higher education, the debate is mainly focused on two general assumptions that are considered to be inevitable by policy makers and institutional leaders. The first assumption is that there will be an exponential growth in student mobility as well as in other forms of international collaboration. The second one is that this growth will be basically a market phenomenon.¹⁴³ Scott does not contradict this grand narrative, which according to the author is partly true, but he does draw attention to alternative accounts and proposes three theses briefly described below.

The first thesis is that, “while global higher education will certainly grow, that growth may owe as much to contingent forces – for example, the impact of migration patterns – as it does to the deliberate policies of governments to increase their ‘market share’ or of universities to develop internationalization strategies.”¹⁴⁴ For that reason, growth may take less predictable forms. Although migration is not a new issue, its velocity and intensity was raised considerably during the past few decades. Modern technologies and ease of communication made it easier than ever to intensify migration patterns. As a result, some basic concepts of social solidarity and shared culture have been challenged and this consequently was reflected in the immigration policies of some countries, encouraging governments to develop more restrictive immigration policies. If the growth of global higher education is linked to mass

¹⁴² European Commission Press Release Database, “Europe’s universities and business get together,” February 5, 2009, accessed June 10, 2011, <http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=IP/09/213&format=HTML&aged=0&language=EN&guiLanguage=en>.

¹⁴³ Peter Scott, “Challenges for global higher education in the 2020s: what the next decade holds in store,” in *Beyond 2010 Priorities and challenges for higher education in the next decade*, ed. Maria Kelo (Bonn: Lemmens, 2008), 157.

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

migration, which governments are more likely to define as threats rather than opportunities, it may become really difficult to pursue the original internationalization strategies. That is why, it is so important to examine the global higher education within a wider context of extended population flows: of refugees, of so-called economic migrants and of global elites. Only in this case we could get a trustworthy picture and adjust the academic policies to better meet the challenges of the next decades.

The second thesis is that by 2020 “a decisive shift will have taken place from viewing global higher education in a post-imperial lens (or, at any rate, in geopolitical terms or in the context of a competitive global economy) - still probably the dominant perspective, to recognising its potential for promoting cultural pluralism (and even celebrating cultural ‘difference’).”¹⁴⁵ Taking into account the dynamic diversity of the European Union, it is especially important to create a space where the rights of all individuals, regardless their nationality, cultural background and religion will be respected and considered when academic decisions are made.¹⁴⁶ European institutions will need more diversity in their higher education in order to meet different national and regional needs. They will need to improve their systems of governance in order to make it easier for the students and scholars to cross the borders and exchange their knowledge.

The third and the final thesis emphasized by Scott is that “it is not inevitable that global higher education will be an almost exclusively market phenomenon, whether the prospect is welcome or unwelcome; still less that the internationalization of higher education is likely to lead to the wider adoption of market forms in national higher education systems.”¹⁴⁷ Growth of course will be caused by a range of factors: social and cultural occurrences, political shifts, different structural changes and the transformation of the international systems, as well as the state of the market. Of course, the growth of some developing countries will be caused by inflow of new investments to these countries and by improvement of their infrastructures, and, at the same time, these factors will have a huge effect on their academic progress. But in general, the change will be caused by a combination of factors that will change over

¹⁴⁵ Ibid., 159.

¹⁴⁶ An important recent study on student mobility and the citizenship of the European Union is: Paz Andrés Sáenz de Santa María, “Movilidad de estudiantes y ciudadanía de la Unión: un análisis a través de la jurisprudencia del TJUE. *Revista de derecho de la Unión Europea* 27 (2014): 231-258.

¹⁴⁷ Scott, “Challenges for global higher education in the 2020s,” 160.

time and vary by location and will have to be considered simultaneously to explain the socio-economical development.

Another important aspect to take into consideration is the employability of graduates in 2020. Taking into account the latest OECD forecasts, employers will be looking for more graduates in 2020 than they do now: “what employers are looking for are flexible graduates who can add value when necessary but can also help transform the organisation in the face of change.”¹⁴⁸ But at the same time, this means that employers will be from now on more demanding than they are today. Coyne gave an interesting explanation of this growing demand from a future perspective:

If one third of the population has a degree, then it is not a rare qualification. It no longer marks you as part of the elite, as it did – say – in 1970, when the 50569 graduates in Germany represented only 3.7 percent of school leavers. In 2020 a third of each age-cohort at least will have a degree. A first degree will thus be the equivalent of a good vocational qualification today, something that one of your neighbour’s children has, almost wherever you live.¹⁴⁹

According to the same author, the fact that a university degree will have the same status as the college degree has nowadays, that is to say, a lot of people will have it, means that the employers will change their tactics of recruitment. If before they mainly paid attention if someone has a degree or not, it is very probably that in the future they will mainly take into account where someone got it and the prestige of this higher education institution. Of course, it happens nowadays as well, although not at a maximum extent, as it is highlighted by the findings of the European Working Conditions Observatory and *Employers’ expectations regarding recent graduates*: “The majority of the interviewees confirmed that the prestige and reputation of the higher education institution was taken into account during the selection process. While in general it is not a deciding factor in the selection process, it may play a role when there are several applicants with similar qualifications and skills to choose from.”¹⁵⁰ In the next decades that will undoubtedly increase the existing hierarchies and the pressure for specialization of the universities. We already have many

¹⁴⁸ OECD, “Tendencias del Mercado laboral de graduados de la educación superior en algunos países de la OECD,” accessed June 13, 2011,

http://mt.educarchile.cl/MT/jjbrunner/archives/libros/Tendencias/tendencias_mercado_laboral_pdf.htm

¹⁴⁹ Coyne, “Beyond 2010: European higher education and employment in the next decade,” 125.

¹⁵⁰ European Observatory of Working Life, “Employers’ expectations regarding recent graduates,” April 8, 2009, accessed June 13, 2011, <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/2008/11/HU0811019I.htm>.

institutions whose courses have been designed to address specific needs of the given society, others have specialized in issues which concern their regions, there is also a number of institutions that have developed clustered of specializations that have been naturally selected over time. This tendency is expected to grow as the universities become more and more competitive over time. Apart from the choice of the university, the students will have to be really careful with their choice of disciplines. What happens today is that the growing popularity of studies of business and law increases the number of students, consequently the number of specialists also rises and as a result, more sub-divisions of the discipline are likely to happen in the coming years, making students' choice even more difficult and the support of counselling services more important.

If we think about the future of higher education from the perspective of the governments and the challenges they will have to face in 2020, we may distinguish the dominant issue that will consist of getting the necessary skills for a competitive economy which implies getting as many people into the labour market as possible. According to Coyne "This is mainly about funding: it matters that there are the public funds necessary to help non-traditional learners into the university system, because if there are not, they probably will not come".¹⁵¹ Indeed, direct public funding continues to represent a substantial share of the higher education budget, nevertheless autonomy in terms of financial management is a key aspect of current trends in higher education. The challenge is to encourage institutions to develop strategic policies aimed at meeting their own objectives as well as national priorities in the area of higher education.

Another challenge that can grow in importance by 2020 consists in the disciplines that people choose and the fact that they may not always coincide with the needs of that particular society. In their implications for academic freedom and the quality of education, governments left this leading role to the market, when they should be particularly careful with this topic. We all know that the development of the European countries depends on a great extent on the qualified specialists that would be trained in specific fields necessary for country's development. But it frequently happens, especially in Eastern European countries, that the labour market just cannot absorb the large number of unemployed youths that are trained not in the specific

¹⁵¹ Coyne, "Beyond 2010: European higher education and employment in the next decade," 128.

spheres that the governments may need, but have these very popular degrees that unfortunately are not always profitable.

It doesn't mean, though, that everything should be controlled by the governments reducing the freedom of the universities to make their own decisions, in the end it is them who can make better choices about what is beneficial and useful for them and their students. But it is in governments' power to enable public authorities to offer services that their citizens want and that are needed to that specific country. Economies cannot do without graduates and the governments therefore need to have well-established strategies for producing highly skilled specialists. Of course, some of these changes will continue to be a matter of debate and others will hopefully be ameliorated by 2020.

Conclusion

Given that the main goal of this study is to provide an analysis of different organization models, it seemed appropriate to start by presenting a review of the history of internationalization and its evolution. This chapter has attempted to shed light on the main historical events ranging from the Middle Ages to the 21st century, with a particular emphasis on Europe and the major changes that occurred since the mid-80. Internationalization was examined not only in terms of its historical evolution, but also in terms of its present situation, of its core values, of its place in the new 'geopolitics' and of its challenges for the future. In the light of the provisional findings of this review, it may be concluded that the internationalization of higher education has passed through various stages in the course of its evolution and each of these stages shaped its principal functions and core values.

To simplify the findings, three broad historical types of internationalization emerged from the analysis in this chapter: the classical internationalization that evolved in the nineteenth century; the modern or mass internationalization that developed in the twentieth century and reached its peak between the 1960s and the 1980s; and the entrepreneurial internationalization that is emerging in the early years of the twenty-first century.¹⁵² These three types are not mutually exclusive; in fact,

¹⁵² This classification is inspired by three historical types of university: classical, modern and entrepreneurial as categorised by Peter Scott, "The university as a global institution," in *Handbook on Globalization and Higher Education*, eds. Roger King, Simon Marginson and Rajani Naidoo (Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, 2011), 59-75.

they are mutually constitutive. The modern or mass internationalization included many of distinctive aspects of classical internationalization and the entrepreneurial internationalization incorporated many of the components from both its predecessors.

The discussion in this chapter suggests that the classical internationalization was rather incidental and unorganized. It was characterized by the individual mobility of students and scholars to the leading educational centres in the world, who then carried their newly acquired knowledge and inspiration back to their home countries. It was also marked by the export of the academic systems from the European colonial powers to their colonies, which had a great impact on their political, economic and social development. As far as research is concerned, it was still relatively unsystematic and primarily driven by individuals' curiosity and interest.

The modern or mass internationalization inherited many of these elements, however, the incidental practices of the previous stage became more structured and organized. A wide range of international activities, projects and programs emerged as a result of the increasing interest in international collaborations. The cooperation with developing countries and a stronger emphasis on mutual understanding and peace building were important pillars in international discussions. Numerous cultural, scientific and research agreements between countries and the establishment of national and international agencies were clear examples of a more organized and consistent approach to internationalization.

The entrepreneurial internationalization has incorporated a new shift towards a more strategic organization of international programs. The move from aid to trade, the rise of the knowledge economy and the development of a more competitive, commercially driven higher education sector, has highlighted the need of a more entrepreneurial approach towards international activities. The development of European frameworks for international cooperation, the substantial growth of transnational networks and the inclusion of internationalization in the mission, goals and strategic plans of institutions are all evidence a more strategically focused organization of internationalization. The same is true for international research collaborations, which are increasingly driven by revenue generation and less and less by social improvement.

The need for an organized response by higher education to these external trends, led to the development of new internationalization strategies that were based on a more comprehensive understanding of the meanings, approaches and rationales for the internationalization of higher education. In the next chapter, these and other important dimensions of internationalization are analysed.

2. Internationalization of Higher Education: Conceptual Framework

The fundamental concept in social science is Power, in the same sense in which Energy is the fundamental concept in physics.

—Bertrand Russell

Introduction

Over the last three decades, the international dimension of higher education in Europe has undergone significant changes and has acquired a prominent place on the agenda of higher education institutions, national governments and international organizations. In this process, practical applications and conceptual understandings of internationalization have evolved over time as well. New concepts were added to its multifaceted body, moving from an ad hoc approach to a high degree of systematic internationalization strategy. Nevertheless, these changes have not developed in similar ways in higher education throughout Europe and the world as a whole. Internationalization has always been shaped by the specific and unique internal context of the university, its political, economic and cultural identity, therefore it is usually embodied and understood differently even among different universities in a small region. The growing importance of internationalization of higher education on the one hand and the diversity in approaches, rationales and strategies of internationalization practices on the other hand, call for a deeper exploration of these elements.

Following the description of the historical development of the internationalization policy in the previous chapter, this chapter presents a conceptual framework for internationalization designed to facilitate the analysis of the above-mentioned elements, which constitute a cornerstone of any institutional internationalization strategy. It will provide the basis for the further development of the understanding of the organization models for the internationalization of higher education presented in the next chapter. This chapter consists of three parts. First, it gives an overview of the debate on the meaning and definition of internationalization, it singles out a working definition for the purpose of this thesis and discusses different approaches to internationalization of higher education. Second, it presents the evolution of internationalization and some of its important trends, such as the growing

concern for quality assurance, commodification and commercialization of the internationalization of higher education and cultural diversity issue. At last, it discusses institutional strategies for the internationalization of higher education and their changing rationales.

2.1 Meanings and Approaches to the Internationalization of Higher Education

Internationalization has become a hallmark of the EHEA and now stands at the core of many institutional strategies, values and objectives. The international aspect of higher education is becoming increasingly important and, at the same time, more and more complex. This complexity is also observed in the diversity in interpreting the key concepts and elements that constitute the internationalization process. The purpose of this section is to examine the concept of internationalization, its evolution and main characteristics.

Kehm & de Wit point out that it is impossible to look at the concept of internationalization without considering the realities of the environment in which higher education is operating.¹⁵³ Globalization is perhaps the most pervasive and powerful feature of the changing environment.¹⁵⁴ Higher education is increasingly influenced by globalization but is also becoming a more dynamic actor in the global knowledge economy.¹⁵⁵ Ulrich Teichler,¹⁵⁶ Peter Scott,¹⁵⁷ Philip Altbach,¹⁵⁸ Hans de Wit,¹⁵⁹ Jane Knight,¹⁶⁰ Felix Maringe & Nick Fosskett,¹⁶¹ Uwe Brandenburg & Hans

¹⁵³ Barbara M. Kehm and Hans de Wit, eds., *Internationalisation in Higher Education: European responses to the global perspective* (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 2006).

¹⁵⁴ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 4.

¹⁵⁵ Hans de Wit and Tony Adams, "Global competition in higher education: A comparative study of policies, rationales and practices in Australia and Europe," in *Trends and challenges in internationalisation of higher education*, ed. Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: Centre for Applied Research on Economics & Management, 2011), 29.

¹⁵⁶ Ulrich Teichler, "The changing debate on Internationalisation of Higher Education," *Higher Education* 48, no.1 (2004);

¹⁵⁷ Peter Scott, "The global dimension: Internationalising higher education," in *Internationalisation in Higher Education: European Responses to the Global Perspective*, eds. Barbara Kehm and Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 2005).

¹⁵⁸ Philip G. Altbach, "Globalization and the university: Realities in an unequal world," in *International handbook of higher education*, ed. Philip G. Altbach and James Forest (Dordrecht: Springer Academic Publishers, 2006), 120-140.

¹⁵⁹ Hans de Wit, "The Internationalization of Higher Education in a Global Context," in *The Dynamics of International Student Circulation in a Global Context*, ed. Hans de Wit et. al. (Rotterdam: Sense Publishers, 2008), 1-14.

¹⁶⁰ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*.

de Wit¹⁶² and others explored the complex relationship between globalization and internationalization in higher education. These two concepts are two sides of the same coin, yet are not synonymous with each other, although they share many common characteristics.¹⁶³ Globalization is usually seen as a wide external force influencing higher education institutions and thought of as “the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communications technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network (...) and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions”.¹⁶⁴ It is defined as “the flow of people, culture, ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economy across borders resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world”.¹⁶⁵ In contrast, internationalization is viewed as a set of internal changes made in response to the globalized environment and described as “the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization”.¹⁶⁶

The concept of the internationalization developed primarily in the last thirty years and has gradually moved from the periphery to the centre of higher education debates. Many higher education scholars contributed to the debate on the definition of internationalization.¹⁶⁷ However, literature study shows that two of the most exhaustive analyses of the phenomenon (and its definitions) are provided by Knight¹⁶⁸

¹⁶¹ Felix Maringe and Nick Fosskett, *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education: Theoretical, Strategic and Management Perspectives* (London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2010).

¹⁶² Uwe Brandenburg and Hans de Wit, “The end of Internationalization,” in *Trends and challenges in internationalisation of higher education*, ed. Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: Centre for Applied Research on Economics & Management, 2011), 27-28.

¹⁶³ Maringe and Fosskett, *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education*, 1.

¹⁶⁴ Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education*, 7.

¹⁶⁵ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 4.

¹⁶⁶ Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education*, 7.

¹⁶⁷ Among these scholars are: Harari, *Internationalization of Higher Education*; Arum and van de Water, “The need for a Definition of International Education in U.S Universities”; Jane Knight, “Internationalization: Management strategies and issues,” *International Education Magazine* 9, no. 1 (1993): 21-22; Jane Knight, “Updating the definition of internationalization,” *International Higher Education* 33 (2003): 2-3; Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*; Kerr, *Higher Education Cannot Escape History*; Jane Knight and Hans de Wit, *Internationalization of higher education in Asia Pacific countries* (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1997); Marijk C. van der Wende, “Missing Links: The relationship between National Policies for internationalization and those for higher education in general,” in *National Policies for the Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe*, eds. Torsten Kalvermark and Marijk van der Wende (Stockholm: Hogskoleverket Studies, National Agency for Higher Education, 1997): 10-41; de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*; Maringe and Fosskett, *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education*.

¹⁶⁸ Knight, “Internationalization Remodeled”; Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*.

and de Wit.¹⁶⁹ Our study will mainly take into account the works of these two authors in order to provide a coherent systematization of term's key elements and features.

Jane Knight, in her detailed analysis on the evolution of the term internationalization, states that it has been used for centuries in political, social and government circuits, however, its popularity in the education sector has increased only since the early eighties. Prior to that time, international education and international cooperation were the favoured terms.¹⁷⁰ Activities that could be described as internationalization were usually neither named that way, nor carried high prestige, and were rather isolated and unrelated.¹⁷¹ According to Knight, in the nineties, the discussion centered on differentiating the term international education from comparative education, global education and multicultural education.¹⁷² Since then, the picture of internationalization has evolved significantly. The changing dynamics in the internationalization of higher education are reflected both in the meanings of internationalization and in the diversity of related terms. In the 21st century new terms emerged like transnational education, borderless education, offshore education and crossborder education, as well as transnationalization, multinationalization and regionalization.¹⁷³ It is interesting to see the evolution of the terminology used to describe the international dimension of higher education over the past 50 years. Table 5 demonstrates how vocabulary reflects the priorities and phases of each period. It also highlights the expansion of internationalization programs and strategies. If 50 years ago internationalization in Europe had mainly a Eurocentric orientation, it gradually became more globally integrated, with better information flow and collaboration across borders.

Table 5. *Evolution of main international education terminology*

Generic Terms			
Last 10 years (2002-2012)	Last 20 years (1992-2012)	Last 30 years (1982-2012)	Last 50 years (1962-2012)
Regionalization Planetization Glocalization Global citizenship	Globalization Borderless education Cross-border education Transnational	Internationalization Multicultural education Intercultural education Global education	International education International development cooperation

¹⁶⁹ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*.

¹⁷⁰ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 19.

¹⁷¹ Brandenburg and de Wit, "The end of Internationalization," 27.

¹⁷² Knight, *Internationalization: Key Concepts and Elements*, 4.

¹⁷³ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 19.

Knowledge enterprise Green internationalization Global rankings	education Virtual education Internationalization 'abroad' Internationalization 'at home'	Distance education Offshore or overseas education	Comparative education Correspondence education
Specific Elements			
Last 10 years	Last 20 years	Last 30 years	Last 50 years
Regional education hubs International competencies Degree mills Visa factories Joint, double, combined degrees Branding, status-building	Education providers Corporate universities Liberalization of educational services Networks Virtual universities Branch campuses Twinning and franchise programs	International students Study abroad Institution agreements Partnership projects Area studies Bi-national cooperation	Foreign students Student exchange Development projects Cultural agreements Language study

Source: Knight¹⁷⁴

Who would have guessed in the 1960s, notes Knight,¹⁷⁵ when the emphasis was on scholarships for foreign students, international development projects, and area studies, that today we would be discussing branding, cross-border education, global citizenship, franchising, and education visa factories? This is, therefore, a multifaceted concept that can be approached from different angles, as highlighted in numerous scientific studies that have examined this topic.¹⁷⁶ As the president of the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) rightly pointed out at the *European Quality Assurance Forum* in 2013 “international education as a concept has gradually changed from specific fields and support programmes stimulating student and staff mobility, exchange and scholarships to curriculum development, joint degree programmes, international classrooms, in short to education in an international context, on global issues and challenges, and preparing for changing job markets”.¹⁷⁷ These concepts are likely to remain important features of the educational landscape. Indeed, pressures of globalization drive higher education institution towards new

¹⁷⁴ Jane Knight, “Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education,” in *The SAGE Handbook of International Higher Education*, eds. Darla K. Deardorff, Hans de Wit, John D. Heyl and Tony Adams (London: SAGE, 2012), 29.

¹⁷⁵ Ibid., 28.

¹⁷⁶ Eva Andrés Aucejo, “Internacionalización y Europeización de la Educación Superior en Derecho: campus universitarios internacionales y programas transfronterizos de educación superior,” *Revista de Educación y Derecho suppl. Internacionalización y europeización de la Educación* 2 (2010): 3 (translated by the author).

¹⁷⁷ Sijbolt Noorda, “International & Quality a happy couple?” EUA, European Assurance Quality Forum, 2013, 5, accessed April 21, 2013, http://eua.be/Libraries/eqaf-2013/Pl3_Noorda_1.pdf?sfvrsn=0

directions and trends. It is important, however, to ensure that these trends are built on sound ethical considerations and that core social functions of the university are not left behind.

Another outstanding contribution to the research of the phenomenon of internationalization and its definitions was provided by de Wit.¹⁷⁸ In his analysis of *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of the America and Europe*, he mentions that although the terms ‘international education’ and ‘internationalization’ are used interchangeably, there is an important difference between them. The term international education is used more in relation to activity, competency, rationale, and ethos approaches, than to process approaches to internationalization. Moreover, historically, American authors tend to use the term international education more frequently, while the internationalization of higher education is used more in the non-American literature.¹⁷⁹ However, the author does not approve the usage of the word internationalism as an alternative for the two other terms, as for instance in the title of an article by Burn¹⁸⁰ saying that it is confusing and unclear, because internationalism is identified more with ideological than conceptual meanings.¹⁸¹ In his publication on *Internationalism and national identity in Eastern Europe*, Abádi-Nagy gives an interesting critique on the use of internationalism, explaining that: “For eastern Europeans, ‘internationalism’ can stir unpleasant memories”.¹⁸²

The term internationalization itself is ambiguous. Many authors agree that there is no unanimously agreed definition on internationalization among experts.¹⁸³ Knight perceptively states, “because it means different things to different people, it appears in

¹⁷⁸ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*.

¹⁷⁹ Ibid., 104.

¹⁸⁰ Barbara Burn, Strengthening Internationalism in U.S. Higher Education. *International Higher Education* 4 (1996): 19.

¹⁸¹ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 111.

¹⁸² Zoltan Abadi-Nagy. “Internationalism and National Identity in Eastern Europe,” *International Educator* 8, no. 1 (1999): 10-11, quoted in Hans de Wit, *A Historical, Comparative and Conceptual Analysis* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 2002), 111.

¹⁸³ Among them: Sven Groennings, *Economic Competitiveness and International Knowledge* (Boston: New England Board of Higher Education, 1987); Ulrich Teichler, “Research on academic mobility and international Co-operation in Higher Education: An agenda for the future,” in *Academic mobility in a changing world: regional and global trends*, eds. Peggy Blumenthal, Craufurd Goodwin, Alan Smith and Ulrich Teichler (London: Jessica Kingsley, 1996); Joseph A. Mestenhauser, “International Education on the Verge,” *International Spectator* 7 (1998): 68-76; Fred Halliday, “The Chimera of the International University,” *International Affairs* 75 (1999): 99-120; de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*.

the literature in a variety of ways”.¹⁸⁴ While one can easily understand this happening, as internationalization is used to describe a vast array of issues, strategies, and new developments around the world, it is not helpful for internationalization to become a catch-all-concept for anything that is related to the international dimension of higher education.¹⁸⁵ De Wit stated that “as the international dimension of higher education gains more attention and recognition, people tend to use it in the way that best suits their purpose”.¹⁸⁶ This is especially relevant now that there is a rapid growth of activities and terms.

This diversity in the conceptualisation of internationalization has also been reaffirmed by the findings of the global survey of internationalization in universities across the world.¹⁸⁷ When the senior university staff were asked to indicate the order of importance attached to traditional internationalization conceptualisations in their universities, a broad spectrum of responses was observed (see table 6). Senior staff at Anglophone universities draw a parallel between internationalization and the notion of trade in talent, in the form of increased international staff and student recruitment. The other two areas of significant importance in Anglophone universities are the establishment of international research collaborations and attaining high positions in international league tables. In contrast, universities in the Arab world and among the Confucian countries closely associate internationalization with the issue of cultural development integration. Indeed, for Anglophone universities, internationalization increasingly means adding value to the league table status of the institutions. However, in many non-western universities, while they are of much importance, league tables are not a rallying point for discussion.¹⁸⁸

¹⁸⁴ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 1.

¹⁸⁵ Knight, “Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education,” 28; de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 114.

¹⁸⁶ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 114.

¹⁸⁷ Felix Maringe, Nick Foskett and Steve Woodfield, “Emerging internationalisation models in an uneven global terrain: findings from a global survey,” *Compare: a journal of comparative and international education*, 43, no. 1 (2013): 9-36.

¹⁸⁸ *Ibid.*, 28-29.

Table 6. *Dominant internationalisation conceptualisations in universities*

View of internationalisation as	Anglophone (N. America, Canada, Aus/NZ, EU and UK) (%)	Latin America (Brazil, Argentina, Chile and Mexico) (%)	Confucian (China, Japan, Singapore and Malaysia) (%)	Arabic (Egypt, Kuwait, Pakistan and Turkey) (%)	Sub-Saharan Africa (Zimbabwe, South Africa, Botswana and Mozambique) (%)
Increasing numbers of international students	90	60	60	30	50
Recruiting more international staff	85	60	65	75	70
Developing international curriculum	65	90	80	80	100
Student exchange programmes	80	60	60	50	50
International research collaborations	100	50	80	60	50
Achieving league table status	90	60	60	40	50
Cultural exchange programmes	65	65	90	85	50
Staff development for internationalisation	30	20	50	60	50
Staff exchange programmes	50	40	65	70	50

Source: Maringe, Foskett and Woodfield¹⁸⁹

De Wit rightly points out “even if there is no agreement on the precise definition, internationalization needs to have parameters if it is to be assessed and to advance higher education. This is why the use of a working definition in combination with a conceptual framework for internationalization of higher education is relevant”.¹⁹⁰ In an attempt to identify such parameters we examine the definitions of internationalization in relation to the approaches taken to this process.

A review of the literature on internationalization of higher education reveals that several prominent authors have generally used similar approaches to internationalization. An approach¹⁹¹ to internationalization “reflects or characterizes the values, priorities, and actions that are exhibited during the work toward

¹⁸⁹ Ibid., 27.

¹⁹⁰ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 114.

¹⁹¹ In this chapter, the terms ‘approach’ and ‘perspective’ are used interchangeably.

implementing internationalization.”¹⁹² These approaches can be classified in four groups, which are not mutually exclusive, yet each approach has its own key characteristics. Table 7 shows a classification of the definitions of internationalization proposed in the literature, according to four perspectives established by Knight: activity, competency, ethos and process.¹⁹³ A brief description of each approach follows.

Table 7. *Perspectives of internationalization in the context of higher education institutions*

1. The activity perspective	
It focuses on higher education activities that promote an intercultural dimension, including the presence of international students, curriculum and student/faculty exchange.	Harari (1992) Klasek (1992) Arum and Van de Water (1992) Mastenhauser (1998) Green and Olson (2003) Javalgi et al. (2003) Powell (2004) Green and Shoenberg (2006)
2. Competency perspective	
It emphasizes the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values that are important for one to compete in the global marketplace.	Soderqvist (2002) Van der Wende (2007) Ayoubi and Masoud (2007) McGowan & Potter (2008) Elkin et al. (2008) Lipsett (2009)
3. Ethos perspective	
It emphasizes creating a culture or climate that values and supports intercultural/international perspectives and initiatives.	Pickert and Turlington (1992) Hanson and Meyerson (1995)
4. Process perspective	
It stresses the integration of an international and intercultural dimension into teaching, research, and service through a combination of activities, policies and procedures.	Knight (1994) Schoorman (1999) De Wit (2002) Olson et al. (2001)

Source: Delgado-Márquez, Hurtado-Torres and Bondar¹⁹⁴

The *activity approach* focuses only on academic activities and does not include any of the organizational issues needed to initiate, develop and sustain the activities. This approach is most widely used in the description of internationalization.¹⁹⁵ However, by looking at the international dimension as a series of activities, they are prone to be considered as distinct programs in terms of their operation. This leads to a

¹⁹² Knight, “Internationalization Remodeled,” 18.

¹⁹³ Knight, “Internationalization of Higher Education: A Conceptual Framework.”

¹⁹⁴ Blanca L. Delgado-Márquez, Nuria Esther Hurtado-Torres and Yaroslava Bondar, “Internationalization of Higher Education: Theoretical and Empirical Investigation of Its Influence on University Institution Rankings,” *Revista de Universidad y Sociedad del Conocimiento* 8, no. 2 (2011): 270.

¹⁹⁵ Knight, “Internationalization of Higher Education: A Conceptual Framework.”

fragmented and uncoordinated approach to internationalization, whereby the relationship, impact and benefits between and among the activities are not taken into account.¹⁹⁶ The definition proposed by Arum and van de Water could be included in this category. They describe internationalization as “the multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation”.¹⁹⁷

The *competence approach* describes internationalization in terms of developing the appropriate competences in the students, staff and faculty. The focus is clearly on the human dimension, not on academic activities, or organizational issues. According to de Wit,¹⁹⁸ studies such as Oppen, Teichler, and Carlson¹⁹⁹ and Maiworm, Steube, and Teichler²⁰⁰ on learning competence, Maiworm and Teichler²⁰¹ and Bremer²⁰² on career competences, Yershova, DeJaeghere, and Mastenhauser²⁰³ on intercultural competences, and D. Wilson²⁰⁴ on international competences fall under this category. The definition proposed by van der Wende is a good example of this approach that suggests that internationalization is “any systemic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy and labor markets”.²⁰⁵

The *ethos approach* focuses on developing a culture in the university that values and supports intercultural and international perspectives and initiatives.²⁰⁶ This approach relates more to organizational development theories that focus on the creation of a culture or climate within an organization to support particular principles

¹⁹⁶ Zha Qiang, “Internationalization of higher education: Towards a conceptual framework,” *Policy Future in Education* 1, no. 2 (2003): 248-270.

¹⁹⁷ Arum and van de Water, “The need for a Definition of international education in U.S. Universities,” 202.

¹⁹⁸ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*.

¹⁹⁹ Susan Oppen, Ulrich Teichler and Jarry Carlson, “Impacts of study abroad programmes on students and graduates,” Vol 2, *Higher Education Policy Series* 11 (London: Jessica Kingsley, 1990).

²⁰⁰ Friedhelm Maiworm, Wolfgang Steube and Ulrich Teichler, *Learning in Europe: The ERASMUS Experience, a survey of the 1988-89 ERASMUS Students*, Higher Education Policy Series 14. (London: Jessica Kingsley, 1991).

²⁰¹ Friedhelm Maiworm and Ulrich Teichler, *Study abroad and early career: Experiences of former ERASMUS Students*, Higher Education Policy Series 35 (London: Jessica Kingsley, 1996).

²⁰² Liduine Bremer, “The value of International study experience on the labour market: The case of Hungary,” *Journal of Studies in International education* 2, no. 1 (1998): 39-58.

²⁰³ Yelena Yershova, John DeJaeghere and Josef Mestenhauser, “Thinking Not as Usual: Adding the Intercultural Perspective,” *Journal of Studies in International Education* 4, no. 1 (2000): 39-78.

²⁰⁴ David Wilson, *Defining International Competencies for the New Millennium*, Research Monograph no. 12 (Ottawa: Canadian Bureau for International Education, 1998).

²⁰⁵ van der Wende, “Missing Links,” 18.

²⁰⁶ Jane Knight and Hans de Wit, eds., *Quality and internationalization in higher education*. (Paris: OECD, 1999).

and goals.²⁰⁷ It underlies that without a university culture that promotes the international dimension of an institution, internationalization will not grow to its full potential.

The *process approach* views internationalization as a process that integrates an international dimension or perspective into the major functions of the institution. A wide range of academic activities, organization policies and strategies are part of this process.²⁰⁸ De Wit²⁰⁹ mentions that studies in his area include comparative studies on internationalization strategies of institutions of higher education,²¹⁰ on national policies,²¹¹ on the link between globalization and internationalization,²¹² and on quality assurance and internationalization²¹³. Therefore, the emphasis is placed on program aspects as well as organizational elements such as policies and procedures.²¹⁴

It is important to acknowledge that individual countries, education systems and even institutions within one particular region may face different challenges regarding internationalization of higher education. Even though they are exposed to the same external influences, the manner in which they address the implementation of internationalization is very different because of priorities, culture, history, politics, and resources. Approaches change during different periods of development. In many cases, institutions may believe they are using different approaches at the same time, or they believe that they are in a transition period from one approach to another. There is no right approach.²¹⁵

To analyse the systematization of internationalization in higher education institutions we will refer to process approach that will help us to see internationalization from the perspective of its policies and procedures. Our study will also provide the basis to view internationalization through a new prism, the prism of a systematization approach. For our research we have chosen the broadly-based

²⁰⁷ Qiang, "Internationalization of higher education."

²⁰⁸ Knight and de Wit, eds., *Quality and internationalization in higher education*.

²⁰⁹ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*.

²¹⁰ Knight and de Wit, "Strategies for internationalization of higher education"; Kenneth Back, Dorothy Davis and Alan Olsen, *Internationalization and Higher Education: Goals and Strategies* (Canberra: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, 1995).

²¹¹ Torsten Kalvermark and Marijk van der Wende, *National Policies for the Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe* (Stockholm: Hogskoleverket Studies, National Agency for Higher Education, 1997).

²¹² Scott, "Massification, internationalisation and globalisation."

²¹³ Knight and de Wit, *Quality and Internationalization in Higher Education*.

²¹⁴ Qiang, "Internationalization of higher education."

²¹⁵ Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled."

definition for internationalization provided by Knight that adopts a process view of internationalization: “Internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education”.²¹⁶ Although this definition is widely used in the literature, it caused different reactions from various scholars. On the one hand, its breadth and impreciseness may prompt scepticism among some academics. They argue that “the process of internationalization should be described in terms of promoting cooperation and solidarity among nation, improving quality and relevance of higher education or contributing to the advancement of research for international issues”.²¹⁷ On the other hand, others see the ambiguous nature of this definition as an asset and consider that these wider goals are deliberately left out of the definition in order to give it a more workable and wide meaning. Knight confirms this by mentioning that “a definition needs to be objective enough that it can be used to describe a phenomenon which is, in fact, universal but which has different purposes and outcomes, depending on the actor or stakeholder and the national and institutional context”.²¹⁸

Internationalization is a key factor to success for universities today and a motivating force for competition and cooperation among countries. It is a powerful agent of change capable of strengthening the bonds between institutions, countries and cultures. As more serious attention is given to internationalization, the need to be clear about its key concepts and elements becomes more relevant. The conceptual precision has to go hand in hand with the continuous evolution of institutional internationalization rationales, strategies and trends.

2.2 Evolution and Trends of Internationalization

The last 15 years have been a period of rapid change for European higher education as the continent seeks to reassert its value and influence in a planet whose upheavals and turbulences move faster than its tectonic plates. Understanding these changes is not an easy task to accomplish due to scope and complexity of these trends, let alone imagine with any kind of certainty what tomorrow’s world will hold for future generations. “One can, without risk of exaggeration, speak of an academic

²¹⁶ Ibid., 11.

²¹⁷ Knight, “Internationalization: Key Concepts and Elements,” 7.

²¹⁸ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 21.

"revolution" - a series of transformations that have affected most aspects of postsecondary education worldwide.”²¹⁹ However, it is possible to distinguish some of the major priorities and thematic issues in the internationalization of higher education in Europe. The aim of this section is to place the concepts mentioned earlier, in their broader context and highlight among numerous developments and changes, three clear trends, which are: (1) growing concern for quality assurance, (2) commodification and commercialization of the internationalization of higher education and (3) cultural diversity issue.

2.2.1 Quality Assurance and Internationalization of Higher Education

Quality and internationalization are closely related issues, they are a common pair with a positive, almost magic connection between them. It is widely believed that the more international a university is – in terms of students, faculty, research, curriculum – the better its reputation. Is it really that simple? In her article, *Five myths about internationalization*, Knight explains how this belief is tied to the false notion that a strong international reputation is a proxy for quality: “Cases of questionable admission and exit standards for universities highly dependent on the revenue and “brand equity” of international students are concrete evidence that internationalization does not always translate into quality or high standards”.²²⁰ Van der Wende points out that:

Statements concerning internationalisation and quality usually assume that international co-operation and student, faculty or research exchanges add to the critical mass, allow for mutual learning, for a comparison and synthesis of best approaches and practices, for cross-cultural understanding, and for foreign language acquisition, etc. International co-operation and exchange are expected to contribute to the quality of processes and outcomes at the individual, project, institutional, and even the system levels. These are, however just assumptions.²²¹

De Wit makes clear that “quality relates to internationalization in the way in which internationalization contributes to the improvement of the quality of higher education, and in the way one assesses and enhances or maintains the quality of

²¹⁹ Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education*, 1.

²²⁰ Knight, “Five myths about internationalization,” *International Higher Education* 62 (2011): 14.

²²¹ Marijk van der Wende, “Quality Assurance of Internationalization and Internationalization of Quality Assurance,” in *Quality and internationalization in higher education*, eds., Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (Paris: OECD, 1999), 225.

internationalization activities and strategies”.²²² Indeed, emphasising quality as an important goal of internationalization without regularly monitoring and evaluating its impact is paradoxical and counterproductive.

Quality assurance in general terms refers to the policies, attitudes, actions, and procedures necessary to ensure that quality is being maintained and enhanced.²²³ It is not a new concept, “by the 1998 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education, quality assurance was already a concern of nearly all nations, most of which had implemented schemes to evaluate the quality of institutions and programs in higher education”.²²⁴ Nevertheless, evaluating the quality of internationalization has gained increasing importance in recent years.²²⁵ Globalization, regional integration, and the ever-increasing mobility of students and scholars have made the need for internationally recognized standards among and between nations more urgent, while the explosive growth of both traditional institutions and new providers raises new questions in regard to standards of quality.²²⁶ The increase in the number of fake degrees and accreditations, academic credentials that are earned but not recognized, and nonregulated “fly by night” institutions are realities that students, parents, employers, and the academic community now need to be aware of.²²⁷ Much more attention is paid to quality assurance than a decade ago, but there is still a long way to go to achieve quality assurance harmonization in Europe and there are some important issues that have to be addressed.

First of all, there is a growing preoccupation with quality in higher education that is linked to the call for accountability by national governments, the corporate world, and students. According to de Wit, this has become more evident as a result of the changing nature of the relationship between these three groups, which represent the main sources of funding for higher education and, thus, have a vested interest in the products of higher education. He writes: “Sources of income for institutions are becoming more diversified and as the relationship between institutions of higher

²²² de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 153.

²²³ David Woodhouse, “Quality and Quality Assurance,” in *Quality and internationalization in higher education*, eds., Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (Paris: OECD, 1999), 30.

²²⁴ Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education*, 51.

²²⁵ Eva Egron-Polak, Ross Hudson and Jocelyne Gacel-Avila, *Internationalization of Higher Education: Global Trends, Regional Perspectives. IAU 3rd Global Survey Report* (Paris: International Association of Universities, 2010).

²²⁶ Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education*, xi.

²²⁷ Knight, “Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education,” 39.

education and their governments becomes more distant, the contributions of the corporate world and students become relatively higher, and with that their demands for quality insurance increase”.²²⁸ In this shifting of roles, it is important to ensure that the university fulfils its mission and core values while demonstrating accountability to all constituents. As de la Cruz perceptively states: “We should not allow the development of its mission to become entangled in a loop in which its ethical responsibility towards society would be definitely diluted”.²²⁹

This leads us to consider another preoccupation with quality in higher education that is linked to the desire to optimize income and the need to maintain standards. According to Taylor, a temptation may arise for the university facing financial difficulties in delivery to accept a marginal student, and there are often suspicions that normal requirements have been eased in such circumstances. On the other hand, notes the author, a reputation for quality is essential for the long-term successful pursuit of internationalization; once a reputation has been tarnished, it is very difficult to restore it.²³⁰ There is no doubt that “the perpetual challenge of balancing cost, quality, and access significantly impacts the benefits and risks of cross-border education”.²³¹ This balance is not easily achieved in a highly competitive environment, yet it is extremely important for a sustainable internationalization policy.

Further issues relating to quality occur in the awarding of double and joint degrees. Although in most cases these are undoubtedly high quality programs that are designed to improve students’ academic preparation and deepen their intercultural exchange, sometimes, double degrees can be nothing more than double counting one set of course credits. As Knight points out, “while it may be very attractive for students to have two degrees from institutions in two different countries, the situation can be described as academic fraud if course requirements for two full degrees are not completed or differentiated learning outcomes not achieved.”²³² Therefore, it is

²²⁸ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 153.

²²⁹ Cristina de la Cruz Ayuso, “La responsabilidad de la Universidad en la sociedad que la acoge: ¿complementariedad o antagonismo?” in *Responsabilidad Social Universitaria*, eds. Marta de la Cuesta Gonzáles, Cristina de la Cruz Ayuso and José Miguel Rodríguez Fernández (La Coruña: NetBiblo, 2010), 44 (translated by the author).

²³⁰ John Taylor, “The management of internationalization in higher education,” in *Globalization and internationalization in higher education: Theoretical, strategic and management perspectives*, eds. Felix Maringe and Nick Foskett (London: Continuum International Publishing Group), 105.

²³¹ Knight, “Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education,” 39.

²³² *Ibid.*, 40.

important to follow recognition protocols in order to avoid quality assurance related problems.

Mutual recognition among European higher education institutions is another area of concern when it comes to the recognition of qualifications. There is an assumption that students could be much more mobile if they could easily carry their credentials - formulated in a language easily assessable to all higher education institutions in signatory countries - with them on their academic journey across the EHEA.²³³ As the European Students' Union has rightly pointed out, "fears of recognition difficulties, generated particularly by institutional protectionism and the lack of proper implementation of recognition tools, are also a severe deterrent to the increase in mobility numbers."²³⁴ Moreover, as Catá Backer notes in his study on internationalizing the American law school: "The descriptive materials ... remind students of the potential difficulties of job searching while abroad during the heart of the traditional domestic job search season".²³⁵ There is certainly room for improvement in this area and we believe that if institutions started with the improvement of their internal quality assurance procedures, it could lead to positive outcomes. When institutions have their own internal quality assurance procedures in place attaining quality in the local (and international) portion of the program is fairly straightforward.²³⁶

These and other trends increased the popularity of rankings and the concept of "world-class universities". As Altbach points out, rankings are an inevitable result of mass higher education and of competition and commercialization in postsecondary education and have become a high-stakes enterprise that have implications for academe worldwide.²³⁷ This is of course a positive sign that rankings encourage the institutions to compete for students and stuff and distinguish themselves based on who

²³³ Jeroen Huisman, Clifford Adelman, Chuo-Chun Hsieh, Farshid Shams and Stephen Wilkins, "Europe's Bologna Process and its Impact on Global Higher Education," in *The SAGE Handbook of International Higher Education*, eds. Darla K. Deardorff, Hans de Wit, John D. Heyl and Tony Adams (London: SAGE, 2012), 87.

²³⁴ ESU, "Bologna with student eyes 2009," 2009, 69, accessed December 10, 2014, <http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Documents/BolognaWithStudentEyes2009.pdf>.

²³⁵ Larry Catá Backer, "Parallel Tracks?: Internationalizing the American Law School Curriculum in Light of the Principles in the Carnegie Foundation's Educating Lawyers," *Ius Gentium: The Internationalization of Law and Legal Education* 3 (2008): 142.

²³⁶ Jane Knight and Jack Lee, "International Joint, Double, and Consecutive Degree Programs," in *The SAGE Handbook of International Higher Education*, eds. Darla K. Deardorff, Hans de Wit, John D. Heyl and Tony Adams (London: SAGE, 2012), 353.

²³⁷ Philip G. Altbach, "Rankings season is here," *International Higher Education* 62 (2011): 2.

they are and what they do for consumers of higher education. The problem arises when improving the ranking becomes an aim in itself, not the efforts to understand and discuss how internationalization could be improved and what other mechanisms could be used to ensure its sustainability. According to Knight, some institutions see internationalization as a means to gain a worldwide profile and prestige. The author wonders whether the international cooperation is overshadowed and trumped by competition for status, bright students, talented faculty, research grants, and membership in global networks.²³⁸

Quality assurance in higher education should not be viewed as a branding strategy or an administrative obligation. Rather, it should be seen as an instrument for driving quality improvement in internationalization, for opening policy debates and for promoting exchange of ideas among policy makers. It should be at the heart of institutional efforts to build an attractive, compatible and competitive EHEA.

2.2.2 Cooperation, Competition and Commercialization in International Higher Education

Internationalization and globalization are key factors that shape higher education, dictate the need of changes and give rise to both cooperation and competition. It is important to look at internationalization and higher education from both of these perspectives: cooperation, that is what has to be done in order to enhance cooperation in higher education and why it is important; and competition, that is what needs to be done in Europe about science and innovation in education in order to compete in a globalized world.

Cooperation in Higher Education is continually growing in importance. At the World Conference on Higher Education, organized by UNESCO in 2009, special attention was given to the importance of international cooperation in higher education based on solidarity, mutual respect, the promotion of humanistic values and intercultural dialogue. It was mentioned that “cross-border provision of higher education can make a significant contribution to higher education provided it promotes quality and respects the basic principles of dialogue and cooperation, mutual recognition and respect for cultural and linguistic diversity and national

²³⁸ Knight, “Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education,” 40.

sovereignty”.²³⁹ It was also pointed out that “effective internationalisation is a blend of cooperation (through the sharing of knowledge and good practice) and competition (through the quest of excellence), without ever forgetting values.”²⁴⁰ In the *Strategic framework for European cooperation and training* (ET 2020) the Council of the European Union also recognizes that while fully respecting the member states’ responsibility for their education systems, an updated strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training could further enhance the efficiency of such cooperation and provide continuing benefits and support for member states’ education and training systems up to the year 2020.²⁴¹

While cooperation has become a central feature of internationalization today, so has competition. Competition encourages innovation and excellence and may serve as a catalyst for further improvements and modernization in the European higher education system. *European Union’s Lisbon Strategy* of 2000 called for Europe “to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion”.²⁴² European Union policy that replaced it, ET 2020, continues to advocate for support of knowledge, training, and innovation activities within higher education in order to develop the excellence and attractiveness at all levels of education and training that will allow Europe to retain a strong global role.²⁴³ These concerns are at the heart of the move to establish a European Higher Education Area in the context of the Bologna process, designed to ensure that higher education in Europe is a competitive power in the global context, and is able to meet the teaching, research and employment needs of the 21st century.

National education systems are also in competition with one another, they are in a permanent state of reform, seeking to adapt to rapid economic changes and evolving student needs. National governments increasingly pursue internationalization goals for competitive purposes that relate to excellence in research, technological

²³⁹ UNESCO, “2009 World Conference on Higher Education: The New Dynamics for Higher Education and Research for Societal Change and Development. Outline,” 4.

²⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, 3.

²⁴¹ European Council, “Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training (ET 2020),” 2009, 2, accessed August 14, 2014, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2009:119:0002:0010:EN:PDF>.

²⁴² European Council, “Presidency Conclusions. Lisbon European Council,” 2000, accessed August 14, 2014, http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/00100-r1.en0.htm.

²⁴³ European Council, “Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training.”

innovation, economic strength and relevance.²⁴⁴ Governments initiate various funding schemes to boost the competitive spirit of national higher education institutions in order to raise ambitious specialists with high level of creativity and competence. According to Behrenbeck,²⁴⁵ examples of these initiatives include China's 211 and 985 programs, Denmark's Investment capital for University Research Effort, Brain Korea 21, and Spain's Network for International Campuses of Excellence. In the pursuit of world-class educational standards, governments are expected to play an active role in addressing the challenges of an increasingly competitive global environment.

Competition, as a consequence of internationalization, is also clearly seen at the institutional level. Education institutions have always been competing for worldwide reputation as international, high quality education providers. This trend is driven by the desire to attract the brightest and the best students from around the world, along with new research programs and funding opportunities. As a consequence, the interest in accreditation and quality assurance services has risen and the interest in branding became one of the most important topics on the higher education agenda and with good reasons. Although one can say that education institutions have always been competitive by nature, a non-so-subtle shift has developed toward achieving an international reputation in order to successfully compete in a more commercial environment.²⁴⁶

Competition is always a good thing, it encourages higher education institutions to develop innovative, demand-based and sustainable ways in order to secure the supply of skilled staff and accelerate the translation of new knowledge into practical applications. Yet, there are real risks and challenges associated with these developments.

One of them is the latest race to attract international students and academics as means to acquire brain power and generate income. Attracting the best and brightest talent is becoming an increasingly widespread practice among developed countries. The original goal of helping students from developing countries study in another country to complete a degree and return home is fading as nations compete to retain

²⁴⁴ Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, *Trends in global higher education*. "

²⁴⁵ Sabine Behrenbeck, "Attracting researchers: Initiatives for excellence," Presentation at the annual Conference of the Academic Cooperation Association, (Cordoba, Spain, 2010).

²⁴⁶ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 28.

needed human resources.²⁴⁷ Many countries also hope to attract international students by formalizing the link between higher education and the skilled job market and by implementing policies that encourage international graduates to enter the workforce of the host country, especially in scientific and technical fields.²⁴⁸ The challenges related to the migration of highly skilled should not be underestimated, nor should the numerous benefits related to internationalization. Many practical and ethical challenges should be considered in order to ensure the protection of all the interests at stake.

Another risk that is associated with competition as a consequence of internationalization, is the growing commercialization of higher education initiatives. In the 4th IAU Global survey on internationalization of higher education respondent institutions reported that the most significant societal risk of pursuing internationalization was seen to be growing commercialisation of higher education.²⁴⁹ Nowadays, there is a growing debate on the impact of increased commercial crossborder education on the purpose, function and values of higher education. Blackburn in his analysis on *Internationalisation: Some ethical challenges* correctly argues that until recently universities have been academic safe havens, relatively undisturbed by market demands and free to pursue educational goals independently of business models. Now, the pressures to reduce costs and manage resources both efficiently and effectively are generating new ethical questions about how universities manage their affairs.²⁵⁰

In an increasingly globalized and competitive environment, many universities (and some countries) see internationalization as an important source of revenue. Major receiving countries of international students, such as Australia, United Kingdom and the United States, have quantified the earnings gained when higher education is assessed as an export activity, and some strategies acknowledge international activities as a means of earning income to compensate for funding

²⁴⁷ Knight, "Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education," 39.

²⁴⁸ Melissa Banks and Rajika Bhandari, "Global Student Mobility," in *The SAGE Handbook of International Higher Education*, eds. Darla K. Deardorff, Hans de Wit, John D. Heyl and Tony Adams (London: SAGE, 2012), 392.

²⁴⁹ Eva Egron-Polak and Ross Hudson, *Internationalization of Higher Education: Growing expectations, fundamental values: IAU 4th Global Survey* (Paris: IAU, 2014).

²⁵⁰ Margaret Blackburn, "Internationalisation: Some Ethical Challenges," *Research and Development in Higher Education*, 1997, accessed August 15, 2014, 97, <http://www.hersa.org.au/wp-content/uploads/conference/1997/blackb01.pdf>.

deficits.²⁵¹ It is difficult to assess the global economic benefits of international education, but we can imagine it is substantial, given that NAFSA estimates that international students and their dependents contributed approximately \$24 billion to the U.S. economy during the 2012-2013 academic year only.²⁵²

At a global level, there are also unresolved issues related to the commercialization of higher education that need to be addressed. The GATS of the WTO has been a wake-up call for higher education around the world. Universities have traditionally been seen as a “public good” and a “social responsibility”, but according to this new international trade agreement, higher education is treated as a tradable commodity. Many academics see GATS as presenting new opportunities, while others think there are many risks involved. They argue that the GATS does not recognize the fundamental aspects of education:

It considers education not as a public good or service, but as a tradable commodity and a commercial activity, and supply of education as a commercial undertaking. It makes no distinction between trade in services like education and trade in automobiles, computers, and other goods. The GATS treats public goods as commercial goods, and even global public goods as global tradable goods meant for merchandization and profit-making. In fact, the GATS is concerned with trade, not with education.²⁵³

Hence, it is rightly feared that these “powerful economic references place higher education in the domain of an international market and promote the view that commercial forces have a legitimate place in higher education,”²⁵⁴ while the traditional fundamental values as academic freedom, collegiality and institutional autonomy are closely examined. Some believe that these traditional values and roles are even more important in today’s environment; others suggest that globalization underscores the need to shift away from these longstanding values. And still others argue that, if higher education is to fulfil its role as a “public good” then it will need

²⁵¹ Laura Rumbley, Philip G. Altbach and Liz Reisberg, “Internationalization Within the Higher Education Context,” in *The SAGE Handbook of International Higher Education*, eds. Darla K. Deardorff, Hans de Wit, John D. Heyl and Tony Adams (London: SAGE, 2012), 22.

²⁵² NAFSA, “The economic Benefits of International Students to the U.S. Economy”, 2013, accessed August 16, 2014, http://www.nafsa.org/Explore_International_Education/Impact/Data_And_Statistics/The_International_Student_Economic_Value_Tool/.

²⁵³ Jandhyala B. G. Tilak, *Trade in higher education: The role of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)* (Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning, 2011), 58.

²⁵⁴ Philip G. Altbach and Jane Knight, “Higher education’s landscape of internationalization: Motivations and realities,” in *Leadership for world-class universities: Challenges for developing countries*, ed. Philip G. Altbach (Chestnut Hill, MA: Centre for International Higher Education, 2010), 120.

to move away from its traditional public funding sources in favour of more market-based approaches.²⁵⁵ The commercialization and commodification of higher education makes managing internationalization strategies extremely challenging. Perhaps even more difficult is the process of articulating a sound balance between the pressures of today's connected world and the traditional academic values of the university, but the effort is worth it.

2.2.3 Cultural Diversity vs. Homogenization

Another subject in internationalization that evokes strong positions and sentiments is cultural diversity. Many believe that a key priority for universities should be in insuring students are 'global citizens', understanding and valuing cultural diversity, promoting economic and social development and demonstrating effective skills to live in a multicultural world and be able to inclusively bridge the gaps between generations and cultures. The IAU also gives primacy to cooperation over competition, thus a central point in its statement is:

Preparing future leaders and citizens for a highly interdependent world, requires a higher education system where internationalization promotes cultural diversity and fosters intercultural understanding, respect, and tolerance among peoples. Such internationalization of higher education contributes to building more than economically competitive and politically powerful regional blocks; it represents a commitment to international solidarity, human security and helps to build a climate of global peace.²⁵⁶

Technological advances in communications are also powerful instruments, which can serve to further internationalization of higher education and facilitate access to opportunities and information. Therefore, many consider that modern information and communication technologies and the movement of people across cultures and countries, contributes to promote one's culture to other countries and to enhance the fusion and hybridization of cultures.²⁵⁷ Of course, the speed and scale of changes are unprecedented, but there is an assumption that the flow of cultures and their interactions have far more benefits than drawbacks.

Others, in turn, believe that both the movement and the speed are alarming. They consider that these same forces are eroding national cultural identities and that,

²⁵⁵ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 13.

²⁵⁶ IAU, "IAU Statement on Internationalization: Towards a Century of Cooperation."

²⁵⁷ Knight, "Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education," 40.

instead of creating new, hybrid cultures, native cultures are being homogenized – by which, in most cases, they mean Westernized.²⁵⁸ As long ago as 1974 Carnoy argued in his provocative book *Education as cultural imperialism* that far from acting as a liberator, Western formal education came to most countries as part of imperialist domination.²⁵⁹ The author wonders:

Is schooling inherently colonizing and imperialistic or can it serve to develop liberal, creative adults? The answer is not obvious and depends on the objectives of the society and its economic and social structure. We argue that, until now, formal schooling has helped a few to control more effectively the lives of many, rather than the many to understand and control the nature of progress and changes in their own lives.²⁶⁰

Some of these considerations can still be called relevant today. Because education has traditionally been seen as a vehicle of acculturation, these arguments focus on the specifics of curriculum content, teaching/learning process in international education and language of instruction (particularly the increase in English). Both perspectives have strengths to their arguments.²⁶¹

The fact that English is becoming the global language of communication in higher education is another worrying trend, because of the dominance of English in cases where English is not the native language of any of the partners. This speaks to the Anglicization trend, or what some call linguistic imperialism.²⁶² De Wit has singled out teaching in English as one of nine fundamental misconceptions concerning internationalization. He mentions that education offered in English language is regarded as the equivalent of internationalization, which results in a decreasing focus on other foreign languages, in an insufficient focus on the quality of the English spoken by students and teachers for whom English is not their native language, and thus leading to a decline in the quality of education.²⁶³

The above concerns are reflected in the IAU Call for action on *Affirming academic values in internationalization of higher education*.²⁶⁴ In designing and implementing their internationalization strategies, higher education institutions are

²⁵⁸ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 13.

²⁵⁹ Martin Carnoy, *Education as cultural imperialism* (New York: Longman, 1974) 3.

²⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, 24.

²⁶¹ Knight, *Higher Education in Turmoil*, 13.

²⁶² Knight and Lee, "International Joint, Double, and Consecutive Degree Programs," 354.

²⁶³ Hans de Wit, "Globalization and Internationalisation of Higher Education," *Revista de Universidad y Sociedad del Conocimiento* 8, no. 2 (2011): 241-248.

²⁶⁴ IAU, "Affirming academic values in Internationalization of higher education," 5.

called upon to embrace and implement, among others, the following values and principles:

- Safeguarding and promotion of cultural and linguistic diversity and respecting local concerns and practices when working outside one's own nation.
- Continuous assessment of the impacts – intended and unintended, positive and negative – of internationalization activities on other institutions.
- Responding to new internationalization challenges through international dialogue that combines consideration of fundamental values with the search for practical solutions to facilitate interaction between higher education institutions across borders and cultures while respecting and promoting diversity.

The three main trends of internationalization analysed in this section, namely the commercialization of the internationalization, cultural diversity issue and the concern for quality assurance, are congruent with the results of the global survey of internationalization in universities undertaken by the University of Southampton.²⁶⁵ The findings of this study²⁶⁶, suggest that internationalization strategies in universities across the world seem to be based on three emergent value-driven models. In western universities a commercial imperative forms the basis of the internationalization effort. In Confucian and many Middle East nations, a cultural imperative is at the heart of the internationalization process. In the poorer universities of the south, a curriculum-value driven process seems to best describe the internationalization priorities of universities there. The study concludes that despite the global rhetoric about an emerging isomorphism in higher education, great discrepancies continue to exist, which entrench the poverty inequalities that have always existed between the universities in the north and those in the south.²⁶⁷ Table 8 summarizes the key descriptive characteristics of these universities and the three value driven models of internationalisation: commercial-value driven, cultural-value driven and curriculum-value driven internationalised universities.

²⁶⁵ Felix Maringe, Nick Foskett and Steve Woodfield, "Emerging internationalisation models in an uneven global terrain: findings from a global survey."

²⁶⁶ The purpose of the survey was to determine how strategic leaders in universities in different parts of the world defined, rationalised and prioritised a range of familiar internationalisation approaches. The findings were based on data gathered from about 200 responding universities in six major regions including South America, North America, Middle East nations, Asian nations, Australia and New Zealand and sub-Saharan Africa.

²⁶⁷ Ibid., 9.

Table 8. *Emerging international models in higher education*

	Commercial-value driven international universities	Cultural-value driven international universities	Curriculum-value driven international universities
Representative world regions	Mainly Anglophone: North America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, UK and Western Europe	Mainly Confucian: China, Eastern Asia, Arabic, Gulf states, North Africa	Mainly developing nations: Sub-Saharan nations, South America
Dominant views about globalisation	Positivist, pro globalist Globalisation as an inevitable force for good	Marginally positivist and pro-globalist, with a wider belief of the dominance of a western hegemony	Relatively most anti-globalist, wide belief of the damaging dominance of western hegemony
Dominant views about impact of globalisation	Broadly seen as a force for good and development-oriented	Broadly seen as causing uneven/unequal world development and seeking western dominance across the world	Broadly seen as causing uneven/unequal world development and resulting in damaging human migration to the rich nations
Dominant views about internationalisation	Largely based on recruiting more international students and staff. Developing a visible international presence and identity	Largely based on recruiting more international staff (not so much students). Challenging the orthodoxy of western hegemony	Largely based on an academic rationale. Developing an appropriate international curriculum
Dominant institutional internationalisation strategies	Talent identification and recruitment processes. Commercialisation of international collaborative research. International student experience and league table strategies	Cultural exchange programmes. Language training opportunities and international collaborative research and partnerships	Internationalisation of university curricula. International research collaborative partnerships
Dominant challenges/issues associated with internationalisation	How to become more commercially efficient organisations in depressed economic environments. How to be more competitive in global markets	How to challenge the dominance of western ideology. How to promote the Confucian ideology more. Achieving greater cultural integration	How to stem talent migration to the west. How to promote more locally driven development. How to promote more equitable and sustainable partnerships and development programmes

Source: Maringe, Foskett and Woodfield²⁶⁸

It is important to note that not all the universities in similar regional groupings have the same characteristics, as individual institution's tends to be influenced by the specific factors that shape their development. Another important aspect to take into

²⁶⁸ Ibid., 32-33.

account is that the models are not mutually exclusive, as universities across the world share many common characteristics, however, institutions in different parts of the world tend to place varying priority on these three broad values associated with the process of the internationalization in higher education.

The results of this study shown in the table above, suggest that contrary to the theoretical justification for more globalization, there is an increasing, rather than decreasing, division across the world. In the rich western nations, higher education is increasingly associated with the commercialization and commodification, with an equally increasing trend towards aggressive marketing and commercially efficient activities. The importance of creating research partnerships is highly valued by all universities, however those in the Confucian regions and in the Southern African region see the issue of partnerships as a subtle strategy to legitimate western dominance in the academy.²⁶⁹

The cultural value-driven models in Confucian nations are developing themselves as future economic giants on the global arena. This economic development needs to be underpinned by an equally strong cultural presence in the world. Although talent identification and recruitment constitute an important component of these universities' internationalization strategies, activities aimed at cultural learning and integration are more highly prioritised.²⁷⁰ Confucian nations' "soft-power" approach is expected to help the universities in this region to become epicentres for cultural world domination.

Finally, relatively poor nations like those in Southern Africa whose poorly performing economies prevent them from competing on equal terms recognize the opportunities created by becoming more international. These opportunities include the possibility to improve: the achievement of equity and widening access to higher education to previously under-represented socioeconomic groups; ICT development in the universities; expansion of private higher education provision to meet the growing need in this region.²⁷¹ However, the playing field is not even and some interests are much more powerful than others.

²⁶⁹ Ibid., 33.

²⁷⁰ Ibid.

²⁷¹ Ibid.

The relentless progress of globalization will oblige higher education institutions to keep up with new trends and developments in society and academia. What we can conclude with certainty from our findings, is that all of the trends described in this section are interrelated. The increased cooperation among countries brings a hybridization of cultures, societies and higher education systems. The growing competition among nations may result in a greater commodification or commercialisation of higher education initiatives, while these, in turn, require additional quality assessment initiatives. In this interrelated and continuously changing environment it becomes increasingly important to develop sound strategies for internationalization initiatives.

2.3 Strategies for the Internationalization of Higher Education

The overview of meanings, approaches and trends in previous sections shows that various elements play a role in the internationalization process. These elements may be described as regulatory mechanisms, driving factors, regulatory processes and implementation strategies. For the purpose of this discussion, we will use the term strategies as described by Knight and de Wit to characterize those initiatives that are taken by an institution of higher learning to integrate an international dimension into research, teaching, and service functions as well as management policies and systems.²⁷² In this section we will take a look at the main strategies for the internationalization of higher education and their characteristics.

In the process approach, activities identified as key components of internationalization are divided into two categories: program strategies and organizational strategies. The program strategies include those academic activities and services of an institution of higher education that integrate an international dimension into its main functions. Organizational strategies, in turn, refer to those initiatives that help to ensure that an international dimension, or in other words the activities already discussed, are institutionalized through developing the appropriate policies and administrative systems.²⁷³

In their study, Knight and de Wit singled out four categories of program strategies: research-related activities, education related activities, activities related to

²⁷² Knight and de Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education."

²⁷³ de Wit, *Internationalization of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 121.

technical assistance and development cooperation, and extra-curricular activities and institutional services.²⁷⁴ Some years later, Knight identified the following four academic strategies: academic programs, research and scholarly collaboration, external relations and services (domestic and abroad), and extracurricular activities.²⁷⁵ The author emphasized that the category of *external relations and services*, that has traditionally been oriented to international development activities and bilateral co-operation agreements between institutions, is gradually shifting to more of a “trade” than “aid” focus.²⁷⁶ As Knight and de Wit rightly point out, all the activities listed below can be part of a strategy for internationalization. The activities do not exclude one another, but only in a few exceptional cases will an institution have an explicit strategy that covers all or even most of the activities mentioned in the table below. The authors believe it is essential to state that an institution should not be judged for its internationalization strategy on the assumption that all or most of these activities mentioned are implicitly or even explicitly part of their policy plan. It is more important that institutions identify which priorities they have decided upon and how these are integrated in a strategic plan for the institution.²⁷⁷ Table 9 provides an overview of program-strategy categories and related examples:

Table 9. *Institutional programme and organisational strategies*

Academic strategies		Organisational strategies	
Academic programmes	• Student exchange programmes • Foreign language study • Internationalised curricula • Area of thematic studies • Work/study abroad • International students • Teaching/learning process • Joint/double degree programmes • Cross-cultural training • Faculty/staff mobility programmes • Visiting lectures and scholars	Governance	• Expressed commitment by senior leaders • Active involvement of faculty and staff • Articulated rationale and goals for internationalisation • Recognition of international dimension in institutional mission statements, planning and policy documents
Research and scholarly collaboration	• Area and theme centres • Joint research projects • International conferences and	Operations	• Integrated into institution-wide and department/college level planning, budgeting and

²⁷⁴ Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,” 17.

²⁷⁵ Jane Knight and Hans de Wit, “An Introduction to the IQR Project and Process,” in *Quality and internationalization in higher education*, eds. Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (Paris: OECD, 1999), 45-60.

²⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, 25.

²⁷⁷ Knight and de Wit, “Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,” 20.

	seminars • Published articles and papers • International research agreements • Research exchange programmes • International research partners in academic and other sectors		quality review systems • Appropriate organisational structures • Systems (formal and informal) for communication, liaison and coordination • Balance between centralised and decentralised promotion and management of internationalisation • Adequate financial support and resource allocation systems
External relations Domestic and cross-border	Domestic: • Community based partnerships with NGO groups or public/private sector groups • Community service and intercultural project work Cross-border • International development assistance projects • Cross-border delivery of education programmes (commercial and non-commercial) • International linkages, partnerships and networks • Contract based training and research programmes and services	Services	• Support from institution-wide service units, i.e., student housing, registry, fund-raising, alumni, information technology • Involvement of academic support units, i.e. library, teaching and learning, curriculum development, faculty and staff training • Student support services for incoming and outgoing students, i.e. orientation programmes, counselling, cross-cultural training, visa advice
Extra-curricular	• Student clubs and associations • International and intercultural campus events • Liaison with community based cultural and ethnic groups • Peer support groups and programmes	Human Resources	• Recruitment and selection procedures which recognise international expertise • Reward and promotion policies to reinforce faculty and staff contributions • Faculty and staff professional development activities • Support for international assignment and sabbaticals

Source: Knight²⁷⁸

Although higher education institutions recognize the importance and potential of internationalization, some of them do not manage to transform themselves accordingly even in spite of having an impressive number of internationalization programs and practices. This is due to the lack of a successful organizational strategy that would secure a harmonious and sustainable development of internationalization

²⁷⁸ Jane Knight, "Internationalization: Key Concepts and Elements," *IAIE Internationalization of Higher Education Handbook A 1.1* (2008): 11-12.

initiatives. Knight and de Wit state that even if there is an increasing number of academic programs and activities, if they are not underpinned by a permanent organizational commitment and structure, they may die when supporters leave the institution, resources become scarcer, or new priorities emerge.²⁷⁹ They pointed out the following organisational strategies, which have been identified as important elements for successful internationalization: commitment and support of board of governors and senior administrators; support and involvement of a critical mass of faculty/staff; international office or position; adequate funding and support both internally and externally; policy; incentives and rewards for faculty and staff; existence of formal communication channels; and an annual planning, budget and review process.²⁸⁰ Knight combines them together in four organizational strategies: governance, operations, services and human resources²⁸¹. These strategies and some examples can be seen in the above Table 9.

There is a wide variety of strategies for internationalization used by different universities, however, not all of them are given the same amount of importance. Maringe, developed five broad categories of internationalization strategies based on research carried out in 37 UK universities²⁸². The findings of the study suggest that these strategies were accorded varying importance and significance by staff in different universities, as shown in table 10.

Table 10. *Range and importance of university internationalization strategies*

Internationalization strategy	Rank	Type of university
Recruitment of international students	1	All but especially in newer universities, former polytechnic and privately funded institutions
Student and staff exchange programmes	2	All but especially in the older universities
Development of international partnerships for teaching, including joint programmes, offshore teaching and learning	3	All but especially in the newer universities
Development of international collaborative partnerships for research,	4	All but especially in the older universities

²⁷⁹ Knight and de Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education," 20.

²⁸⁰ Ibid., 20-21.

²⁸¹ Knight, "Internationalization: Key Concepts and Elements," 11-12.

²⁸² Felix Maringe, "The Meanings of Globalization and Internationalization in HE: Findings from a World Survey," in *Globalization in Higher Education: Theoretical, Strategic and Management Perspectives*, eds. Felix Maringe and Nick Foskett (London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2010), 17-34.

entrepreneurship and development		
Curriculum internationalization, ranging from minor changes in content to fundamental redesign of objectives, teaching methods and assessment	5	All but especially in newer universities

Source: Maringe²⁸³

The results indicate that newer universities tend to give more priority to student recruitment, development of offshore teaching programmes and curriculum internationalization, while older universities put more emphasis on student and staff mobility and partnerships in research and enterprise. These differences in approach may reflect the importance that the new and the old universities tend to place on research and teaching. Older universities tend to be more research-intensive while newer institutions are more teaching-focused. According to Maringe, activities which generate money are prioritized more highly in the internationalization process of universities. In contrast, curriculum internationalization does not appear to be a top priority strategy in the majority of the UK universities because changing the purpose, content and methodology of teaching is one of the most deskilling and risky decisions university staff might make and one that they would not embrace without some resistance.²⁸⁴

An analysis of these activities from a broader perspective provides a far more nuanced picture of institutional priorities for internationalization. The results of the 4th Global survey on Internationalization of Higher Education²⁸⁵ show the differences that exist among higher education institutions and the ways they perceive and implement internationalization in the various regions (see table 11). For example, Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean and North America see outgoing student mobility opportunities as the most important internationalization activity. While for Africa, Asia and the Middle East international research collaboration is the most important internationalization strategy. North American respondents are the only ones to rank recruiting fee paying international undergraduates as one of the top three internationalization activities. Similarly, only the respondents in Africa ranked international development and capacity building among the top three activities.

²⁸³ Ibid., 28.

²⁸⁴ Ibid.

²⁸⁵ Egron-Polak and Hudson, *Internationalization of Higher Education: Growing expectations, fundamental values: IAU 4th Global Survey*.

The results of the survey show how the differing circumstances affect the way internationalization is interpreted and implemented in the various regions. For example, these various conditions may explain why African institutions which, as previously argued, pursue capacity building goals through internationalization, place development projects as their third highest priority activity. In a similar way, the desire of the Middle East institutions to promote their institutions internationally can be explained by the fact that they are relatively unknown outside the region, which can lead to mistrust in the quality of their programs, therefore their internationalization strategies have a pronounced promotional and marketing nature.²⁸⁶

Another important observation emerges from the comparison of the top ranked priority areas with the internationalization activities for which funding has increased for the past three years. A more detailed look across various regions to see where institutions may be investing more financial resources provides a curious picture. The areas that were given a higher priority are, in many cases, the areas that have seen increased funding as seen in the table 11. Therefore, it becomes clear that funding is a powerful engine for the development of internationalization activities that may also serve as a fundamental catalyst for inspiring the prioritization of some activities over others.

Table 11. *Top three ranked priority internationalization activities undertaken by institutions*

	Global	Africa	Asia & Pacific	Europe	Latin A. & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students	1 ✓	✓	✓	1 ✓	1 ✓	✓	1 ✓
International research collaboration	2 ✓	1 ✓	1 ✓	2 ✓	2 ✓	1 ✓	
Outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff	3	2 ✓	2		3 ✓	2 ✓	
Strengthening international/intercultural content of curriculum			3	3		2 ✓	3
Recruiting fee paying international undergraduates							2 ✓
Joint double/dual degrees							

²⁸⁶ Ibid.

Bi - or multilateral international student exchanges			✓		✓	✓	
Marketing and promoting our institution internationally		✓	✓			3 ✓	
International development and capacity building projects		3 ✓				✓	
Recruiting fee paying international post-graduate students							
Delivery of distance/online education, and/or e-learning courses/programmes designed for students in other countries							
All types of off-shore provision							
Other							

✓ = internationalization activities for which funding has increased in past three years

Source: Table by the author, based on the findings of the 4th IAU Global Survey on Internationalization of Higher Education²⁸⁷

The analysis presented in this and the previous chapter demonstrates that the primary focus of internationalization has moved from people (students, faculty, scholars) to program (twinning, franchise, virtual) and provider (branch campus) mobility and now to the development of knowledge parks or, as Knight describes them, to ‘international education hubs’.²⁸⁸ At the same time, internationalization strategies have gradually moved from a development cooperation rationale, to a partnership model, and now to a commercial and competitiveness model. Traditionally, rationales have been based on four generic categories (see table 12).

Table 12. *Mapping of rationales of internationalisation*

Rationale	Meaning and focus	Key strategies	Critique
Economic	Based on the idea of becoming economically competitive, independent and increasing institutional financial revenue streams	Overseas student recruitment bringing foreign exchange and student labour	This notion of increasing financial streams is often left unstated. It is a hidden agenda in many universities.
Political	Based on ambitions of creating world understanding, eminence and leadership, peace and development	Development of global problem-focused curricula and research and teaching centres for poverty reduction, climate change, world conflict/peace studies and global	Universities generally do not claim to have political ambitions and this rationale can be lost through deletion of this label in the institutional lexicon. World-class talent

²⁸⁷ Ibid.

²⁸⁸ Jane Knight, “Three Generations of Crossborder Higher Education: new developments, issues and challenges,” in *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility*, ed. Bernhard Streitwieser (Oxford: Symposium Books, 2014), 43-58.

		terrorism, world religions, global financial markets, human trafficking.	tends to follow economic prominence, resulting in highly skewed talent distribution across universities
Academic	Based on the need to strengthen liberal education and enhance the quality of teaching and research. Development of partnerships for interrogating institutional and cross-institutional issues and forging progress and development links	Developing internationalisation audit frameworks. Partnerships for research, teaching (joint degree programmes) and the commercialisation of education	Partnerships tend to be led by universities in the west and so reproduce western models of wisdom, spreading these around the world
Sociocultural	Based on the motivation to forge greater understanding between nations and cultures and enriching the learning experience.	Student and staff academic exchange programmes. Second language learning and teaching. Cultural exchange programmes	Increasing dominance of English as a medium of learning, research and publishing depresses the emergence and strengthening of languages and cultures as integral aspects of development

Source: Based in part on Maringe, Foskett and Woodfield,²⁸⁹ and Knight²⁹⁰

The changing nature of the rationales driving internationalization becomes apparent when comparing them over the last twelve years (see table 13). It is revealing to note that the top four rationales in the 2003 survey related to the academic based rationales. There was also a better understanding of the importance of co-operation and development assistance. By 2010 the development cooperation rationale has been gradually surpassed by a commercial and competitiveness rationale, characterized by such features as the need to broaden and diversify the source of faculty and students, or the desire to enhance institutions' profile and reputation. This finding is perhaps the most revealing as it indicates the weight placed on enhancing and developing an international brand, which relies more on a smart and successful marketing campaign than on integrating an international, global, and intercultural dimension into the teaching learning process, research, and service to community and society.²⁹¹

²⁸⁹ Felix Maringe, Nick Foskett and Steve Woodfield, "Emerging internationalisation models in an uneven global terrain: findings from a global survey."

²⁹⁰ Knight, "Internationalisation: Key Concepts and Elements."

²⁹¹ Knight, "Concepts, rationales, and interpretive frameworks in the internationalization of higher education."

Table 13. *Change in Rationales Driving Internationalization*

Ordinate Ranking	1 st Global Survey (2003)	2 nd Global Survey (2005)	3 rd Global Survey (2010)
1	Mobility and exchanges for students and teachers	Increase student and faculty international knowledge capacity and production	Improve student preparedness
2	Teaching and research collaboration	Strengthen research and knowledge capacity and production	Internationalize curriculum
3	Academic standards and quality	Create international profile and reputation	Enhance international profile
4	Research projects	Contribute to academic quality	Strengthen research and knowledge production
5	Co-operation and development assistance	Broaden and diversify source of faculty and students	Broaden and diversify source of students
6	Curriculum development	Promote curriculum development and innovation	Broaden and diversify source of faculty/staff
7	International and intercultural understanding	Diversify income generation	Increase faculty international knowledge
8	Promotion and profile of institution		Diversify sources of income

Source: Table by the author, based on the findings of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd IAU Global Surveys on Internationalization of Higher Education²⁹²

Knight explains these new developments through the lens of the three generations of crossborder education: people mobility, program and provider mobility, and education hubs. Table 14 summarizes the highlights of each of the three generations. According to the author, the primary focus of internationalization strategies is no longer solely on students who are moving to other countries for education opportunities. Academic programmes, education institutions and new providers are also moving across borders to deliver education and training programmes in foreign countries. Furthermore, countries, cities and zones are seeing the usefulness of developing themselves as education hubs where different type of crossborder education, training and research are linked and bring added value.²⁹³

²⁹² Knight, ed., *Internationalization of Higher Education. Practices and Priorities: 2003 IAU Survey Report*; Jane Knight, *Internationalization of Higher Education: New Directions, New Challenges: IAU 2nd Global Survey*. (Paris: IAU, 2005); Egron-Polak, Hudson and Gacel-Avila, *Internationalization of Higher Education. IAU 3rd Global Survey Report*.

²⁹³ Jane Knight, "Understanding education hubs within the context of crossborder education," in *International education hubs: Student, Talent, Knowledge-Innovation Models*, ed. Jane Knight (Dordrecht: Springer, 2014), 13-28.

Table 14. *Three generations of crossborder education*

Crossborder education	Primary focus	Description
First generation	<i>Student/people mobility</i> Movement of students to foreign country for education purposes	Full degree or for short-term study research, fieldwork, internship, exchange programs
Second generation	<i>Program and provider mobility</i> Movement of programs or institutions/companies across jurisdictional borders for delivery of education	<i>Program mobility</i> Twinning Franchised Articulated/validated Joint/double award Online/distance <i>Provider mobility</i> Branch campus Virtual university Merger/acquisition Independent institutions
Third generation	<i>Education hubs</i> Countries attract foreign students, researchers, workers, programs, providers, R and D companies for education, training knowledge production, innovation purposes	<i>Student hub</i> Students, programme, providers move to foreign country for education purposes <i>Talent hub</i> Students, workers move to foreign country for education and training and employment purposes <i>Knowledge/innovation hub</i> Education researchers, scholars, HEIs, R&D centres move to foreign country to produce knowledge and innovation

Source: Knight²⁹⁴

International education hubs are the latest development in internationalization strategies. An education hub is not an individual branch campus, or a science and technology park, or a large number of international students. It is more than a single initiative or institution. It represents a third generation of crossborder education where mobility, critical mass, and collaboration between international, local universities, students, research institutes and private industry are key elements. An education hub involves a coordinated and strategic effort to build a critical mass of local and foreign actors – including education institutions, students, training companies, knowledge industries and science and technology centres. Through interaction, networks and in some cases co-location, actors engage in education, knowledge production and innovation initiatives.²⁹⁵ These initiatives differ but all encourage closer relationships

²⁹⁴ Ibid., 15.

²⁹⁵ Ibid., 13.

between higher education institutions and private industries to allow for fuller participation in the knowledge production and for ensuring that graduates are equipped with relevant skills and knowledge.²⁹⁶

Conclusion

From the description of the historical development of internationalization presented in the previous chapter, it became clear that changes in the external context of higher education have had a great impact on the way internationalization has evolved and developed over the years. In this changing historical context, internationalization has acquired different meanings, brought about transformative trends and has developed new internationalization strategies based on more sophisticated ways to achieve its goals. The purpose of this chapter was to establish a conceptual framework to describe and explain the most important elements in the internationalization of higher education.

The discussion has shown that internationalization is no longer an *ad hoc* or peripheral part of higher education. University strategic plans, international declarations and national policy documents all demonstrate its important role. As it has transformed the landscape of higher education, internationalization has itself experienced a significant change. The very meaning of internationalization has shifted over time. The expansion of internationalization strategies and programs has resulted in the development of new ideas and terms. Although there is no unanimously agreed definition on internationalization, the use of a working definition in combination with a specific approach was found to be useful. For this study, a broadly based definition of internationalization was chosen, in combination with a different approach to internationalization: the systematization approach. This approach focuses mainly on the way internationalization is organized and systematized within higher education institutions.

The change in the meaning of internationalization is a simple reflection of the change in the very essence of the process. The analysis of the recent trends in internationalization has suggested that the international dimension of higher education is closely linked with the quest for world status, global race for talent and the development of economic competitiveness. Internationalization rationales have also

²⁹⁶ Knight, "Three Generations of Crossborder Higher Education."

experienced and important shift. Academic and socio-cultural motivations are gradually surpassed by commercially driven rationales. Consequently, improving international profile is seen to be more important than strengthening research and knowledge production or improving quality. As a result, higher education is increasingly perceived as a market place in which institutions must compete for students and funding, rather than as a social project based on shared values, endeavours and aspirations.

At the same time, there are many examples of positive internationalization initiatives that illustrate how internationalization contributes to the fundamental educational and economic development needs of the community. The analysis of approaches, trends and strategies of internationalization of higher education in this chapter, together with the overview of the historical development of internationalization in the first chapter showed that the picture of internationalization that is emerging is one of complexity and constantly changing dynamics. The major focus of internationalization has shifted from people to program mobility and now to the development of international education centres that encourage closer relationships between higher education institutions, governmental entities and private industries to allow a wider participation in the production of new knowledge and to ensure that graduates are equipped with the necessary skills to better serve their communities. This point will be more thoroughly discussed in the section 4.2.

After having seen how the internationalization process is continuously shaped and reshaped by the international context in which it occurs, including its meanings, approaches, rationales and strategies, the next chapter analyses different organization models for the internationalization of higher education, to assess how higher education institutions internalize and systematize these strategies.

3. Models for Internationalization of Higher Education

When it is obvious that the goals cannot be reached,
don't adjust the goals, adjust the action steps.

—Confucius

Introduction

As indicated earlier, internationalization has moved centre-stage in higher education, having a great impact on the identity, role and function of the universities in Europe, as well as an enormous influence over institutional planning and development. The assessment of the internationalization evolution and trends in the previous chapters makes clear that the phenomenon now constitutes one of the key strategic objectives of the European universities being tightly linked to issues of quality, innovation and competitiveness. A successful internationalization strategy needs to be supported by a logical and intentional organization pattern. Therefore, the need to understand how internationalization is organized, operationalized and sustained (to a greater or lesser degree) is becoming more and more important. Yet, the organization models for the internationalization of higher education have not been widely or deeply studied.

This chapter represents the cornerstone of this study. It highlights how the previously described theoretical concepts operationalize in practice and what organizational strategies for internationalization are used within higher education institutions. Different approaches and rationales lead to different institutional setups and these, in turn, give rise to various organization models analysed in the following sections. In this chapter different organization models for the internationalization of higher education, as identified in the literature, will be analysed and contrasted. The purpose of this in-depth analysis is to highlight their positive attributes and allow insight into the core aspects of the necessary adjustments to the existing organizational strategies. Consequently, the findings of this chapter will serve as a strong foundation for the next chapter, in which the bases for a new organization model are presented.

This chapter consists of two parts. In the first part, seven different organization models are presented and briefly described. A more detailed analysis and comparison

of these models is included in the second part of this chapter. Each of these models follows a different approach and perspective to the organizational aspects of internationalization, however they also share some common elements and attributes. The second part of this chapter analyses the similarities and differences between these organization models and highlights some of their strong and weak points.

3.1 Organization Models for the Internationalization of Higher Education

Over the past two decades, several attempts have been made to structure organizational strategies into different models for the internationalization of higher education. Seven models will be presented in this section: Neave's²⁹⁷ leadership and base unit model, Rudzki's²⁹⁸ fractal process model, Davies'²⁹⁹ matrix model, Van Dijk and Meijer's³⁰⁰ cube model, van der Wende's³⁰¹ NUFFIC model, Knight's³⁰² internationalization cycle and Rumbley's³⁰³ delta cycle for internationalization. Other models for the internationalization of higher education have also been identified in the literature³⁰⁴, however these seven models were considered to be the most appropriate for this study as each of them provides an important element that is subsequently taken into account in the analysis of the fourth chapter.

3.1.1 Neave's Leadership and Base Unit Model

²⁹⁷ Neave, "Managing Higher Education International Co-operation: Strategies and solutions."

²⁹⁸ Rudzki, "The Strategic Management of Internationalization: Towards a Model of Theory and Practice."

²⁹⁹ Davies, "University Strategies for Internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings: A conceptual framework."

³⁰⁰ van Dijk and Meijer, "The Internationalization Cube. A Tentative Model for the Study of Organizational Designs and the Results of Internationalism in Higher Education."

³⁰¹ Marijk C. van der Wende, "Internationalizing the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective."

³⁰² Knight, "Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints."

³⁰³ Rumbley, "Internationalization in the Universities of Spain: Changes and Challenges at Four Institutions."

³⁰⁴ Apart from the mentioned models, other organization models for the internationalization of higher education are: "International networks" model developed by Ian McNay, "Universities going international: choices, cautions and conditions," in *Policy and Policy Implementation in Internationalization in Higher Education*, ed. Peter Blok (Amsterdam: EAIE, 1995), 36; "Strategic themes in the management of internationalization", developed by Yvonne Turner and Sue Robson, *Internationalizing the university* (London: Continuum, 2008), 103. "Organizational structures for internationalization" developed by Anja Hartert, "Concept of an Organizational Model for Multilateral Academic Cooperation - In the Context of the Development of a European Higher Education Area," (Ph.D. diss., University of Mannheim, 2007), 83, accessed July 30, 2014, <http://d-nb.info/986843520/34>.

Neave³⁰⁵ presented a series of case studies at a global level in international inter-university cooperation as a typology for analysis and possible adaptation to specific contexts and needs. The author paid special attention to the various organizational models which emerged from these case studies. In his work, Neave argued that the structures set up to service and administer international cooperation may be subsumed under two paradigmatic models, the first model is “leadership driven” and the second one is “base unit driven”.

The leadership driven model is characterized by its lack of formal connexion below the level of central administration. Units responsible for cooperation reside at the centre and do not link in at Faculty level. The Director, Pro Rector or Vice President and the Chief Executive play the most significant roles in promoting international collaborations. The author found examples of this model in the Universities of Cairo, Belgrano and Nankai. “Base unit driven” administration has a contrasting layout. The main responsibility lies on the departments and may have an additional coordinating function at Faculty level. In this case, individual academics are formally in charge of matters related to cooperation at departmental level. This is not to say that there is no central administration as part of the overall management of international relations, but its role appears to be more facilitatory than initiatory. Examples of this model were found in the case study universities in the South Pacific and Zimbabwe.

Neave also casts these two models as the “managerial rational” model and the “academic consensual” model, emphasizing that they should not be regarded as discrete categories, but rather as opposite ends of a continuum, with academically initiated and bottom heavy “base unit driven” system at one end; and managerially directed and top down “leadership driven” system at the other. There are intermediary positions between these two poles. Structures administering international cooperation which are pertinent to one model may, under particular conditions, gravitate towards the opposite end of the spectrum. According to the author, this dynamic is influenced by two specific conditions: when the legitimacy of the strategy body is under challenge; and when the institutional authorities are committed to re-defining the

³⁰⁵ The description of Neave’s model in this section is based on an excerpt from a document prepared for UNESCO by the International Association of Universities, in which the author first presented his model: Guy Neave, “Managing Higher Education International Co-operation: Strategies and solutions,” (Unpublished reference document for UNESCO, 1992), 166-169, accessed August 23, 2014, <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000986/098679eb.pdf>.

goals of either institution or system. This type of transition from one model to the other was noticed in two of the examined case studies: the first involved the Commonwealth of Independent States and the second one the University of Utrecht.

We agree that the Commonwealth is perhaps not the best example in terms of applicability of the findings to other circumstances, due to the exceptional nature of change in this region, which limits the value of this case to the understanding of factors that facilitate or inhibit change. However, as Neave points out, the type of strategy which may be implied at institutional level in Commonwealth with regard to international cooperation is gradually moving from an “elaborative” to a “definitional” mode, or in other words, from a reactive to a proactive strategy. Basically, it creates a new scenario, where the institutions, and not governments, have the final word in defining the cooperation policies. At the institutional level, faculties and departments would now be the main agents of change and the main drivers of cooperation initiatives. It is clear that this shift will eventually change the “leadership driven” model into a “base unit driven” model.

Neave found that a contrasting process happens when institution’s authorities decide to redefine its long-term goals. It requires the definition of a coordinate policy and the assessment of the resources needed for its implementation. Now the initiatives of the departments have to go hand in hand with the institution’s new priorities. In this case a dilution of the “base unit driven” model can be expected. The University of Utrecht was considered to be an illustrative example of this case. The author pointed out that although certain organizational dynamic was noticed in some institutions, the greater part of the examined case studies were remarkable consistent in their administrative behaviour.

Another important point brought out in the description of this model is that any strategic management has to leave room for flexibility in the organizational patterns set up to deal with international cooperation. It was noted that even though the reasons for this flexibility are easy to understand, they might be difficult to adjust to and comply with. Market economies, the occupational structure they give rise to and the skills they demand are constantly changing. Therefore, adaptive leadership is required to guide an institution through the winds of change and in times of unrest and uncertainty. If the institution is to fulfil its core responsibility for the development and transmission, whether within the nation or between nations, of those skills, it should

adopt a proactive role and prioritize the skills and practices that matter most in today's world. Neave makes clear that change is driven by the belief that the institution is no longer aligned with the requirements of the market, be it a student market, or a development market and that the harnessing within an institution of higher education of strategic management to align research, skills and assistance with the dynamics of those markets, makes the administrative structures of international collaboration continually provisional.

The administrative pattern that was already established at a particular institution should also be taken into consideration, as it most likely had a direct influence on the types of skills already present and currently being exercised by its workforce. Apart from that, it is very important to be conscious of the direction in which institutional strategy, or its absence, is moving and toward which of the two models "leadership" or "base unit" it is most inclined, because here too the direction dictates the required skills. As stated by the author, institutions in those systems where devolution of responsibility and enhanced institutional autonomy are at the heart of change, and where a leadership pattern of managing cooperation is the norm, will require the strengthening of very different capacities amongst administrative personnel, than systems in which government is exercising increasing strategic control and where at institutional level, the managerial model rests on the base units. Neave combines the leadership and base unit model for administration with "definitional" and "elaborative" scopes of institutional strategy and presents them in a single figure (see Figure 2).

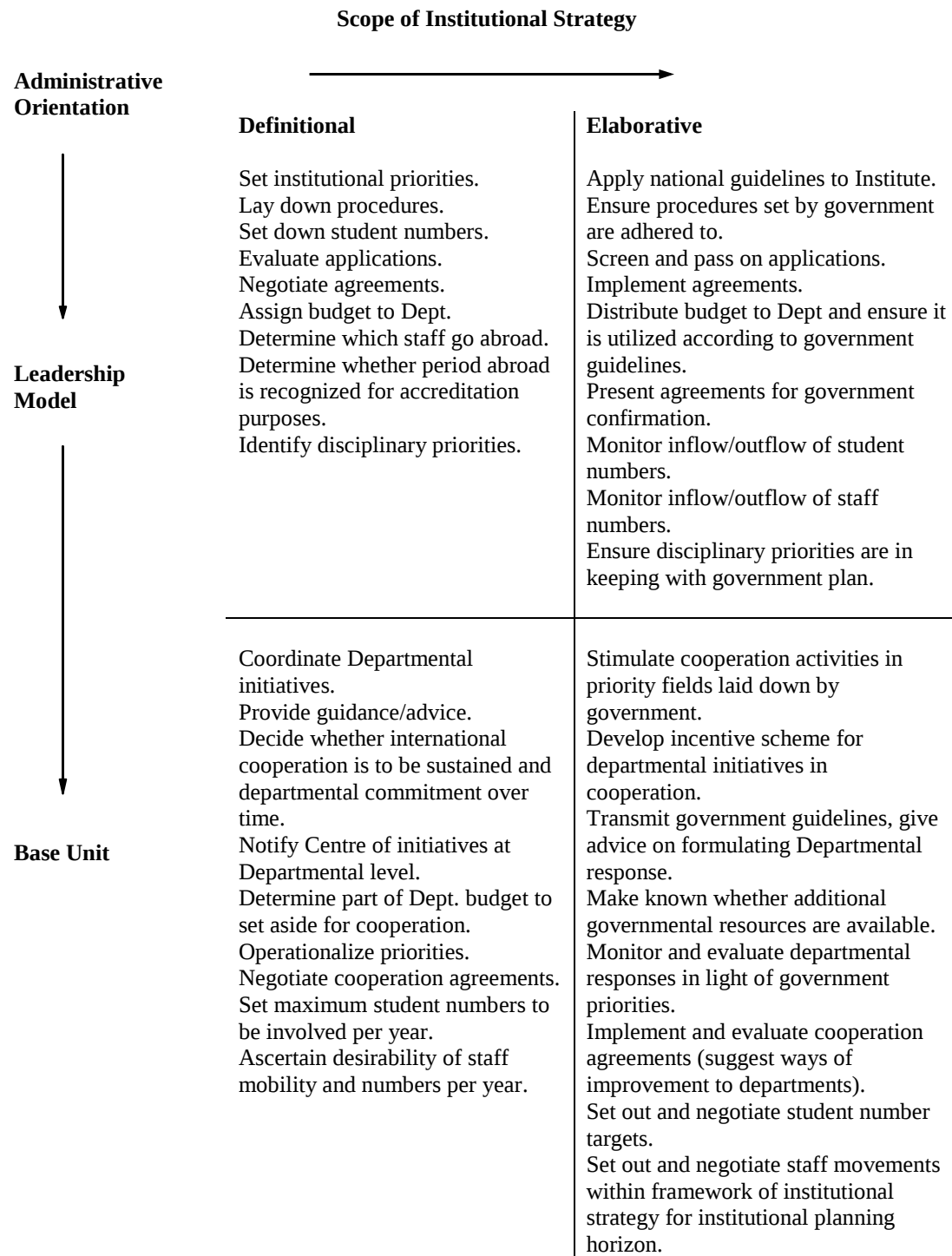
Neave's model has been challenged by other scholars. According to de Wit, "in Neave's paradigmatic approach, the widely used simple distinction between centralized and decentralized models of internationalization is implicit, although he adds the dimension of change to his matrix."³⁰⁶ Rudzki criticises Neave's analysis, claiming that "it lacks the value of any practical application and is largely self-evident, even though it is described in new terms which serve merely to mystify what is essentially a straightforward approach to understanding the implementation of change in any organization."³⁰⁷ Although Neave's model has been widely criticised by other scholars, it has a clear advantage, it emphasizes the importance of change

³⁰⁶ de Wit, *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of America and Europe*, 126.

³⁰⁷ Rudzki, *The Strategic Management of Internationalization: Towards a Model of Theory and Practice*, 184.

and adaptation of the administrative structures of international cooperation. A more detailed analysis of Neave's model is presented in the discussion section of this chapter (3.2).

Figure 2. *Task Analysis, Strategic Planning, and Administrative Models*



3.1.2 Rudzki's Fractal Process Model

Rudzki³⁰⁹ proposed another organization model, examining the process of internationalization within higher education with a special focus on UK Business Schools. In his paper, the author argued that the growth of international activities takes place in a number of different ways ranging from the *ad hoc* (reactive) to the strategic (proactive). He identified and contrasted reactive and proactive models of internationalization presented below.

The Reactive Model of Internationalization

Stage 1 *Contact*: Academic staff engage in making contacts with colleagues in other countries, curriculum development, limited mobility, links lack clear formulation of purpose and duration.

Stage 2. *Formalisation*. Some links are formalised with institutional agreements being made. Resources may or may not be made available.

Stage 3. *Central Control*. Growth in activity and response by management who seek to gain control of activities.

Stage 4. *Conflict*. Organizational conflict between staff and management leads to withdrawing of good will by staff. Possible decline in activity and disenchantment.

Stage 5. *Maturity or Decline*. Possible move to a more coherent, that is, proactive approach.

According to Rudzki, the reactive model of internationalization described above, suggests that the failure of management to manage the initiative – that is management by ‘adhocracy’ – generates conflict, missed opportunities and confusion about direction. The author proposed to compare a reactive process with the proactive perspective that follows.

The Proactive Model of Internationalization

³⁰⁸ Neave, “Managing Higher Education International Co-operation: Strategies and solutions,” 168A.

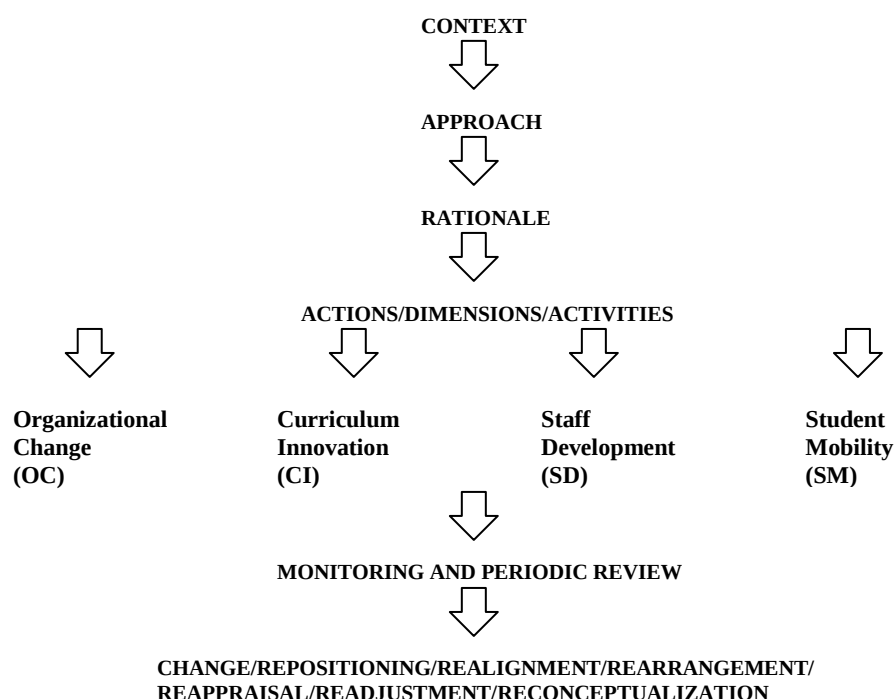
³⁰⁹ The description of Rudzki's model that follows draws on his Ph.D. dissertation: Romuald E. J. Rudzki, “The Strategic Management of Internationalization: Towards a Model of Theory and Practice” (Ph.D. diss., University of Newcastle upon Tyne, 1998), accessed August 23, 2014, <https://theses.ncl.ac.uk/dspace/bitstream/10443/149/1/rudzki98.pdf>.

- Stage 1. *Analysis*. Awareness of what 'internationalization' is and what it entails. Strategic analysis of short-, mid- and long-term organizational objectives – answering the question 'Should we internationalize?' 'Why bother?' Staff training and discussions – understanding of options – what types of international activities are available. International Audit of existing activities and Staff Audit. SWOT analysis. Cost-benefit analysis.
- Stage 2. *Choice*. Strategic plan and policy drawn up in conjunction with staff and explicit use made of mutual interest of staff and organization. Performance measures defined. Resources allocated. Networking with internal and external organizations.
- Stage 3. *Implementation*. Measure performance.
- Stage 4. *Review*. Assessment of performance against policy and plan.
- Stage 5. *Redefinition of Objectives/Plan/Policy*. Process of continual improvement and the issues of Quality this entails. Return to Stage 1 in cycle of growth and development.

The Fractal Process Model of Internationalization

Rudzki redefined these earlier models into what he calls the fractal process model of internationalization. In this model, the author identified four key dimensions of internationalization: organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility (see Figure 3). He pointed out that these four elements are essential for those universities who aspire to the attainment of leading areas of knowledge, otherwise it could be an indication that internationalization is of secondary or no importance at all. A more detailed description of these key dimensions is provided in the later part of this section.

Figure 3. *The Fractal Process Model of Internationalization*



Source: Rudzki³¹⁰

As shown in the Figure 3, the fractal process model of internationalization has six stages. As a first step, Rudzki recommends to consider the external *context*, which includes the transnational and national environments. Considerations of the transnational environment might include an analysis of opportunities, the existence of specialist networks such as the European Association of International Education (EAIE), or the availability of external funding to support activities. Considerations of the national environment might include an analysis of overseas aid policy that supports scholarship for overseas students, consultancy opportunities, or foreign institution strengthening. In addition, agencies such as the BC, DAAD and NUFFIC also play an important role in any decision making process. The author believes that a comprehensive consideration of the context enables institutions to ensure that their approach will be consistent with the external realities and to avoid engaging in a process of internationalization which is neither achievable, nor sustainable.

³¹⁰ Rudzki, *The Strategic Management of Internationalization: Towards a Model of Theory and Practice*,” 220.

In the second stage, Rudzki made clear that any *approach* to internationalization will not only be influenced by the external transnational and national factors, but also by the internal factors. Among them are the history and culture of the institution; its priorities and mission; its perception of internationalisation's purposes and benefits; as well as the factors influencing success together with the obstacles. According to the author, the approach can be understood to fall on a continuum that ranges from overt internationalization (proactive) through passive (reactive), covert and non-existent or deliberate non-engagement. So that overt approaches will be proactive and explicit and be based on a clear strategy and policy, while passive approaches will be reactive and will be mostly a response to external pressures.

The various *rationales* for internationalization have been considered in the third stage. Rudzki refers to the economic, political, cultural and educational rationales as described by Knight and de Wit³¹¹. Economic and political rationales include economic growth and investment in the future economy, the labour market, foreign policy, financial incentives and national educational demand. Cultural and educational rationales comprise the cultural function, development of the individual, providing an international dimension to the research and teaching, institution-building and improvement of the quality of education and research. In his research, Rudzki found that within UK Business Schools the most predominant rationales adopted are those of financial incentives and the provision of an international dimension to research and teaching, while the cultural function and development of the individual were considered to be incidental benefits rather than specific goals.

The fourth step contains various *actions* that constitute the process of internationalization at the institutional level. Rudzki sorted them into four dimensions organized into an inter-related matrix of activities: Organizational Change, Curriculum Innovation, Staff Development and Student Mobility and provided the following examples of each of them. The necessity for Organizational Change might arise under various circumstances, such as: institutional commitment to internationalization as evidenced by a policy, strategy, allocation of resources, and an operational plan; establishment of external networks with others at the institutional, faculty, departmental or individual level. Curriculum Innovation includes such activities as: the teaching of a compulsory second language for all students and

³¹¹ Knight and de Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education," 9.

language support for foreign students; development of new complete programmes of study such as International Business Studies, European Law or Area Studies. Staff Development includes both academic and administrative staff, in such spheres as: the professionalization of administrators dealing with international matters through training by such bodies as UKOSA, NUFFIC and the EAIE; work with overseas teachers or researchers both at the host and home institutions. Student Mobility consists of physical mobility by study abroad for a part of a course, or for a complete course; and intellectual mobility, via for example, access to overseas lecturers, translation of leading overseas books and journals, access to the Internet.

The fifth stage of the fractal process model of internationalization is associated with the process of periodic *review* that, according to Rudzki, is crucial to ensure that there is a consistency between the situation within the institution and the elements of the model, namely the external *context*, the *approach*, the *rationale* and the *activities*. The process of internationalization requires constant monitoring and evaluation in order to assess its effectiveness and identify areas of improvement. Important decisions should be made at this stage to ensure a continuous improvement of quality and effectiveness. At last, the sixth stage allows *changes* to be made so that programs can be refocused and redirected and the range and depth of institutional activities can be revised in the light of the progress obtained up to that moment. In this way, a cycle of adaptation to both the internal and external factors is formed, in order to ensure the development of the process and its successful implementation.

Aspects of the fractal process model were put to question by de Wit.³¹² According to the author, one can query the use of “context” and “approach” instead of internal and external context. He also wonders why these two elements are placed in a hierarchical order, which implies that the external environment is more important in strategic planning than the internal process. Additionally, de Wit criticizes the four dimensions, which form the internationalization process of an institution, for two reasons: “first, because of the combination of the more generic dimension “organizational change” with three more concrete activities; second, because of his subjective choice of the three activities “curriculum development”, “staff development”, and “student mobility”, excluding other program strategies or placing them under organizational change.

³¹² de Wit, *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of America and Europe*, 128.

In spite of these limitations, Rudzki's fractal process model offers useful insight into the internationalization process and the rational behind it. It provides a good framework for identifying key factors that shape this process, describing external elements affecting higher education institutions and the importance of an internal reorganization plan, necessary to coordinate institutional strategies in a coherent and committed way.

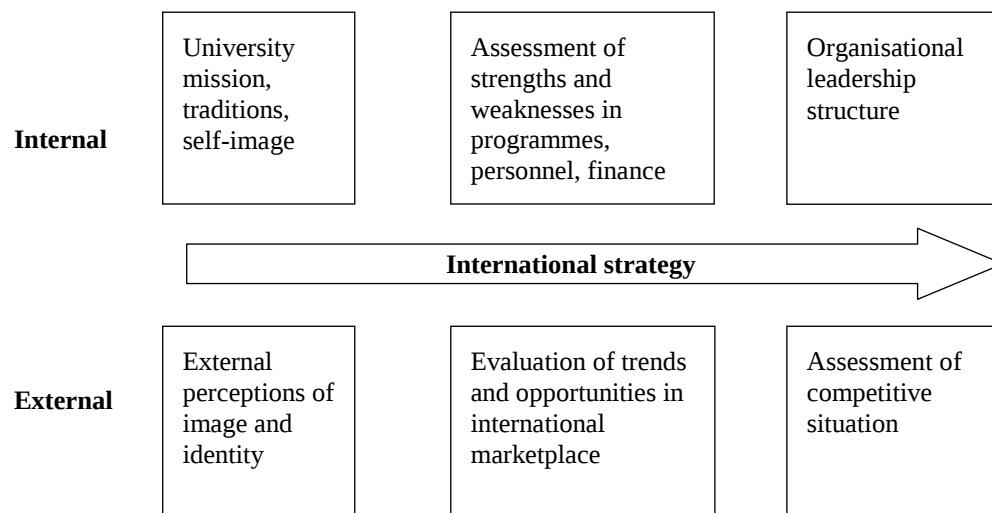
3.1.3 Davies' Matrix Model

Davies³¹³ examined some of the managerial and organizational ramifications of internationalization in universities, particularly in respect of the formulation, delivery and institutionalisation strategy. He uses Keller's³¹⁴ framework, *Academic Strategy*, to conceptualise the principal factors in the development of international strategies. An adaptation of this model is presented in Figure 4, where two sets of factors are identified, internal and external to the university, and six elements, three related to the internal and three related to the external factor. Davies mentions that this analysis may be used as a checklist by universities, because usually the failure to do the necessary in respect of each item could result in under-performance in the international arena, as well as frustration and tension internally.

³¹³ The description of Davies' Model presented in this section is based on: John L. Davies, "University Strategies for Internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings: A conceptual framework," in *Policy and Policy Implementation in Internationalization of Higher Education*, ed. Peter Blok (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1995), 3-18.

³¹⁴ George Keller, *Academic Strategy* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1983).

Figure 4. *Elements in the development of international strategy in universities*



Source: Davies,³¹⁵ adopted from Keller³¹⁶

Considering the importance of these factors and elements, Davies argues that institutions need to evolve a precise planning framework for themselves appropriate to their particular settings and calls for the adoption of more proactive modes of policy formation and institutionalization of those policies. He suggests two dimensions for examining institutionalisation:

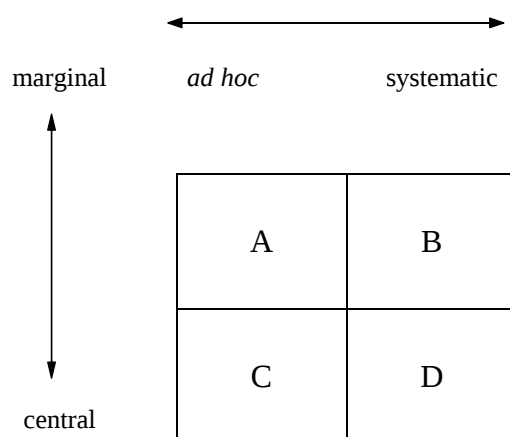
- Some universities incorporate international elements in a sporadic and irregular way, with many loose ends in terms of procedure and structure, whereas others develop precise and explicit procedures in an ordered and systematic manner. Here the spectrum is from the *ad hoc* to the highly systematic.
- For some universities, internationalism is a relatively marginal activity, it has a low profile in the mission and low income expectations. For others, internationalism is highly central to their mission and reliance on international income is considerable. The second spectrum ranges from marginality to centrality and indicates the importance to the university.

Davies combines these two dimensions in a matrix (see Figure 5) and universities may fall into one of the four quadrants.

³¹⁵ Davies, "University Strategies for Internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings: A conceptual framework," 5.

³¹⁶ Keller, *Academic Strategy*.

Figure 5. *Institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation in universities*



Source: Davies³¹⁷

According to Davies, the characteristics of institutions in each quadrant may be described as follows:

Quadrant A: *ad hoc* - marginal

Little activity takes place and is not based on clear decisions or well-defined strategy. Research linkages highly depend on motivated individuals and little specialism exists in personnel or organisational form. Internationalism does not play a major role in the mission and on the planning agenda.

Quadrant B: systematic – marginal

The activities are still limited but well organized and coordinated. The spheres of international activity are clearly defined and match institution's internal strengths and market opportunities. The number of institutional agreements is small but quite significant and effective. Supporting procedures are properly implemented. Staff training is related though limited.

Quadrant C: *ad hoc* – high centrality

Throughout the institution a high level of activities takes place, but it is not based on clear concepts, and internationalization procedures rely on an *ad hoc* approach. A fairly large number of institutional agreements are more rhetorical than

³¹⁷ Davies, "University Strategies for Internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings: A conceptual framework," 16.

operational. Projects are usually accepted in a haphazard way, while costing and pricing are eccentric. Tensions are rife and there are periods of crisis in international projects.

Quadrant D: systematic – high centrality

A large volume of international work is part of many categories. Projects have intellectual coherence, they complement and strengthen each other. There is a clear international mission that is supported by specific policies and application procedures. Personnel and curriculum policies are continuously reviewed to improve the effectiveness of the international effort. A strong organizational structure to support a range of international efforts is in place, as well as a substantial financial commitment.

According to Davies, the universities will start their international experience in Quadrant A. The external pressure towards international entrepreneurialism and precarious finances will usually result in speedy development and cut corners. Movement to Quadrant C is then expected. Universities may stay in C for some time before perhaps moving into Quadrant D, where they may develop some stability, usually as a result of firm leadership. If external circumstances are not too demanding, a preferred route could be developed, that is a movement from A to B, so that systems may be put in place before planned expansion into D. Unfortunately, this scenario is not always possible. As for Quadrants B and D, they should not be considered as an invitation to become rigid or bureaucratic, rather they may be viewed as a framework to encourage and channel enterprise and innovation. Systematization can not only provide a framework for creativity and entrepreneurship, but also enhance problem-solving capacity, that is a strong element in Quadrants B and D.

Davies mentions that one can certainly recognize many ex-Soviet Baltic State universities in Quadrant A; many Southern European universities in Quadrant C; and big experienced universities in Western Europe, North America or Australia in Quadrant D. He notes that even though there is a historical and cultural background to where an institution may find itself at present, where it moves to and how it develops, is more the result of its management strategy.

Davies' matrix model is quite rigid in its design and does not take into account the complex external factors influencing the institution and where it wants to move.

Nevertheless, the model is especially useful for an initial unpolished analysis of an institution's organizational strategy. As stated by the author himself, "it is worth using a conceptual framework such as this to reflect on the dynamics of internationalisation, rather than merely go hell-bent on the creation of new policies and structures and in beating the bushes for business."³¹⁸

3.1.4 Van Dijk and Meijer's Cube Model

Another model for the organization of the internationalization of higher education was proposed by Van Dijk and Meijer.³¹⁹ The model was developed for the analysis of the internal process of decision making, organization and implementation of internationalization in higher education institutions, and for the examination of the relations between this process and the results of internationalization. The authors decided to extend Davies' model, because according to them, it only takes into account the design (structural/*ad hoc*) of the organizational dimension but does not capture the way in which it is managed (at central level/within the faculties or interactive). They split the second dimension into three dimensions: policy, support and implementation. A policy can be priority or marginal, the support can be interactive or unilateral, and the implementation can be structural or *ad hoc*. This model forms a cube with eight cells and is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6. *Internationalization Cube*

Cell	Policy	Support	Implementation
1	Marginal	One-sided	Ad hoc
2	Marginal	One-sided	Systematic
3	Marginal	Interactive	Ad hoc
4	Marginal	Interactive	Systematic
5	Priority	One-sided	Ad hoc
6	Priority	One-sided	Systematic
7	Priority	Interactive	Ad hoc
8	Priority	Interactive	Systematic

³¹⁸ Davies, "University Strategies for Internationalization in different institutional and cultural settings, A conceptual framework," 17.

³¹⁹ The illustration of the Internationalization Cube Model in this part is based on: Hans van Dijk and Kees Meijer, "The Internationalization Cube. A Tentative Model for the Study of Organizational Designs and the Results of Internationalism in Higher Education," *European Education* 30, no. 4 (1998): 44-56; Hans van Dijk, "Internationalization of Higher Education in the Netherlands: An exploratory study of organisational designs," in *Policy and Policy Implementation in Internationalization of Higher Education*, ed. Peter Blok (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1995), 19-24.

Source: van Dijk and Meijer³²⁰

According to the authors, institutions can be categorized in one of the cells of the cube that form this three-dimensional model. Institutions in cell 1 are characterized by little international activity or are just starting the process of internationalization, as for example, those institutions that have a few international contacts at central level or an ERASMUS partnership in one or two departments. An opposite situation is observed in cell 8, where institutions are major players in internationalization, they have a clearly articulated international strategy and there is a high level of activity, with adequate support services, both at central level and within the faculties. The idea behind this model is not to suggest that institutions have to move from cell 1 to cell 8, but to help in explaining the development of internationalization where there is an active international strategy.

The Internationalization Cube Model was developed based on a survey by a consortium of Dutch organizations on the implementation of internationalization in Dutch higher education.³²¹ The study addressed two main questions: first, what is the position of Dutch institutions for higher education in the internationalization cube; and second, is a higher position in the cube related to better results as regards international activities. The findings of these two sections are presented below.

The first section that analyses where the institutions are located in the internationalization cube depicts the following findings. Van Dijk and Meijer found that seven out of ten institutions can be placed in cells 7 or 8, which means that there is a high priority for internationalization activities and a high interaction between the central and peripheral levels. However, in most cases, the implementation is still organized in an *ad hoc* way and not in the systematic manner.

The authors also discovered that one in five institutions are found in cells 3 and 4, which implies that they do not give high priority to their policy to internationalization, but there are regular discussions on internationalization between the levels involved. Activities are usually implemented in an *ad hoc* fashion. According to the authors, in this case a “wait-and-see” approach is being adopted,

³²⁰ van Dijk and Meijer, “The Internationalization Cube. A Tentative Model for the Study of Organizational Designs and the Results of Internationalism in Higher Education,” 47.

³²¹ van Dijk, “Internationalisation of Higher Education in the Netherlands: An Exploratory Study of Organisational Designs.”

whereas those staff members interested in internationalization carry out the necessary activities on their own. This finding may be a sign of the lack of correlation between policy and implementation.

They come to the conclusion that the majority of the studied universities are in the upper half of the cube, that is, internationalization has both a reasonable to high policy priority and corresponding level of support in the institution. It has to be noted that this conclusion pertains to both universities and nonuniversity sector. Universities form a more homogeneous group, occupying only four of the eight cells in the cube. The differences between them are mainly associated with the priority assigned to internationalization. The nonuniversity sector shows a more heterogeneous picture, ranging from cell 1 (marginal priority for policy, little interaction, and *ad hoc* implementation) to cell 8 (high priority in policy, frequent interaction, and systematic implementation). According to the authors, this may be due to the fact that universities are more experienced in international activity, are larger on average and have had time to develop a proper organization.

The second section of the study analyses to which extent the level of success institutions have in organizing international activities is linked to their position in the cube and to their level of financial investment in these activities. The authors start with the premise that there is a positive correlation between these two factors, that is, the higher the input of an institution (in terms of budget and staff) in international activities and the higher its position in the cube (shown in high scores on the three dimension), the better the results of these activities will be.

After examining the relationship between the level of input in internationalization, its process (policy, support and implementation) and its results, the authors come to the following conclusions: First, more staff involved in internationalization is related to broader support and better implementation. A higher budget correlates with higher policy priority, broader, support, and more solidly founded implementation. Second, the more an institution invests in internationalization, the higher the results achieved, especially regarding student exchanges. Third, significant links were found between the degree of interaction between all levels of the institution and the importance assigned to the internationalization policy.

The authors interpret the findings of their study in the following way: When the institution follows a positive policy with respect to internationalization, this leads to a broader support base in the organization, larger budgets and more staff members available for internationalization. This executive and financial support, in turn, produces greater participation of the institution's students and teachers in internationalization activities.

Van Dijk and Meijer identify three routes through which internationalization can become a priority area in an institution:

- Route 1-2-6-8, indicates a thoughtful approach, at least at the beginning, and a well-structured organizational culture, defined by the authors as “slow starters”.
- Route 1-5-6-8, indicates a strong international commitment and an organized institutional culture, defined as “organized leaders”.
- Route 1-5-7-8, indicates a quick response to external developments, a great variety of activities at different levels and a lot of commitment. The many activities are organized more systematically only at a later stage. These are defined as “entrepreneurial institutions”.

The authors conclude that these routes will not always be completed due to the problems that hinder the process or, in some cases, even reverse its direction. Nevertheless, it is up to higher education institutions to choose the level of internationalization that is most appropriate for them and best suits their needs.

Van Dijk and Meijer's cube model is particularly relevant for the Dutch situation. The authors themselves admit that “the development of internationalization of higher education as we have witnessed it in the Netherlands bears in it certain particularities that may be irrelevant in other situations”. They explain that the Dutch experience is, for example, very different from the much older process in the United States. Nevertheless, van Dijk and Meijer believe that the model will probably be relevant at least to many European countries, as they have gone through a development similar to the one in the Netherlands.

3.1.5 Van der Wende's NUFFIC Model

Another organization model for internationalization of higher education was developed by van der Wende for NUFFIC³²². This model provides a structured, process-oriented approach towards internationalization and consists of three important factors: goals and strategies, implementation, and the effects of the implementation (see Figure 7).

In this model, internationalization is viewed as a process taking place within a higher education institution. The general aims of the process, as well as the specific *goals and strategies*, are defined by (supra)national governments and higher education institutions and articulated in policy statements and regulations. The relationship between national and institutional policies are country-specific and may vary according to the general legal framework with regard to higher education and the degree of autonomy of higher education institutions. During the phase of *implementation*, three key elements play a crucial role: student mobility, staff mobility, and curriculum development, that are interrelated and interdependent in many ways. As for the process *effects*, van der Wende made a distinction between short-term effects on students, staff, and education, and long-term effects on the quality of education, output, and position of the institution. She made clear that an evaluation of the effects could have consequences for a redefinition of goals and/or strategies. The outer square of the model, shown in Figure 7, is used to show the institution's *international cooperation contacts* with foreign institutions or companies, which can be considered as a necessary foundation for the internationalization process within the institution. A more detailed description of these phases is provided below.

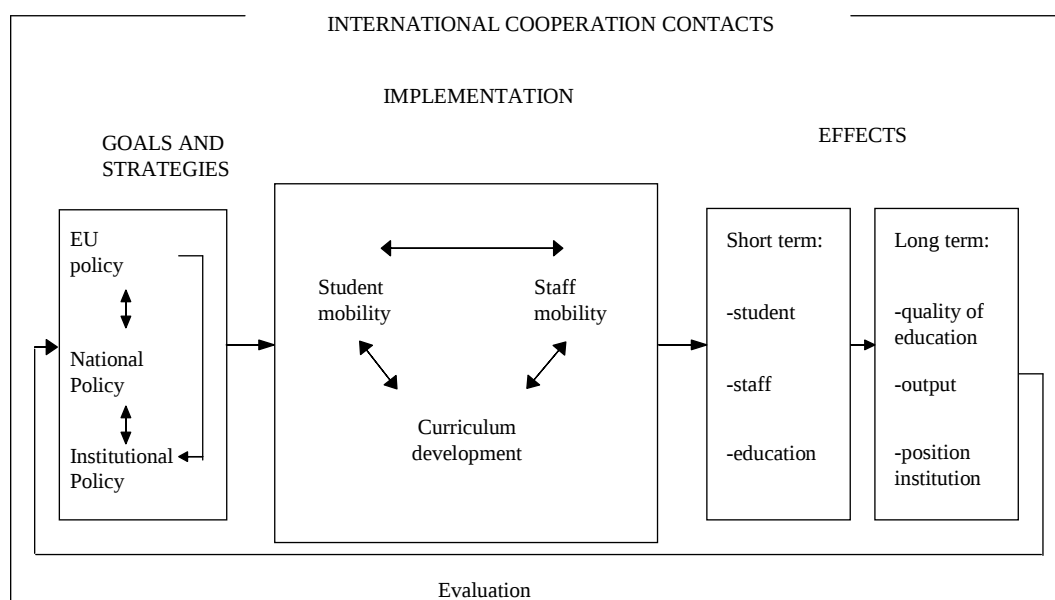
Goals and strategies

There are a number of stakeholders and actors in the internationalization of higher education, whose aims may be different, but may also overlap or complement each other. The goals of the European Union are determined by the acknowledgement of the important role that higher education institutions can play in strengthening European integration and enhancing the competitiveness of Europe vis-à-vis other major world regions. The main driver in this case is the desire to avoid skill-shortages

³²² In this section, the NUFFIC model is described based on van der Wende's Ph.D. dissertation: Marijk C. van der Wende, "Internationalizing the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective" (Ph. D diss., Utrecht University, 1996).

and create a successful and balanced economy. The goals of individual higher education institutions in internationalization generally reflect the wish to strengthen the national and international position of the institution and to improve the quality of its research, education and services. For academic staff internationalization can provide opportunities for broadening of expertise and, as a result, better career perspectives. The expectations of individual students are often dictated by career considerations or personal development goals. As for business and industry it is important that the qualifications and competences are closely tied to the demands of the labour market.

Figure 7. *NUFFIC Model for Internationalization of Higher Education*



Source: van der Wende³²³

Although the aims for internationalization are different, the strategies used to achieve them bear close similarities. Van der Wende argues that a strong emphasis is placed on international academic mobility, that is, getting individuals from different countries into direct contact with each other and with a different environment. These strategies are initiated by governments, private foundations and institutions and are translated into programs, projects and activities for international academic cooperation. The programs are generally well received and appreciated by the public, because the opportunities they provide correspond to the desire of students and

³²³ van der Wende, "Internationalizing the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective," 8.

academics to travel abroad. This gave impetus to the establishment of exchange agreements, partnerships and networks all over the world, that brought about specific administrative systems, recognition procedures and curricula development, deigned to comply with the international standards and to facilitate the mobility of students and academics. In this way, says the author, a strategy that is basically targeted at individuals has also an impact on the organizational and educational aspects of the higher education institution.

Implementation

The first element of the implementation phase of the internationalization process is student mobility. It has always been the most important element of internationalisation. Its importance is reflected not only in the fact that a substantial part of governmental and institutional budgets are set aside for this particular activity, but also in the great emphasis on student mobility data in studies and evaluations of internationalization. Policy documents also focus mainly on student mobility as the main instrument for the internationalization of higher education. Nevertheless, van der Wende rightly pointed out that sometimes there is confusion between the “higher” aims of internationalisation and student mobility as a means to achieve these aims, and as a result, student mobility is often considered an end in itself. The propensity to regard student mobility in this light was also reinforced by the European Commission, that at the launch of ERASMUS programme had very fixed quantitative objectives.

Staff mobility, as an element in internationalization process, is clearly lower in numbers when compared to student mobility. Although it is often argued that staff mobility should have more emphasis in the process of internationalisation, as it is more effective and efficient, there are still severe obstacles that hinder its growth. Teaching obligations and schedules, a lack of or weak funding opportunities, institutional rules and practices, conditions abroad, and cultural and language differences, are only some reasons that discourage staff from working abroad. Few EU institutions have developed specific policies and programs designed to facilitate staff mobility. According to van der Wende, the international ambition of the institution itself is of a major importance, as well as a general improvement in working conditions. Such considerations as arrangements for covering work during staff absences, financial guarantees, the accommodation of incoming staff,

harmonization of academic calendars, and mid- to long-term planning scenarios could contribute to enhancing staff mobility.

Curriculum development is the third component of the implementation phase. In the context of most internationalization policies and programs this activity is even smaller in numbers than staff mobility. However, van der Wende found that one program shows a different pattern with regard to curriculum development and that is TEMPUS Programme. In the Trans-European cooperation scheme for higher education between Central/Eastern Europe and the European Community a great number of Joint European Projects include curriculum development. Nevertheless, the author points out that a distinction should be made between this form of curriculum development and that aimed at integrating an international dimension into the curriculum (internationalising the curriculum). The aim of the projects in TEMPUS is to bring the curricula of Central and Eastern European institutions up to modern (Western) standards and this does not necessarily mean making them international. Rather, it implies the assistance of Western institutions in general curriculum reform processes in Central and Eastern European institutions, a process that normally has a one-way character.

Effects and evaluation

Using the distinction between short-term and long-term effects of internationalisation, as shown in Figure 7, van der Wende remarks that the effects on individual students have been the focus of most studies in this area. The following types of effects have been observed: improved foreign language proficiency, greater knowledge and understanding of the host country, change in academic abilities, views, and perceptions and learning style, and enhanced labour market qualifications. Students' overall perception of the effects of internationalisation is positive, however some negative effects have been reported as well. For example, a considerable number of ERASMUS students expect a delay in the completion of their studies after the student mobility programme. The author draws attention to the fact that except for some research on the effects of internationalization on the individual student, little attention has been devoted to the effects on other levels mentioned in Figure 7. One of the few examples of research into the effects of internationalization on the quality of education points out that the use of an international language of instruction such as

English has certain negative effects for the lecturers, since they are faced with linguistic limitations.

Evaluation parameter in van der Wende's model refers more to the internal evaluation activity within an institution, than to external evaluation and research described above. The author argues that although many institutions conduct evaluations of their internationalization activities, these evaluations are mainly limited to a statistical overview and analysis of numbers of international students and lack an in depth or qualitative analysis of the situation. The fact that general quality assurance systems in higher education usually do not include a platform for a comprehensive evaluation of international activities might be a problem for a future development of the process.

International cooperation contacts

International cooperation contacts, as an external factor for the internationalization process, represent the last element of van der Wende's model. Contacts can be classified into different types based on whether they are established between individuals or between institutions and whether they have a bilateral or a multilateral basis. Bilateral agreements of individual scholars have always been the most traditional form of international cooperation. Institutional-level bilateral cooperation agreements have also been popular for many decades. Most Western universities have a vast experience of such cooperation agreements, reached by their rectors and presidents.

A momentous year in the history of international cooperation was 1980, when multilateral cooperation structures were established by the EU programmes and the non-university sector in higher education became a more active player in international cooperation. The EU programmes normally followed a bottom-up approach and the cooperation contacts within these programmes can be characterised as individual-based multilateral networks. The contracts were established directly between the European Commission and the individual academic concerned, even if these individual initiatives needed the official support of their institutional authorities. Nowadays the European Commission is becoming increasingly interested in involving the institutions as a whole in the process of internationalization and establishing contracts between the European Commission and the institution. The idea behind this

approach is to establish contracts that will incorporate all international (European) activities of the institution, presented in a general policy-framework for internationalization.

Van der Wende's model for internationalization of higher education, described in this section, presents a comprehensive picture of the main types of effects that can be expected from internationalising the curriculum. On the one hand, such a strong focus on the characteristics of curriculum internationalization provided a very complete and in-depth coverage of this aspect, but on the other hand, prevented the disclosure of other important aspects apart from curriculum adaptation and its effects. Van de Wende herself notes that the model is too narrow in its description of motives for internationalising the curriculum and that it focuses exclusively on the objectives as defined in formal policy documents. She also comments that the model suggests that an institution's policy is mainly inspired by (supra)national governmental policies, ignoring other important factors. Nevertheless, her study reveals that there are also other important causes like: the socio-economic developments affecting the professional field for which students are being trained, as well as the inflow of foreign students and the cooperation with foreign partner institutions, which were depicted only as a context factor in the model.³²⁴ The distinction between short-term and long-term effects of internationalization is another important consideration emphasized in this study.

3.1.6 Knight's Internationalization Cycle

Based on an analysis of internationalization process in Canadian universities, Knight's³²⁵ model conceptualizes the process of internationalization as a continuous cycle, instead of a linear progression. The cycle consists of six phases, which are considered sequential but not necessary unidirectional. These phases include: awareness, commitment, planning, operationalization, review and reinforcement. Figure 8 depicts the concept of an internationalization cycle. Each of the six phases is briefly described in the following sections.

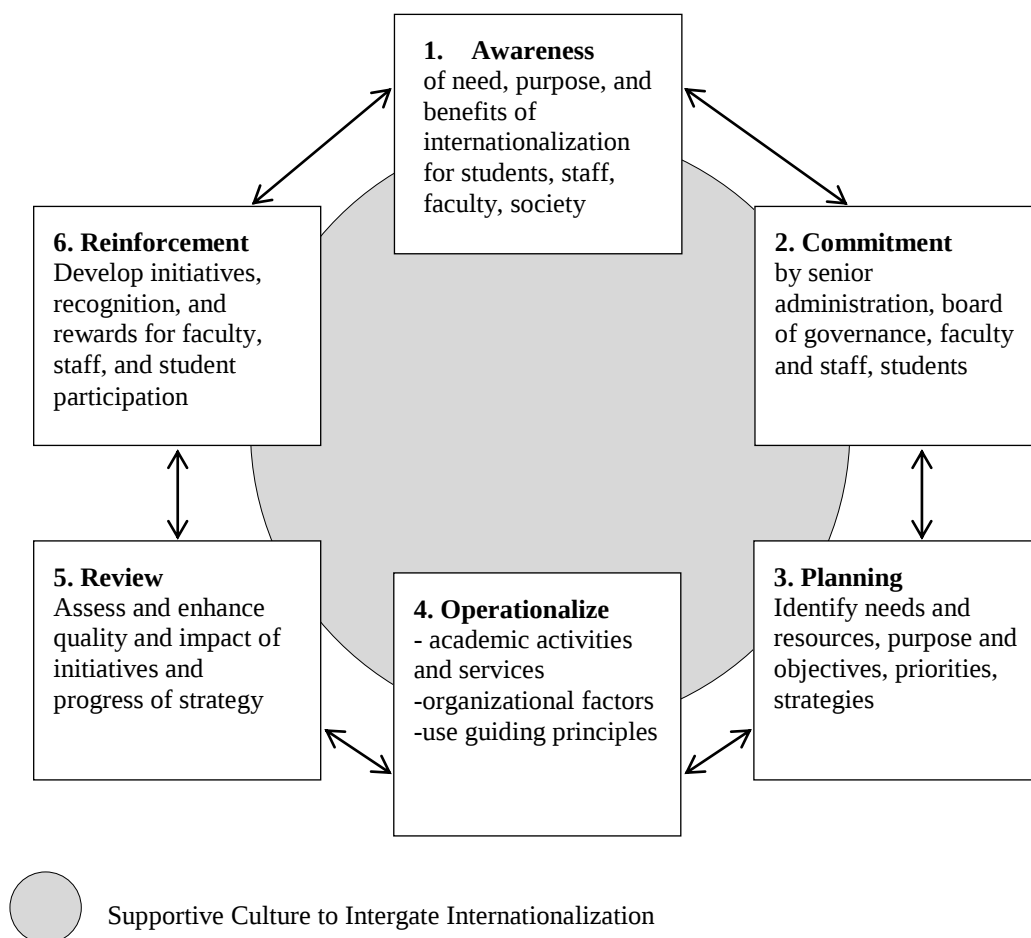
Awareness

³²⁴ van der Wende, "Internationalizing the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: an International Comparative Perspective," 193.

³²⁵ The interpretation of the Internationalization Cycle in this part is based on: Jane Knight, "Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints," *CBIE Research paper*, no. 7 (1994): 1-15.

The first phase consists of creating awareness of the importance and benefit of internationalization for students, staff and faculty. According to Knight awareness is a first step, but it is not enough. It should lead to campus-wide discussions on such topics as the need, purpose, resource implications and benefits of internationalization. Internationalization is embedded in all facets of the university and affects a broad spectrum of people, policies and programs. That is why, all members of the university community need to be aware of the issues and be able to express their views on them. Awareness is not enough, it needs commitment.

Figure 8. *Internationalization Circle*



Source: Knight³²⁶

Commitment

The second phase involves building commitment to the process of integrating an international dimension into teaching/training, research and service functions. The strong commitment of senior leaders to the university is the key to success in

³²⁶ Jane Knight, "Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints," 12.

internationalization. Knight states that there is often a misbelief that commitment equals new funds allocated to support a priority initiative. Additional funds would certainly contribute to the advancement of internationalization efforts, but according to the author, success stories from universities prove that much can be accomplished without major sources. The major determinants of success are the attitude and commitment and eventually recognition and reward. Apart from that, it is important to complement the commitment from the senior administrators with a considerable support from a broad base of faculty, staff and students and translate this commitment into planning strategies.

Planning

The third phase of the internationalization cycle implies the development of a comprehensive plan or strategy. At the beginning of this phase, a clear understanding of the purpose and intended results is essential to ensure its focused and coherent implementation. For that, the reasons for internationalizing, the planned outcomes, the unique features, resources and needs of the organization need to be clearly formulated and integrated into a strategy. If an internationalization strategy is developed in accordance with institution's specific conditions, objectives and priorities, it has more potential to be effective, than a general purpose strategy.

Knight also points out that planning needs to occur at different levels. The university-wide plan has to serve as a road map that gives direction and guidance to its mission statement. The next step is to translate this expression of intent into an actionable, operational plan. Another aspect that has to be taken into consideration is the centralization/decentralization issue. It is equally important to encourage and support local level initiatives of academic departments, administrative units and research centres.

Each plan or strategy needs to be tailored to the unique complexities of each institution. Besides, the existing initiatives and plans need to be carefully considered and recognized. Knight observes that "universities are not starting with a blank slate and it is important to respect the constituencies of interests and expertise and build on them, if not, turfdom may set in and then energy will be spent breaking down barriers rather than creating communication channels and collaboration models". Internationalization planning process is crucial to the successful development of any

project and although it is important to keep the big goal in mind, it is equally important to know how to break it into practical and achievable steps. This is where the operational plan comes into play.

Operationalization

The fourth phase includes implementing the different aspects of a strategy and creating a supportive culture. Knight identified three components which play a major role in this phase: academic activities and services, organizational factors and guiding principles. The priority and pacing of these activities will depend on the resources, needs and objectives of each institution, while the organizational factors need to be considered in tandem with the activities. Moreover, every operational plan needs to go hand in hand with the specific objectives, aims, resources and particular characteristics of the university. As resources become scarce and universities are faced with deep cuts, it is essential to set realistic goals and make the most of existing resources in order to achieve the desired outcomes.

Knight argues that the establishment of an international office or a position dedicated to international activities is of a crucial importance, because it demonstrates to the university community as well as external partners the commitment to international cooperation. Another benefit of an international office is that it adopts a macro perspective of internationalization within a university and has the ability to assess the interdependence and complementarity of its constitutive elements. An international office is responsible for the coordination and implementation of a full spectrum of activities like: information exchange, advisory support, fundraising, policy development, training of faculty and staff etc. However, as the author points out, “an international office often bears heavy responsibilities for international program development, management and evaluation and does not have the resources, time or mandate to take a holistic perspective on how the different pieces should fit into an institution-wide plan”.

Review

The fifth phase is composed of assessing and continually enhancing the quality and impact of the different aspects of the process. Knight identifies two different ways to interpret the concept of review. The first meaning relates to monitoring and assessment of the success of individual activities as well as how they complement and

benefit each other. The purpose of this review is to ensure that the objectives are being successfully met and that the quality is meeting the standards. This type of review is very useful to ensure that internationalization is on the right track and is working to the desired plan of action and strategy. The second meaning involves incorporating internationalization into the annual or biannual review and budgeting process engaged in by academic departments and administrative units across the institution. This kind of review serves to integrate internationalization into the regular administrative and academic systems of the university and assess the integration and the level of internationalization activity throughout the institution.

Reinforcement

The last phase in Knight's internationalization cycle consists of the reward and recognition of faculty and staff participation. Reinforcement is vital in any developmental process. According to Knight, in order to develop an institutional culture for internationalization, it is important to reward faculty and staff who are involved in this type of work. It will not only encourage them to strive harder to achieve the set goals and objectives, but also show them that their efforts are not overlooked or unrecognized. Motivation and sense of commitment needs to be sustained by a system of rewards and recognition that will be determined by each institution in accordance with its standards and practices. It is equally important to encourage faculty and staff to adopt a critical stance when examining their practice and be proactive to identify problems and make the appropriate changes or recommendations. The cyclical nature of the process makes its components interdependent. So that, reinforcement and reward lead to renewed awareness and commitment, a broader base of commitment leads to further planning process and this, in its turn, normally stimulates changes and implementation of new activities and services. Knight concludes that a continuous support, monitoring and review system is necessary to improve quality and involves incentives, recognition and rewards.

Knight's internationalization cycle examines mainly the internal structure and processes of an institution, without considering important external factors that may play an equal, if not more important role in determining its internationalization experience. Nevertheless, this model is very helpful for a consideration of the process of internationalization and is also used as a foundation for later attempts to structure

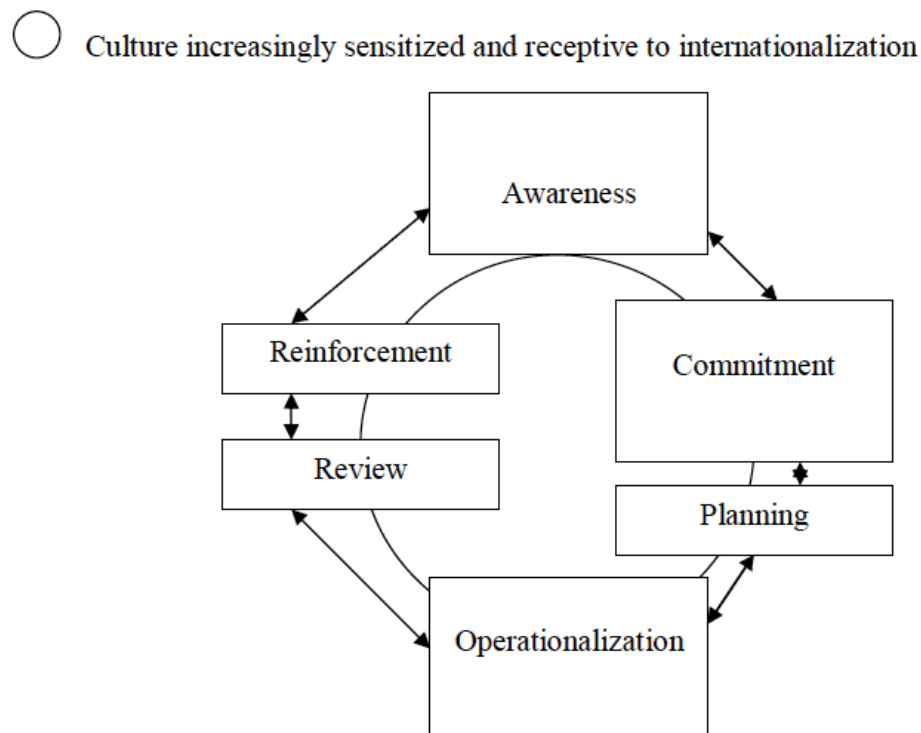
organizational aspects of internationalization. A good example is Rumbley's delta cycle for internationalization, described in the following section.

3.1.7 Rumbley's Delta Cycle for Internationalization

The last model that will be discussed in this section was developed by Rumbley.³²⁷ The Delta Cycle for Internationalization was created as a result of the findings of Rumbley's research on internationalization at four Spanish institutions. The selected case study institutions were: the Universidad Complutense de Madrid (UCM), the Universidad de Sevilla (US), the Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), and the Universidad Alfonso X El Sabio (UAX). Rumbley takes Knight's original model (described in the previous section) and adjusts it slightly to reflect the trends identified in the Spanish universities included in the study. In this modified version, shown in Figure 9, the boxes that represent awareness, commitment and operationalization are bigger than the rest to emphasize the prominence of these areas as demonstrated by the four cases. The boxes that represent less tangible dimensions of planning, review and reinforcement are smaller and illustrate a lower profile of these areas. Apart from that, while the original model stresses the importance of a 'supportive culture to integrate internationalization' (see Figure 8), in the modified version, depicted in Figure 9, Rumbley adjusts this assumption to reflect the findings of her study and shows that these four universities, as a group, are operating in contexts in which there is an increasing appreciation for internationalization, if not fully supportive organizational cultures at this time.

³²⁷ The description of the Delta Cycle for Internationalization is based on: Laura E. Rumbley, "Internationalization in the Universities of Spain: Changes and Challenges at Four Institutions," in *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education: Theoretical, Strategic and Management Perspectives*, ed. Felix Mainge and Nick Foskett (London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2010), 207-223.

Figure 9. *Internationalization circle (Knight, 1994) reflecting findings at the UCM, US, UPF and UAX*



Source: Rumbley³²⁸

Rumbley points out that there is nothing wrong with an ‘asymmetrical cycle’, as a differentiated approach may be beneficial to a particular university at a particular period of time. Nevertheless she stresses that in the case of the four case study institutions, this asymmetry is not a result of a carefully planned strategy, but an unintended consequence of an undeveloped planning, review and reinforcement activities.

The delta cycle for internationalization

During the course of her study, Rumbley found that the application of Knight’s conceptual model to the Spanish context reveals some missing elements:

- a broader perspective of rationale, strategies and outcomes for internationalization, which address the questions of why, how, in what ways and to what ends universities internationalize.

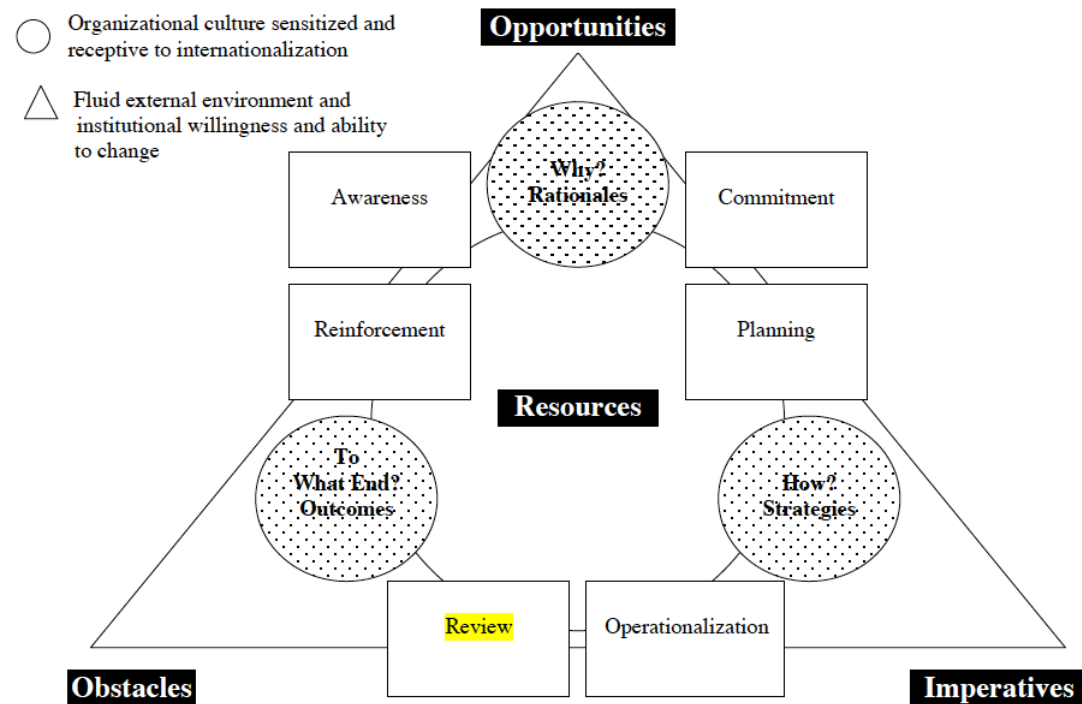
³²⁸ Rumbley, “Internationalization in the Universities of Spain: Changes and Challenges at Four Institutions,” 218.

- a recognition and articulation of important environmental factors that play a significant role in shaping institutional engagement with the international dimension, these include: opportunities, imperatives, obstacles and resources.
- a clear representation of the notion of change, which reflects the reality of a changeable external environment and the transformational nature of internationalization itself, as shown by the adaptive reaction of the case study universities.

Rumbley attempts to address these gaps and proposes the delta cycle for internationalization shown in Figure 10, which is a revised and expended graphic depiction of Knight's (1994) original work. The first contribution of this model is the idea that a comprehensive analysis of internationalization at a given institution, should not only include the discrete categories of the original internationalization cycle proposed by Knight, but also delve into underlying questions of why universities are seeking to internationalize, how and in what ways they do this, and what the end results of these efforts are.

The second contribution of Rumbley's model is the idea that there are four contextual factors that have a crucial impact on institutions' experience of internationalization like opportunities, imperatives, obstacles and resources. According to the author, this opens the door on a range of important implications for the study and practice of university internationalization. She also adds that to develop a broad understanding of the phenomenon, these environmental factors should be monitored and evaluated in a regular manner.

Figure 10. *Delta cycle for internationalization*



Source: Rumbley³²⁹

The last important element put forward by the model is the finding that change is a strong element of internationalization at the case study institutions and is a critical backdrop for all other aspects of internationalization. Rumbley makes it clear that decision-makers must not only take into careful consideration the continuously changing external environment, but also be aware of the ways in which the phenomenon may transform the institution and be ready to develop proactive and creative strategies to face these changes.

The results of this study provide two overriding conclusions. First, that opportunities and imperatives for internationalization can be very powerful forces. Rumbley points out that over the last two decades, the four Spanish case study institutions in this project have confronted numerous internal and external obstacles, as well as resource limitations, that hindered their efforts to internationalize. At the same time, these institutions were fortunate enough to benefit from a range of invigorating and unprecedented opportunities and imperatives to internationalize that served as a catalyst in advancing their international agendas. The European Union

³²⁹ Rumbley, "Internationalization in the Universities of Spain: Changes and Challenges at Four Institutions," 220.

initiatives such as ERASMUS, the Bologna Process and the efforts of the Spanish government to support these initiatives are only some examples of these factors. Rumbley argues that other countries and regions in the world can draw important lessons from the positive developments in the Spanish context. “The combination of carrots and sticks, if meaningful and well conceived, can clearly produce dramatic results,” she says.

The second concluding point made by the author is the fact that universities in Spain, as well as their colleagues elsewhere, can no longer avoid engaging in appropriate, comprehensive and well-coordinated planning, review and reinforcement activities. Internationalization in higher education globally has reached such a level of development and complexity that an amateurish and/or *ad hoc* planning and evaluation approach will not be enough to maintain it. What is needed is a serious and systematic engagement in strategic planning processes, as well as a constant monitoring of progress and successful reward systems. Rumbley closes with the statement that the internationalization of higher education in Spain, and elsewhere, relies on the enthusiasm of individuals who understand the importance of the phenomenon and its benefits to the institutions to which they are committed. However, in an increasingly complex and competitive world, says the author, “these personal passions must be hitched to solid intellectual constructs that guide clear thinking, as well as meaningful strategic planning mechanisms that drive workable lines of action”.

3.2 Synthesis of the seven models

In the course of this chapter, we have introduced seven organization models for the internationalization of higher education. Each of these models entails a particular understanding of internationalization and has its distinctive features. However, they also share many common traits and insights. The analysis and comparison of the seven models in this section will serve as a cornerstone for the next chapter, in which the basis for a new organization model are outlined. Before looking more closely at their shared and diverse characteristics, as well as at their strengths and weaknesses, it will be useful to provide a brief explanation of the criteria used to compare them.

Methodology

In order to achieve this synthesis, the models needed to be viewed through the same lens. In other words, the same dimensions of analysis needed to be applied to each of these models to enable the comparison and discussion of the obtained results. The point of reference for these dimensions was provided by the rankings. As described in the previous chapter, rankings have become an important part of the growing trend for more transparency, accountability and comparability between higher education systems. They are the manifestation of the worldwide race for talent and excellence and despite all the criticism³³⁰ are widely used for the assessment and evaluation of internationalisation strategies. They have become a useful tool not only for internationally mobile students, but also for higher education institutions to assess the quality and performance of their international programs and strategies.

Although rankings are outside the scope of this paper, the criteria behind the rankings will serve as a baseline for our analysis. Rankings compare higher education institutions using a range of indicators. These indicators constitute the matrix that covers the most important areas of internationalization and provide a concrete expression of what is expected to be achieved for a specific established goal. We took as a point of reference the most recent goal dimensions of the Indicators for Measuring and Profiling Internationalisation (IMPI).³³¹ They are the following: (1) to provide service to society and community social engagement; (2) to well-prepare students for life and work in an intercultural and globalising world; (3) to enhance the quality of education; (4) and to enhance the international reputation and visibility of the unit.³³² We then analysed the categories of indicators used by most well known

³³⁰ An intriguing study for the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) concluded that institutional rankings were being used for a broader range of purposes than the originally intended. According to Locke, they exclude much of what might be considered to indicate good quality or high performance because they reduce complex qualitative processes to shared metrics. Ranking systems also generate self-fulfilling prophecies. They employ a deficit model of a university that seeks to quantify the degree of inferiority to Oxford and Cambridge in the UK league tables and to Harvard in the international rankings. For more detailed results of the study see Locke, "The Institutionalization of Rankings: Managing Status Anxiety in an Increasingly Marketized Environment."

³³¹ The IMPI project focuses on mapping and profiling internationalisation of higher education institutions. The project aims at providing HEIs with an insight into their performance in internationalisation and measures for improvement. Project's goal is to increase the overall performance of European HEIs in internationalisation. The IMPI Project core partners are six metalevel institutions: Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Education, NUFFIC, ACA, CampusFrance, Perspektywy and CHE Consult. For more information: IMPI, "General Information about IMPI," accessed May 26, 2015, <http://www.impi-project.eu/about-impi>.

³³² IMPI, "Indicators of the year," accessed May 26, 2015, <http://www.impi-project.eu/indicators-of-the-year>.

international organizations to measure internationalization in universities³³³. We found that these lists include more or less the same categories, so we picked four most common and most relevant among them and classified them into the previously established categories of goal dimensions. The goal dimensions, the indicator sets and the contents of each indicator are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. *Framework for the discussion of the models*

Nº	Goal dimensions	Categories of indicators	Contents of indicators
1	To provide service to society and community social engagement	Contextual Elements (<i>What</i> contextual elements determine institutions' experience of internationalization)	Institutional context (Inter)national context
2	To well-prepare students for life and work in an intercultural and globalising world	Policies and Strategies (<i>Why</i> internationalization is important to higher education institutions)	Importance of internationalization strategy Scope Rationales Strategies
3	To enhance the quality of education	Organisational and support structures (<i>How</i> international elements are implemented)	Academic activities and services Organizational factors
4	To enhance the international reputation and visibility of the unit	Effects and evaluation (<i>To what end</i> these activities are directed)	Effects and evaluation of internationalization strategy Reinforcement

Source: Table by the author

In the following sections of this chapter we will describe the seven models introduced earlier in the light of the four major categories of indicators for measuring internationalisation: contextual elements; policies and strategies; organisational and support structures; and effects and evaluation, as shown in Table 16.

³³³ We have considered the following lists of measures or indicators: the guidelines of the Internationalisation Quality Review Process also described as the Outline for the Self-Assessment Process implemented by the OECD in 1999 (see Knight and de Wit, "An Introduction to the IQR Project and Process"); the categories used by the American Council on Education (ACE) developed in 2003 (see Madeleine F. Green and Christa Olson, *Internationalizing the campus: A user's guide* (Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 2003), accessed May 27, 2015, from <http://www.d.umn.edu/vcaa/intz/users%20guide.pdf>); the indicators of the Centre for Higher Education Development created in 2007 (see Brandenburg Uwe and Gero Federkeil, *How to Measure Internationality and Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions! Indicators and Key Figures*. (Gutersloh: Centre for Higher Education, 2007), accessed May 27, 2015, http://www.cheranking.de/downloads/How_to_measure_internationality_AP_92.pdf); the dimensions used by NUFFIC since 2009 (see NUFFIC, "Mapping Internationalisation (MINT)," 2014, accessed May 27, 2015, <https://www.nuffic.nl/en/expertise/quality-assurance-and-internationalisation/mapping-internationalisation-mint>); and the measures developed by NAFSA in 2013 (see Jan Steiner, ed. *Internationalizing the campus. Profiles of success at colleges and universities*. (USA: NAFSA, 2013), accessed May 27, 2015, from http://www.nafsa.org/_/File/_/itc2013.pdf).

Table 16. *Overview of the seven models through rankings' main categories of indicators*

Categories of Indicators/Models	1. Neave's Leadership and Base Unit Model	2. Rudzki's Fractal Process Model	3. Davies' Matrix Model	4. Van Dijk and Meijer's Cube Model	5. Van der Wende's NUFFIC Model	6. Knight's Internationalization Cycle	7. Rumbley's Delta Cycle for Internationalization
1. Contextual elements (<i>What</i> contextual elements determine institutions' experience of internationalization)		Context (external factors) Approach (internal factors)			International cooperation context (as an external condition)		Contextual factors - opportunities - imperatives - obstacles - resources
2. Policies and Strategies (<i>Why</i> internationalization is important to higher education institutions)	Scope of institutional strategy - definitional - elaborative	Rationales - economic and political - cultural end educational	Importance to the university - marginality - centrality	Policy dimension - marginal - priority	Goals and strategies - EU policy - national policy - institutional policy	Awareness Commitment Planning	Awareness Commitment Planning Rationales Strategies
3. Organizational and support structures (<i>How</i> international elements are implemented)	Administrative orientation - leadership model - base unit driven model	Dimensions of activities - organizational change - curriculum innovation - staff development - student mobility	How international elements are incorporated - ad-hoc - highly systematic	Support dimension - unilateral - interactive Implementation dimension - <i>ad hoc</i> - structured	Implementation of goals and strategies - student mobility - staff mobility - curriculum development	Operationalize - academic activities and services - organizational factors - use guiding principles	Operationalization
4. Effect and evaluation (<i>To what end</i> these activities are directed)		Monitoring and periodical review Changes			Effects and evaluation - short term - long term	Review Reinforcement	Review Reinforcement Change

Source: Table by the author

3.2.1. Contextual elements

As it was argued in the previous chapters, it could be quite challenging for higher education institutions to fulfil their basic function of providing service to society and community social engagement in today's complex and dynamic environments, which are often constrained by scarce resources and competing priorities. To better accomplish their core mission and best serve their communities, universities need to be prepared to monitor and understand the broadest global trends in higher education, as well as the internationalisation of higher education more specifically, while at the same time attending closely to the special needs and priorities of their particular institutions, local communities, and regional and national contexts.

It would be useful if this necessity to take into account a wide range of contextual elements could be reflected in the design of the internationalization organization model to be pursued. However, as discussed below, contextual determinants received a very different ranking of importance among the seven organization models discussed in this chapter. As shown in Table 16, the category of contextual elements comprises a range of institutional and (inter)national determinants of the internationalisation process. This category answers the question of *what* contextual elements determine, shape and condition institutions' experience of internationalisation.

Neave's leadership and base unit model only implicitly recognizes the importance of institutional and national contexts in his description of the definitional and elaborative scopes of institutional strategy. Davies uses a framework proposed earlier to conceptualise the principal internal and external factors in the development of international strategies. However, his matrix model does not take into consideration stakeholders' interests or political influences as external factors that may impact higher education institutions. In both, Davies' matrix model and van Dijk & Meijer cube model, that tries to refine it, the analysis is limited to external issues higher education institutions may have a direct effect on. Context, as a category of its own, appears only in the models proposed by Rudzki, Rumbley and van der Wende.

In considerations of internationalization at the institutional level, Rudzki, as a first stage, suggests to consider the external *context* understood firstly as the

transnational environment (such as an analysis of opportunities, the existence of specialist networks, or the availability of external funding to support activities), and secondly, as the national environment (such as overseas aid policy which supports scholarships for overseas students, consultancy opportunities, or foreign institution strengthening). In the second stage, called *approach*, Rudzki's fractal process model takes into account the internal factors (such as the history and culture of the institution, etc.). Although his use of context and approach instead of internal and external context was much criticised, for our research, the distinction between context and approach turned to be quite useful, because the category of approach, also comprises such important aspects as institution's priorities and its perception of internationalisation's purposes that, for our discussion, may also fit into our second category of indicators (policies and strategies), that will be described in the next section.

In Knight's Internationalization cycle, the importance of a supportive culture or context to integrate internationalization is mentioned, however, no external parties are named or external partnerships are specified in order to allow a more thorough exploration. Rumbley also argues that one of the missing elements of Knight's model is the recognition and articulation of important environmental factors that play a significant role in shaping institutions' experiences of internationalisation. The author tries to address this deficiency in her Delta cycle for internationalisation and includes four contextual factors that have an important impact on institutions' experience of internationalization, which are: opportunities, imperatives, obstacles and resources. Rumbley stresses that in order to have a clear understanding of internationalization it is important to monitor these contextual elements over time to identify trends and changes. Such a prospect, however, may be perceived differently by higher education institutions. While some institutions may feel they are bound to comply with these environmental factors, others may gain strength from having developed a clearer understanding of these elements, and be motivated to manage their international strategy in much more proactive manner. These more assertive universities will be better prepared to develop more sophisticated planning tools and serve their society and community in the most effective way possible.

In van der Wende's NUFFIC model, institution's international cooperation contacts with foreign institutions or companies are considered to be a necessary

external condition for the internationalisation process within the institution. A very interesting contribution of this model lies in the fact that the basic characteristics of the contacts reflect whether they are established between individuals or between institutions and whether they have a bilateral or a multilateral basis. A particular form of international cooperation covers those contacts in which not only higher education institutions but also industry are involved. These contacts can also be implemented in a bilateral or a multilateral form.

3.2.2. Policies and strategies

In the second chapter of this study, it was argued that the complex and changeable landscape of internationalization, along with the speed with which new developments present themselves in the current intercultural and globalizing world, makes managing internationalization policies and strategies (and their constituent components) extremely challenging. Even a more difficult task is to provide students with a state-of-the-art learning experience that will effectively serve to prepare them for life and work in this rather unpredictable and interconnected age. As a result, institutions are struggling to make their internationalization strategies as effective and efficient as possible.

In this section, the seven models will be examined from the perspective of the strategic planning of internationalization efforts. The category of policies and strategies comprises such elements as the importance attached to internationalization, its scope, rationales, as well as institutional strategies designed to promote it. This category examines the question of *why* internationalization is important to higher education institutions and how this importance is mirrored in their strategies.

Unlike the first one, the category of policies and strategies is, to a large degree, described in all seven models. However, the authors use a different approach to address it. For Davies and for van Dijk & Meijer one of the main dimensions for examining internationalization policies is the importance attached to internationalisation, which in their models can range from marginality (internationalisation is a marginal activity of the institution) to centrality (internationalisation is central in the mission and goals of the institution). Neave's model examines not so much the importance, but the scope of institutional strategy, that can be definitional or elaborative, or, put differently, proactive and reactive.

Rudzki's model examines the internationalization policies from the perspective of the rationales behind them. He identifies economic and political rationales, as well as cultural and educational ones. We also believe that there is a great importance in clarifying the rationales for internationalisation as they define the direction and justification to be followed.

In van der Wende's model, the start, direction, and general aims of the process, as well as the specific goals and strategies, are formulated in policy statements and papers delivered by (supra)national governments. However, the model is too narrow, in its description of the motives for internationalising the curriculum. The assumption that an institution's policy is mainly inspired by (supra)national governmental policies, ignores other possible internal motivations for the internationalisation of higher education institutions. Such a narrow focus is, perhaps, understandable given the latest efforts of the European Union to strengthen the EHEA. Nevertheless, the individual initiatives of institutions to improve their internationalization strategies are just as important and necessary as the supra(national) ones and their potential does not have to be underestimated.

Conversely, Knight gives a high priority to individual initiatives of institutions to enhance and promote internationalization strategies. This idea is clearly reflected in her model that focuses mainly on the incidents on the internal structure and development of higher education institution. In her Internationalization cycle, the first three steps in the development of a comprehensive and practical strategy consist of creating awareness of the importance and benefit of internationalization; building commitment to the process of internationalization; and developing a comprehensive plan or strategy. However, the discrete categories of Knight's internationalization cycle do not get at the underlying questions of why universities are motivated to internationalize. Rumbley's model maintains these three original steps but also includes a broader perspective of rationales and strategies for internationalization that may facilitate a more effective analysis of the process.

3.2.3 Organisational and support structures

Improvement in the quality of education, research, teaching and curriculum has long been recognized as a positive outcome of internationalization. Through exchange of good practice, shared curricular reform, international mobility and close research

cooperation, internationalization can offer many benefits. It is also a powerful and transformative phenomenon, as it makes institutions, national and even supra-national actors to adjust and adapt their administrative policies and organizational procedures. A very tangible example of this development can be seen in the way universities are tuning their organizational and support structures to make the most of the internationalization opportunities and be able to enhance the quality of their education and research.

This part looks at the various ways in which institutions implement their internationalization strategies and operationalize them. This category will examine the models from the prism of organisational and support structures. It comprises such components as academic activities and organizational factors and addresses the question of *how* international elements are implemented.

The category of organisational and support structures can also be found in all seven models. In Knight's and Rumbley's model the fourth phase of the process of internationalization consists of operationalization, that includes several important components such as: academic activities and services, organizational factors and guiding principles. Bridging strategic planning with operational plans and translating these plans into academic activities and services is not an easy task to accomplish, however, this is the only way to build a sound and functional internationalization strategy.

Davies', van Dijk & Meijer's and Neave's models are mainly focused on organizational factors and the way in which internationalization activities are implemented. Davies' model shows that international elements may be incorporated in an *ad hoc* (sporadic and irregular way) or in a highly systematic manner (precise and explicit procedures). Van Dijk & Meijer argue that Davies' model only takes into account the design of the organizational dimension, but does not capture the way in which it is managed. They thus add a third dimension to Davies' original model, the support dimension, that consists of the type of support for internationalisation activities, ranging from unilateral (central or peripheral) to interactive. This could be compared with a top-down and bottom-up approach in the case of a unilateral strategy and with a combined top-down and bottom-up approach in the case of an interactive one. A top-down and bottom up approach is also used in Neave's description of the structures set up to service and administer international cooperation that were reduced

to two paradigms: academically initiated and bottom heavy “base unit driven” system and managerially initiated and top down “leadership driven” system.

On the other hand, the models developed by van der Wende and Rudzki focus not so much on how internationalization activities are implemented, but on the activities and services themselves. Van der Wende and Rudzki’s models place them into three similar categories: student mobility, staff mobility, and curriculum innovation. The limiting factor of these three elements is that they mainly concentrate on the educational aspects of internationalization, excluding other aspects such as international research cooperation and technical assistance provided in the context of development cooperation. With regard to Rudzki’s first category, organizational change, we share the common belief that it is a much more generic and broad category that perhaps deserved a separate section, however, in the Fractal process model, it was placed in the same subset with the three more specific categories mentioned above.

3.2.4. Effects and evaluation

The pressures and challenges of globalization and the worldwide race for talent and expertise encourage higher education institutions to enhance their international reputation and visibility. With this aim in mind, they develop evaluation and reinforcement procedures to improve their internationalization practices. This section will look at the strategies used for the evaluation of internationalization policies and consists of such elements as effects and evaluation of internationalization strategies and their reinforcement. The question that it addresses is *what* the end results of these efforts are.

In spite of the growing importance to assess and enhance quality and impact of internationalization initiatives, not all models represent this necessity to the same extent. The models proposed by Neave, Davies and van Dijk & Meijer only implicitly or briefly mention the importance to evaluate the impact of internationalization initiatives and reinforce them. While in Rudzki’s, Knight’s, Rumbley’s and van der Wende’s models this category was given the attention it deserves and was clearly depicted in their schemes.

In Rudzki’s model, the category of monitoring and periodic review was given due importance. It forms the fifth stage of his model and is meant to ensure the

coherence between what is happening within the institution and the elements within the model (the external context, the approach, the rationale, and the activities). For Rudzki, the review stage allows an evaluation to take place in order to assess both the extent and the failings of the internationalization process, and can be interpreted in terms of the continuous improvement model of quality. The monitoring and review stage is followed by the change/repositioning stage of the internationalization process. This last stage allows changes to be made, including the increase or reduction of activities as is required.

In the same way, the review phase was carefully acknowledged in Knight's and Rumbley's models for its contribution to assessing and enhancing the quality and impact of the different aspects of the process. Knight's original internationalization cycle has another important advantage, which is its last, reinforcement phase. This phase emphasizes the importance to find ways to value and reward faculty and staff who are involved in internationalization work in order for commitment and interest to be sustained. Rumbley's model, in its turn, gives weight to the notion of change, which captures the transformational nature of internationalisation and stresses even more the importance of comprehensive and periodical assessment of internationalization practices.

Van der Wende's model also gives a high priority to the evaluation phase that according to her could eventually lead to a redefinition of goals and strategies. For the author, in terms of quality assurance, the fact that general quality assurance systems in higher education not always pay adequate attention to international activities is a problem. The recent initiatives that have been taken to develop special guidelines and instruments for evaluation and quality assurance of internationalisation need to be constantly improved and upgraded to keep pace with future requirements. An essential contribution of van der Wende's model is the distinction between short-term (for student, staff, education) and long-term (in terms of quality of education, output, position of the institution) effects of internationalization, all of which have to be taken into account in the evaluation process.

Conclusions

As it could be seen in the course of this chapter, the seven models presented here have different approaches and a different focus for identifying and categorising

internationalization practices. Neave's model takes a paradigmatic approach for discussing the structures set up to support international cooperation. Two main categories can be found in his model: the strategic planning of institutional strategy and its administrative orientation. Although he implements a widely used distinction between centralised and decentralised models of internationalization, he adds a useful dimension of change to his matrix. However, we agree that model's practical application is somehow limited.

The model developed by Rudzki, has a more programmatic approach to strategies and provides a useful method for evaluating levels of international activity within higher education institutions. Despite the criticisms, his Fractal process model has a comprehensive structure that includes all four categories used in the description of our models: context, strategies, organization and evaluation. It thus allows the analysis and description of the complex process of internationalization within an institution providing practical insight and guidelines for the assessment and development of internationalization strategies.

Davies' matrix model and van Dijk & Meijer's cube model call for the adoption of more proactive modes of policy formation and institutionalisation of internationalization policies. Although van Dijk and Meijer, in an attempt to refine Davies' model later add a new category looking at the type of support for international activity, these two models still look at internationalization only from two out of four perspectives described earlier: the importance attached to internationalization and the way in which international activities are introduced. In spite of being limited and simplistic, Davies' and van Dijk & Meijer's models provide useful tools that may serve as an initial framework for internal internationalization processes.

The following three models take the process approach as their basis. Instead of focusing on the organization as such they focus on the process of internationalization strategy as a whole. Van der Wende's NUFFIC model has a particular focus on the characteristics of curriculum internationalization and excludes nearly all other aspects aside from curriculum adaptation and its effects. This can surely be a strong point for those who mainly deal with educational aspects of internationalization and for whom such a comprehensive analysis of curriculum internationalization may be very helpful,

for the rest, however, this may be a limiting factor. Nevertheless, van der Wende's model combines all four perspectives in her analysis.

Knight's model shows a wide internationalization process, examining mainly the internal structure and processes of an institution. Although the model does not consider important external factors, her Internationalization cycle is a sound representation of the process. Rumbley attempts to refine Knight's model and by adding four important contextual factors to the original internationalization cycle, elaborates the Delta cycle for internationalization. Rumbley's model also delves into the underlying questions of why universities are seeking to internationalize, how and in what ways they do this. Except the lack of an explicit contextual dimension in Knight's model, the Internationalization cycle and the Delta cycle are both comprehensive models that include all four perspectives in their designs.

Each of these seven organization models has its own approach to view internationalization. However, little to date has focused on the broad practical issues that academic managers, policy-makers and others directly involved in international work confront on a daily basis and few studies have examined internationalization from the perspective of how these policies are sustained and what determines their longevity. The pressure of intense international competition and the recognition of the wider benefits of internationalization, forces policy-makers to develop new internationalization policies and take steps to ensure the continuity of their programs.

This gap also refers to the most common lists of indicators used to measure the quality of internationalization in universities. As it could be seen in the discussion of this chapter, they use more or less the same programmatic and organizational categories addressing mainly the state of the art and/or the process for improvement. Institutions are reluctant to on-going assessment of internationalisation strategies, as this is a time consuming process. At the same time, they normally do not have a common and clear vision of the future direction of their international strategy and of the expected outcomes. And if rankings, as catalysts of policy actions, do not promote a more solid and sustainable organization of internationalization policies, the end result will probably be less effective.

Recognizing this practical necessity, we intend to set the bases for an organizational model that takes a different approach to the internationalization of

higher education. More specifically, this model will help to examine how the internationalization policies are organized and what measures could be taken for their sustainable development. The model is intended to provide a practically focused overview of some of the key organizational issues faced by managers and advance the discussions already taking place at the universities. Moreover, this new model arises from the need to maximise internationalization potential and develop long-lasting inter-institutional partnerships. A key concern of this model, therefore, is the need for higher education institutions to internalize the internationalization factor rather than simply follow inconsistent policies or merely react to events. The emphasis throughout the discussion is on the development of communitarian awareness in higher education institutions supported by sustainable international management practices.

In the next chapter, a detailed description of the bases for an organization model for the internationalization of higher education is presented, based on the comparison of the three structures: relational, institutional and communitarian. We believe that this model will provide a useful framework to interpret internationalization through the lens of communitarian logic and will help to assess how a certain structure, within which the internationalization activities occur, determines and conditions how successful and sustainable these activities might be.

4. Towards a Communitarian Approach to the Internationalization of Higher Education

We cannot seek achievement for ourselves and forget about progress and prosperity for our community... Our ambitions must be broad enough to include the aspirations and needs of others, for their sakes and for our own.

—Cesar Chavez

Introduction

Implementing successful ideas and innovative approaches to internationalization is a complex process that is made up of many constituent components such as well-thought strategies, sound organizational structures, strong international cooperation contacts, sustained commitment and sufficient resources. The organization of internationalization policies is, of course, far more complex and subtle than any model can fully capture. Successful internationalization requires a sophisticated balance of process and outcomes, goals and challenges, people and resources. However, the discussion of the seven models presented in the previous chapter helped us to highlight some of the core ideas that, for our research, laid the foundations for a reflection on the most important conditions that have to be considered in the development of a sound organization model for the internationalization of higher education. The results of this discussion will be presented in this chapter, which is the main contribution of this study.

On the one hand, inspired by the strong points of the discussed models, we identified the following *key success factors* in establishing strong international linkages. First of all, a successful internationalization process is always based on a deep understanding of the institutional and (inter) national contexts. A thorough analysis of the opportunities, imperatives, obstacles and resources will help higher education institutions to develop better, demand driven and more informed policies. As a result, institutions will be able to anticipate and adapt to the changes of the environment and, consequently ensure further growth and development of their internationalization policies. Moreover, it will help them become more productive in their efforts to serve their communities and purpose.

Second, a sound internationalization strategy ensures that a wide range of bilateral and multilateral international cooperation contacts are established not only at the individual, but mainly at the institution level. Individual level contacts may be easier to establish and have fewer management regulations. However, institutional level contacts, in spite of being more difficult to create, are able to improve the effectiveness of the internationalization strategies and make them more sustainable. The more institutionalized the internationalization process, the greater the benefit for the entire university community.

Third, there is a high awareness of the importance and rationales for internationalization, be that economic, political, cultural or educational. This awareness defines the direction of the policy and justification to be followed. In this way, the strategy is not just a simple process of putting objectives and means to reach them, on paper, but is actually a deeper analysis of the situation and conditions. The strategy is meaningful to people who are expected to implement it and has a set of clearly articulated principles that define how the organization needs to operate in the future.

Furthermore, this high awareness of the importance of international cooperation is tightly linked to an opportunity-oriented attitude and commitment toward internationalization. Strategy only creates value when it is executed, and is fully implemented only when key leaders are personally committed to the strategy's success. Besides, the commitment from senior administrators is complemented with a considerable support base of faculty, staff and students. An effective internationalization strategy requires significant commitment from the entire institution.

This extended commitment is supported by a proactive, strategically oriented approach to internationalization policy. Taking a proactive approach to internationalization makes institutions more robust and more successful, with a far greater support base and more scope to expand. While a strategically oriented approach optimizes institutions' internationalization efforts, allowing them to address more strategically and meaningfully the needs of their communities. It also enhances

institution's ability to provide students with the skills and competences required by the globalized world.

Of key importance is also the fact that internationalization strategies are defined in a precise and explicit way, which makes their application more feasible and manageable. This also ensures that policies are implemented in an ordered and systematic manner enhancing their longevity and sustainability. Durable internationalization policies are more likely to address the arising problems in an integrated and coordinated way and deliver tangible benefits to the students, faculty and the institution as a whole. As a result, these policies contribute to the improvement in the quality of higher education, research, teaching, curriculum and learning.

Another success factor is a high level of support for internationalization. There is an interactive (a combined top-down and bottom-up approach) type of support for internationalization activities that promotes a collaborative environment between institutional units and values the individual and collective contributions of every team member. Every institutional unit is responsible for managing a portion of the internationalization process and for collaborating with other departments. These interactions create a sense of belonging to the institution and promote collaboration towards the achievement of a common goal.

Apart from human resources, sufficient financial resources are also a very important component for effective implementation of internationalization activities. There is a coherent funding structure for internationalization and sizable investments are being made to generate more movement and encourage academic departments to be more active in internationalization efforts. Resources for internationalization come from a variety of local, national and international collaborators and cover many aspects of internationalization, education, research, publications, student mobility, etc. A guaranteed and adequate financial support is essential for the development and dissemination of internationalization programs.

Not of a less importance is the process of continuous improvement designed to adapt or revise the approach and measures used in internationalization. Evaluation and quality assurance procedures of internationalization strategies are constantly redefined and reshaped over time. These procedures serve to find gaps in the existing policies

and help to improve institution's internationalization programs and practices. Systematic and ongoing assessment of internationalization programs is the key to maximizing both asset productivity and strategic success. As a consequence, institution's status is improved, along with its visibility and reputation.

Moreover, there is a clear understanding of the desired end results of the internationalization strategy. This strategy is not an *ad hoc* measure for a short-term gain, but a carefully planned process whose every part is coherent with other policy elements, such as context, approach, rationale and activities. Apart from that, the internationalization strategy is in line with institution's overall purpose and mission. A strategy without a strong connection to institution's culture and a clear vision of the end results is doomed to failure. Any sound and successful strategy begins with a goal or vision of the desired outcome and sees it through to completion.

Finally, a system of rewards and recognition is in place for faculty and staff who are involved in internationalization activities. It demonstrates that an institution actually values the experiences and skills faculty and staff have gained. Improved appraisal systems linking individual performance and rewards to measurable institutional goals are the cornerstone of any effective internationalization strategy. Recognition and rewards programs are used as a tool to increase performance, build confidence and improve efficiency. In the long term, they inculcate a positive, productive and innovative institutional culture. Table 17 summarizes the key success factors described above.

Table 17. *Key Success Factors for Internationalization of Higher Education*

Nº	Key Success Factors
1	Deep understanding of institutional and (inter)national contexts
2	Contacts established mainly at the institutional not only individual level
3	High awareness of the importance and rationales for internationalization
4	Commitment from senior administrators supported by faculty, staff and students
5	Proactive, strategically-oriented approach to internationalization
6	Explicit strategies implemented in an ordered and systematic manner
7	Interactive (combined top-down and bottom up) type of support
8	Sufficient financial resources for the implementation of programs
9	Evaluation and quality assurance procedures are constantly redefined
10	Clear understanding of the desired end results
11	System of rewards and recognition for faculty and staff

Source: Table by the author

On the other hand, the analysis of the seven models also leads us to identify *three different structures* that represent three directions of the systematization of internationalization policies within higher education institutions. The first one is the relational structure, which consists of a decentralized series of activities developed between individual scholars and fulfils their personal interests. The second structure is the institutional one, where international linkages are established between institutions and serves the interests of certain groups. The last structure is the communitarian one that contains a common institutional vision on internationalization goals and strategies and acts on behalf of collective interests. It is this last structure that is capable of ensuring the most efficient organization of internationalization policies and their sustainability. Therefore, a progress towards the communitarian structure would be very useful for higher education institutions.

This chapter contains a more detailed description of the relational, institutional and communitarian structures. It also gives some specific examples of the three models, with a particular emphasis on the initiatives moving towards a communitarian structure. Finally, it presents a SWOT analysis of the model.

4.1 The proposal of bases for an organization model

The main idea of our model is based on the premise that internationalization policies of higher education institutions are organized in three major structures: relational, institutional and communitarian. These structures are not mutually exclusive; ideally, they should coexist and complement each other. Each of these structures has its own characteristics that could be described in one word: relational structure is conservative, institutional is limited and communitarian is good (from the perspective of the organization of internationalization), but challenging to implement in practice. In order to get a better understanding of why nowadays some organization models are favoured over others, it is necessary to have a closer look at each of them and see what drives their development.

4.1.1 Relational structure

Historically, students and professors have always moved between countries. In doing so, they relied on personal contacts, which were established during formal meetings and informal gatherings with academics working in similar fields and

sharing similar interests. These contacts were established on scholars' own initiative without any external encouragement and their main interest was to fulfil their personal academic and career objectives. National or even institutional concerns and goals were rarely taken into consideration in these relationships. Although many of these links were rewarding at a personal level and in some cases even led to some partnership agreements, they rarely survived in the long run and normally fell apart after the departure of key enthusiasts. A new person would have to start the process from scratch without any guidance or steps to follow. At that time, effective organization of internationalization activities, let alone their strong sustainability, were rarely observed.

Nowadays, important changes have taken place in the way the universities organize their internationalization policies. They have dedicated International Relations Offices that regulate international student mobility, they regularly sign mobility agreements with other universities and their academic staff is actively involved in international activities. Nevertheless, some of the traditional patterns of internationalization are still prevalent today. The significance of personal contacts is still extremely important in academic exchanges. If, on the one hand, this can surely be seen as positive in ensuring the compliance of internationalization activities, on the other hand, it can also be a sign that these activities are systematized in an individual and decentralized way, and this factor, just as the past has proven, hinders their sustainable development. Moreover, it is conservative, views any changes with suspicion and is unwilling to change its traditional setup. The fact that relational model continues to be the dominant paradigm for internationalization activities, prevents a truly effective systematization of internationalization efforts. Examples of this structure may include numerous individual international cooperation initiatives of faculty members based on their personal contacts and relationships.

4.1.2 Institutional structure

Traditionally, higher education institutions have developed international linkages with other institutions abroad through bilateral agreements and partnerships. These agreements then turn into arrangements for educational cooperation, international development projects and various research and training activities. In recent years, the growing importance of internationalization and the impact of

globalization on higher education promoted and encouraged the emergence of new academic associations and networks. Nowadays, with technology at our fingertips, it is easier than ever before to build university networks and encourage inter-university cooperation. There are also more reasons than before to establish different types of collaborations. Financial constraints, the pressures of competition and escalating customer demands, are all factors that today increase the need to establish and strengthen different types of institutional collaborations.

Institutional collaborations take many forms; some of them represent broad concerns, while others are dedicated to favor more specific interests. Among the most prominent examples are: academic associations such as the International Association of Universities (IAU), or the European Association of International Education (EAIE); academic consortia, such as the Joint Study Programs in the ERASMUS scheme, or the Consortium of Higher Education Researchers; and institutional networks, such as Universitas 21. These types of collaborations fall under the second structure of our model, the institutional structure. This structure not only has a more durable and positive impact on the overall internationalization process, but also helps to move towards a common institutional vision and purpose. Internationalization initiatives are no longer the reflection of individual interests, but rather a part of a broader and more comprehensive institutional internationalization strategy. It is directed towards the fulfillment of the needs and interests of an academic community through an ongoing effort and involvement of its members. The institutional structure is able to adapt to the demands of the social environment and the pressure of competing forces. Consequently, the institutional structure takes a long time perspective and a holistic approach to setting goals and establishing executable action plans.

However, although the institutional collaborations have grown considerably in number and importance in the past years, there are still some factors that limit the development of their full potential. One of them is the tendency of many institutions to take a short-term perspective when planning programs. Many networks focus only on the possibilities and sources available in the short term and do not take into account the fact that these opportunities might disappear in the future. Hence, it is important to build long-term relationships, and for that, a lot of time and energy needs to be spent on making the network goals, objectives and imperatives known and

accepted within the academic community and among the member institutions. This also implies the reliance on the personal contacts of the relational structure, to establish good interpersonal relationships between the institutions' leaders and university members involved in the projects. Apart from that, it is important to disseminate the information to the entire university community, so that everyone can share opinions and have their voice heard, instead of merely relying on top down solutions from authorities. Another factor that has to be taken into consideration more often is that higher education institutions should not use international collaborations only for their own benefit, but also to serve the public good. They should join their forces to help solve common problems and become change agents in their communities.

4.1.3 Communitarian structure

If institutional structure is limited to the signing of agreements and international conventions, the communitarian structure goes one step further and includes a common, communitarian perspective on internationalization for the whole institution. In this case, university governing bodies are responsible for developing an internationalization model that would serve as a guiding principle for the entire university community. It is the university board that decides what model to use and what strategy to follow. The adopted model is imposed on everyone and becomes the one and only model to pursue. The internationalization strategy is normally very narrow in focus and deals with a particular continent or geographical region.

In the case of the communitarian structure, when the university imposes a unique strategic approach, the liberty of individual academics to choose their own internationalization paths is being sacrificed for the common good. If on the one hand this model may seem too confining and rigid, because it somehow limits academic freedom, on the other hand, from the point of view of the university governing system, it could be very beneficial, because it makes governing much more controllable, manageable and reform much easier to implement. This structure would help the institution to be much more coherent and consistent in its internationalization strategy, gain a competitive advantage over other higher education institutions and contribute to overall institutional development.

Ad intra the most important advantage of the communitarian structure lies in its ability to strengthen and improve the entire culture of the university, its identity and mission. It has the potential to make the university a more integrated place, have a more united community and function as a whole. A university with a strong identity has a fiduciary component or a component of trust built into it, which attracts partners and brings validity to the collaborative community efforts. Moreover, it is more likely to be able to address the challenges in a more holistic manner with measurable targets and indicators. This structure from the organizational point of view would be most beneficial to the university community; however, it is very challenging to implement it in practice, because the very nature of the academic world prevents it. Elite universities like Harvard and Oxford that have a very rich and long internationalization tradition could be examples that move towards this stage.

Ad extra the fundamental feature of the communitarian structure has to do with the way it is organized and its constituent components. If the relational structure mainly consists of individuals, the institutional structure is composed by universities, then the communitarian structure is basically a social network that includes not only academic institutions, but also governments, international, regional and national institutions and organizations, foundations and other non-governmental entities closely linked with the universities. The reason is directly related to its aim and scope. The aim of this structure would not be just about developing institutions' own reputation, research and teaching skills, but it would be about collaborating with other parties to help them develop as well, it would have a strong public orientation and would see itself as being involved in providing solutions to the world's problems, both in their own countries and in other countries in the world. So it will have a broader purpose, than just its own purpose as an organization, a global purpose in a way, in addition to the individual purpose that each institution has.

There are and will always be institutions of higher education for which the international dimension will be primarily based on a relational structure and for which international activities will have an incidental and individual character. Others will opt for the development of more effective inter-institutional collaborations. And only a few global players will emerge, that will take a full advantage of the opportunities that new technologies and the global market provide. It is this type of networking, the connecting of the best with the brightest, the linking of university services to societal

change, the willing to help and make a change in the world that we should strive for. Table 18 illustrates the main characteristics of the three structures.

Table 18. *Main Characteristics of the Relational, Institutional and Communitarian Structures*

THEE STRUCTURES WHICH COEXIST

RELATIONAL STRUCTURE	INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE
Function: maintain the previous model of relations and ensure a “peaceful” and decentralized coexistence. Promotes individual interests and is self-driven. Is conservative. Does not intervene. Legitimizes. Regulatory framework: dispositive, discretionary, arbitrary.	Function: adapt to the demands of the social environment (certain groups of the university) and cooperate to achieve common goals. Centralizes and serves the interests of certain groups. Is more able to achieve collective interests, but is still fragmentary. Is innovative and tends to reinvent. Regulatory framework: programmatic, non-binding.
COMMUNITARIAN STRUCTURE Function: Integrate and enhance the general consensus on collective interests. Builds university community. Is revolutionary. Regulatory framework: objective regulations above particular interests.	

Source: Olga Barcari, Cristina de la Cruz Ayuso and Joana Abrisketa, February 26, 2014

4.2 Towards a Communitarian Approach to Internationalization. The case of Harvard

In the previous section we argued that of the three structures used to organize the internationalization policies in higher education, the communitarian structure is the most beneficial among them, because it ensures the sustainability and viability of internationalization activities, is more effective in achieving the desired outcomes and has a holistic and integrated approach to internationalization practices. This section will provide an example of a successful implementation of this strategy in practice and all the positive outcomes that it is able to offer.

Not surprisingly, the example that will be discussed below was found at Harvard University, a university that is inherently global. As mentioned in the introduction of this dissertation, the use of a single case study is considered a major limitation of this research. Nevertheless, the case selected for this analysis, that is of one of the most exclusive universities in the world, allowed for important insights into the key elements of a successful and sustainable implementation of the internationalization strategy that hopefully could be useful to other institutions interested in undertaking a more systematic approach to internationalization.

The Harvard case was chosen due to its world-class faculty, high-level research and, more importantly, for its remarkable success in internationalization. Harvard's influential status is reflected in the fact that it has once again topped the list of three most widely accepted higher education institution rankings: Times Higher Education Supplement,³³⁴ Academic Ranking of World Universities³³⁵ and Webometrics Ranking.³³⁶ Although there is no common agreement regarding the measurement of internationalization across these three rankings,³³⁷ all of them include this variable in their research. The fact that Harvard is ranked first in these higher education ranking systems denotes how appropriately its strategies are formulated and how effectively they are implemented. That is why the following sections will take a closer look at

³³⁴ Times Higher Education, "World Reputation Rankings 2015," 2015, accessed June 10, 2015, <https://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/2015/reputation-ranking>.

³³⁵ ARWU, "Academic Ranking of World Universities," 2014, accessed June 10, 2015, <http://www.shanghairanking.com>.

³³⁶ Webometrics, "Ranking Web of Universities," 2015, accessed June 10, 2015, <http://www.webometrics.info/en/world>.

³³⁷ Blanca L. Delgado-Márquez, Nuria E. Hurtado-Torres and Yaroslava Bondar, "Internationalization of Higher Education in University Institution Rankings: The Influence of National Culture," *Journal of International Education & Leadership* 2, no. 1 (2012): 1-17.

Harvard internationalization strategy in order to see what Harvard does well, and how it does it. To achieve this aim we will use the same methodology applied in the discussion of the seven models (see table 15) and analyse Harvard global strategy to determine: *what* contextual elements determine its experience of internationalisation; *why* internationalization is important to this institution and how this importance is mirrored in its strategies; *how* international elements are implemented; and *to what end* these efforts are made.

4.2.1 Contextual elements of Harvard global strategy

Established in 1636 by European colonists, who looked after a way “to advance learning and perpetuate it to prosperity”³³⁸, Harvard was intended to replicate the knowledge and expertise in Christ’s College, Cambridge. Over the course of nearly four centuries, Harvard has grown from a small colonial college to one of the world’s premier higher education establishments and one of the most recognizable brands in international higher education.

Today Harvard enrolls more than 125 countries and more than 20% of its students are from outside the United States³³⁹. It has leading international research centres and attracts top academic scientists and scholars from all around the world. Harvard’s influence extends far beyond its local boundaries. It is the alma mater of eight U.S presidents, notable foreign heads of state, numerous Nobel laureates, Pulitzer Prize winners and leading thinkers from around the world. At a time when higher education is facing a number of strategic questions like the changing nature of global education and the immersion of technology, the influence of emerging nations and the challenges of the world’s environment, Harvard became an agent of change fully engaged in creating the conditions necessary for national progress, highlighting its privileged status as the repository of knowledge, skills and competencies.

For nearly five years now, Harvard has been involved in a university-wide discussion about how it can most effectively seize the opportunities and challenges brought by the complex realities of our interconnected world. To face the challenges raised by the changing nature of global education, the increasing competition to train

³³⁸ Tomas Shepard, *New England’s First Fruits* (London: R.O and G.D, 1643),

³³⁹ Harvard University, “Students, by the Numbers,” accessed June 10, 2015, <http://worldwide.harvard.edu/international-student-enrollment>

future leaders, and to find the best ways to coordinate Harvard's global strategy, an International Strategy Working Group³⁴⁰ was appointed by Harvard President Drew Faust in 2010. Faust asserted that Harvard has a rich tradition of global engagement and the intellectual and cultural activities of its students and faculty across the globe will continue to grow as the university heads deeper into the 21st century.³⁴¹ The working group is made up of faculty members from each school within the University and according to Dominguez, the vice provost for international affairs, the purpose of this group is to carry out "some attempt at systematic thinking" about the University's global approach and to "discern what it is we are doing now."³⁴² The recommendations of the working group have remained confidential.

Two years later Faust appointed Harvard Business School professor Krishna G. Palepu to the newly-created position of Senior Adviser to the President for Global Strategy, making the next step in the university's efforts to define a coherent approach to its international engagement. Among his responsibilities is to work in close collaboration with the president, provost, and colleagues to help guide the University's international strategy, review and test some operational proposals of the International Strategy Working Group, and adopt a more effective and coherent approach in international fundraising and to engaging Harvard alumni living abroad.³⁴³ It is important to point out that Palepu is required to consult widely with colleagues within the University and in the broader Harvard community as he undertakes this role.

In 2013, in her message to faculty outlining seven principles that will lead the Harvard Campaign, Faust listed the idea that "knowledge and learning is increasingly global"³⁴⁴ and that Harvard needs to become more assertive in its international engagement. The Campaign advocates the idea of a Global Harvard, emphasizing the importance to enhance University's global reach and impact, as well as the integration of global perspectives into its research and teaching. It encourages Harvard students

³⁴⁰ We did not have access to all information about the internationalization policy of Harvard, but we could find some of the initiatives that the institution has developed within this policy.

³⁴¹ Harvard Gazette, "An adviser for global strategy," January 11, 2012, accessed June 11, 2015, <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2012/01/an-adviser-for-global-strategy/>.

³⁴² Tara W. Merrigan, Zoe A. Y. Weinberg, "Harvard Rethinks Strategy Abroad," October 18, 2011, accessed June 11, 2015, http://www.thecrimson.com/article/2011/10/18/board_examines_international_presence/.

³⁴³ Harvard Gazette, "An adviser for global strategy."

³⁴⁴ Drew Faust, "The Harvard Campaign," Office of the President, May 16, 2013, accessed June 11, 2015, <http://www.harvard.edu/president/harvard-campaign>.

and faculty to understand their fields and their lives within a global context enriched by the interdisciplinary content of the curriculum, the international nature of the campus, and the opportunities for outstanding international research, study and engagement.³⁴⁵

It is important to note that according to Faust, the development of Harvard's emerging global strategy began by considering its distinctive strengths. She identified some of them. First of all, the university is home to nearly 80 research centers and academic programs focused on global issues or on specific countries and regions, and provides instruction in more than 70 languages. Secondly, Harvard is looking for problem-based engagement that draws on region-based resources. "In global health, for instance, we combine expertise across our Schools in fields like medicine, humanities, business, and law with area-specific knowledge to enhance understanding of the cultural contexts in which our efforts are located,"³⁴⁶ said Faust. Thirdly, the University has an impressive number of international connections, including over 50,000 international alumni in all but five of the world's countries that contribute to maximise its capacity to attract the best students, faculty, and staff and to remain one of the world's greatest universities. Finally, in all these initiatives, there is a significant emphasis on the adoption of a broad perspective to fully understand the global context: "As we encourage faculty to envision their work and its impact with the broadest perspective possible, we will continue to expand opportunities for students to situate their knowledge and understand their lives in a global context,"³⁴⁷ explained Faust.

4.2.2 Harvard Internationalization Policies and Strategies

Although the recommendations of the International Strategy Working Group have remained confidential, Harvard's strategic position on one front has become clear: "At a time when some universities are expanding their physical footprint abroad³⁴⁸, Harvard remains committed to keeping its undergraduate student body

³⁴⁵ Ibid.

³⁴⁶ Drew Faust, "Toward a Global Strategy for Harvard," Harvard Magazine. September – October 2012, accessed June 11, 2015, <http://harvardmagazine.com/2012/09/toward-a-global-strategy-for-harvard>.

³⁴⁷ Ibid.

³⁴⁸ Examples of this strategy include Yale-NUS College in Singapore (2011); New York University's campuses in Abu-Dhabi (2010) and Shanghai (2013); and Duke-Kunshan University in China (2014)

firmly rooted in Cambridge. “I’m not in the McDonald’s franchising business”³⁴⁹, noted Dominguez. A message from President Faust in Harvard Magazine entitled “Toward a Global Strategy for Harvard” explains their strategy to produce a small physical but large intellectual footprint: Instead of selecting one or two locations for the disproportionate attention and investment required to build a campus abroad, they decided to support the engagements that emerge from the widely distributed interests of dozens of faculty across their Schools.³⁵⁰

For 379 years, Harvard has had a significant global impact across a wide range of disciplines that benefits all of humanity.³⁵¹ Its strong international presence is supported through 16 officially recognized overseas offices and many more programs organized by specific schools. Figure 11 illustrates the broad scope of Harvard’s international strategy. Nevertheless, until little more than a decade ago, Harvard did not have a center representing the entire University outside of Cambridge. The following description of Harvard’s strategies and policies is narrowed down to this relatively new approach to Harvard’s international engagement (a university-wide office abroad), because it best portrays how some of the key characteristics of the communitarian structure discussed in section 4.1.3 are used in practice.

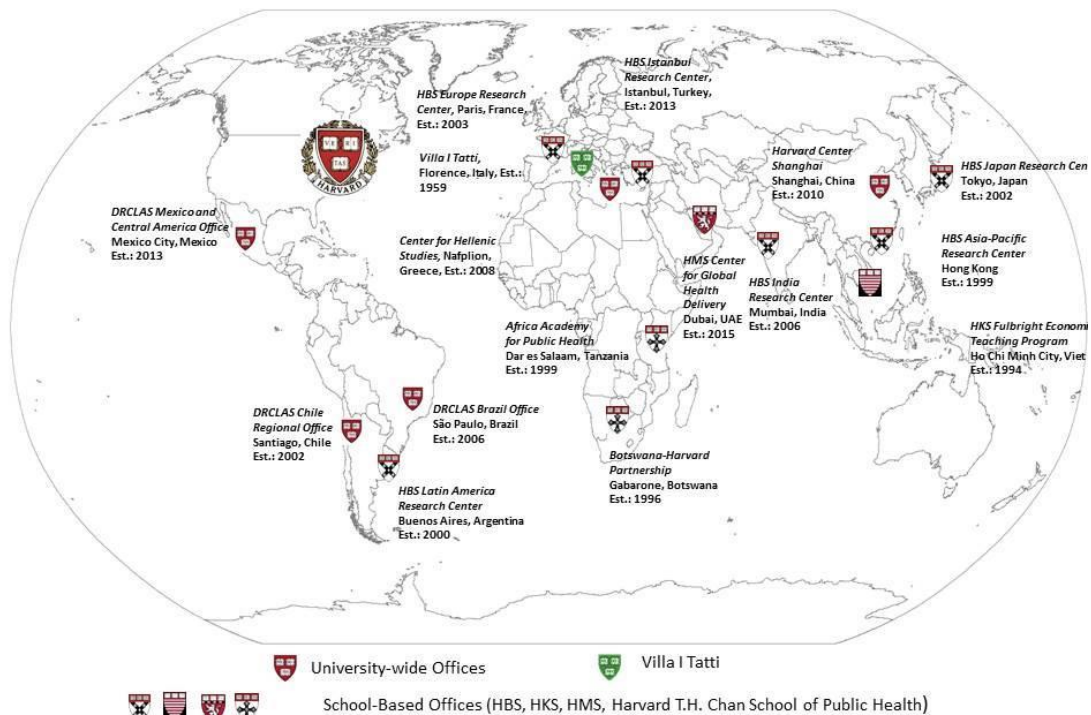
An interesting example is Yale University’s Project in Singapore which is an undergraduate campus co-sponsored with National University of Singapore called Yale-NUS. This ambitious project thrills many in the Yale community who say it will help the university build global influence. But it has also stirred sharp criticism from those who say it is impossible to build an elite college dedicated to free inquiry in an authoritarian nation with heavy restrictions on public speech and assembly. For further information see Stephanie Simon, “Yale Under Fire for New Campus in Restrictive Singapore,” December 29, 2012, accessed June 11, 2015, <http://www.reuters.com/article/2012/12/29/us-usa-education-yale-singapore-idUSBRE8BS03320121229>.

³⁴⁹ Michael C. George and Alyza J. Sebenius, “Between Harvard and Yale, a World of Difference,” *The Harvard Crimson*, May 24, 2012, accessed June 12, 2015, <http://www.thecrimson.com/article/2012/5/24/international-harvard-yale-singapore/?print=1>.

³⁵⁰ Drew Faust, “Toward a Global Strategy for Harvard.”

³⁵¹ Harvard Gazette, “Harvard receives its largest gift,” June 3, 2015, accessed June 12, 2015, <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2015/06/harvard-receives-its-largest-gift/>.

Figure 11. *Harvard global engagement: locations abroad*



² Harvard University Press has an office in London. HBS Publishing has offices in London (shared w/HUP), Paris, Doha, Mumbai, and Singapore.

Source: Harvard University by Numbers³⁵²

In 1994 David Rockefeller Center for Latin American Studies (DRCLAS) was founded by Neil L. Rudenstine, then University President, and David Rockefeller, who shared the conviction that Harvard must be intellectually prepared to respond to the changes in the Americas emerging from demographic transitions and economic restructuring.³⁵³ At the inauguration of the Center, Rudenstine made clear that the Center is affiliated to the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, but is deliberately University-wide in its reach.³⁵⁴ DRCLAS mission is to advance knowledge of the cultures, histories, economies and contemporary affairs of Latin America; to encourage cooperation and understanding among peoples of the Americas; and to foster social progress, democracy and sustainable development throughout the hemisphere³⁵⁵. The Center's structure reflects its inter-disciplinary nature: the Executive Committee is composed of twelve senior faculty members from throughout the University. Overall,

³⁵² Harvard University, "Global Engagement: Locations Abroad," accessed June 12, 2015, <http://worldwide.harvard.edu/harvard-global-engagement-locations-abroad>.

³⁵³ DRCLAS "Mission and Overview," accessed June 12, 2015, <http://drclas.harvard.edu/pages/mission-and-overview>.

³⁵⁴ Ibid.

³⁵⁵ Ibid.

DRCLAS established three overseas offices: the Regional Office in Santiago, Chile (2002); the Brazil Office in São Paulo (2006); and the Mexico and Central America Office in Mexico City (2013). In the following sections we will mainly focus on the first one.

Harvard's first university-wide office abroad was established in Santiago, Chile in 2002. It became "the first-ever Harvard University international office whose mission is to serve the entire University"³⁵⁶. It was created to offer support to Harvard faculty, students, or staff from any part of the University and to reinforce ties between the University and institutions in the region³⁵⁷. The Office has a broad mandate to advance international learning and research in Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Peru, and Uruguay. The creation of this Regional Office is a clear example of the application of this new approach to Harvard's international strategy that aligns with the overall mission outlined by Faust, in which Harvard seeks to have a small physical presence, yet a large intellectual footprint, all of this combined with a strong awareness of its global context.

4.2.3 Organizational and support structures

How has the Regional Office put its strategic ambitions into practice and encouraged teachers and learners to encompass the broadest possible geographic context in order to help addressing region's most complex issues? Through its faculty-led programmes the Regional Office contributed to disease prevention, livelihood restoration, community mental health, capacity building, technical assistance and many scientific inventions and discoveries. The success of the Regional Office is largely due to its two key operational principles. The first one is its high reliance on collaborative projects with a diverse array of partners in the region including universities, governmental entities, non-profit and private organizations, and community groups. Building strong bridges between Harvard and the region, "the Regional Office reinforces the mission of DRCLAS by being a catalyst for the creation of faculty connections with local stakeholders to develop research projects

³⁵⁶ DRCLAS Regional Office, "History and Accomplishments," accessed June 12, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/about>.

³⁵⁷ Ibid.

that make a difference in the countries being served”³⁵⁸. The second one is the significant faculty support by the Regional Office that includes cooperation in program planning, identification of contacts, the development of collaboration between institutions and a generous start-up funding support. Below are some examples of programs showing how these goals are met.

4.2.3.a Faculty Programs

There are many faculty-led initiatives supported by the DRCLAS Regional Office,³⁵⁹ this section provides three most relevant examples: Recupera Chile, Un Buen Comienzo and ELEMENTAL.

Recupera Chile. This is an on-going, multidisciplinary program coordinated by the Regional Office, in collaboration with the Harvard Kennedy School, Harvard Medical School and Harvard Graduate School of Design. This initiative was developed by the combined forces of a broad coalition of institutions including Harvard students, alumni and Chilean academic, non-profit, and private and public sector organizations that engaged in post-disaster recovery of three communities of Cobquecura, Dichato and Perales, near the epicentre of the 2010 earthquake and tsunami in southern Chile. The people, businesses and local governments of each of these three communities are working shoulder to shoulder with Recupera Chile on a range of issues including disaster recovery, capacity building, community mental health, early childhood education and cultural heritage restoration. The project “connects these and other resources with the needs of the communities and, in so doing, involves different actors in the long-term and sustainable development of the area”³⁶⁰. From the beginning of the project, most of the infrastructure has been repaired and more than 80% of people who lost their houses are now in their new homes.³⁶¹ Nevertheless, leaders of Recupera Chile are quick to emphasize that they are not direct service providers, instead they help residents to solve their own

³⁵⁸ DRCLAS Regional Office, “Institutional Brochure,” accessed June 13, 2015, http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/files/drclasregionaloffice/files/h_brochure04.pdf.

³⁵⁹ Among other initiatives supported by the DRCLAS Regional Office are projects like: Granjeros del mar, ARTS@ DRCLAS, Antarctica Museum, and Harvard Chile Innovation Initiative. For more information about Regional Office’s faculty programs: <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/faculty>.

³⁶⁰ DRCLAS Regional Office, “Recupera Chile,” accessed June 18, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/pages/recupera-chile>.

³⁶¹ Colleen Walsh, “Brick by brick,” Harvard Gazette, October 15, 2013, accessed June 18, 2015, <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2013/10/brick-by-brick/>.

problems: “It’s a whole-community approach. It’s about rebuilding lives”³⁶². Recupera Chile’s longer-term objective is “to create local and international networks to support the projects and to build on lessons learned to strengthen local capabilities that will ensure that the results will endure once these actors step aside”³⁶³. The main factor in the success of this project lies in the fact that it recognizes the community as the main driver of the recovery and development process and takes steps to ensure its sustainability.³⁶⁴

Un Buen Comienzo. Harvard Graduate School of Education, Harvard Medical School and the DRCLAS Regional Office originally designed and implemented jointly this pioneering program in 2006. Under the leadership of the Fundación Educacional Oportunidad and the Chilean government, the project made important interventions in language and literacy in preschools from low income families in Chile. The project represents the first large-scale experimental longitudinal evaluation in South America in 64 public schools to analyse impacts of improving preschool education. Its mission is to “reduce levels of reading difficulty, reduce vocabulary gap between low-income families and more advanced counterparts, increase levels of social participation and improve attendance in the classroom with preventive health measures.”³⁶⁵ It assisted over 3,800 at-risk children from four to six years of age between 2008 and 2010 in 31 schools in Santiago in six vulnerable school districts, and evaluated about 2,300 children in language, health and socioemotional development.³⁶⁶ Project’s strong point lies in its training approach which allows teachers to recognize potential problems in young children in all four major areas: language development, family stability, health, and socioeconomic development.³⁶⁷ Project’s success has captured the interest of the Chilean government who wants to expand this program well beyond the pilot schools where it is already found³⁶⁸. The

³⁶² Ibid.

³⁶³ DRCLAS Regional Office, “Recupera Chile.”

³⁶⁴ For more information about Recupera Chile, visit project’s website: <http://www.recuperachile.com>.

³⁶⁵ DRCLAS Regional Office, “Un Buen Comienzo,” accessed June 19, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/un-buen-comienzo>.

³⁶⁶ Ibid.

³⁶⁷ Alvin Powell, “Harvard lends a hand to Chile,” *Harvard Gazette*, February 28, 2011, accessed June 19, 2015, <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2011/02/harvard-lends-a-hand-to-chile/>.

³⁶⁸ *Harvard Gazette*, “Spotlight on Harvard in Chile,” March 22, 2011, accessed June 19, 2015, <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2011/03/spotlight-on-harvard-in-chile/>.

Harvard Graduate School of Education is conducting a systematic evaluation of the program.³⁶⁹

ELEMENTAL. This is a social housing program that was designed to build seven model projects, of about 200 units each, throughout Chile. These projects used the best practices in construction, social work, engineering and architecture in order to address the problem of housing access for the poor. The initiative was initially launched by a group of professors from the Harvard Design School, who got together the Faculty of Architecture and the Program of Policies of the Universidad Catolica de Chile, the Housing Ministry of Chile and the DRCLAS Regional Office with a group of major Chilean construction companies and social institutions to develop the Project *ELEMENTAL*: “Initiative to innovate and to construct seven sets of very-low-cost housing in Chile.”³⁷⁰ To achieve this goal, they set out to seek “the best architectural design, the best possible engineering and construction using development lab tests for new prefabricated components and antiseismical systems, and the best possible social and community work”.³⁷¹ The *ELEMENTAL* program is another example of the way universities can make a difference in solving community problems and play a role as a bridge to the country’s development, provided that their efforts are supported by the governments, different partner institutions and local administrations.³⁷²

These three programs are illustrations of practical implementation of the communitarian structure and the valuable contribution that it provides in solving world’s most complex problems. One of the most important components of these programs is their sustainability, as these faculty initiatives will continue to have a long-term impact in the region even after their completion.

4.2.3.b Student Programs

How does the Regional Office prepare students for life and work in an intercultural and globalising world? The DRCLAS student programs have the

³⁶⁹ For more information about Un Buen Comienzo, visit project’s website: <http://www.fundacionoportunidad.cl/proyectos/un-buen-comienzo>

³⁷⁰ DRCLAS Regional Office, “*ELEMENTAL*,” accessed June 19, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/past-programs>.

³⁷¹ Alejandro Aravena and Pablo Allard, “*ELEMENTAL*: Architecture for a difficult equation,” *ReVista*, accessed June 19, 2015, <http://revista.drclas.harvard.edu/book/elemental>.

³⁷² For more information about *ELEMENTAL*, visit <http://www.elementalchile.cl>.

following foundational objectives: increase students knowledge of the cultures, economies, histories, environments and current affairs of the Americas; foster new relationships with the people of the Americas and contribute to a global education at Harvard and social progress and sustainable development throughout the Western Hemisphere.³⁷³ To achieve them, the Regional Office provides a wide range of opportunities³⁷⁴ such as: term-time study abroad, summer internships, and January programs, where students get the chance to explore different aspects of social and political life of the region, while directly experiencing its unique culture.

Since 2003, 1067 Harvard students, both undergraduate and graduate, have participated in student programs supported and organized only by the Regional Office.³⁷⁵ Moreover, the Office is continuously expanding the reach and scope of its programs across the region. Working closely with the Harvard's Office of International Programs, the Regional Office launched in Santiago in 2003 the University's first Harvard administered term-time Study Abroad Program for Harvard College undergraduates and Harvard Law School students that was later expanded to Buenos Aires. Two years later, the Regional Office set up the Summer Internship Program for Harvard College students in Santiago, which also resulted in an expansion to Argentina, Bolivia, Peru and Uruguay.³⁷⁶

As in the case of faculty programs, student programs place a heavy emphasis on the collaboration with regional institutions. For example, in 2009 the Regional Office launched two summer programs for Harvard College students: the Health & Spanish Immersion Program, in collaboration with Universidad Católica in Santiago, and the Spanish & Community Service Program, in alliance with Universidad del Pacífico in Lima. Another common feature is that student programs also have a strong focus on region-specific issues and concerns. So, for example, for graduate students, the Regional Office offers a winter term course with the Harvard School of Public Health, introducing students to key actors and issues in the Chilean health care system. Moreover, since 2012 the Regional Office offers 2-3 weeks programs in Peru and Chile on a variety of topics, such as healthcare in rural settings, finance, medicine,

³⁷³ DRCLAS Regional Office, "Student Programs," accessed June 22, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/student-programs>.

³⁷⁴ For more information about the DRCLAS Regional Office Student Programs, visit <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/student-programs>.

³⁷⁵ DRCLAS Regional Office, "History and Accomplishments."

³⁷⁶ Ibid.

public service, journalism, as well as Peruvian culture, history and gastronomy. These programs enable students to experience “full linguistic, social, and cultural immersion on very unique themes with academic support from local institutions and professors to enrich the experience.”³⁷⁷

At the same time, students from the region also get the chance of going to Harvard through Regional Office programs. For example, the Harvard Medical School has created a special opportunity for Chilean students in their final year of studying medicine at the Universidad de Chile and the Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile to participate in a month-long clinical rotation at the Harvard Medical School in Boston, called the Harvard Medical School Exchange Clerkship Program. This program is supported by a special initiative coordinated by the DRCLAS and the Harvard Medical School through which the Chilean students are able to participate in the Exchange Clerkship Program for free.³⁷⁸

The Regional Office has always played a key role in the negotiation of important institutional agreements that provide new scholarship opportunities. This is, for example, the case of BECAS Chile (Scholarships Chile) and CONICYT (The National Commission for Scientific and Technological Research) that together with the Ministry of Education and the Government of Chile are working in partnership with Harvard University to strengthen their commitment to the training of ‘Advanced Human Capital’. Through financing of graduate studies for Chilean students at Harvard, this program aims to contribute to the scientific, economic, social and cultural development of Chile by providing educational opportunities at top universities abroad, among them Harvard.³⁷⁹

4.2.3.c Program’s Financial Sustainability

How does the Regional Office support this wide range of activities? The programs are sustained and enforced through a number of funding mechanisms. The major source of funds comes from student fees and from the support of grantors and

³⁷⁷ Ibid.

³⁷⁸ DRCLAS Regional Office, “Harvard Medical School Exchange Clerkship Program,” accessed June 22, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/pages/harvard-medical-school-exchange-clerkship-program>.

³⁷⁹ DRCLAS Regional Office, “BECAS CONICYT Partnership,” accessed June 22, 2015, <http://ro.drclas.harvard.edu/pages/becas-conicyt-partnership-0>.

donors.³⁸⁰ But the most distinctive feature of Harvard's fundraising efforts in general and the DRCLAS Regional Office in particular, is its entrepreneurial approach and proactive attitude. Its successful faculty-led programs attract a significant amount of funding from external sources. The Regional Office reflects an enormous 'can-do' attitude coupled with a constant search of alternatives and opportunities through government and foundation support.

However, this proactive approach is also backed up by a strong institutional support. In 2012, the Fundación DRCLAS-Harvard University was created in Chile. A year later, it signed a collaboration agreement with transfer of financial resources with Chile's CONICYT, to strengthen connections between Chile and Harvard through research and educational relationships around technology, innovation and entrepreneurship. The agreement is intended to facilitate the creation of long-term relationships and cooperation between research centers and universities in Chile and Harvard, which could include new Chilean institutions participating in the program³⁸¹.

A proactive attitude combined with a strong network of community and institutional support has proven to be highly successful in sustaining the Regional Office programs in the region.

4.2.4 Effects and evaluation of Internationalization Policies

Since its founding, the DRCLAS Regional Office has grown from a small program with just a handful of staff to a powerful strategy in Harvard's internationalization engagement, that is now able to bring together the best minds around the most challenging issues facing the region. Over the past 13 years, Harvard's faculty-led programs have improved education, discovered new methods to address disasters, addressed the health and wellbeing issues, implemented new models

³⁸⁰ The most prominent among the DRCLAS donors is, perhaps, its founder David Rockefeller, who provided the initial grant in 1994 of \$25 million to create the DRCLAS, and also made another gift to the Center of \$10 million in 2006. Other generous donors made possible a number of fellowships. The De Fortabat Graduate Student Fellowships was established through a gift from Amalia Lacroze de Fortabat for scholars and professors from Argentina, who are working on issues related to public policy, and social and economic development. The Luksik fellowship was created through a donation by the Luksik family in 1999 and is available to scholars and practitioners from Chile. The Custer fellowship was created by the Tony Custer Family Endowment and is available to scholars and/or leading practitioners from Peru or dedicated to the study of Peru.

³⁸¹ CONICYT and DRCLAS, "Convenio de Colaboración con transferencia de recursos financieros," September 13, 2013, accessed June 22, 2015, <http://www.conicyt.cl/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/CONVENIO-CONICYT-DRCLAS-U-HARVARD-2013.pdf>.

of land conservation, and developed important biotechnological breakthroughs. Students immersed themselves in the cultures of the region, collaborated on local programs, made long-lasting contributions to hundreds of institutions and gained practical experience that prepared them to live and work in a globalizing world. Since 2002, the Regional Office has facilitated 178 Harvard faculty-led initiatives and has welcomed 1,200 Harvard students in a wide range of graduate and undergraduate programs. In the academic year 2014-2015, 234 students and scholars from the region were at Harvard, which represents a 17% increase in the last five years.³⁸²

The effectiveness of initiatives led by the Regional Office is largely due to the fact that, from the very start, its work has been continually evaluated and revised, to ensure its relevance, coherence and alignment with institution's overall purpose and mission. For example, in 2004 the Office of the Provost appointed an *ad hoc* evaluation committee to assess the work of the Regional Office and make recommendations on its future. The committee evaluated the progress of the Regional Office and concluded that the Santiago Regional Office has been successful, both on its own terms and as measured against the University's strategic goals. It was decided that it should continue its work. In addition, it was suggested that it could be used by the University as a model for other such endeavours, as well as a potential laboratory to test new programs.³⁸³ It was, therefore, found that The Santiago Office represents an extraordinary resource for the University as it deepens its commitment to promoting development around the world.

The success of the Regional Office may also be linked to the fact that the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, to which the DRCLAS belongs, acknowledges the efforts of outstanding employees across the Faculty and the University and promotes different awards and recognition programs such as Dean's Distinction, Impact Bonus Awards, Harvard Heroes and Department-Level Recognition.³⁸⁴ Apart from that, in their publications and on their website, they always mention and give thanks to those whose ongoing support has been very important to the Regional Office and to Harvard more broadly. That success, in turn, encourages the office to continue to play an invaluable role engaging the university with Latin America.

³⁸² DRCLAS Regional Office, "Institutional brochure."

³⁸³ DRCLAS Regional Office, "History and Accomplishments."

³⁸⁴ Harvard University, "Rewards and Recognition," Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Human Resources Department, accessed June 20, 2015, http://hr.fas.harvard.edu/rewards_recognition.

Although Harvard's priorities in international engagement might seem to focus on bettering the world, faculty and administrators believe they will ultimately improve research and pedagogy back home at Harvard. "To look inward and improve its Cambridge campus, the university has determined that it must first look out, beyond the confines of its physical presence."³⁸⁵ This is how the effects of a carefully planned global strategy, will ultimately benefit those who crafted it.

4.3 A SWOT Analysis of the Communitarian Structure

The discussion of the Harvard case has revealed some of the strong points and growth opportunities of a communitarian approach towards an internationalization strategy. However, as any organization model, it also has some weak points and threats that may limit its effectiveness. In this section, a SWOT³⁸⁶ analysis is used to evaluate some of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the communitarian structure.

4.3.1 Strengths

As we have identified earlier in this chapter, a communitarian approach towards the internationalization of higher education has many strong points. One of its strengths is that its starting point is a deep understanding of one self. Any process of change needs to start with a good understanding of one's own identity, strengths, weaknesses and motives. The same is true for higher education institutions and their internationalization strategies. Without a clear vision of their opportunities, imperatives, obstacles and resources, their international strategy may lack clarity and coherence and may even be incompatible in practice. The communitarian approach also promotes that a deep understanding of oneself should go hand in hand with a good awareness of the context. It encourages higher education institutions to envision their international work and its impact with the broadest perspective possible in order to achieve sustainability and better serve their societies and communities. Environmental scanning is an effective way for institutions to adapt to their external environment by overcoming threats and grasping opportunities. As a consequence,

³⁸⁵ Amna H. Hashmi and Cynthia W. Shih, "Looking In by Looking Out," May 30, 2013, The Harvard Crimson, accessed June 20, 2015, http://www.thecrimson.com/article/2013/5/30/looking_in_looking_out/?page=1.

³⁸⁶ SWOT analysis is a framework for analysing the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats involved in a project or in a business venture.

this approach is more helpful to look for problem-based engagement that draws on region-based resources.

In terms of strategic planning, another strong principle of the communitarian structure is that it enables the institution to adopt a university-wide strategic plan for a comprehensive internationalization, advancing the vision of ‘One University’ – a community working together to achieve common objectives within a clear strategy. As seen in the case of Harvard, its strong international presence was very much fuelled by the power of ‘One Harvard’. The creation of university-wide overseas office was possible only because at home they shared that common vision that enabled them to operate as a single, integrated system. If an institution operates as an integrated system, it builds a shared awareness of the importance of internationalization and the need to enhance its international profile as a world-class university. In this regard, the role of the university leaders is found to be extremely important. The fact that in the communitarian structure the university leaders are responsible for setting the tone and direction for the internationalization strategy is one of the key components of its success. A one-for-all strategy coupled with clear goals and guiding principles is more powerful and effective in achieving the desired objectives. It expands and strengthens opportunities for students to situate their knowledge and understand their lives in a global context. As a result, it increases institution’s competitive advantage over other universities.

In terms of strategy implementation, the communitarian structure encourages its members to undertake their work in the broadest context possible in order to address some of the most difficult and challenging issues of our time. At a time when most institutions are primarily concerned with enhancing their own reputation and profits, these global players develop their strategies with a strong and conspicuous public orientation, designed to serve the public good. Paradoxically, as it became clear from the Harvard case, the more they pursue a community development approach in the implementation of these strategies, the more successful their own institutions become. The roots of their successful implementation also lie in a close collaboration with a diverse array of partners including universities, governmental entities, non-profit and private organizations and community groups. It thus recognizes the community as the main actor in the development process based on the common resources, needs, and decisions.

The analysis of the organizational and support structures reveals other strengths of the communitarian approach. It makes governing much more controllable, and reform much easier to implement. It also helps the institution to be more consistent and coherent in its internationalization efforts, which increases its ability to enhance the quality of its programs and services. Moreover, the strong commitment from senior administrators is complemented with a considerable support from a broad base of faculty, staff and students. This combined interactive (combined top-down and bottom-up approach) type of support is proving to be highly effective in the implementation of internationalization plans. Finally, the communitarian structure, operating as an integral system, is more capable of achieving the desired goals, producing highly rewarding effects for the entire institution and enhancing its international reputation.

4.3.2 Weaknesses

The communitarian structure undoubtedly has many strong points, however it also has some limitations. In the previous section we emphasized that one of its basic feature is a deep understanding of self and of the context. It is of course an important thing, especially in our interdependent world, however, while some universities may use this knowledge for further growth, for others the awareness of their institutional limitations and contextual obstacles, may be demotivating. As one of the prominent Harvard graduates said: if we had known our own limitations, we never would have taken the risk, and the risk may lead to great success³⁸⁷. Universities are like small cities, there will always be unknown aspects and vulnerabilities, but they should not prevent the institutions from developing strategies that follow a less common path, as long as it is in line with their needs and aspirations.

The strategic formulation of the communitarian structure reveals another very important weak point that may seriously jeopardize its effectiveness. Academic freedom and autonomy principles are among the fundamental values of any higher education institution. However, when the university imposes a unique strategic approach to the whole community, the freedom of individual academics is somehow sacrificed for the common good. As it was argued earlier in this chapter, international

³⁸⁷ Christina Pazzanese, "Portman: I, too, battled self-doubt," May 27, 2015, accessed June 27, 2015, <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/2015/05/portman-i-too-battled-self-doubt/>

contacts have traditionally been initiated and maintained by individual scholars. In doing so, the priorities of particular universities, were rarely taken into consideration. Therefore, some universities may find it very difficult to change this pattern, especially given that it persisted and worked for centuries. What is clear from the Harvard case is that the key to solving this issue is not to impose a certain strategy, but to convince the community and provide evidence that this is the best way to ensure the continuity of the internationalization initiatives, that will undoubtedly lead to the development and progress of the institution itself and, as a result, of all its members.

During the implementation phase, the institutions may encounter another weak point of the communitarian structure. It has to do with the fact that it will be possible to implement this structure only if the institution is properly prepared for it. The fact that this structure is adopted by one of the leading universities in the world says a lot about its characteristics. The Harvard community has a rich tradition of internationalization whose explorations take them from engineering to humanities, from medicine to public health as they advance research in collaboration with colleagues who have complementary expertise and skills. Its global engagement has always received a substantial financial and administrative support and worked in an interconnected and complementary fashion. This is not to say that the structure works because it is implemented at Harvard. However, it is true that only if favourable conditions are in place, will the structure be beneficial to the institution. If, instead, the institution is burdened with internal problems and each faculty has a different approach towards internationalization, it will be very difficult, if not impossible, to implement the communitarian structure and make the most of it.

In terms of strategy end results, the communitarian structure may show another drawback. Although the strategy of investing a considerable amount of institutional resources into developing a particular internationalization strategy may bring more pronounced benefits, it may also be more risky. If, for any reason, it fails or at least does not bring the expected effects, it will mean that the considerable effort was invested in vein. The scenario may be different in the case of those institutions that have opted for a more diversified approach. If some of their international strategies do not bring the expected results, they will still have others to rely on. This may not bring

some outstanding benefits as in the first case, but at least, from this point of view, it is more secure.

4.3.3 Opportunities

External trends have always had a great impact on the way higher education operate and coordinate their international activities. Yet, the realities of the 21st century will magnify even further the need for higher education institutions to translate these trends into opportunities. In this respect, the communitarian structure can be very helpful. First of all, from the organizational perspective, it will be easier for higher education institutions to adapt to changes in external context if they operate as an integral system and cooperate with each other and other national and international partners. In fact, the need for greater collaboration between nations in resolving major international issues will only increase in the future and generate augmented support from higher education internationalization efforts. In this regard, the communitarian structure, being inherently collaborative, may provide many opportunities. It also promotes peace and mutual understanding among nations, paving the way for all parties to develop mutually beneficial relations. The Harvard case showed that as the U.S. attempts to build and strengthen its economic relations with Latin America, it pays much closer attention to the needs and interests of its neighbour, while higher education institutions formulate their internationalization policies in accordance with the national interests.

A second important concern that is expected to intensify in the coming years is the need to ensure the sustainability of the internationalization strategies. The concept of sustainable internationalization focuses on the idea of a continuous learning process, which forms the basis of an on-going improvement process. The prerequisite for these common learning processes is that sustainable internationalization does not do it *for*, but *with* people. “Involve me and I will understand”³⁸⁸, this engaging approach to nurturing and fostering development is the core of the communitarian structure’s internationalization philosophy. It was clearly seen in the Harvard’s case when the projects’ leaders were not direct service providers instead they helped residents to solve their own problems. In the years to come more and more

³⁸⁸ “Tell me, I will forget. Show me, I may remember. Involve me, and I will understand.” (Chinese proverb)

opportunities will be available to those who envision internationalization from a communitarian perspective, which is far more effective than any other structure in creating local and international networks to strengthen local capabilities that will ensure that the results will endure once the actors step aside.

A third element that is expected to continue to shape the international character of the university and that the communitarian structure could exploit to its advantage is the rise of the entrepreneurial university. The journey has begun in many universities across the world and is expected to increase in pace during the next decades as institutions reflect and respond entrepreneurially to the changes in their environments. The role of the entrepreneurial university is increasingly seen as being paramount in finding ways to compete and succeed in uncertain and dynamic environments and in finding new ways of responding to the multiple challenges that need to be addressed for the public good, whether locally or globally. As has already been argued in the analysed case, the communitarian structure has a strong entrepreneurial component and thus may generate appropriate responses to highly variable and unpredictable environments.

The fourth and last consideration refers to the social responsibility of higher education institutions. Universities will be increasingly expected to serve the communities in which they reside in tangible and pragmatic ways beyond simply educating the new citizenry. The effects of their international strategies will need to extend far beyond the scope of their institutional responsibilities and enable them to respond to the challenges of the future. The role of the communitarian structure may be helpful in assisting higher education institutions to make long-lasting contributions that will add value and vitality to both institutions and communities they belong to.

4.3.4 Threats

Along with the increasing opportunities, it is equally important to consider the threats or the elements in the environment that could cause trouble for a sound development of the communitarian structure in the future. In this regard, the importance of the wider context cannot be overstated. This wider context in which the internationalization of higher education is taking place is composed by many, continuously changing and occasionally discordant elements such as the development of multicultural societies, the mass migratory flows and the lure of high status through

influencing global careers. As a result, the universities take different approaches to governance and management of internationalization policies to keep up with the demand and in doing so they try to be as flexible as possible. There is one larger trend among the world's first class universities regarding the internationalization of higher education that could potentially diminish the efficiency of the communitarian structure. It is related to the fact that at the heart of the communitarian strategy is a philosophy of prudence that recognizes the potential opportunities without taking great risks.

This trend is the opening of full-fledged campuses abroad. Referring again to the case of Harvard, this trend has a totally different approach to internationalization. While Harvard is strongly advocating for a tempered expansion overseas, through its international offices, its biggest competitor, Yale University, became the first Ivy League institution to build an overseas campus for undergraduates bearing its name. Despite all the criticism³⁸⁹, the Yale-NUS College is Singapore's first liberal arts college that attracts some of the best students from Singapore and other parts of the world. But Harvard's stance on this front has always been clear, university leaders and faculty members have been opposed to the establishment of a campus abroad, which according to them would diminish the meaning of "Harvard". They believe that if you take Harvard out of Cambridge, it's no longer Harvard. "You risk diluting what it means to be a Harvard undergraduate when you begin setting up campuses overseas."³⁹⁰ However, others believe that concerns about diluting the Harvard brand could impede necessary evolution. "Education can and should be reinvented," they say, "we don't want people to look at us as the dinosaurs that never adapted."³⁹¹ This is perhaps not a fair example because both approaches (international offices abroad and an overseas campus) are working very well, however, it is important to acknowledge that an intransigent and inflexible mind-set may pose a threat to developing an adaptive and flexible approach to internationalization.

At the same time, the changes in the external context have helped to concentrate the power in the hands of the strongest universities located almost exclusively in the developed world. As has already been argued, the communitarian structure will first of all benefit strong and developed universities that are already great players in the

³⁸⁹ For more information, see note 348.

³⁹⁰ George and Sebenius, "Between Harvard and Yale, a World of Difference."

³⁹¹ Ibid.

international arena. Knowledge and power go hand in hand. The growth of intellectual fields has always been characterized by power struggles and specific interests and knowledge has always been utilized as an ideological device for protecting privilege.³⁹² From this perspective, another threat that could be posed to the communitarian structure is that it may be used as a political instrument to maintain hierarchies of dominance, both in terms of institutional authority, but also in a broader international socio-political sense. There is also the danger that it may be used to support scientific knowledge imperialism and cultural hegemony in international field.

Finally, another issue of concern in the implementation of the communitarian structure lies in its strong relationships with a variety of stakeholders like government, the public sector and community organizations. On the one hand, by developing these strong ties, the universities can more appropriately support the developmental goals of their countries and promote its growth. Moreover, they will be able to link high-level knowledge production with the problems affecting the most disadvantaged sectors of the population. But on the other hand, these relationships may restrict their freedom of teaching and research if, for example, their priorities will no longer be in line with what the market needs, or if they will embrace a completely different vision of where or how policies should be implemented. Besides, different stakeholders may have different expectations of the effects of a strategy based on their own interests, which may create serious tensions and pressures between the groups. The greater the interdependence, the less scope there would be to do things differently and to act independently. Table 19 summarises the findings of the SWOT analysis of the communitarian structure.

³⁹² Rajani Naidoo, "Rethinking development: Higher education and the new imperialism," in *Handbook on globalization and higher education*, eds. Roger King, Simon Marginson and Rajani Naidoo (Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, 2011), 52.

Table 19. *The Outline of the SWOT Analysis of the Communitarian Structure*

	Internal		External	
Indicators	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
Context	- Promotes a good understanding of the institutional context - Encourages a deep awareness of the national and international contexts - Looks for problem-based engagement that draws on region-based resources 1st Goal dimension: Better serves its society and community	- Awareness of their institutional limitations may be demotivating for weaker universities - It may prevent them from taking risks	- Makes it easier to adapt to external changes - Promotes peace and mutual understanding among nations - Contributes to meeting national interests	- May have to compete with another strong trend: the opening of full-fledged campuses abroad - Could contribute to the development of an intransigent mid-set
Policies and Strategies	- Advances the vision of ‘One University’ - Builds a shared awareness of the importance of internationalization - Enhances institution’s capacity to achieve its goals - Increases its competitive advantage 2nd Goal dimension: Expands opportunities for students to situate their knowledge in a global context	- The imposition of a unique strategy may be too confining and rigid - To a certain extent, sacrifices the freedom of individual academics for the achievement of a common good	- Uses an engaging approach of not doing it <i>for</i> people but <i>with</i> them - Strengthens local capabilities that will ensure the sustainability of implemented strategies	- Could be employed as a political instrument to maintain hierarchies of dominance - May be used to reinforce scientific imperialism and cultural hegemony in international field
Organizational and Support Structures	- Has a strong public orientation and helps to solve world’s most challenging issues - Fosters close collaboration with a variety of stakeholders, including government, public and private entities - Recognizes the community as the main actor in the development process - Makes governing more controllable and reform easier to implement - Helps the institution to be more coherent and consistent in its internationalization strategy 3rd Goal dimension: Enhances the quality of education	- The structure works only if the institution is properly prepared for its implementation - It will be beneficial for the institution if favourable conditions are in place, otherwise its implementation will be difficult, if not impossible	- Has a strong entrepreneurial component that helps institutions to succeed in uncertain and dynamic environments - Encourages them to find new ways of responding to the multiple challenges that need to be addressed for the public good, whether locally or globally	Institutions’ strong relationships with a variety of stakeholders may restrict their freedom of teaching and research if, for example their priorities will no longer be in line with what the market needs, or if they will embrace a completely different vision of where or how policies should be implemented
Effects, Evaluation and Reinforcement	Produces highly-rewarding effects for the entire institution 4th Goal dimension: Enhances the international reputation and visibility of the unit	Is more risky and less secure than a more diversified approach	Provides long-lasting effects and benefits both institutions and communities they belong to	Stakeholders may have different expectations, which may create pressures between the groups

Source: Table by the author

Conclusion

Ultimately, at the Symbolic end of the continuum, internationalization is regarded as something an institution *does* while for a Transformative institution it is something it *is*.

—Ivonne Turner

The analysis of the different models for the internationalization of higher education included in the third chapter of this study, as well as the assessment of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the communitarian structure presented in the fourth chapter, provide relevant information and numerous examples of the ways in which higher education institutions organize their internationalization policies and enable valid conclusions to be drawn on the systematization of internationalization practices. In this section, the general conclusions of this study will be presented, following a retrospective and consecutive view of the preceding four chapters and their main findings.

In order to present the conclusions of this study in an organised and integrated manner, it is important to recall both its main objectives and the underlying hypothesis. The study was motivated by the *hypothesis* that the internationalization policies of the universities are conditioned by the structure within which these policies are organized, be it relational, institutional or communitarian. It was founded on the assumption that the internationalization policies based on an institutional and, to a greater extent, on a communitarian structure encourage a strengthening of these policies and contribute to their sustainable development, while those based solely on the relational model establish more fragile and less durable relations. To test this hypothesis, the objectives of this investigation were twofold. The first one was to analyse the historical evolution and current trends of the process of internationalization and explore these processes through the lens of the systematization approach. The second objective was to analyse the different organization models for the internationalization of higher education in order to determine what aspects, conditions or features can be considered as good practices for the improvement of the institutionalization and sustainability of these activities. These general objectives were approached by four specific questions. The four research

questions and their related findings are presented concurrently in the following sections.

Based on the methodology applied in the present study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1st Research Question: What organizational patterns prevailed during different phases of the historical development of internationalization?

1. The development of internationalization has always been shaped by wider historical events and processes. Throughout the history, these processes led to the creation of three broad types of internationalization: nineteenth century classical internationalization, twentieth century mass internationalization and twenty-first century entrepreneurial internationalization. Each of these historical types followed a different path with regard to the organization of internationalization activities. **The classical internationalization usually followed a relational structure** that relied on the establishment of personal linkages and relations among individuals. **The modern or mass internationalization** took a step forward in the systematization of international activities through the establishment of **an institutional structure**, based on the international linkages with other institutions through bilateral agreements and partnerships. **The entrepreneurial internationalization** added another level of complexity to the previously existed structures. The study found that it would be especially helpful for the entrepreneurial university to move towards the establishment of **a communitarian structure** in the organization of the international activities.

This idea will be more fully developed later. For now, it is important to highlight that each of these structures did not displace the previously existed configurations. Instead, the new structures were created to complement and reinforce the previous ones, at the same time incorporating many elements of their predecessors. For example, many relational linkages had been continued into the development of stronger institutional partnerships, leading to the implementation of the Bologna Process. But, at the same time, the establishment of the European Higher Education Area is a reflection of the attempt to enhance the competitiveness of the European institutions by encouraging them to work in cooperation within a communitarian framework, both at the institutional and regional levels.

2. The discussion of the European development in internationalization, presented in the first chapter of this study, showed that **the European Commission provides a powerful stimulus for higher education institutions to rethink the idea of internationalization through the lens of a communitarian rather than an individualistic point of view** and motivates them to increase the level of their cooperation in order to create a unified higher education system across Europe. In other words, there is a wide perception that the development of a European common area for education must be first of all driven by the construction of a communitarian logic *within* higher education institutions. How institutions can internalize this communitarian thinking and what benefits it may bring, will be recalled in this concluding part of the study.

These changes are the product of a broader impact of globalization on higher education. Globalization is generally seen as a powerful and pervasive phenomenon that creates significant change within the university, promoting a standardization of university processes and procedures, forcing the universities into a more market-oriented approach to internationalization and leaving little room for institutional diversity and autonomy. Seen from this perspective, globalization might be a source of great concern for higher education institutions. However, it is possible to take a more optimistic view. Globalization is an inevitable process and like all major transformations in history, it is not something that institutions can accept or reject, but they can use it to their advantage. Globalization, like a gun, is not bad in and of itself, rather, it depends on how we use it.

Globalization can be a very useful tool if it is used properly, as it is also about intercultural understanding, global flows of people, knowledge and practices and a unification of standards. However, from the institutional point of view, globalization as well as internationalization means nothing to higher education institutions, unless these concepts translate into tangible benefits for them, and that is fair. Globalization can provide many opportunities for higher education institutions to accentuate academic competition for excellence, to advance the use of information and communication technology and to benefit from the quantitative enhancement of higher education. Nevertheless, institutions need to be open and prepared internally to seize the opportunities offered by globalization.

3. Infusing the institution with an openness to the world requires a more systematic approach to internationalization, including measures that are more efficient than the mere presence of international students on campus, the adoption of international agreements or the existence of an international office. Such measures may include the development of a single, common institution-wide strategy towards internationalization. As it was found in the course of this study, **higher education institutions are more able to benefit from the advantages of globalization if they have a clear direction of where their internationalization policy is headed and when all their efforts are directed towards the achievement of a common goal**, as opposed to pursuing many separate and unconnected organizational strategies.

2nd Research Question: What approaches, rationales, strategies and trends are shaping the current state of internationalization?

Indeed, everything is relative in this world. Even the world map looks different depending on which point you chose as its centre. Different perspectives depending on where we live on earth and from where we look at the world generate different ways of thinking, different identities. The same is true for the meaning of internationalization that greatly depends on our viewpoint. As argued in the second chapter of this study, institutions in different parts of the world have a different perception of the concept of internationalization. So, for example, for Anglophone universities internationalization means trade in talent, in the form of increased international staff and student recruitment, the establishment of international research collaborations and the attainment of high international league tables. In contrast, in non-western universities in the Arab world and among the Confucian countries, the concept of internationalization seems to be more associated with the issue of cultural development integration and the concern for enhancing the quality of the curriculum through a variety of curriculum internationalization approaches. At the same time, for some developing countries it could even be a synonym for brain drain.

4. Not surprisingly, there is no unique, or universal definition of internationalization, that is perhaps less important, though, than the clarity of the purposes, actions and impacts of the process. Nevertheless, even if there is no consensus on a single definition, it is important to establish some clear criteria to assess this process. As this study has shown, the use of a comprehensive and rather

neutral definition of internationalization in combination with a specific approach proved to be quite useful. **The four approaches that have been traditionally used to address internationalization (activity, competency, ethos and process approach) have begun to fall short as an analytical tool to aid understanding of the various and numerous trends and developments of internationalization.**

5. The primary reason for this became clear from the analysis of the historical development of internationalization. As it was discussed earlier in this section, in the past, advances towards internationalization have taken place in an *ad hoc* and unsystematic fashion. Internationalization was a relatively marginal phenomenon, it generally followed a relational structure in the organization of its activities and hardly went beyond the mobility of some of the students, and the contacts of individual staff. The status of internationalization has changed considerably over the years and nowadays it is at the top of the agenda for strategic university development. Internationalization plans and written commitments have emerged as organization tools through which institutions seek to advance their internationalization goals. Yet, as observed in this study, there is a significant gap between the development of plans for internationalization and the ability to operationalize and systematize them. To address this challenge, **this study looked at internationalization through a different prism, one of systematization. This approach provided a more nuanced insight into how institutions organize their international strategies and helped to identify the key success factors for the development of a sound and sustainable internationalization policy** that will be mentioned later in this section.

6. Not only the status, but the very nature of internationalization has changed considerably over time. A closer look at the recent trends in internationalization presented in the second chapter, revealed that **internationalization has evolved from the traditional process based on educational goals and values, to one that is closely linked with competition, commercialization, brain race, quality issues, self-interest and quest for prestige.** The same conclusion emerged from the analysis of the various economic, political, academic and sociocultural rationales for internationalization. **It was found that academic and socio-cultural motivations are progressively surpassed by commercially driven rationales, characterized by such features as the urge to broaden the source of faculty and students, or the desire to enhance institution's reputation and prestige.** The educational and

development cooperation rationales for internationalization cannot be taken for granted, but need to be clearly articulated and firmly embedded in institutional strategies, otherwise they risk to be subordinated to other agendas and priorities.

7. At the same time, there are also indications of positive internationalization tendencies. **The examination of the major strategies of internationalization** in the second chapter **showed that their primary focus has shifted from people mobility to program mobility and now to the development of international education clusters**, built as a network of connected actors coming from different sectors, but united by a common interest. These networks promote a closer relationship between higher education institutions, governmental entities and private industries, which cooperate and assist each other in solving the nation's and the world's most pressing problems. This is perhaps a good illustration of how globalization can be used to the advantage of both higher education institutions and community as a whole.

3rd Research Objective: What key factors are contributing to the development of a sound and sustainable internationalization strategy?

8. The most important point, however, is not only to develop appropriate internationalization strategies, but to operationalize them and ensure their objectives are achieved, which, as argued in the course of this study, is one of the biggest challenges facing higher education institutions today. Therefore, seven organization models for the internationalization of higher education as identified in the literature were analysed and compared in the third chapter, for valuable insight into factors that support the institutionalization of internationalization plans. By examining these models in the light of the most recent goal dimensions of the IMPI, and through the prism of the most common categories of indicators used to measure the internationalization in universities, **the study identified eleven key success factors for the development of a more sustainable internationalization policy. These factors can be synthesized into the “Five R’s of Successful Internationalization”: (1) rationales, (2) resources, (3) regulation, (4) results and (5) rewards.**

A successful internationalization plan is generally characterised by a high degree of awareness of the importance and *rationales* for internationalization, that defines the direction of the policy and justification to be followed. This awareness is followed by an opportunity-oriented attitude and commitment towards

internationalization that is underpinned by sufficient human and financial *resources*. The implementation of internationalization strategies is achieved via a precise and explicit *regulation* that facilitates an ordered and systematic execution of internationalization plans. It also encourages the establishment of a wide range of bilateral and multilateral cooperation contacts mainly at the institutional, not only at the individual level. This regulation is guided by a clear understanding of the desired end *results* of the internationalization strategy, that are in line with other policy elements and with institution's overall purpose and mission. Finally, a system of *rewards* and recognition is in place for faculty and staff who are involved in internationalization activities. It increases performance and builds resilience. The findings show that all of the five R's of Successful Internationalization were found in the implementation of the communitarian structure.

4th Research Question: How might a new model more accurately reflect the systematization of internationalization activities in terms of their sustainability?

9. Apart from the success factors, this analysis also helped to identify that **higher education institutions generally organize their internationalization practices under three main structures: relational, institutional and communitarian**. If in the past, when internationalization was a relatively marginal activity, the relational structure was able to fulfil institutions' modest requirements for internationalization, today this structure has begun to fall short in meeting institutions' increasing demands of quality, expertise and sustainability. Even the institutional structure is not solid enough to face the challenges of our globalized world.
10. As internationalization has gradually changed its role from a development cooperation standpoint, to a partnership scheme, and now to a commercialization and competition model, the main challenge of today's era of international education is to find ways to reconcile cooperation and competition, which is within the abilities of the communitarian structure. Therefore, **it would be reasonable for higher education institutions to move towards the development of a communitarian standpoint. However, not all types of universities will be able to incorporate this structure into their internationalization efforts.**

As argued above, the ineluctable forces of globalization have had a powerful, but different effect on higher education institutions. For some of them, the changes

brought about by globalization have been disastrous. They were unable, or at least not sufficiently capable, to adapt to globalization, as a result, they now find themselves weakened and disoriented. Real strategic change required adding new elements to their identities, not simply rearranging the old ones. To them globalization is a threat that brought the undesirable upheaval of traditional order of things. For now, these institutions are unable to stay afloat and without implementing a change in their attitudes, they are exposed to the danger of drowning with the wreckage of the old order.

For others, however, globalization has had a different effect. These institutions have taken full advantage of the global flow of people, ideas, practices and technology and were ready to do what it takes to secure a privileged position in the globalised world. As a result, they find themselves more able than before to exploit new opportunities, pursue drastic transformations and forge new identities. However, in this blind race for growth and development, they are at risk of giving up old identities, values and solidarities. In their case, the traditional values of cooperation, partnership and mutual benefits are gradually replaced by those of excessive competition, commodification and status-building. To them globalization might also be a pervasive force, because these institutions stay afloat at the expense of their core values.

But there is a third position as well: the position of those who took the major globalization forces with a grain of salt. Such institutions were never overridden by the forces of globalization, but were rather empowered by them. They carefully adopt sound changes in order to be able to navigate in these new environments, but never to the detriment of their traditional values. In a way, they are neither drowning in the global deluge, nor swimming in its waves, instead they are able to find a place for themselves in this new order of the world, from which they can collectively meet the global challenges. This approach to globalization is perhaps the hardest of all, but the most rewarding in the long run.

It is this last category of institutions that might be willing to take advantage of the communitarian structure. As it was seen in the Harvard's case, analysed in the fourth chapter, these institutions are very good at combining an entrepreneurial spirit with traditional academic and social values. Their close collaboration with governmental entities, private industries and non-profit organizations empowers them

and makes them even more effective and reliable. Moreover, as shown in the SWOT analysis of the communitarian structure, it can provide many other opportunities to higher education institutions. A good illustration of this is, perhaps, the fact that it not only leads to improvement in four most common categories of indicators used to measure internationalization in universities, but also contributes to the successful attainment of all IMPI goal dimensions mentioned in this study.

11. **The communitarian structure** has many other strong points. *Ad intra*, it promotes a deep understanding of one self, of others and of the environment. Therefore, it could be used by institutions to look for problem-based engagement that draws on region-based resources. Another strength is that it **advances the vision of “one university” – a community working together to achieve common objectives within a well-defined strategy**. This unity enhances institution’s capacity to achieve its goals and optimizes its competitive advantage. It also helps the institution to be more coherent and consistent in its internationalization strategy.
12. *Ad extra*, the communitarian structure has a strong public orientation designed to serve the public good. In this case the social and development cooperation rationales are stronger than the commercially driven ones. This structure recognizes the community as the main actor in the development process and its strength lies in the fact that it does not do it for people, but with them. In this way, **it strengthens local capabilities that will ensure the sustainability of implemented strategies**. Consequently, it is capable of providing long-lasting benefits for both higher education institutions and the community as a whole. While on a larger scale it promotes peace and mutual understanding between nations.

However, the study also pointed out some of the drawbacks of the communitarian structure. At the institutional level the most important among them is perhaps the fact that the structure will be beneficial to institutions only if they are properly prepared for it and if favourable conditions are created, otherwise it will not be effective and, in some cases, may even be demotivating. While at the global level, if not used properly, there is a possibility that it might be used to support scientific imperialism and cultural hegemony in international field.

The above-mentioned findings obtained with the methodology used in this study, tend to confirm the hypothesis that the internationalization policies of the

universities are conditioned by the structure within which these policies are organized and that the communitarian structure encourages a strengthening of the internationalization policies and contributes to their sustainable development. However, this hypothesis needs to be reinforced by subsequent studies. This research represents only an initial phase of an ongoing interest in this intriguing topic that the author will continue to explore in order to find other ways to prove the validity of this assumption. In any case, this study opened up a new research direction, as well as a new viewpoint, that hopefully improves the completeness of related researches in the internationalization of higher education.

Final Thoughts

In the legend of the Battle of Thermopylae in 480 BC, the Spartans fought the invading Persian army at the pass of Thermopylae. Vastly outnumbered, the Spartans delayed the enemy in one of the most famous last stands of history. They succeeded in holding the enemy by adopting an ingenious strategy. In order to take on the army of thousands, the Spartans, who were only 300, forced their enemies through a narrow pass of Thermopylae. Despite the overwhelming numbers of Persians, this narrow passage could be easily blocked by the Spartans. In this way, instead of fighting the entire army at once, they had to demolish only a few soldiers at a time because only a few could get through. The strategy of the Spartans in this battle is often cited as an example of how the advantages of training, equipment and good use of terrain can become the greatest allies in the fight against overwhelming odds.

What could the Battle of Thermopylae and the communitarian structure possible have in common? If we consider the numerous forces of globalization that universities have to “fight” and institutions’ Spartan resources, it is possible to draw a parallel between the Battle of Thermopylae and the communitarian structure and argue that the communitarian structure, in a way, promotes the adoption of an analogous strategy. Here are just a few examples of the similarities between them. Firstly, the communitarian structure also encourages a greater awareness of one’s own strengths and weaknesses and a good use of the context to maximise institution’s potential.

Secondly, just like in this battle, the reality of our competitive world urges higher education institutions to face many different internationalization projects at a time and this usually becomes overwhelming and unproductive. The communitarian

structure encourages institutions to narrow it down and target that one specific niche. So instead of looking at the whole army of challenges and opportunities, they are empowered to focus their attention on strategies that are most beneficial to their institution and their community. By creating that narrow passage and focusing only on a few strategies at a time, higher education institutions maximise their chances to succeed and develop expertise in some specific areas.

Finally, like the Spartans, institutions have limited resources and they need to work together as a community to pursue the same goal. This study showed just a few examples of how the “we are all in this together” approach to innovation and competitiveness is being applied in practice and the numerous benefits it is capable of providing. Therefore, it could be said that, in a way, the communitarian structure encourages higher education institutions to face all challenges like the Spartans.

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