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MONOGRAPH

Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education

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This thematic issue deals with internationalisation and globalisation in higher education. The five papers that follow this introduction examine some of a broad range of aspects related to this theme and are a reflection of the importance and current attention being paid to the international dimension of higher education in Europe and beyond.

Over the past 25 years, the international dimension of higher education has become more central on the agenda of international organisations and national governments, institutions of higher education and their representative bodies, student organisations and accreditation agencies.

Uwe Brandenburg and I in a polemic essay, *The End of Internationalization* (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011), write:

> "Over the last two decades, the concept of the internationalization of higher education is moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the very core. In the late 1970s up to the mid-1980s, activities that can be described as internationalization were usually neither named that way nor carried high prestige and were rather isolated and unrelated. (…) In the late 1980s changes occurred: Internationalization was invented and carried on, ever increasing its importance. New components were added to its multidimensional body in the past two decades, moving from simple exchange of students to the big business of recruitment, and from activities impacting on an incredibly small elite group to a mass phenomenon."

The international dimension and the position of higher education in the global arena are given greater emphasis in international, national and institutional documents and mission statements than ever before. Philip Altbach, Liz Reisberg and Laura Rumbley (2009: 7) in their report to the UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education note:

> "Universities have always been affected by international trends and to a certain degree operated within a broader international community of academic institutions, scholars, and research. Yet, 21st century realities have magnified the importance of the global context. The rise of English as the dominant language of scientific communication is unprecedented since Latin dominated the academy in medieval Europe. Information and communications technologies have created a universal means of instantaneous contact and simplified scientific communication. At the same time, these changes have helped to concentrate ownership of publishers, databases, and other key resources in the hands of the strongest universities and some multinational companies, located almost exclusively in the developed world."

Internationalisation 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 evolve substantially. Increasing competition in higher education and the commercialisation and cross-border delivery of higher education have challenged the value traditionally attached to cooperation, such as exchanges and partnerships. At the same time, the internationalisation of the curriculum and the teaching and learning process (also referred to as 'internationalisation at home') has become as relevant as the traditional focus on mobility (both degree mobility and mobility as part of one's home degree).

It would be too easy, however, to assume that everything has changed over the past ten years with regard to the internationalisation of higher education, and that this change is primarily a shift from a more cooperative model to a more competitive model. There are different accents and approaches. Internationalisation strategies are filtered and contextualised by the specific internal context of a university, by the type of university and how universities are embedded nationally. Internationalisation strategies are shaped at the programme level by the different relationships these programmes have with the market and society. An internationalisation strategy can be substantially different for a teacher training programme than for a school of dentistry or a business school. And internationalisation strategies may be different by level: doctorate, master and bachelor.

Meanings and Rationales of Internationalisation and Globalisation

The changing dynamics in the internationalisation of higher education are reflected both in the meanings of internationalisation and globalisation, and their rationales.

What do we mean by the internationalisation of higher education? First of all, we need to recognise that there have always been many different terms used in relation to the internationalisation of higher education (De Wit, 2002: 109-116; Knight, 2008: 19-22). In the literature and in practice, it is still quite common to use terms that only address a small part of internationalisation and/or emphasize a specific rationale for internationalisation. Most of the terms used are either curriculum related: international studies, global studies, multicultural education, intercultural education, peace education, etc., or mobility related: study abroad, education abroad, academic mobility, etc.

Over the past ten years, it has been possible to observe the emergence of a whole new group of terms that had not been actively present in the debate on the internationalisation of higher education. These are much more related to the cross-border delivery of education and are a consequence of the impact of society's globalisation on higher education: borderless education, education across borders, global education, offshore education and international trade in educational services.

In 2002, I (De Wit, 2002: 14) 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." This is even more the case now in view of this further proliferation of activities and terms. "Internationalization is changing the world of higher education, and globalization is changing the world of internationalization," remarks Jane Knight (2008: 1). The debate on globalisation and internationalisation and the recent, rapid evolution of cross-border activities in higher education have strengthened the tendency to explain and define the internationalisation of higher education in relation to a specific rationale or purpose. Peter Scott (2006: 14) observes that both internationalisation and globalisation are complex phenomena with many strands, and concludes that "the distinction between internationalisation and globalisation, although suggestive, cannot be regarded as categorical. They overlap, and are intertwined, in all kinds of ways." Ulrich Teichler (2004: 22-23) notes that "globalisation initially seemed to be defined as the totality of substantial changes in the context and inner life of higher education, related to growing interrelationships between different parts of the world whereby national borders are blurred or even seem to vanish." But, according to him, in recent years the term 'globalisation' has been replaced by 'internationalisation' in the public debate on higher education, resulting at the same time in a shift of meanings: "the term tends to be used for any supra-regional phenomenon related to higher education (...) and/or anything on a global scale related to higher education characterised by market and competition."

Philip Altbach, Liz Reisberg and Laura Rumbley (2009, 7) state:

> "Globalization, a key reality in the 21st century, has already profoundly influenced higher education. (...) We define globalization as the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communications technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network, the role of the English language, and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions (...). Internationalization is defined as the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization."

Ulrich Teichler (2004), Peter Scott (2005), Philip Altbach (2006), Jane Knight (2008), Felix Maringe and Nick Foskett (2010) and others have written extensively about the complex relationship between globalisation and internationalisation in higher education. Frans van Vught et al. (2002: 17) note:

> "In terms of both practice and perceptions, internationalization is closer to the well-established tradition of international cooperation and mobility and to the core values of quality and excellence, whereas globalization refers more to competition, pushing the concept of higher education as a tradable commodity and challenging the concept of higher education as a public good."

Uwe Brandenburg and I (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011) comment that, with this distinction, internationalisation is often too easily regarded as 'good' and globalisation as 'bad':

> "Internationalization is claimed to be the last stand for humanistic ideas against the world of pure economic benefits allegedly represented by the term globalization. Alas, this constructed antagonism between internationalization and globalization ignores the fact that activities that are more related to the concept of globalization (higher education as a tradable commodity) are increasingly executed under the flag of internationalization."

In the Bologna Declaration of 1999 and the Lisbon Strategy of 2000, the two dimensions of internationalisation meet: cooperation and competition. On the one hand, both processes emphasise that there should be more cooperation in order to develop a European area for higher education and research: 'A Europe of Knowledge'. On the other hand, there is considerable emphasis on the argument that this cooperation is required in order is to face up to competition from the United States, Japan and, increasingly, China, as well as other emerging economies.

As new realities and challenges of the current environment, Jane Knight mentions globalisation and the emergence of the knowledge economy, regionalisation, information and communication technologies, new providers, alternate funding sources, borderless issues, lifelong learning and the growth in the numbers and diversity of actors. Therefore, Jane Knight's definition (Knight, 2008: 21) acknowledges the various levels and the need to address the relationship and integration between them: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education." She (ibid.: 22-24) also states that it is now possible to see two basic aspects evolving in the internationalisation of higher education. One is 'internationalisation at home', including activities that help students to develop an international awareness and intercultural skills. So it is much more curriculum oriented: preparing your students to be active in a much more globalised world. Activities that fall under this at-home dimension are: curriculum and programmes, teaching and learning processes, extra-curricular activities, liaison with local cultural/ethnic groups, and research and scholarly activities. And the second aspect is 'internationalisation abroad', including all forms of education across borders: mobility of students and faculty, and mobility of projects, programmes and providers. These components should not be considered mutually exclusive, but rather intertwined within policies and programmes.

When talking about internationalisation, it is important to make the distinction between why we are internationalising higher education, and what we mean by internationalisation. Many documents, policy papers and books refer to internationalisation, but do not define the why. And, in much of the literature, meanings and rationales are muddled in the sense that a rationale for internationalisation is often presented as a definition of internationalisation.

The literature (De Wit, 2002: 83-102) identifies four broad categories of rationales for internationalisation: political, economic, social and cultural, and academic. These rationales are not mutually exclusive, they may vary in importance by country and region, and their dominance may change over time. At the present time, economic rationales are considered to be more dominant than the other three. In relation to these, academic rationales such as strategic alliances, status and profile are also becoming more dominant. Jane Knight (2008: 25) speaks of emerging rationales at the national level (e.g., human resource development, strategic alliances, income generation/commercial trade, nation building, social/cultural development and mutual understanding) and at the institutional level (e.g., international branding and profile, quality enhancement/international standards, income generation, student and staff development, strategic alliances and knowledge production).

Rationales vary over time and by country/region, they are not mutually exclusive, and they lead to different approaches and policies. Currently, changes are taking place at a rapid pace in many parts of the world, and rationales are becoming more and more interconnected.

Myths and Misconceptions about the Internationalisation of Higher Education

The changing landscape of international higher education as a consequence of the globalisation of our societies and economies is manifest in many ways: increasing competition for international students and academics, the growth of cross-border delivery of programmes, the emergence of international for-profit providers in higher education and the changing position of countries like India and China in the world economy and in the higher education arena. They are all realities and their impact cannot be ignored. This scenario is manifested in the complex relationship between globalisation and internationalisation in higher education. Earlier, I referred to the "constructed antagonism between internationalization and globalization" (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011: 16).

Jane Knight (2011: 14) writes about "Five Myths About Internationalization". According to her, these myths are:

- Myth one: Foreign students as internationalization agents: "more foreign students on campus will produce more internationalized institutional culture and curriculum".
- Myth two: International reputation as a proxy for quality: "the more international a university is (...) the better its reputation".
- Myth three: International institutional agreements: "the greater number of international agreements or network memberships a university has the more prestigious and attractive it is".
- Myth four: International accreditation: "the more international accreditation stars an institution has, the more internationalized it is and ergo the better it is".
- Myth five: Global branding: "an international marketing scheme is the equivalent of an internationalization plan".

I (De Wit, 2011) write about misconceptions and challenges for higher education, and I identify nine misconceptions, two of which are similar to Jane Knight's myths one and three. These misconceptions are:

- Internationalisation is similar to teaching in English.
- Internationalisation is similar to studying abroad.
- Internationalisation is similar to teaching an international subject.
- Internationalisation means having many international students (see Knight's myth one) .
- Internationalisation can be implemented successfully with only a few international students in the classroom.
- Intercultural and international competencies do not necessarily have to be assessed as such.
- The more agreements an institution has, the more international it is (see Knight's myth three).
- Higher education is international by its very nature.
- Internationalisation is an objective in itself.

The two myths and two misconceptions on which Jane Knight and I respectively coincide relate to the instrumental approach to internationalisation as referred to above. Uwe Brandenburg and I (2011: 16) phrase the developments in internationalisation of higher education as follows:

> "Gradually, the why and what have been taken over by the how and instruments of internationalization have become the main objective: more exchange, more degree mobility, and more recruitment."

For the internationalisation of higher education, it is important to go back to basics and look carefully at the what, why and how of internationalisation in the current global knowledge economy.

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Monograph "Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education"

ARTICLE

Internationalisation at Home in a Global Perspective: A Critical Survey of the 3rd Global Survey Report of IAU

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Abstract

This article takes the 3rd Global Survey Report of the International Association of Universities (IAU) as a starting point. The results of this worldwide survey were published in September 2010. The article discusses four questions from the survey that include Internationalisation at Home (IaH) and internationalisation of the curriculum as response items. Outcomes of these four questions are commented on and, where relevant and possible, compared to the results of the previous survey, which was conducted in 2005 and published in 2006. It is argued that the sections of the Global Survey that mention internationalisation of the curriculum and IaH use terminology that is not always adequate for the purpose and at times even seems contradictory. The Global Survey includes a question on internal obstacles to internationalisation, which will also be discussed here. These obstacles include the lack of engagement and limited expertise of academic staff in relation to the internationalisation process. The response items for this question do not connect these obstacles to internationalisation of the curriculum explicitly, but it is argued here that a relationship indeed exists. The same is true for issues around foreign language proficiency, which may have a strong impact on internationalisation of the home curriculum. In the conclusion, several additional questions are raised that could serve to get a clearer picture of the development of internationalisation of the curriculum in a global perspective.

Keywords

Internationalisation at Home, internationalisation of the curriculum, Global Survey, obstacles to internationalisation

La internacionalización en casa en una perspectiva global: un estudio crítico del Informe del 3.er Estudio Global de la AIU

Resumen

Este artículo toma como punto de partida el Informe del 3.er Estudio Global de la Asociación Internacional de Universidades (AIU). Los resultados de este estudio a escala mundial se publicaron en septiembre del 2010. El artículo trata cuatro cuestiones del estudio que incluyen la internacionalización en casa (IeC) y la internacionalización del plan de estudios como ítems de respuesta. Se comentan los resultados de estas cuatro cuestiones y, cuando es relevante y posible, se comparan con los resultados del estudio previo, que se llevó a cabo en el 2005 y se publicó en el 2006. Se comenta que las secciones del Estudio Global que mencionan la internacionalización del plan de estudios y la IeC utilizan una terminología que no siempre es adecuada para el propósito y a veces incluso parece contradictoria. El Estudio Global incluye una cuestión sobre obstáculos internos a la internacionalización, que también se tratarán aquí. Estos obstáculos incluyen la falta de compromiso y la pericia limitada del personal académico en relación con el proceso de internacionalización. Los ítems de respuesta para esta cuestión no conectan estos obstáculos a la internacionalización del plan de estudios explícitamente, pero se admite que esta relación existe realmente. Lo mismo ocurre para cuestiones sobre la competencia en lengua extranjera, que podrían tener un fuerte impacto en la internacionalización del plan de estudios doméstico. En conclusión, se exponen varias cuestiones adicionales que podrían servir para obtener una imagen del desarrollo de la internacionalización del plan de estudios en una perspectiva global.

Palabras clave

internacionalización en casa, internacionalización del plan de estudios, Estudio Global, obstáculos a la internacionalización

Internationalisation at Home and Internationalisation of the Curriculum

Internationalisation at Home (IaH) was introduced as a concept in 1999. In the particular setting in which it was introduced, IaH aimed to make students interculturally and internationally competent without leaving their own city for study-related purposes (Crowther et. al., 2001). In the original setting in Malmö (Sweden), there was a marked emphasis on intercultural aspects of the teaching and learning process. This was facilitated through strong links with local cultural/ethnic groups.

Knight (2008: 23) elaborates the concept of IaH and describes a wider focus, in which liaisons with local cultural and ethnic groups are but one of the elements. She distinguishes "a diversity of activities" and mentions a number of them in addition to cultural liaisons: curriculum and programmes, teaching/learning processes, extra-curricular activities, and research and scholarly activity. In Knight's view, internationalisation of the curriculum is one of the aspects constituting IaH. Knight maintains the term 'concept' for IaH. It should be noted here that, while IaH may use existing educational concepts such as comparative and collaborative learning, it is not in itself a didactic or educational concept.

In the same publication, Knight also uses the terms 'pillar' and 'stream' to distinguish between IaH and internationalisation abroad. These terms seem appropriate since they convey the image that internationalisation and IaH are both means for acquiring intercultural and international competences. Knight therefore stresses the interdependence of the two 'streams' (at home and abroad) rather than their independence. How successful universities are in making the two streams meet to enhance the learning experience of students depends to a large extent on which learning experiences are assessed and how this is done (De Wit, 2009).

The 2005 survey, of which Knight is the author, does include "international/intercultural dimension of curriculum" but not IaH. The 2009 survey includes both, a choice that the authors do not comment on.

IaH has shared characteristics with other concepts that focus on internationalisation of the home curriculum. Among these are internationalisation of the curriculum in Australia and internationalisation of the campus in the United States. There are also differences. In the Australian context, internationalisation of the curriculum can include outgoing mobility such as international study trips or study or placement abroad (Leask, 2007). Internationalisation of the campus or comprehensive education in the United States also includes a range of activities, which may include a study abroad experience. Dutschke (2009) mentions a number of definitions and concepts.

The difference between practices in Australia and the United States on the one hand, and in Europe on the other, seems to lie in the approach to student mobility. Whereas in Australia and the United States the academic setting is used to encourage students to become mobile in the first place, the European practice assumes that students are mobile, but not for study-related purposes. This difference in focus may be explained by geographical and language-related matters. In Europe, it is relatively easy to travel to a country with a different culture and language. Distances are small and the cost is low. Most European students do indeed travel abroad, but do so mainly for leisure purposes. In Australia and the United States, it takes considerably more effort to travel to a country with a different culture and language. The relative ease with which European students can travel does not particularly encourage them to become mobile for study-related purposes. Many of them feel that they have an international focus already through their travel to European countries. When they choose to study or do a placement abroad, many of them prefer to go beyond Europe.

The 2005 survey already distinguished IaH as an alternative to internationalisation abroad. The 2009 survey uses the same distinction and therefore identifies activities "which focus on actions that entail or require the movement across boundaries ('internationalization abroad') and activities that focus on what takes place on campus ('internationalization at home')". At the same time, the authors acknowledge that these distinctions are not watertight (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 34). An example may be short-term curricular activities abroad, such as study or field trips. The authors point to the increase of short-term mobility in the United States and attribute this to the fact that students have jobs from which they would lose income if they went abroad for an extended period of time.

The question here is which concept of internationalisation of the curriculum the people selected to fill out the questionnaire for the Global Survey had in the back of their minds when they did so. Australians might well have included study and placement abroad as part of the curriculum, whereas the authors apparently only thought of short-term international experiences. A clarification of terms is called for if the Global Survey is to provide insight into what Higher Educations Institutions (HEIs) are doing to internationalise curricula and what their motivation is. In particular, it will be relevant to explore whether a distinction between the terms 'Internationalisation at Home' and 'internationalisation of the curriculum' can and should be made.

Methodology and Respondents to the Survey

The Global Survey involves two categories of respondents from six different regions: Africa, Asia & Pacific, Europe, Latin America & Caribbean, Middle East and North America. The first category of respondents is HEIs. Europe is dominant here, with 44% (330 of 745 in absolute numbers). The second category is national rectors' conferences or university associations (NUAs). Results from the survey are given at an aggregate (global) level and at regional level.

HEIs and NUAs are identified as respondents. In the case of the 2005 survey, it is not mentioned to whom the HEI questionnaire was sent. In the section on the methodology of the 2009 survey, it is mentioned that the questionnaire was sent to Heads of Institution and/or Heads of International Affairs. Who actually filled it out within the universities remains unknown.

Figure 1 shows a regional breakdown of the number of questionnaires sent out in relation to both the number of responses and the response rate. It also includes a breakdown of the responses per region as percentages of the total sample. This shows that European universities constitute nearly half the sample.

Figure 1: Sample size and respondents of the 2nd and 3rd Global Survey

	Total initial sample		Responses		Response rate		Percentage of total	
	2005	2009	2005	2009	2005	2009	2005	2009
Africa		315		41	20 %	13 %	6 %	6 %
Asia & Pacific		1,052		139	18 %	13 %	18 %	19 %
Europe		2,401		330	20 %	14 %	52 %	44 %
Latin America & Caribbean		828		68	9 %	6 %	6 %	13 %
Middle East		189		40	21 %	22 %	4 %	5 %
North America		1,309		127	13 %	10 %	14 %	13 %
TOTAL	**3,057**	**6,094**	**526**	**745**	**14.7 %**	**12.2 %**	**100 %**	**100 %**

Source: Knight (2006: 36-37); Egron Polak & Hudson (2010: 42-43).

IaH/Internationalisation of the Curriculum in the 3rd Global Survey

The institutional questionnaire mentions IaH as a response item twice, both times alongside internationalisation of the curriculum (questions 19 and 29, see Figures 2 and 3 below). Internationalisation of the curriculum is an item in two further questions (9 and 10, see Figures 4 and 5 below). The association questionnaire shows the same picture, with one extra question that lists both IaH and internationalisation of the curriculum among the response items. The scope of this article is limited to the institutional questionnaire, since there is a greater likelihood of it giving a more accurate impression of the state of affairs in the responding universities.

Below, we will first give the outcomes to these four questions (both those that mention IaH and those that mention internationalisation of the curriculum), followed by a discussion. We will also look at a fifth question, that of the internal obstacles to the internationalisation process, as perceived by the institutional respondents (question 14, see Figure 6 below). Some of the questions are identical to those of the 2005 survey, but since the results of that survey are rendered differently and in less detail, it is not possible to compare the results of the two surveys. The response items in the figures below are those from the original questionnaire rather than the more concise response items in the figures of the survey report.

Policies for IaH

Question 19

Figure 2: In your internationalization policy/strategy, which of the following are given the highest priority? (please select up to five responses).

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students (study, internships etc)	44%	29%	40%	49%	45%	18%	43%
International student exchanges and attracting international students	43%	27%	50%	45%	29%	35%	42%
International research collaboration	40%	46%	52%	41%	35%	32%	23%
Strengthening international/intercultural content of curriculum	**31%**	**29%**	**33%**	**30%**	**27%**	**25%**	**40%**
Joint and dual/double degree programmes	30%	24%	27%	35%	27%	30%	17%
Outgoing mobility options for faculty/staff	29%	24%	24%	35%	33%	18%	14%
International development and capacity building projects	17%	27%	14%	17%	13%	22%	18%
Hosting international scholars	17%	22%	18%	13%	23%	20%	16%
Internationalization "at home"	**15%**	**10%**	**15%**	**17%**	**11%**	**-**	**18%**
Foreign language teaching as part of the curriculum	14%	7%	6%	17%	15%	5%	9%
Foreign visits to your university	13%	20%	12%	15%	14%	18%	16%
Marketing and recruiting fee paying international undergraduate students	11%	2%	14%	11%	4%	8%	19%
Marketing and recruiting fee paying international post-graduate students	10%	5%	11%	11%	1%	7%	15%
Short-term language programmes for international students	7%	5%	6%	7%	6%	5%	7%
Delivery of distance education courses/ on line programmes abroad	6%	15%	8%	5%	5%	3%	5%
Offering foreign academic programmes in our institution	6%	0%	6%	7%	5%	7%	2%
Provision of programmes/establishment of branch campuses abroad (face to face instruction)	3%	2%	7%	2%	2%	3%	6%

Source: Egron-Polak & Hudson (2010: 91-92; Fig. I.D.7: 214).

Discussion

Figure 2 shows that this question has both international/intercultural content of the curriculum and IaH as response items. It is unclear what the connection is and on what basis the two different items have been distinguished. Both items score considerably higher (31% and 15% worldwide) as aspects of policy than as aspects of practice (7% and 4% worldwide, see Figure 3 below).

Activities for IaH

Question 29

Figure 3: Amongst the following internationalization **activities**, which five receive the most attention and resources at your institution?

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Outgoing mobility opportunities for students (study, internships etc)	14%	6%	11%	16%	12%	6%	16%
International research collaboration	12%	15%	15%	12%	8%	20%	9%
International student exchanges and attracting international students	12%	10%	12%	13%	7%	9%	13%
Outgoing mobility options for faculty/staff	7%	8%	8%	8%	6%	9%	4%
Strengthening international/intercultural content of curriculum	**7%**	**9%**	**8%**	**7%**	**7%**	**6%**	**8%**
Joint and dual/double degree programmes	6%	4%	6%	6%	5%	10%	6%
Foreign visits to your university	5%	7%	5%	4%	5%	9%	2%
Foreign language teaching as part of the curriculum	4%	3%	3%	4%	7%	7%	3%
Hosting international scholars	4%	6%	5%	2%	6%	6%	3%
International development and capacity building projects	4%	10%	4%	3%	4%	5%	3%
Internationalization "at home"	**4%**	**2%**	**3%**	**4%**	**6%**	**3%**	**4%**
Marketing and recruiting fee paying international undergraduate students	4%	2%	4%	3%	2%	2%	9%
Marketing and recruiting fee paying international post-graduate students	3%	2%	3%	2%	2%	1%	5%
Delivery of distance education courses/ on line programmes abroad	2%	3%	2%	1%	3%	1%	3%

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Offering foreign academic programmes in our institution	2%	1%	2%	2%	3%	2%	-
Short-term language programmes for international students	2%	2%	2%	1%	3%	2%	2%
Provision of programmes/establishment of branch campuses abroad (face to face instruction)	1%	-	1%	1%	-	2%	2%

Source: Egron-Polak & Hudson (2010: 97-98; Fig. I.D.11: 217).

Discussion

At world level, activities that receive institutional attention and resources include strengthening the international/intercultural content of the curriculum and IaH, both of which rank fairly low (7% and 4%, respectively). International/intercultural content of the curriculum comes in third place worldwide, scoring even lower in North America (fourth) and Europe (fifth). The authors see the desire to strengthen the international content of the curriculum as "an especially positive sign, since internationalisation at home was ranked at about the mid-point in the list of activities receiving attention and resources". They notice "contradictory results" which they attribute to the "relative novelty of the terminology, or concept, of 'internationalisation at home' at many HEIs, where related activities are actually taking place" (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 96).

In the regional overview of activities with the highest priority, HEIs in Africa assign third place to "strengthening the international/intercultural content of the curriculum". North American HEIs give fourth place to this item. In the other regions, this item comes in third or fourth.

The authors of the survey explain this low position on the European priority list by commenting on the fact that many European universities have already embarked on activities to internationalise their curricula and therefore assign less importance to it. At the same time, other universities would assign less importance to internationalisation of the curriculum because they are not yet ready to embark on the process (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 175).

The former statement fails to explain why European universities would assign a low importance to their own policies once they have started to implement them. After all, European universities have been developing activities for student mobility for a considerable number of years and still assign a high importance to them.

The latter statement contains considerable truth. The Global Survey does not distinguish sub regions within Europe. It is, however, clear from other sources that a focus on internationalisation of the curriculum is strong in counties in north-western Europe: The Netherlands, Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden. Whereas interest in international aspects seems to be growing in the United Kingdom, many universities in eastern-central Europe and southern Europe are not particularly active when it comes to internationalising their home curricula.

This raises the question about the usefulness of distinguishing between IaH and internationalisation of the curriculum when the activities are clearly related.

A further table in the survey report sheds light on the situation in Australia and New Zealand. The focus on internationalisation of the curriculum is quite strong, with 67% of HEIs including it among their priority activities, along with 22% that include IaH (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 167). The authors of the survey do not explain the relationship between these categories. It is therefore not clear if the 67% referring to internationalisation of the curriculum includes aspects of outgoing mobility, whereas the 22% refers to activities that take place exclusively at the home institution.

Rationales for Internationalisation (of the Curriculum)

Question 9

Figure 4: What are the three most important **rationales** for internationalization at your institution?

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Improve student preparedness for a globalized/ internationalized world	30%	19%	31%	27%	39%	22%	39%
Internationalize curriculum and improve academic quality	**17%**	**15%**	**17%**	**16%**	**18%**	**16%**	**17%**
Enhance international profile and reputation	15%	13%	14%	20%	6%	17%	9%
Strengthen research and knowledge capacity production	14%	24%	15%	13%	16%	22%	8%
Increase the number, broaden and diversify source of students	9%	8%	7%	10%	4%	5%	17%
Broaden and diversify source of faculty/staff	4%	3%	6%	4%	3%	10%	2%
Increase faculty intercultural understanding*	3%	3%	4%	2%	5%	6%	2%
Diversify sources of income	2%	1%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%
Respond to public policies	1%	3%	1%	2%	1%	-	-
None	-	-	-	-	1%	-	-
No reply	4%	11%	3%	5%	5%	1%	2%

Source: Egron-Polak & Hudson (2010: 64; Fig. I.B.7: 210).
* This is the response item found in the original questionnaire (p. 210, question 9). The response item in figure I.B.7 reads: "Increase faculty international knowledge".

Discussion

At a global level, improving student preparedness (the full item in the questionnaire reads: "Improve student preparedness for a globalized/internationalized world") is identified as the most important rationale for internationalisation. Thirty per cent of HEIs rate it among their main rationales. It is also the first rationale in the regions, except in Africa.

Internationalisation of the curriculum occupies second place in the overview of rationales worldwide, with 17% of HEIs identifying it as a main rationale. In the breakdown by region, it also comes in second place in Asia & Pacific, Latin America & Caribbean and North America, whereas it comes in third place in Africa, Europe and the Middle East.

The authors do not comment on a relationship between student preparedness and the curriculum. It therefore remains unclear if they consider internationalisation of the curriculum as a tool for improving student preparedness. They apparently associate traditional means such as outgoing mobility with preparing students, since they remark that "an international experience as part of a study programme is perhaps one of the best ways to become 'prepared' for a globalized world". NUAs perceive that student preparation is the main rationale for their members' pursuing internationalisation (26%) and that internationalisation of the curriculum belongs to the top four rationales (15%) (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 64, Fig. I.B.7).

The mention of internationalisation of the curriculum in this context may therefore primarily be made in relation to the quality of the curriculum and not in relation to the extent to which it contributes to the development of students' international and intercultural competences.

Benefits of Internationalisation

Question 10

Figure 5: What are the most significant **benefits** of internationalization to your institution (please rank top three, where 1 = most significant)?

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Increased international awareness of students	24%	15%	20%	23%	30%	18%	33%
Strengthened research and knowledge production	16%	24%	20%	14%	18%	21%	9%
Enhanced international cooperation and solidarity	12%	15%	11%	14%	10%	15%	8%
Enhanced internationalization of curriculum	**11%**	**7%**	**12%**	**11%**	**9%**	**7%**	**17%**
Enhanced prestige/profile for the institution	10%	11%	11%	12%	10%	9%	7%
Increased international orientation of faculty/staff	10%	9%	12%	9%	10%	7%	9%

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Better capacity to attract students	5%	3%	3%	6%	2%	9%	7%
Increased or diversified revenue generation	4%	3%	4%	2%	2%	7%	7%
Improved institutional management	1%	3%	2%	1%	3%	3%	-
Better capacity to attract faculty/staff	1%	-	2%	1%	-	5%	1%
None	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
No reply	5%	10%	3%	7%	4%	-	3%

Source: Egron-Polak & Hudson (2010: 67; Fig. I.B.10: 211).

Discussion

Students' increased international awareness comes out as the overall main benefit of internationalisation. This is reflected by the scores in the individual regions, with the exception of Africa and the Middle East. "Enhanced internationalization of the curriculum" is an item in the same table and comes in second place in Asia & Pacific and North America. The connection between the two items is not explained nor is it clear how awareness relates to measurable or assessable competences or professional behaviour. The scores for North America are remarkable in the sense that the region scores highest both on increased international awareness (33%) and enhanced internationalisation of the curriculum (17%). The respondents might have seen a connection between the two items that can become apparent when additional questions will be asked.

Global and Regional Barriers and Obstacles to Internationalisation

Question 14

Figure 6: Which of the following are the three most important **internal obstacles** to advancing internationalization at your institution?

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Insufficient financial resources	27%	29%	24%	25%	29%	31%	32%
Limited faculty interest and involvement	11%	11%	11%	13%	9%	10%	8%
Limited expertise of staff and/or lack of foreign language proficiency	11%	11%	12%	11%	12%	11%	6%

	World	Africa	Asia and Pacific	Europe	Latin America & Caribbean	Middle East	North America
Administrative inertia, bureaucratic difficulties and/or lack of institutional policies and procedures	8%	8%	6%	10%	8%	9%	8%
Too rigorous/inflexible curriculum to participate in internationally focused programmes, including mobility.	8%	7%	9%	9%	9%	4%	6%
Absence of strategy/plan to guide the process	7%	12%	9%	4%	8%	8%	9%
Limited student interest	6%	4%	6%	6%	5%	12%	13%
International engagement nor recognized for promotion or tenure	5%	2%	4%	6%	3%	4%	11%
Lack of organizational structure/office responsible for internationalization	5%	3%	8%	3%	7%	12%	3%
Limited institutional leadership/vision	2%	3%	3%	1%	2%	-	4%
No reply	10%	10%	7%	12%	9%	1%	11%

Source: Egron-Polak & Hudson (2010: 81; Fig. I.BC.6: 212).

Discussion

Insufficient financial resources come out as the main internal obstacle on a global level, as well as in all the regions. This contrasts with the results of the 2005 survey. It does not become clear to what extent the lack of financial resources is connected with internationalisation of the curriculum. The authors do not mention this aspect and limit their analysis to funding for travel, scholarships, research partnerships and development of new services.

On an aggregate level "limited faculty interest" and "limited experience and expertise of staff and/or lack of foreign language proficiency" rank "fairly high" among the internal obstacles to internationalisation in the opinion of HEIs (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 23). They share second and third place with 11% each. This seems to support the view that the involvement of academic staff in the internationalisation process leaves much to be desired. However, it should be remembered that the invitations to fill out the questionnaires were sent to Heads of Institution and/or Heads of International Affairs (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 42). The results therefore represent the views of these people and not those of academic staff themselves. It would be interesting to pursue this question with academic staff as respondents.

From the survey, it is not clear to what this experience or expertise refers exactly. Outgoing mobility requires little expertise from teaching staff. After all, the students' learning takes place outside the institution and it is mostly the staff of the international office that arranges study abroad. It must therefore be assumed that lacking experience and expertise is in some way connected with internationalisation of the home curriculum and the implementation of an international dimension into the teaching and learning process.

The authors of the survey consider the lack of interest of academic staff "worrisome" and mention that institutions "need to focus far more on mobilizing, training and providing support to faculty members and staff to build up 'internationalization knowledge and readiness' if they are to reach their internationalization goals" (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 77-78).

It would seem useful to look further into the issue of how 'internationalisation knowledge' can be defined and what support could be offered to increase it. The authors see a role for NUAs to mobilise and engage faculty members (p. 149). They do not comment on a relationship between the lack of engagement and limited experience of staff, but it would seem worthwhile to examine whether such a relationship could be made. Leask and Beelen (2010) discuss this relationship. Childress (2010) demonstrates in her case studies that successful engagement of academic staff is the result of a long-term and well supported institutional policy.

The Global Survey distinguishes the lack of foreign language proficiency of teaching staff as both an external and an internal obstacle to advancing internationalisation, in combination with the staff's experience and expertise (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010: 225, questions 12 and 13). This combined obstacle scores second/third place worldwide as an internal obstacle, at the same level as "limited faculty interest". It comes in second place in Asia & Pacific and Latin America & Caribbean, and third place in Africa, Europe and the Middle-East. In North America, it ranks quite low (see Figure 6). In the overview of external obstacles, this element is apparently not considered relevant, since it does not appear in it. It does not become clear what the perceived lack of foreign language proficiency really means. This is firstly because it is combined with another issue. Secondly, it remains unclear where the lack of proficiency is mostly felt. Is it in research or in the teaching and learning process?

Foreign language proficiency is a relevant issue in situations where teaching staff or students – or both – use their second language in a learning environment. Even if both students and teaching staff have the required proficiency, this does not mean that an international classroom will be effective. Teaching staff will also need skills in teaching methodology in a second language. In other words, they will need to apply their second language in content-related contexts. At the same time, they will need to focus on the role of language in the learning process of the students. It would seem useful to distinguish between foreign language proficiency on the one hand, and the skills to teach in a foreign language on the other.

Conclusions

The Global Survey confirms the relevance of internationalisation of the curriculum as one of the two 'pillars' of internationalisation. This is a worldwide phenomenon, although there are some significant regional differences. However, the Global Survey does not enable us to form a clear picture of the state of internationalisation of the curriculum. This is because terminology is not always clear and several issues are combined in one response item. In order to focus more clearly on the trends in internationalising curricula, terminology needs to be clarified. The overwhelming focus of HEIs is on preparing students for a globalised world. At the same time, it has become apparent that this aim will not be achieved through traditional outgoing mobility, which will continue to be a tool for a small minority of students. When every graduate needs to have intercultural and international competences, only the home curriculum can provide these. It therefore needs to be clarified what the role of the curriculum is as a tool for achieving this. In order to do this, a more detailed look at the relevant issues from the Global Survey is necessary from the perspective of internationalisation of the curriculum.

The following issues can be distinguished:

1. The terms 'Internationalisation at Home' and 'internationalisation of the curriculum' seem to overlap. In order to adequately distinguish trends, the terminology needs to be clarified and the relationship between the two concepts explained to enable focused questions.
2. When an internationalised curriculum is seen as proof of quality rather than as a tool for teaching and learning, the image becomes blurred. These two aspects should therefore be separated in future questionnaires.
3. Further light also needs to be shed on the exact nature of the lack of involvement of academic staff and how this may relate to the perceived lack of experience and expertise. Does this lack of expertise relate to the inclusion of an international dimension into learning environments for students? If so, what kind of support would academic staff need to facilitate this process for them? What expertise do academic staff lack when it comes to implementing an international/intercultural dimension into the home curriculum? What do academic staff define as their needs for training and support? In order to get a clearer image of the possible causes of the lack of involvement of academic staff, it is necessary to link this to a number of underlying issues. These include the required skills for building an international dimension into the home curriculum, general foreign language proficiency, skills for teaching in a second language and/or teaching learners who use their second language. Each of these issues calls for specific questions in relation to the involvement of academic staff.
4. More specific questions need to be asked about foreign language proficiency to determine how exactly the lack of language proficiency hampers the internationalisation process. Is this lack related to research and is it about accessing literature in a foreign language? Or is it related to communication with colleagues and students from abroad or – again – to teaching in a second language?
5. The 2005 survey assigned a far more important place to the lack of expertise than the 2009 survey, which shows a lack of financial resources as the main obstacle. It seems unlikely that the expertise of academic staff has increased considerably over the last five years. So how can this shift be explained? Another question is if the perceived lack of financial resources is as relevant to internationalisation of the curriculum as it is for setting up other forms of internationalisation. After all, internationalisation of the curriculum is a fairly cost effective form of internationalisation because it focuses on the restructuring and development of learning environments at the home institute. Academic staff tend to indicate that considerable funding is essential for internationalisation of the curriculum since it requires many hours of dedication. But academic staff did not fill out the questionnaires. The question is if those

who did so indicated the lack of finance on the basis of what teaching staff told them, or on the basis of their own roles in the internationalisation process, which tend to focus more on traditional forms of internationalisation. Questions linking the lack of financial resources to curriculum development may provide relevant insights into this issue.

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Monograph "Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education"

ARTICLE

Internationalization of Higher Education: Theoretical and Empirical Investigation of Its Influence on University Institution Rankings

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Abstract

Internationalization constitutes a broadly widespread concept in the literature about management. However, it has recently started being applied to higher education institutions. In this paper, we investigate internationalization in university institutions from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. To achieve our aim, we place particular emphasis on the methodology applied to evaluate the internationalization of higher education institutions from both quantitative and qualitative approaches. We focus on the study of the three most widely accepted higher education institution rankings: Times Higher Education Supplement, Academic Ranking of World Universities and Webometrics Ranking. We find that, while the variable internationalization is included in such rankings through several items, its weight in the overall score is still limited. Additionally, our results demonstrate that the final position achieved by university institutions is hardly determined by their degree of internationalization, but rather relies on other institutional aspects, such as teaching quality and research quality, among others. Furthermore, we argue that internationalization indicators used in current university institution rankings, e.g., international faculty ratio and international students ratio, are far from reflecting the main variables involved in their internationalization processes.

Keywords

internationalization, university institutions, higher education institution rankings, indicators

La internacionalización en la enseñanza superior: investigación teórica y empírica sobre su influencia en las clasificaciones de las instituciones universitarias

Resumen

El concepto de internacionalización está ampliamente difundido en la bibliografía sobre gestión. Pero recientemente también se ha empezado a utilizar en el ámbito de las instituciones de enseñanza superior. En este artículo investigaremos la internacionalización en las instituciones universitarias desde dos perspectivas, teórica y práctica. Para lograr nuestro objetivo, hemos dado especial importancia a la metodología utilizada para evaluar la internacionalización en las instituciones de enseñanza superior desde un punto de vista tanto cualitativo como cuantitativo. Nos hemos centrado en el estudio de las tres clasificaciones de instituciones de enseñanza superior más ampliamente aceptadas: Times Higher Education Supplement, Academic Ranking of World Universities y Webometrics Ranking. Hemos visto que, aunque la variable de la internacionalización se tiene en cuenta en dichas clasificaciones a través de varios factores, su peso en la puntuación global es aun limitado. Además, los resultados que hemos obtenido demuestran que el grado de internacionalización de las instituciones universitarias apenas determina su posición final en las clasificaciones, ya que esta depende de otros aspectos institucionales como la calidad de la enseñanza y la calidad de la investigación, entre otros factores. Asimismo hemos visto que los indicadores de internacionalización utilizados en las clasificaciones más corrientes de instituciones universitarias, como la proporción de personal docente internacional y la proporción de estudiantes internacionales, distan mucho de reflejar las principales variables que intervienen en los procesos de internacionalización.

Palabras clave
internacionalización, instituciones universitarias, clasificaciones de instituciones de enseñanza superior, indicadores

Abbreviations:
HEI: Higher Education Institution; THES: Times Higher Education Supplement; ARWU: Academic Ranking of World Universities; WM: Webometrics Ranking; HERS: Higher Education Ranking System; FTE: Full Time Equivalent; IREG: International Ranking Expert Group; BP: Berlin Principles; CCHS: Social and Human Sciences Centre (Spanish acronym); CSIC: Spanish National Research Council (Spanish acronym).

Introduction

In global and knowledge-based societies, greater emphasis has been placed on the internationalization of higher education. From a purely management perspective, internationalization has been defined as the development of business operations processes, including strategy, structure and resources, within international environments (Calof & Beamish, 1995). Furthermore, applied to higher education institutions (HEIs), a huge array of definitions have been presented, each one focusing on one or several aspects. In this paper, we adopt the definition proposed by Knight (2003: 2), according to which internationalization can be described as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education".

Since internationalization constitutes a source of competitive advantage for HEIs (Van Damme, 2001), we investigate the definitions proposed and the measures applied in relation to the concept of internationalization in HEIs. Moreover, we provide an empirical examination of the most relevant international university rankings: Times Higher Education Supplement (THES), Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) and Webometrics Ranking (WM). We observe that the importance given to the variable internationalization in such rankings is limited and that the indicators used do not accurately reflect the main variables involved in the internationalization processes of HEIs. This paper is organized into four additional sections following this introduction. The second section provides a brief theoretical background about the concept of internationalization in HEIs. The third section constitutes a comparison among three of the most widely accepted international rankings of university institutions (THES, ARWU and WM), with a special focus on how internationalization is reflected in each of them. The fourth section contains a detailed empirical analysis of these university institution rankings. Finally, section five summarizes the main conclusions, limitations and implications, and points out several lines for future research.

Internationalization in University Institutions: Theoretical Background

Higher education and globalisation

Higher education systems, policies and institutions are being transformed by globalisation, which is "the widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness" (Held et al., 1999: 2). Globalization drives and is driven by higher education. Higher education trains highly skilled workers and contributes to the research base and capacity for innovation that determine competitiveness in the knowledge-based global economy (OECD, 2009). Though HEIs often see themselves as objects of globalisation, they are also its agents (Scott, 1998). Research universities are intensively linked within and between the global cities that constitute the major nodes of a networked world (Castells, 2001; McCarney, 2005). Characteristically, global cities have a high density of participation in higher education; there is a strong positive correlation between the higher education enrolment ratio of a nation or a region and its global competitive performance (Bloom, 2005: 23-24).

The evolution of globalization and of the knowledge society has led to institutional changes in higher education systems, such as changes in managerial attitudes and cultures (Deem & Brehony, 2005), in strategies and in the role of the state. Firstly, most universities have become more entrepreneurial, and this attitude has pushed them to extend the scope of their activities beyond national borders. Thus, activities of HEIs become more developed in international (in terms of cooperation) and global (in terms of competition) frameworks (Horta, 2009). Cooperation and competition are intensifying simultaneously under the growing influence of market forces and the emergence of new players (OECD, 2009). Secondly, according to Knight (1997) and De Wit (1995), internationalization requires two complementary strategies to enhance and sustain the international dimensions of university functions, namely, programme strategies and organisational strategies. The former include various academic initiatives in education, research and university services, and the latter involve organisational initiatives to facilitate and institutionalise international dimensions at universities through management and operating systems. Thirdly, the role of the state also plays a crucial role, since in a global world of higher education, most national governments want to have international universities that compete and cooperate with other universities worldwide. Thus, the role of the state – through funding and policy initiatives favouring the internationalization of higher education – seems to be critical. Indeed, a good example of the globalisation process lies in the spread of new public management in higher education. In nations throughout the world, the responses of systems and institutions to globalisation have been conditioned by ongoing reforms to national systems, and related reforms in the organisation and management of the institutions themselves (OECD, 2009). There is more use of new public management tools, including market forces, financial incentives (competitive funding), increased autonomy and accountability, and deregulation. As a result, HEIs are active on foreign education markets and have taken advantage of the deregulation of tuition fees (Van der Wende, 2007). Nonetheless, as Castells (2000) points out, globalisation leads at the same time to development and underdevelopment, and the need to address such imbalances requires HEIs to broaden their missions for internationalization beyond the quest for profitability alone.

The internationalization of higher education is often seen as a possible response to globalisation (i.e., a way to make HEIs more effective in response to the globalisation of societies, cultures, economies and labour markets) (Karlvermark & Van der Wende, 1997) as, by definition, internationalization is a process that governments can steer more readily than globalisation (Van der Wende, 2007). In this sense, higher education has become increasingly international in the past decade as more and more students choose to study abroad, enrol in foreign educational programmes and institutions in their home country, or simply use the Internet to take courses at colleges or universities in other countries. In the next section, we explore the definitions of internationalization in higher education proposed in the literature.

Definitions of internationalization

While internationalization is not a new concept, it has started being applied to the area of higher education in recent years (De Wit, 1995). Indeed, a fundamental problem for researchers and practitioners relies on dealing with the variety of terms relating to internationalization in higher education, such as "international education, international studies, internationalism, transnational education, and globalization of higher education. There are more concrete subdivisions of the field: academic mobility, international cooperation, study abroad, and international exchange. More curriculum-focused terms include area studies in education, multicultural education, intercultural education, cross-cultural education, education for international understanding, peace education, global education, transnational studies, and global studies" (De Wit, 2002: 103).

Table 1 shows a classification of the definitions of internationalization proposed in the literature, according to four generic perspectives established by Knight (1997): activity, competency, ethos and process.

Following the *activity* perspective, internationalization in higher education is the process of integrating international education into the curriculum (Harari, 1992; Klasek, 1992; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998). Such an approach, centred on activities, involves "increasing international cooperation, enhancing national security and improving economic competitiveness" (Powell, 2004).

From the *competency* approach, Soderqvist (2002: 29) claims that internationalization is "a change process from a national higher education institution to an international higher education institution leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competences". Internationalization improves an institution's capabilities in relation to both teaching and research (Elkin, Farnsworth & Templer, 2008), and enables a university to benchmark its courses against international norms (Ayoubi & Masoud, 2007). Universities usually internationalize in order to attract foreign students (Lipsett, 2009; McGowan & Potter, 2008), better qualified domestic students and top quality research staff (Van der Wende, 2007).

The *ethos* perspective defends that internationalization is a process of strengthening the international character of campuses with the support of a leading institution (Hanson & Meyerson, 1995; Harari, 1992; Pickert & Turlington, l992).

Table 1. Perspectives of internationalization in the context of higher education institutions

1. 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) Mestenhauser (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 (l992) 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: Self-elaboration.

Finally, the *process* approach claims that internationalization is a sustainable process of "integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution" (Knight, 1994: 7).

In short, since previous studies do not rely on a commonly accepted definition of internationalization of higher education, they place emphasis on different indicators to measure the degree of internationalization at HEIs. Each of those indicators highlights a different strategic aspect. As a result, reaching consensus on which should be the most relevant indicators still remains an unsolved issue. For instance, one of the most widely used indicators for internationalization is the ratio of international students versus domestic students. Taking this as the basis, a recent study has pointed out that 'world class universities' (i.e., Harvard, MIT, Yale or Cambridge) have very high scores for this indicator. However, when the student population of such universities is disaggregated by level of education, only 16% of the undergraduate student population consists of international students while, at graduate level, this percentage increases to 41% (Horta, 2009). In the next section, we analyze the different indicators for internationalization at HEIs used by three widely accepted higher education ranking systems.

Higher education ranking systems

Higher education ranking systems (HERSs) have recently had a major impact on all stakeholders involved in the knowledge services industry (Marginson, 2007). These rankings are perceived as having "cemented the notion of a world university market" (Marginson & Van der Wende, 2007: 306), in which HEIs are measured according to a global scale, therefore introducing the notion of competition among HEIs as a new paradigm in most countries (Altbach, 2006).

Ranking models vary considerably in their purposes and scopes, in their definitions and in their methodological designs (Usher & Savino, 2006). Ranking lists focus not only on universities as a whole, but also on various fields of activities such as teaching, research or executive education, curriculum content, etc. Yet, all ratings and rankings of institutions assume that there is a 'brand effect' for the university as a whole.

Moreover, despite the great debate about their validity and reliability, rankings have become relevant tools for institution policy makers. Indeed, the measurement of internationalization is conceived, within the strategic plans of HEIs, as the achievement of a specific position in one or more of the global rankings. Therefore, HERSs play a key role in the current education market, characterized by the Bologna Process, the harmonisation of educational standards, and high student and faculty mobility, among other aspects (OECD, 2009).

Overview of THES, ARWU and WM Rankings

In this section, three international rankings are investigated: the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES), the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) compiled by Shanghai Jiaotong University, and the Webometrics Ranking (WM) that arises from an initiative of the Cybermetrics Lab.

The world university ranking, published in THES, represents a combination of numerical and top-level approaches (i.e., focused on the 200 top-ranked universities). The core analysis is quite subjective, including peer reviews and employers' opinion. The non-subjective side emerges from other indicators, such as citation of academic papers created by staff, students-faculty ratio and internationalization aspects, among others. Table 2 provides a summary of the methodology applied to elaborate the THES ranking.

Research quality is represented with two items: Global Academic Peer Review and Citation per Faculty. *Global Academic Peer Review* is the key element of the THES ranking and is based on an online survey distributed to academics all over the world. Results are compiled based on three years' responses, reaching a total of 9,386 responses in 2009. Respondents are not allowed to evaluate their own institution nor to respond more than once (only their latest response is counted). Different weights are applied both geographically and by discipline in order to ensure as fair a representation as possible. A *Citation* is a reference to one academic publication in the text of another. The more citations a publication receives the better it is perceived to be. Hence, the more highly cited papers a university publishes, the stronger this university can be considered to be in terms of research. The source used in this evaluation is Scopus, the world's largest abstract and citation database of research literature (*World University Rankings: methodology*, 2009). Whilst the *Students-Faculty Ratio* may not be a perfect measure of teaching quality, it is the most globally available and accessible measure of commitment to teaching. This indicator is made up from two datasets: Full Time Equivalent (FTE) students and Full Time Equivalent (FTE) faculty. *Employ Review* is based on a global online survey distributed to employers. Results are also based on three years of 'latest response' data. Similarly, geographical weightings are applied to ensure a fair representation for all the regions of the world. *Internationalization* is an undeniable component of today's world class universities. It reflects the proportion of international students and faculty who are attracted to that institution. The international migration of students and faculty is a major trend in higher education due to globalization. Each of those groups represents 5% in the total score of this ranking. Consequently, the total weight given to internationalization in the THES ranking methodology is 10%.

Table 2. Overview of the THES ranking's methodology

Criteria	Indicator	Explanation	Weight
Research quality	Global Academic Peer Review	Composite score drawn from peer review survey	40 %
	Citation per Faculty	Score based on research performance factored against the size of the research body	20 %
Teaching Quality	Students/Faculty Ratio	Score based on students/faculty ratio	20 %
Graduate Employability	Global Employ Review	Score based on responses to employer survey	10 %
Internationalization	International Faculty	Score based on proportion of international faculty	5 %
	International Students	Score based on proportion of international students	5 %

Source: Self-elaboration from http://www.topuniversities.com.

ARWU is compiled by Shanghai Jiaotong University and, like the THES ranking, is based on numerical and top-level approaches (i.e., focused on the 500 top-ranked universities). It relies on a quantitative basis, with four performance indicators: *education quality*; *faculty quality*; *research output*; and *size of the institution*. Table 3 shows the components included in the methodology of this ranking.

Table 3. Overview of the ARWU ranking's methodology

Criteria	Indicator	Weight
Quality of Education	Alumni of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals (*Alumni*)	10 %
Quality of Faculty	Staff of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals (*Award*)	20 %
	Highly cited researchers in 21 broad subject categories (*HiCi*)	20 %
Research Output	Papers published in Nature and Science (*N&S*)	20 %
	Papers indexed in Science Citation Index Expanded and Social Science Citation Index (*PUB*)	20 %
Per Capita Performance	Per capita academic performance of an institution (*PCP*)	10 %

Source: Self-elaboration from http://www.arwu.org/ARWUMethodology2009.jsp.

Education quality is calculated according to alumni winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals. *Alumni* are defined as those who obtain bachelor's, master's or doctoral degrees from an institution. Faculty quality is estimated over a number of Nobel Prizes awarded to alumni and staff, as well as the number of most highly cited researchers in 21 broad subject categories. *Award* in this context refers to the total number of staff (working at an institution at the time of winning a prize) of an institution winning Nobel Prizes in Physics, Chemistry, Medicine and Economics, as well as Fields Medals in Mathematics. The assessment of an output is carried out over article citation. *HiCi* represents the individuals who are the most highly cited within each category. *N&S* considers the number of papers published in Nature and Science. *PUB* takes into account the total number of papers indexed in the Science Citation Index Expanded and Social Science Citation Index. Finally, the size of an institution refers to the weighted scores of the other indicators divided by the number of FTE staff. *PCP* estimates the weighted scores of the above five indicators divided by the number of FTE academic staff.

In contrast to THES, ARWU does not emphasize any indicator which could directly fit for the measurement of internationalization of an HEI. Consequently, university ratings may differ in their evaluation of various parameters – ARWU tends to rely on research indicators, while THES accounts for international staff and students. Nevertheless, they have a common point in research citation: the international publication data basis (i.e., ISI and Scopus). Furthermore, ARWU could be viewed as a ranking that considers internationalization in an indirect way, since an institution's performance and size depend on some internationalization components (e.g., international staff and students).

As an alternative to the institutional approach used for THES and ARWU rankings, some members of the International Ranking Expert Group (IREG), founded by the UNESCO European Centre for Higher Education, established in 2006 a "set of principles of quality and good practice" (IREG, 2006: 1) in order to create a framework "that ultimately will lead to a system of continuous improvement and refinement of the methodologies used to conduct" (IREG 2006; 1) HERSs. These principles are known as Berlin Principles.

According to BP, rankings should "be clear about their purpose and their target groups. Rankings have to be designed with due regard to their purpose. Indicators designed to meet a particular objective or to inform one target group may not be adequate for different purposes or target groups". Thus, in order to be able to carry out comparative analyses, our study is focused on rankings based on these principles.

Along these lines, the WM formally and explicitly adheres to BP of HEIs (*Ranking Web of World Universities,* 2009). This ranking is an initiative of the Cybermetrics Lab. This Lab is a research group belonging to the Human and Social Sciences Centre (CCHS), which is part of the Spanish National Research Council (CSIC), the largest public research institution in Spain. WM constitutes a different type of ranking, which has been considered as relevant for the assessment of internationalization processes of HEIs. While other rankings focus only on a few relevant aspects (e.g., research results, web indicators, etc), WM covers all types of scholarly communication – formal and informal – with a greater possibility of reaching much larger potential audiences to offer access to scientific knowledge to researchers and institutions located in other countries, and also to involve interested economic, industrial, political or cultural stakeholders. WM correlates positively with quality of education and academic prestige, but other non-academic variables are also taken into account. University activity is multidimensional; hence, web presence identifies the level of an activity. In such a way, web indicators have been proposed as the basis for measuring and establishing a university's rank. The choice of indicators was made according to several criteria, some of them aimed at enhancing quality and academic and institutional strengths, while others focus on web publication and the promotion of Open Access initiatives. WM covers more than 5,000 HEIs. Table 4 shows information about the WM methodology.

Table 4. Overview of the Webometrics (WM) ranking's methodology

Indicator	Weight
Visibility (V): The total number of unique external links (inlinks) received by an institution's website(s) from Google, Yahoo, Live Search and Exalead.	50 %
Size (S): Number of pages returned within four search engines relating to the institution: Google, Yahoo, Live Search and Exalead.	20 %
Rich Files (R): Considering the relevance of the formats used for academic and publication activities, the following have been selected: Adobe Acrobat (.pdf), Adobe PostScript (.ps), Microsoft Word (.doc) and Microsoft PowerPoint (.ppt). These data were extracted using Google, Yahoo Search, Live Search and Exalead.	15 %
Scholar (Sc): Google Scholar provides the number of papers and citations for each academic domain. These results from the Scholar database represent papers, reports and other academic items.	15 %

Source: Self-elaboration from http://www.webometrics.info/about_rank_es.html.

The number of external inlinks (*Visibility*) received by a domain reflects an impact of the published material. Though incentives for linking can differ, in this case it complies with the same concept as a bibliographical citation. *Size* comprises the total number of web pages. This indicator is based on the recognition of a new global market for academic information, so the Web is the adequate platform for the internationalization of institutions. A strong and detailed web presence providing exact descriptions of the structure and activities of a university can attract new students and scholars worldwide. This indicator has a significant weight (20%) and measures another side of internationalization – digital space, which has an essential impact on various activities of institutions. Finally, the success of self-archiving and other repository-related initiatives can be roughly represented from *Rich file* and *Scholar* data.

Additionally, given the wide variety of indicators included in HERSs, stakeholders selectively use such indicators according to different rationales. Three groups of stakeholders have been especially highlighted in the literature: students, employers, and principals and directors.

First, students are influenced by indicators when they apply to universities. Prior to such application, students will have contacted the institution directly or personally visited it. Then, students will look at the information gathered in the prospectus. However, data showing any negative aspect would probably not be mentioned in the prospectus, and so the applicant is faced with a collection of non-comparable and selective pieces of information (Tofallis, 2011).

Second, employers in charge of selecting from a huge amount of applicants with similar degrees may also be influenced by university rankings (or by certain indicators applied to those rankings) when making their recruitment decisions.

Finally, principals and other directors find it difficult to resist quoting university rankings, given the influence of such rankings on employers and prospective students. Principals and directors usually focus efforts on those criteria that they can most easily improve in order to push their institutions up in the rankings. As a result, even their strategic decisions are likely to be influenced by the expected impact on certain rankings (Tofallis, 2011). Moreover, another possible effect of reaching a good position in certain rankings affects tuition fees that universities feel they can charge. In this sense, prestigious institutions in the world rankings can point to this in order to justify charging higher fees.

The internationalization variable in THES, ARWU and WM: a comparative analysis

Nowadays universities are becoming more global, involving many internal and external stakeholders. Therefore, the application of university rankings has become a crucial tool for identifying the level of a university institution within the knowledge service industry. HEIs internationalize in order to become more competitive in the education market, to attract foreign students, to recruit international scholars, to support cross-campus research collaborations and to increase their performance.

However, earlier we pointed out that, while some common variables are present in all rankings, there are important differences in some of the indicators included in each of those rankings. Table 5 summarizes the main differences and common points among the three international HEI rankings analyzed.

Table 5. Comparison of international university rankings: THES, ARWU and WM

Indicators	THES	ARWU	WM
Alumni with Nobel Prizes / Fields Medals		+	
Staff with Nobel Prizes / Fields Medals		+	
Research output (publications) / Rich Files & Google Scholar		+	+
Research citation/ Visibility	+	+	+
Academic performance in relation to institution size / size: number of web pages relating to the institution		+	+
Peer Review	+		
Employer Opinion	+		
Staff/Student Ratios	+		
Proportion of International Staff	+		
Proportion of International Students	+		

Source: Self-elaboration.

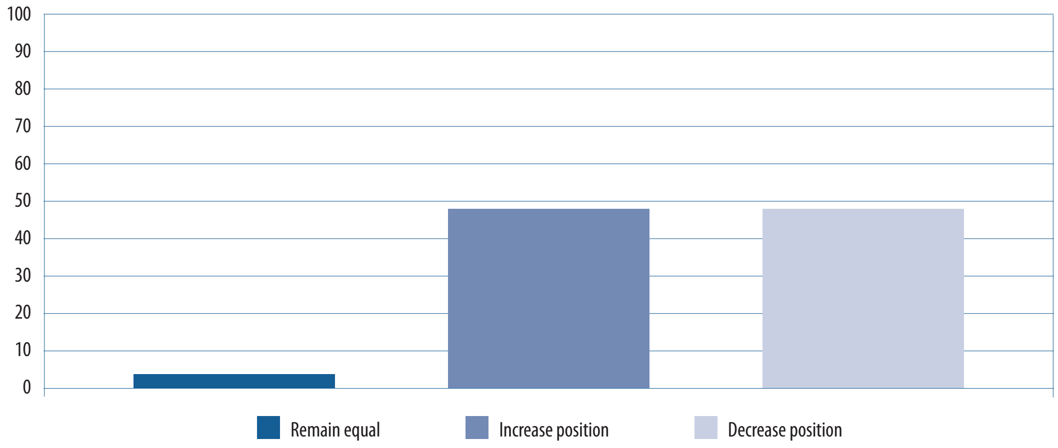
It is evident that internationalization is taken into account both directly and indirectly. Particularly, four main indicators for the internationalization process can be noted. First, academic performance in relation to institution size (ARWU). It constitutes 10% of the overall weight of indicators. It represents an indirect assessment of internationalization due to the fact that size measurement involves both levels of national and international staff and students without distinguishing them. Second, the variable size. It indicates the number of web pages returned by search engines relating to an HEI (WM), and it is assigned 20% of the total score. It focuses on a specific aspect of internationalization, e.g. internet space, hence measuring quantity of web pages relating to a certain HEI worldwide in search engines such as Google, Yahoo, Live Search and Exalead. Third, the proportion of international staff (THES) totals 5% of the indicator's overall weight and it represents the level of international personnel involved in an HEI's activities. And fourth, the proportion of international students (THES). It also totals 5% of the indicator's overall weight. This indicator provides an impression of how attractive an institution is around the world and it suggests to what extent an institution has embraced the globalization agenda.

Nevertheless, these rankings present some limitations. In relation to methodological biases, existing global rankings do not pay attention to language diversity, which represents a huge part of the internationalization concept. ARWU and THES use Thomson Reuters and Scopus databases, which basically include predominantly U.S. and English-language journals. Consequently, publications in languages other than English are not counted. Moreover, Hendel and Stolz (2008) found the overwhelming majority of European HERSs are published in a language other than English. Thus, Stolz et al. (2010: 508) point out that "the seemingly existing consensus about the most studied ranking systems might be linguistically biased".

Empirical Analysis

In this section we carry out an initial empirical approximation to the role played by internationalization in HEI rankings. To achieve our aim, we take the data published in 2009 in ARWU and THES rankings corresponding to the top-ranked universities worldwide. Figure 1 represents the changes experienced by the 100 top-ranked HEIs in their ranking position depending on the inclusion of internationalization indicators in 2009. We observe that 96% of universities experienced a change, either up or down, in their ranking position in 2009, after internationalization indicators were included in the scoring methodology. Furthermore, the ranking position of just four out of 100 institutions did not change after incorporating internationalization indicators. The inclusion of such internationalization indicators therefore has an important influence on the position in which universities are ranked.

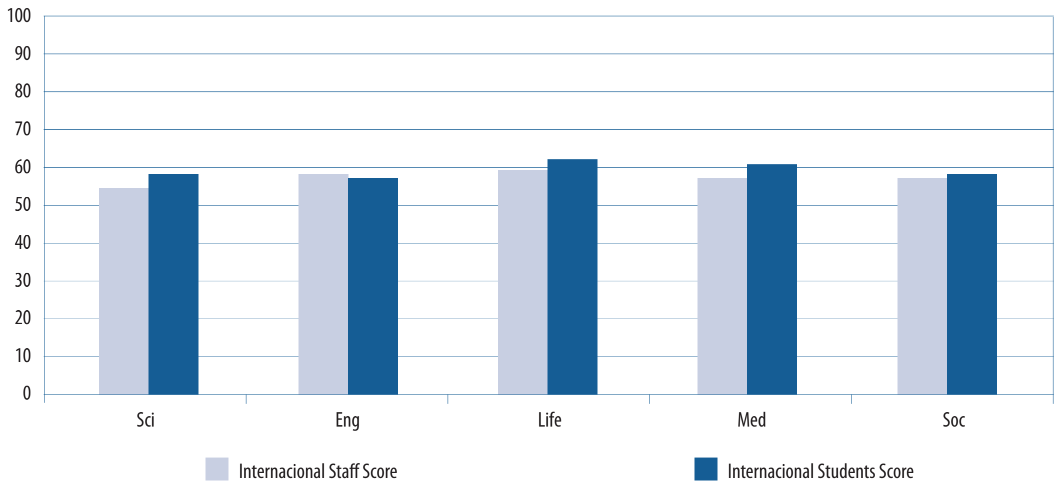
Figure 1. Changes in the position of the 100 top-ranked universities with the inclusion of internationalization indicators (2009)



Source: Self-elaboration from THES (2009).

Moreover, Figure 2 provides a graphical representation of the internationalization indicators (i.e., international staff score and international students score) for the 100 top-ranked universities in 2009 by field of expertise. It is important to highlight the high degree of uniformity in the internationalization profiles of HEIs across disciplines. Furthermore, average internationalization scores for both internationalization indicators in all disciplines are above 50 points (out of a maximum of 100), which represents a medium internationalization effort.

Figure 2. Comparison of internationalization indicators for the 100 top-ranked universities across higher education disciplines (2009)



Source: Self-elaboration from ARWU (2009).

Table 6 shows the results of comparing the Pearson correlation between the total score obtained by the 200 top-ranked universities in 2009 and their internationalization score. We can conclude that the total internationalization score a university obtains from the two internationalization indicators (i.e., international staff score and international students score) is positively and significantly correlated with the overall score of that university. Hence, there is a positive relationship between the degree of internationalization of a university and the score that university gets in HEI rankings.

Table 6. Correlation between total score and internationalization score for the 200 top-ranked universities (2009)

		Total score	Internationalization score
Total score	Pearson correlation	1	0.324**
	Sig. (two-tailed)		0.000
	N	200	200
Internationalization score	Pearson correlation	0.324**	1
	Sig. (two-tailed)	0.000	
	N	200	200

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 (two-tailed).
Source: Self-elaboration.

Nevertheless, it may be also interesting to analyze the correlation between the internationalization score and ranking position. Table 7 shows the Pearson correlation between the internationalization score of the 200 top-ranked universities and their position in the THES ranking in 2009. We can see that there is a negative and statistically significant relationship between the degree of internationalization of a university institution and the position in which that university is ranked.

Table 7. Correlation between internationalization score and universities ranking position for the 200 top-ranked universities (2009)

		Internationalization score	Ranking position
Internationalization score	Pearson correlation	1	-0.303**
	Sig. (two-tailed)		0.000
	N	200	200
Ranking position	Pearson correlation	-0.303**	1
	Sig. (two-tailed)	0.000	
	N	200	200

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 (two-tailed).
Source: Self-elaboration.

Although this result would appear to be counterintuitive at first sight, we find the following explanation. If we look at the most highly ranked universities (i.e., Harvard, Cambridge, Yale, etc.), they are both highly internationalized (indeed, they are well-known for being the main receptors of brain-drain) and highly ranked. Hence, for such a limited sample of universities, this duality is possible because they also present very high scores in other variables that receive higher weights in the rankings, such as research quality and teaching quality. However, if we were to stop the analysis here, we might draw the biased conclusion that the more internationalized a university is (in terms of international faculty and students), the higher position it has in the rankings.

Nonetheless, if we look at the vast majority of remaining universities, which are not at the top of the rankings, we observe that they do not score so highly for variables such as teaching quality and research quality, yet some of them present very high scores in international faculty and international students. This serves to prove that being highly internationalized, while having a positive impact on a university score, is not the main driver of a university's position in the rankings. However, how do we interpret the negative significant relationship? We conclude that using international faculty and international students as the only indicators for internationalization may have a perverse impact on most universities. This is due to the fact that universities may focus on internationalization in terms of quantity instead of quality and, hence, on attracting more and more international faculty and students to obtain higher scores in the rankings. This focus on quantity instead of quality may produce negative interaction effects on the other variables contained in the rankings (e.g., teaching quality and research quality), which would be translated into a very high internationalization score while simultaneously lowering the score achieved in other indicators representing the remaining 90% of the overall score. As a consequence, universities may get a worse position in the rankings. According to De Wit (2002: 114), "as the international dimension of higher education gains more attention and recognition, people tend to use it in the way that best suits for their purpose. While one can understand this happening, it is not helpful for internationalization to become a catchall phrase for everything and anything international".

Additionally, we also argue that the real indicators of internationalization are not included in the measurement of these rankings. Furthermore, we defend that the current internationalization indicators may lead to biased interpretations of the correct way for universities to achieve a higher ranking position, as well as to biased conclusions. As a consequence, we consider that these two indicators of internationalization may have a negative effect on universities.

By combining the results of Table 7 with those shown in Table 6, we are able to assert that, while the internationalization of universities counts towards the scores obtained in international rankings, the main weight of such scores is explained by variables which are not related to internationalization processes, such as the scores for peer review, employee review and students/staff.

Conclusions

In the face of globalization and the knowledge society, international competition in the area of higher education has become more intense and the interest in measuring this phenomenon has increased simultaneously. This paper seeks to investigate the internationalization variable in university institution rankings from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. When looking at HEI rankings, it is possible to see that certain universities occupy higher positions in the rankings and that these positions are held for years. Why are they so popular abroad and what makes them so valuable? Is internationalization a key feature of the higher ranked HEIs? This study provides an investigation into the existing measures of internationalization in the context of university institutions.

To achieve this goal, this paper presents a revision of the concept of internationalization in the context of higher education. We conclude that there is a lack of a common definition for the internationalization of university institutions. In this sense, it is important to note that university stakeholders selectively choose which indicators are the most relevant according to different rationales, which hinder the possibility of reaching consensus on a set of uniform indicators for all the groups involved at HEIs. Furthermore, we place particular emphasis on the methodology applied to evaluate the internationalization of HEIs from both quantitative and qualitative approaches. From the quantitative perspective, rankings have the potential to be a valuable instrument for academic quality assurance because, on the one hand, they can provide useful information to consumers and policy makers about quality differences and, on the other, they can play a role in fostering improvements in university standards. Our analyses demonstrate that world university rankings pay limited attention to elements of internationalization. Indeed, some of these rankings, e.g., ARWU, do not directly reflect the international elements, but rather include them within more generic categories such as academic performance in relation to institution size. THES and WM contain international components as an indicator, such as the proportion of international staff/students and size (number of web pages relating to the institution). Nonetheless, while internationalization priorities at each HEI have yet to be clearly defined and while each indicator highlights a different strategic aspect, it is hardly possible to decide which indicators are the most relevant for the measurement of internationalization in higher education.

This paper represents an initial approximation to the topic of internationalization in the context of higher education, and we are aware that it presents some limitations. The main limitation emerges from the data sources employed, which contain restricted indicators and have a lack of attention to the international component. A focus on institution rankings allows comparisons of institutions to be made in relation to a single aspect of institutional activity, such as education, research, internationalization or knowledge transfer. It is important to note that there are multidimensional university rankings that allow evaluations to be performed on various categories of university prestige, including a broad list of international elements. In the methodologies of such rankings, each user is empowered to give a weight to each indicator, thus leading to a list of institutions complying with own interests. Consequently, there is no possibility for a general ranking and no opportunity to compare institution rankings because they differ in nature. The main problem (and at the same time, advantage) of this type of rankings arises from the variability of results depending on each user's personal preferences.

Moreover, several lines for future research can be proposed. First, researchers may be drawn towards studying the relationships between internationalization and various indicators such as visibility, which refers to the total number of unique external links received by an institution website from different search engines. And second, it would be interesting to develop a new set of indicators (e.g., indices) reflecting, in a more accurate way, the relevance that internationalization should have in a context where university institutions are more and more open.

Finally, we consider several potential reflections, which may be translated into potential future extensions of the study. If the internationalization component had a stronger weight in higher education rankings, would this lead to a change in university positions within such rankings? A longitudinal analysis could be undertaken in order to observe the changes in the methodology:

When was the internationalization component first introduced? To what extent has its inclusion brought about a change in a university's rank? Along these lines, it may be of interest to conduct a study that adds complementary data about the internationalization of universities and analyzes their correlation with other internationalization indicators already included in these rankings.

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ARTICLE

The impact of the Bologna Process on higher education in Latin America

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Abstract
The feasibility of establishing a common higher education area in Latin America, by means of a process similar to the Bologna Process or a variant thereof, is a subject of debate in the region. Despite widespread recognition of the benefits of the Bologna Process in terms of modernisation, innovation and internationalisation, the prevailing notion is that such a process would be unfeasible for Latin America. The arguments at the heart of that idea centre on the risk of homogenising all Latin America's higher education systems, which would endanger regional diversity and distinctiveness; on the intra-regional asymmetries among those systems; and on inter-regional asymmetries, specifically the lack of a macro-level project for economic, political and social integration in Latin America, and the differences between European and Latin American higher education. This article examines the

validity of those arguments and concludes that, far from having standardised Europe's education systems, the Bologna Process has paved the way for their convergence within a common framework of reference and entailed innovation in and the modernisation of European higher education thanks to a new education model. Those aspects of the European process thus ought to be borne in mind in the current debate on how to reform Latin American higher education systems in order to bridge gaps and overcome the challenges identified in various international reports.

Keywords

common higher education area, higher education reform in Latin America, internationalisation

Impacto del proceso de Bolonia en la educación superior de América Latina

Resumen

La factibilidad de construir un espacio común de educación superior en América Latina, a través de un proceso como el de Bolonia o alguna de sus variantes, es un tema de debate en la región. A pesar de que se reconocen sus bondades en términos de modernización, innovación e internacionalización, sobresale la tesis de que en el caso de América Latina no es factible. Los argumentos en que se sustenta esta tesis son, por una parte, el riesgo de homogenizar los sistemas de educación superior en todas las regiones, lo que pondría en peligro la diversidad y la diferenciación regionales, y, por otra parte, las asimetrías de tipo intrarregional que existen entre los sistemas de la región, así como las de tipo interregional, que se refieren a la falta de un macroproyecto de integración económica, política y social, así como a las diferencias existentes entre las características de la educación superior de América Latina y de Europa. El artículo analiza la validez de estos argumentos y llega a la conclusión de que un proceso como el de Bolonia, lejos de llevar a la estandarización, ha propiciado la convergencia de los sistemas educativos dentro de un marco común de referencia, además de haber traído consigo la innovación y modernización de la educación terciaria europea gracias a un nuevo modelo educativo. Por ello, se resalta que las características del proceso europeo podrían nutrir el debate sobre las iniciativas de modernización requerida por el sector en la región, con el fin de superar las brechas y los retos señalados en diferentes informes internacionales.

Palabras clave

espacio común de educación superior, reforma de la educación superior en América Latina, internacionalización

Introduction

The achievements of the Bologna Process (BP) and the consolidation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) have led to debate on the desirability and feasibility of copying and extending the process elsewhere. This text offers a general analysis of the main arguments regarding whether or not it would be feasible to reproduce the BP in other regions of the world. In the specific case of Latin America, it has been claimed that such a process would be unfeasible based on two notions: (i) that a regional harmonisation process would result in the standardisation and homogenisation of Latin America's higher education systems (HES), reducing levels of national diversity, distinctiveness and singularity; and (ii) that intra-regional differences (i.e. dissimilarities between the HES within a given region) and inter-regional asymmetries (i.e. differences between Latin American and European HES in terms of development, academic performance, models and educational practices) constitute insurmountable obstacles to any initiative geared to regional academic integration. The article concludes by highlighting the positive influence that particular aspects of the BP could have in relation to the academic reform and modernisation which Latin America requires.

The Bologna Process and its external dimension

Initiatives for forming common tertiary education areas through the harmonisation and convergence of HES represent a trend that has been developing in the higher education (HE) arena since the beginning of the first decade of the 21st century. Such projects have emerged in response to the demands that globalisation and the knowledge society entail, and the BP, with the establishment of the EHEA, is their flagship. As the first of its kind and due to its innovative nature, the BP has become a benchmark, and debate as to how feasible and suitable it would be in regions other than Europe has arisen.

Regional harmonisation initiatives influenced by the BP1 include those of the East African Community, North Africa and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), which are currently at the planning stage, with basic agreements on the integration model to follow being established (Zgaga, 2007; The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education, 2009). The BP has also shaped thinking in the USA (Adelman, 2008) and Canada (Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 2008).

The same applies to Latin America. Various initiatives have arisen in the region, such as the ALCUE common HE area involving Latin America, the Caribbean and the European Union (EU), the Ibero-American Knowledge Area (*Espacio Iberoamericano del Conocimiento*) promoted by Universia2, and two projects being fostered by the National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM), namely the

1. The 2005 Bergen Communiqué recognised the influence of the BP, including its education reform model, on other regions of the world. An explicitly promotion-oriented mechanism was designed on that basis. Entitled "A Strategy for the External Dimension of the Bologna Process", its development up to 2007 is documented in Zgaga, 2007.
2. See Segundo Encuentro de Rectores Universia Guadalajara 2010 (2010).

Common Higher Education Area (*Espacio Común de Educación Superior,* ECOES) and the Network of Latin American and Caribbean Macro-universities (*Red de Macrouniversidades de América Latina y el Caribe*). A more recent example is the Latin American and Caribbean Area for Higher Education (ENLACES), as proposed by the UNESCO International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (IESALC) at the Regional Conference on Higher Education (CRES) in 2008. There are also the Tuning Latin America3 (Beneitone *et al.*, 2007) and 6x4 (UEALC 6x4, 2008) projects, which endorse curriculum structures based on the BP's model.

Objections to applying the Bologna Process in other regions of the world

The view that the Bologna Process could become HE's sole regional harmonisation model lies at the origin of various arguments that question the desirability and feasibility of implementing it elsewhere in the world (Sirat *et al.*, 2008).

The first objection consists of the notion that a regional harmonisation process would result in the standardisation of HES within the relevant region, and in homogenisation between the EU's HES and those of other regions. Emphasis is placed on the evident undesirability of such results. Inter-regional homogenisation would endanger cultural diversity and national identity, and would go against UNESCO's policy of promoting diversity and local identity (Sirat, 2008a). Intra-regional standardisation would restrict diversity and distinctiveness among the HES within a region, limiting the equity and relevance of HE as one of its negative consequences (Sirat, 2008b).

The second objection consists of the claim that the BP would be unfeasible outside Europe due to the existence of: a) significant macro and micro-level inter-regional asymmetries between the EU and other regions; and b) intra-regional differences between HES within each of the other regions in question.

The unfeasibility of the Bologna Process in Latin America

1. Standardisation and homogenisation

The idea that the creation of the EHEA has caused the homogenisation of its component national HES is false, according to research carried out by Witte (2006) and Van Vught (2007), which clearly shows that the BP has not targeted standardisation but rather convergence based on recognition of and respect for national diversity and distinctiveness. Van Vught (2007) stresses that diversity among

3. Tuning Latin America is now in its second stage (2011-2013), the first activity of which consisted of a meeting in Bogotá, Colombia, on 18 May 2011.

HES is one of the factors with the greatest bearing on quality, relevance and equity, a means of specialisation which produces graduates with profiles in line with the demands of society and the job market, and a crucial factor where competitiveness is concerned. Such diversity also makes HE more accessible to students with different social and educational backgrounds, thus contributing to equity and social mobility.

The BP has been implemented with full recognition of diversity since the outset. The Sorbonne and Bologna declarations both emphasise that the BP is a common framework of reference which allows for the compatibility and comparability of different HES with a view to achieving a dynamic of convergence among them (Allegre *et al.*, 1998; European Ministers of Education, 1999). The BP's originality lies in the fact that it is an integration process compatible with the cultural and linguistic diversity among different national HES and with HE institutions' autonomy. The extent to which such convergence is gradually being achieved was shown in an empirical study conducted by Witte (2006). More recent studies confirm that the aforementioned convergence is compatible with the different degrees of diversity among and levels of distinctiveness of the HES involved in the BP (Van Damme, 2009; Witte *et al.*, 2009; Sursock *et al.*, 2010). Thus, diversity and distinctiveness are not, in themselves, an obstacle to regional integration processes. In that light, the homogenisation argument is baseless, leading to the hypothesis that the BP model could be implemented in other regions of the world with high levels of diversity and distinctiveness, as is the case of Latin America.

2. Inter-regional and intra-regional differences

The second set of arguments according to which the BP is unfeasible in Latin America has two variants:

- The first involves macro-level inter-regional asymmetries, i.e. the disparities between the EU and Latin America (Malo, 2005; Brunner, 2009; Carvalho, 2010) in terms of economic and social development, plus the fact that the latter lacks a macro-project for integration; and micro-level inter-regional asymmetries in terms of education models, degree structures and academic and teaching practices, as well as the levels of development, consolidation and academic performance corresponding to European and Latin American HES.
- The second involves the intra-regional differences between HES within Latin America in terms of coverage, size, funding and public and private sector development, among other aspects (Brunner, 2008).

With regard to macro-level inter-regional differences, the existence of a political, economic and social project such as the EU is deemed a *sine qua non* for the creation of a common HE area, giving rise to the conclusion that regional academic integration is unfeasible for Latin America (Brunner, 2008). There is also a tendency to point out that the factors that brought about the BP in the EU are absent in Latin America. Such factors include common political determination to stimulate the knowledge society through innovative education models to cater for contemporary needs, consolidated HES with a high level of academic performance, and a common job market and the free movement of professionals (Carvalho, 2010).

Arguments concerning micro-level inter-regional differences revolve around contrasts between European and Latin American HES in terms of levels of consolidation and performance, as well as of institutional and academic models. Despite Latin America's universities having been created on the basis of a European model (i.e. the Napoleonic model), their historical evolution was different from the outset, and the Córdoba Reform only served to heighten that divergence (Bernasconi, 2007). Lastly, the education models currently prevalent in each region constitute another relevant difference. Latin America has a traditional academic model[4], while that promoted by the BP is based on learning outcomes and skills (Brunner, 2008).

In addition to the aforementioned macro and micro-level inter-regional differences, there are specifically intra-regional dissimilarities, corresponding to the different types of HES within Latin America in terms of size, coverage, diversity among HE institutions, public and private sector development, the nature of relations with the relevant state and forms of funding (Malo, 2005; Brunner, 2008; Carvalho, 2010). The situation in question is partly attributable to the diversity of the region's countries in relation to demography and levels of economic and social development. Nonetheless, certain common tendencies within Latin America can be identified, such as a great proliferation of tertiary institutions with different characteristics and growth in the private sector (Brunner, 2008). In Latin America, national systems, "…far from being geared to greater institutional homogenisation and isomorphism, are subject to strong centrifugal tendencies of diversification and variation where their organisational principles are concerned, resulting in a low capacity for association and cooperation" (Brunner, 2008). The reasoning described previously leads to the conclusion that the major diversity among Latin America's HES would prevent the implementation of a process similar to the BP. However, it should be noted that, as shown in the first section of this article, the BP has always been designed to accommodate Europe's high level of cultural diversity and institutional distinctiveness. With that in mind, diversity and distinctiveness in Latin America should not, in theory, hinder convergence between its HES. Conclusions to the contrary would therefore need to be corroborated by empirical and conceptual research, as the analyses carried out to date on diversity within HE in Latin America, including those that appear in Gazzola *et al.* (2008) and that undertaken by Fernández Lamarra (2010), are insufficient to sustain the corresponding objection[5]. Nonetheless, we concur with Brunner (2008) that the existence of a sizeable, rapidly growing private sector in the region can be deemed an obstacle to the design and implementation of far-reaching national and supranational policies of the kind required for the establishment of common HE areas. It should not be forgotten that the European HE arena mainly comprises public institutions accustomed to following national policies designed by ministries of education. Furthermore, the implementation of the European Commission's internationalisation programmes has shown that Europe's institutions are capable of following supranational policies that go beyond the jurisdiction of national ministries.

4. This traditional curriculum model has been criticised by the OECD and the World Bank in their recent appraisal of HE in Chile (OECD-World Bank, 2009). In our opinion, the appraisal's findings can be applied to the whole of Latin America.

5. It should be noted that the purpose of the analyses in question was not to discuss the BP's unfeasibility.

The Bologna Process as an influence for higher education reform in Latin America

Generally speaking, in summary, claims that a process similar to the BP would be unfeasible in Latin America are based on the absence in the region of the conditions that led to the BP's implementation in Europe. However, the possibility that promoting convergence involving various aspects between Latin America's HES, as well as with other regions, could act as a springboard for modernising the sector and reforming academic structures should not be ruled out. The debate therefore ought to focus more on the potential benefits of implementing a common framework of reference which respects regional singularities to meet the specific challenges facing Latin America today. That notion stems from the fact that the BP is not solely geared to convergence, but also encompasses a process of academic reform involving the adoption of a three-cycle architecture, the introduction of an academic model revolving around learning outcomes achieved through education geared to the development of general and specific skills, based on a modular curriculum structure, and the implementation of a system of accumulable, transferable credits (Witte *et al.*, 2009). In other words, the BP has a dual composition, in which convergence does not occur without education reform and vice versa.

The requirement for HE reform in Latin America, incorporating some of the curricular aspects (duly contextualised) of the aforementioned education model, has been expressed on many occasions, including by Malo (2005), Mora (2004) and Gacel-Ávila (2010). A reform of that kind in the region would be driven by the need to overcome the educational divides and shortcomings identified in various international reports[6], to train graduates to endow them with the skills required in the 21st century, and to prepare the sector for the international HE assessment models that will be applied in the next few years7. In that respect, there is a stark contrast between the EU and Latin America in terms of models of HE institutions, degree structure, the organisation of teaching in curricula and learning approaches, making an in-depth HE reform process in the latter region even more necessary. We are of the opinion that all initiatives pursuing such a goal should draw on and reap the benefits of existing international experiences such as the BP. The aforementioned factors gave rise to the Tuning Latin America and 6x4 projects, which have produced two proposals for reforming Latin America's traditional model on the basis of the BP's curriculum structures. The aim of the ENLACES project is the same8, in that it seeks to establish a network of networks for the purpose of overcoming the shortcomings and divides affecting HE in Latin America (Carvalho, 2010). This represents a different starting point from that of the BP. The goals of the ENLACES project's strategic programmes include curriculum convergence and HE reform. In the former case, it aims to support sector initiatives for the harmonisation of study programmes, such as the proposal made by the IESALC, the Inter-American

6. This refers to reports on Chile (OECD-World Bank, 2009), Mexico (OECD, 1997; OECD, 2008) and Brazil (OECD, 2010).

7. This refers to projects such as AHELO (Nusche, 2008) and to the development of multidimensional global rankings, such as U-Multirank, which are currently at an initial stage.

8. In this regard, it should be noted that aspects related to cooperation between institutions are still prioritised over those involving convergence and academic reform in the ALCUE and Ibero-American Knowledge Area projects.

Organisation for Higher Education (IOHE) and the Union of Universities of Latin America and the Caribbean (UDUAL) to create a programme that draws on part of the experience of the Tuning Latin America9 and 6x4 projects. In the latter case, ENLACES advocates "…debating and promoting reviews of higher education systems' institutional structures in LAC [Latin America and the Caribbean] … looking to remove obstacles and guarantee political and legal conditions for the implementation of the principles and recommendations established by the CRES" (Carvalho, 2010). It thus aspires to benefit from the BP's education model through the results of the Tuning Latin America and 6x4 projects. Additionally, there are other noteworthy initiatives for the creation of common areas encompassing consortiums and associations of HE institutions, as is the case of the regional and national common HE area that the UNAM is promoting in Mexico through the ECOES and Network of Latin American and Caribbean Macro-universities projects, as mentioned previously.

We believe that an academic reform inspired by international models such as the BP, with an internationalised curriculum, greater mobility for students and academics, and joint degrees and qualifications offered in conjunction with foreign HE institutions, would be one of the best ways to change the current educational paradigms and endow graduates with the skills required today. The ultimate aim of doing so would be for Latin America to attain higher levels of economic development, international competitiveness and citizen well-being.

In relation to such ideas, it would appear that, in contrast to other regions, Latin America, with some notable exceptions, lacks political and economic elites with the political will to make education a springboard for development, given that state policies with a long-term view of the direction in which the corresponding education sectors ought to be moving are notable by their absence. Such a long-term view is essential for regional academic integration, which also requires the different figures involved in the political arena and the education sector to establish a project for the modernisation of the latter, with a view to overcoming the weaknesses and shortcomings referred to previously, such as a lack of development of general skills, an inflexible curriculum with a long, professionally-oriented first cycle, and difficulties where the recognition of degrees is concerned. The dearth of such policies is one of the obstacles that have prevented the implementation of a convergence process in Latin America progressing beyond debate and resulted in the failure of those involved to come up with a specific plan of action.

Conclusions

In this article, we have attempted to summarise the main arguments and limitations behind claims that a convergence and academic reform process such as the BP would be unfeasible in Latin America, and

9. This refers to the Tuning Latin America project's first stage, which ran from 2003 to 2007. The project's second stage is geared to completing every aspect of the process and examining new methodologies related to students' workload and profiles, among other matters. At the time of writing, the Tuning project is at different stages in a number of countries not covered by the BP, specifically the USA, Australia, Canada and various African nations. Additionally, the initiative's methodological approach has been incorporated into the AHELO project.

have sought to broaden the debate by exploring new ideas. We have pointed out that, far from being a sole, rigid model that promotes standardisation and restricts diversity and distinctiveness, the BP is a highly flexible process that allows for the coexistence of many variants within a common framework of reference and encourages convergence between HES characterised by major cultural diversity and educational differences, as is the case of those of Europe. On that basis, we have questioned the validity of the argument that such a process would be unfeasible in Latin America due to the levels of diversity and distinctiveness among its HES. In that respect, we have concluded that more comprehensive research on institution types and the distinctiveness and diversity of the region's HES must be carried out, as it was in Europe, before such a process can be written off as unfeasible.

Additionally, we have emphasised that the BP entails academic reform based on highly innovative academic structures. Analysis and discussion of the process could thus enrich the debate on modernising education in Latin America. We have indicated that the Tuning Latin America and 6x4 projects show how curriculum structures with comparable, compatible results can be achieved despite intra-regional and inter-regional differences. A project geared to convergence and to the establishment of a common HE area in Latin America, drawing on the European experience, as well as to greater internationalisation where curriculum structures and content are concerned, could be a way to enhance the region's academic performance levels and achieve more successful integration into contemporary society. The debate on the BP must therefore be widened, serve as the basis for thorough research in Latin America and attract greater attention from the region's governments.

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ARTICLE

Doubts and Dilemmas with Double Degree Programs

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Abstract

The number and types of international joint, double and consecutive degree programs have skyrocketed in the last five years, demonstrating that they clearly have a role in the current landscape of higher education. For many academics and policy makers, double and joint degree programs are welcomed as a natural extension of exchange and mobility programs. For others, they are perceived as a troublesome development leading to double counting of academic work and the thin edge of academic fraud. A broad range of reactions exist due to the diversity of program models; the involvement of new (bona fide and rogue) and traditional providers; the uncertainty related to quality assurance and qualifications recognition; and finally, the ethics involved in deciding what academic workload or new competencies are required for the granting of joint, double, multiple or consecutive degrees.

This article aims to clarify the confusion about the differences between a joint, a double and a consecutive degree program by providing a conceptual framework of definitions. It provides highlights from recent research surveys and studies, and looks at new developments and innovations in establishing these types of collaborative programs. Finally, it examines the factors that challenge the operationalization of the programs and explores those issues that raise doubts and dilemmas and require further debate and analysis.

Keywords

double degree programs, joint degree program, consecutive degree program, quality assurance, qualifications recognition, internationalization

Dudas y conflictos en torno a los programas de grado doble

Resumen

Los programas de grado conjunto, doble y consecutivo han experimentado un extraordinario crecimiento en los últimos cinco años, tanto en su número como en su tipología, lo cual demuestra sin lugar a dudas que tienen un papel en el actual panorama de la educación superior. Una gran parte del mundo académico y los responsables del diseño de políticas acogen con satisfacción los programas de grado doble y de grado conjunto en tanto que ampliaciones naturales de los programas de intercambio y movilidad. Otros los consideran un desarrollo problemático que puede llevar a un doble cómputo del trabajo universitario y ser un primer paso en el fraude académico. La diversidad de modelos de programas, la participación de proveedores nuevos (reconocidos y fraudulentos) y tradicionales, la incertidumbre en torno al aseguramiento de la calidad y el reconocimiento de títulos, y, por último, los aspectos éticos implicados en la decisión de qué cargas de trabajo universitario o qué nuevas competencias son necesarias para conceder los grados conjuntos, dobles, múltiples o consecutivos dan lugar a una gran diversidad de reacciones.

El objetivo de este artículo es aclarar la confusión sobre las diferencias entre los programas de grado conjunto, doble y consecutivo, para lo que aportamos un marco conceptual de definiciones. Presentaremos informaciones destacadas procedentes de estudios y sondeos recientes, y examinaremos nuevos desarrollos e innovaciones en el establecimiento de este tipo de programas colaborativos. Finalmente, revisaremos los factores que dificultan la operatividad de los programas y exploraremos los aspectos que plantean dudas y conflictos y que requieren un debate y un análisis más profundos.

Palabras clave

programas de grado doble, programa de grado conjunto, programa de grado consecutivo, garantía de calidad, reconocimiento de títulos, internacionalización

Introduction

The number and types of international joint, double and consecutive degree programs have sky-rocketed in the last five years, demonstrating that they clearly have a role in the current landscape of higher education. As an internationalization strategy, they address the heartland of academia that is the teaching/learning process and the production of new knowledge between and among countries. These programs are built on the principle of international academic collaboration and can bring important benefits to individuals, institutions and national and regional education systems. The interest in them is increasing, but so is concern about the necessary academic requirements and the validity of a double or multiple degree qualification.

For many academics and policy makers, double and joint degree programs are welcomed as a natural extension of exchange and mobility programs. For others, they are perceived as a troublesome development leading to double counting of academic work and the thin edge of academic fraud. A broad range of reactions exist due to the diversity of program models; the involvement of new (bona fide and rogue) and traditional providers; the uncertainty related to quality assurance and qualifications recognition; and finally, the ethics involved in deciding what academic workload or new competencies are required for the granting of a joint, double, multiple or consecutive degree.

This article aims to clarify the confusion about the differences between a joint, a double and a consecutive degree program by providing a conceptual framework of definitions. It provides highlights from recent research surveys and studies, and looks at new developments and innovations in establishing these types of collaborative programs. Finally, it examines the factors that challenge the operationalization of the programs and explores those issues that raise doubts and dilemmas and require further debate and analysis.

Diversity of Terms – Mass Confusion

A review of the literature, university web pages, survey reports and research articles shows a plethora of terms used to describe international collaborative programs, such as double and joint degrees. These terms include: double, multiple, tri-national, joint, integrated, collaborative, international, consecutive, concurrent, co-tutelle, overlapping, conjoint, parallel, simultaneous, and common degrees. They mean different things to different people within and across countries, thereby, causing mass confusion about the real meaning and use of these terms.

To deal with the confusion of so many terms, organizations, governmental bodies and institutions have correctly tried to provide a definition to clarify what they mean. Different regions of the world, indeed each country active in this aspect of international education, have proposed definitions that relate to the concepts integral to their native languages and to their policy frameworks. This has resulted in a multitude of definitions and another layer of complexity. An analysis of these definitions shows a variety of core concepts or elements used to describe double and joint degrees. They include: 1) number of collaborating institutions, 2) number of qualifications/certificates awarded, 3) completion time, 4) organization of the program, 5) recognition bodies and 6) number of countries involved. Together, these concepts illustrate the myriad of ways that definitions can differ. While it is not the intention to propose a universal set of definitions, it is necessary to have some common understanding of what is meant in order to facilitate the collaborative agreements and mutual understanding that underpin these programs/degrees and to ensure that the qualifications awarded are recognized.

Proposed Working Definitions

This section differentiates and defines three primary types of international collaborative programs: joint degree program, double degree program/multiple degree program and consecutive degree program (Knight 2008).

Joint Degree Program

> *"A joint degree program awards one joint qualification upon completion of the collaborative program requirements established by the partner institutions."*

The distinguishing feature of this type of international collaborative program is that only one qualification is awarded jointly by the cooperating institutions. The duration of the program is normally not extended and thus students have the advantage of completing a joint program in the same time period as an individual program from one of the institutions. The design and integration of the course of study varies from program to program, but it normally involves the mobility (physical or virtual) of students, professors and/or course content. It is important to emphasize that students travelling to the partner country for research or course work is not a requirement in all joint degrees programs. Visiting professors, distance courses and joint virtual research projects are options that provide valuable alternatives to student mobility.

Awarding a joint qualification can face many legal issues. National regulations often do not allow for a university to jointly confer a qualification, especially in association with a foreign institution. In this case, if both names of the collaborating institutions appear on the degree certificate, there is a risk that the joint degree will not be recognized by either of the host countries, meaning that the student does not have a legitimate qualification even though all program requirements have been completed. The situation becomes more complicated when one looks for an international body that will recognize a joint degree from two bona fide institutions. At this point, the Lisbon Convention for Recognition of Credentials is the only one of six UNESCO regional conventions that does so. Innovative ways to circumvent this problem have been developed by organizers of joint degree programs.

Overall, the most important features of a joint degree program are the strengths that each institution brings to the program and the opportunities it allows for students to benefit from a program that draws on the teaching, curricular and research expertise of two or more institutions located in different countries. The major drawbacks at the current time are the issues related to the legality and recognition of a jointly conferred qualification.

Double Degree Program/Multiple Degree Program

> *"A double degree program awards two individual qualifications at equivalent levels upon completion of the collaborative program requirements established by the two partner institutions."*

A multiple degree program is essentially the same as a double degree program, except for the number of qualifications offered:

> *"A multiple degree program awards three or more individual qualifications at equivalent levels upon completion of the collaborative program requirements established by the three or more partner institutions."*

As titles of bachelors' and masters' degrees and doctorates often differ across countries, the term 'equivalent level' is used to indicate that the double or multiple degrees conferred are of the same standing.

The duration of a double or multiple degree program can be extended beyond the length of a single degree program in order to meet the requirements of all partners participating in the collaborative program. The legality and recognition of the qualifications awarded by a double/multiple degree program are more straightforward than for joint degrees. It is assumed that each partner institution is officially registered or licensed in its respective county. Thus, awards offered by the enrolling institution in a collaborative program should be recognized in that country, while the other or double awards would be treated like any other foreign credential.

The major hurdles facing double/multiple degree programs involve the design of the curriculum and the establishment of completion requirements. There is no standard way to establish completion requirements due to the variety of disciplines, fields of study and national regulations involved. Each partnership does it according to the practices and legalities of the collaborating institutions. However, the double/multiple counting of the same student workload or of learning outcomes can put the academic integrity of the program in jeopardy. The idea of having two degrees from two different institutions in two different countries is attractive to students, but careful attention needs to be given to ensuring that the value and recognition of the qualifications are valid and do not violate the premise and academic purpose of a collaborative degree program. This is especially true for multiple degree programs.

Consecutive Degree Program

> *"A consecutive degree program awards two different qualifications at consecutive levels upon completion of the collaborative program requirements established by the partner institutions."*

Consecutive degree programs are becoming more popular both nationally and internationally. This kind of program basically involves two consecutive qualifications (usually bachelor's/master's degrees or master's degree/doctorate) awarded when program requirements for each degree, as stipulated by the awarding institutions, are completed. For the international consecutive degree program, the two awarding institutions are located in different countries. In this case, it is usual for a student to be mobile and complete the course work and research requirements for the first degree in one country and the requirements for the second degree in the partner institution located in another country. The duration of the program is usually longer than a single program, but shorter than if the two degrees are taken separately.

Major Surveys and Research Studies

Due to the relatively short history of international joint, double and consecutive degree (JDCD) programs compared to other types of academic partnerships, research on these programs remains limited. However, several large-scale regional surveys and other reports show a distinct increase in international collaborative programs in the last few years and forecast further growth, even if the definitions of joint, double and consecutive are not consistently used among researchers, policy makers and practitioners.

In Europe, the European University Association (EUA) highlighted the growth of JDCD programs in several survey reports as early as 2002 (Tauch & Rauhvargers, 2002). It is important to note that the term 'joint degree' is commonly used in Europe to include both joint and double degrees. The *Trends V* report documents the growth of joint degree programs particularly at master's degree level (Crosier, Purser & Smidt, 2007). However, this report also cautions that the additional financial cost required by these programs could ultimately limit their development and impact on institutional and regional goals for internationalization. The latest *Trends 2010* report also surveys institutions on the types of joint degree programs (bachelor's, master's and doctorate), new developments and legislative changes in permitting joint degrees. *Trends 2010* indicates that many institutions are developing joint degree programs as a response to an increasingly global job market (Sursock & Smidt, 2010). EUA's 2009 *Survey of Master Degrees in Europe* confirms further growth in joint degree programs but modest progress in legislative changes to allow the awarding of joint degrees (Davies, 2009).

In the United States, the Council of Graduate Schools (CGS) documented the diversity and growth of collaborative degree programs between American and international higher education institutions (HEIs) in its annual *International Graduate Admissions Survey* both in 2007 and 2008 (CGS, 2007; CGS, 2008). These initial efforts at investigating international JDCD programs reveal significant growth in double compared to joint degree programs, an increasing number of institutions with one or more JDCD programs, and partnerships with institutions mostly in Europe, China, India and South Korea (Redd, 2008).

In 2009, the Institute of International Education (USA) and Freie Universität Berlin produced a survey report on trans-Atlantic joint and double degree programs based on responses from 180 American and European HEIs (Kuder & Obst, 2009). The data show that American institutions are more likely to offer joint and double degrees at undergraduate level, while European institutions prefer graduate level. Interestingly, American institutions are more likely to use student fees to cover the cost of these programs, while European institutions rely on institutional budgets and external funding, such as governments and foundations.

In Latin America, a recent survey (Gacel-Avila 2009) confirms the growth of double degree programs compared to joint ones and indicates that private institutions are using JDCD programs to recruit fee-paying students, while public ones view these programs as capacity-building tools to strengthen graduate education. Unlike the European case, graduate employability ranks lowly as a rationale for developing these programs. Instead, the top rationales are the internationalization of the curriculum and the provision of innovative programs.

Data on JDCD programs in Asia, Africa and the Middle East are not currently available. However, the EU-Asia Higher Education Platform (EAHEP) met in 2009 to discuss the use of joint degree programs to promote student and staff mobility and cultural exchanges between the two regions. This symposium also examined the benefits and challenges of international JDCD programs and recommended best practices for such collaborations given some of the challenges and dilemmas facing these initiatives.

Several other national or institutional reports also address the growth of international JDCD programs. At national level, the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) completed a regional survey report with most respondents coming from Germany (Maiworm, 2006); another study examines German-Dutch joint degree programs (Nickel, Zdebel & Westerheijden, 2009); the Finnish Ministry of Education makes several recommendations for the development of joint and double degree programs (Ministry of Education, 2004). At institutional level, there are reports from the University of Graz, Austria (Maierhofer & Kriebernegg, 2009) and the National University of Singapore (Kong, 2008). Lastly, the European Consortium for Accreditation recently published a report on quality assurance and accreditation issues related to international joint degree programs (Aerden & Reczulska, 2010).

New Developments and Trends

These reports illustrate several new trends evident in the landscape of JDCD programs around the world. While it is difficult to assume that these trends apply to all countries and institutions promoting JDCD programs, they do illustrate some general trends worthy of serious consideration (Knight & Lee, in press).

- Double degree programs are far more common than joint degree programs. This is most likely due to legal barriers and administrative challenges in granting a joint diploma. Yet double degree programs raise the most doubts and dilemmas about completion requirements and legitimacy of the qualifications. Consecutive degree programs appear to be the least common but are also controversial.
- Most joint degree programs involve two rather than multiple institutions. Joint degree programs in most disciplines are commonly intra-regional rather than inter-regional. In

contrast, double degree programs exhibit more inter-regional pairings that are remarkably international in scope.

- Joint and double degree programs are mostly at master's degree level, but there is increasing interest in developing collaborative doctorate programs that draw on expertise such as teaching, thesis supervision and the research specialties of different institutions. The short length and flexibility of many master's degree programs compared to bachelor's degree and doctorate programs probably facilitate international collaborative programming.
- Many JDCD programs are in business or engineering disciplines, two areas that are often considered highly mobile and international in nature, and for which there is a market demand. MBA double degree programs are probably the most numerous and varied type of JCDC programs. As such they also raise many questions and issues.
- JDCD programs are now incorporating an overseas internship component, especially in professional fields such as nursing and journalism. In some cases this is how student mobility is introduced into the program.
- Online JDCD programs are being developed to facilitate program mobility. Some collaborative programs rely on faculty mobility rather than student mobility, or require student mobility only for the internship component. Conceivably, a student could complete an entire international JDCD program without ever leaving his/her home country. Although online programs may be more accessible to students with demanding schedules and/or limited resources, these students are deprived of the cultural immersion that characterizes many JDCD programs.
- A new development is the creation of large consortia to provide a wide range of learning opportunities for students. For example, in 2010, Europe launched the Erasmus Mundus joint doctorate program in astrophysics, with the collaboration of 13 institutions. This international consortium includes both traditional universities in Europe and advanced research institutes worldwide. The research institutes provide cutting-edge scientific equipment and a community of highly skilled scientists to complement the academic environment of universities.
- Another innovative measure is the consecutive degree program that offers two degrees at separate levels from two different countries. Some of these programs appear to act as new channels for graduate schools to recruit international students rather than as a collaborative program designed for both local and international students. Some double degree programs also offer diplomas in two very different disciplines (e.g., science and philosophy) in a time frame that is equivalent to a standard single-discipline degree.

Issues and Challenges

The benefits of joint, double and consecutive degree programs are many and diverse, but so are the challenges that face the collaborating institutions involved in establishing these types of initiatives. Different regulatory systems, academic calendars, credit systems, tuition and scholarship schemes, teaching approaches and examination requirements are only a few of the more technical challenges that need to be surmounted. This section identifies several academic issues that institutions and higher education authorities need to address in order to move ahead in the development and recognition of these programs and qualifications.

Alignment of Regulations and Customs

National and institutional regulations and customs differ from country to country, and present many challenges for the design and implementation of international collaborative programs. For instance, there are often regulations preventing students from enrolling at more than one university at a time, or laws requiring students to spend their last year or semester at the home university, or mandatory practices regarding the recruitment and selection of students. Non-recognition or limitations on the number of courses/credits taken at a partner university are additional barriers. Different academic years can present problems for JDCD programs, in particular student mobility. However, they provide more opportunities for faculty exchange. Examination/evaluation requirements and procedures often present obstacles to double degree programs.

Quality Assurance and accreditation

Quality assurance and accreditation are of fundamental importance but pose significant challenges for JDCD programs. When institutions have internal quality assurance procedures in place, quality review requirements for their own components can be met. But, it is more difficult to assure the quality of courses offered by a partner university. Common entrance and exit requirements are often used as quality proxies, but it would be helpful if mutual recognition of respective quality assurance programs (where they exist) were included in the agreement for a collaborative program.

Accreditation is even more of a challenge, as national systems do not exist in all countries around the world. Where they do exist, an added challenge is that accreditation agencies differ enormously; some focus on programs and others on institutions, some focus on inputs and others on processes or outputs. Furthermore, the establishment of procedures for accrediting international collaborative programs is relatively new territory for many agencies.

For the time being, the best case scenario is that accreditation is completed by each partner institution involved in a double, joint, consecutive degree program. For professional programs, there are international accreditation agencies like ABET or EQUIS, which may be appropriate for joint or double degree programs. However, at the current time, more institutions have their home programs accredited by these professional accreditation bodies than their double or joint degree programs. An important question is whether regional, national or international accreditation is the best route for international collaborative programs.

Language

The language of instruction for joint and double degree programs introduces new complexities. Each partner usually offers its programs in the home teaching language and, in some cases, in English. This means that courses may be offered in at least three different languages, or more if multiple partners are involved. Students need to be at least bilingual – usually their native language/s plus English. There are two issues at play here. The first is the dominance of English in cases where English is not the native language of any of the partners. This underscores the Anglicization trend, or what some call 'language imperialism' in the higher education sector (and many other sectors as well). Are international collaborative programs encouraging the overuse of English and the standardization of the curriculum? The second issue relates to the required proficiency level of students/professors in the second language of instruction/research, and the training needed to help students/academics meet language proficiency requirements. The positive side of the language issue is that students are required to be bilingual or multilingual, which helps their communication skills, employability and understanding of another culture. However, the establishment of language requirements and the availability of improvement courses need to be made crystal clear by each partner in the collaborative agreement. It is imperative that teaching and learning standards remain high, even when non-native language is being used by all institutions and students involved in the program.

Fees and Financing

Financial issues such as tuition fees and funding can be quite complex. It is clear that revenue generation is not usually the primary motive for these kinds of programs as they often require extra investments by the institutions or higher tuition fees charged to students (Maierhofer & Kriebernegg, 2009). In countries that do not charge tuition fees per se, or have limited autonomy to set fees, the extra costs must be borne by the institutions or external funders. However, the sustainability of a program can often be at risk when it is dependent on external funds. The development of a program becomes more complicated when multiple partners with different tuition fees are involved, or when there are extra costs for the professors' physical and virtual mobility. Arrangements for joint costs regarding marketing, recruiting, assessments and administration also need to be negotiated. In those cases where revenue is generated, an agreement for income distribution is necessary.

Doubts and Dilemmas

In addition to paying attention to academic alignment and technical questions, there are other macro issues that also need to be considered, as they are often expressed as doubts and dilemmas. These revolve around the questions such as: What is really driving the growth of JDCD programs? Are they sustainable without external funding sources? What are the certification processes? Are qualifications being recognized as legitimate ones? And, lastly, how are completion requirements and standards being established and met?

Student Rationales – Quality experience or two degrees for the price of one?

Students are attracted to JDCD programs for a number of reasons. The opportunity to be part of a program that offers two degrees from two universities located in different countries is seen to enhance their employability prospects and career path. Some students believe that a collaborative program is of higher quality given that the expertise of two universities has shaped the academic program. This is especially true for joint degrees. Other students are not as interested in enhanced quality but are attracted to the opportunity to obtain two degrees 'for the price of one', so to speak. They argue that the duration is shorter for a double or consecutive degree program, the workload is definitely less than for two single degrees, and there is less of a financial burden too. This argument is not valid for all programs of this type, but there is an element of truth in these claims. Double degree programs are being presented by a leading European international education organization as "a lot easier to achieve and not necessarily less valid" and "two degrees for the price of one." Finally, the status factor cannot be ignored. There is a certain sense of elitism attached to having academic credentials from universities in different countries, even if the student never studied abroad but benefited from distance education and visiting foreign professors.

Institutional Drivers – Capacity building or status building?

JCDC degree programs can lead to a deeper, more sustainable type of relationship than other internationalization program strategies, such as twinning and franchising. Academic benefits in terms of curriculum innovation, exchanges of professors and researchers, and access to expertise and networks of the partner university make joint degrees especially attractive. Consecutive degrees allow institutions to work with partners that may offer a master's degree, doctorate program or specialty that is not available at their own university.

For other institutions, the primary rationale is to increase their reputation and ranking as an international university. This is accomplished by deliberately collaborating with partners of equal or greater status. This type of status building applies to institutions in both developed and developing countries. For instance, institutions in developing countries seek double degree programs with developed country partners, as they can indirectly verify the quality of their program because courses are judged to be equivalent in order to count towards a double or multiple degree. Examples exist of institutions that believe that a collaborative program with a partner of greater status will also help or even bypass their national accreditation processes. Finally, collaborative programs are perceived by some universities as a way to attract talented students who may want to stay for work experience after graduation, and perhaps immigrate permanently. These present enduring questions and doubts about what is truly driving institutions to promote more and more JDCD programs.

Sustainability

The financial investment required to launch these kinds of programs is a subject worthy of further investigation. In some cases, the bulk of the extra costs can be borne by increasing student tuition fees, which in turn makes the program quite elitist and only available to financially independent or supported students. In other situations, costs are absorbed by the institutions. So far, the driving force for collaborative programs does not appear to have been income generation, unlike cross-border programs (e.g., franchise and twinning programs, and the recruitment of foreign students). All in all, the sustainability of JDCD programs reliant on external funding from governments, businesses or foundations is vulnerable, as are programs that are totally dependent on student fees.

Certification

The granting of legal certification for the award, and the subsequent recognition of the qualifications awarded, are by far the most vexing issues. As already discussed, there are only a few countries – although the number is increasing – that legally allow one of its universities to confer a joint qualification in partnership with an institution in another country. This means that the student often gets a formal diploma from one university and an unofficial certificate from the other/s, indicating that it was a joint collaborative program. For some students, this is not a problem as it is the international nature of the academic program that is most important, and not the qualification. For others, this is not the case, as credentialism is an increasingly important concern to students.

Recognition and Legitimacy of Qualifications

Employers, academic institutions and credential evaluation agencies all need to be cognizant of what is entailed in the granting and recognition of double or multiple qualifications. There is a perception that some double, multiple and consecutive degrees are more legitimate than others, but this is merely a perception, and one that is difficult to prove. The recognition process raises legitimacy or misrepresentation issues often associated with double/multiple degree qualifications – more than with joint or consecutive qualifications. Part of the concern rests with the double counting of course credits/workload for two or more qualifications. This has lead to the 'two for the price of one' label for double degrees. In this case, cost is measured not only in monetary terms, but also in student workload terms.

Completion Requirements

The diversity of models used to determine the completion requirements for double/multiple degree programs is extremely varied. There is no single explanation or standard framework used to set program completion requirements. This raises the critical question of whether the framework is based on 1) the number of completed courses/credits, 2) the student workload or 3) required outcomes/competencies. These three approaches lead to different explanations and doubts regarding the legitimacy of the double/multiple degrees awarded. The value of a qualification/credential is at the root of the murkiness surrounding the acceptability or legitimacy of double/multiple degrees emanating from a collaborative program. Many would argue that attributing the same courses or workload towards two or more degrees from two or more institutions devalues the validity of a qualification. Others believe that if students meet the stated learning outcomes/competencies required to obtain a qualification, regardless of where or how the competencies are acquired, the credential is legitimate. This logic infers that double and multiple degrees, based on a set of core courses or competencies and augmented by the additional requirements of collaborating institutions, are academically sound and legitimate; it is the process for recognizing these qualifications that requires more attention, and not the completion requirements per se. Both arguments are valid, but the variety of models used prevents a clear resolution to the question of legitimacy. Doubt remains.

Final Words

Clearly, the debate is nuanced and complicated by national policies, customs and interpretations of what constitutes the requirements for a qualification. The critical point emanating from the doubts and different interpretations of the legitimacy of double/multiple degrees is that rigorous analysis is required. Stakeholders, including students, higher education institutions, employers, accreditation and quality assurance agencies, policy makers, academic leaders and credential recognition bodies, need to address this issue individually and collectively. Similarities and differences among countries and stakeholders need to be acknowledged and respected, but there needs to be some common understanding about what two or more qualifications at the same level emanating from a double or multiple degree collaborative program actually represent and signify.

The challenge facing the higher education sector is to work out a common understanding of what joint, double and consecutive programs actually mean and involve, and to iron out the academic alignment issues inherent to working in different national regulatory frameworks, cultures and practices. Most importantly, a robust debate on the vexing questions of accreditation, recognition and legitimacy of qualifications needs to take place to ensure that international collaborative programs and their awards are respected and welcomed by students, higher education institutions and employers around the world, and do not lead to undesirable unintended consequences.

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Monograph "Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education"

ARTICLE

Conditions for the Internationalisation of Higher Education: Between Inclusion and Exclusion in a Globalised World

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Abstract

This article presents an analysis of the elements that enable or hinder the development of higher education institutions within an international environment, taking into account the particularity of the different social contexts and purposes of higher education. To this end, the concept of globalisation and its characteristics are analysed. Specific emphasis is placed on the processes of inclusion and exclusion that it has generated and its impact on educational actions. In addition, the aims of higher education and its transformation as a result of a technologically connected world and increasingly pluralistic societies are discussed. Thus, this analysis delineates the relationship between globalisation and internationalisation of higher education. In conclusion it identifies the indicators for the inclusion of institutions in international dynamics, considering not only their internal conditions, but also those related to the society in which they operate. In other words, this article presents an approach to internationalisation that involves institutional, cultural, social, economic and educational factors that facilitate or hinder integration into the global world.

Keywords
globalisation, higher education, internationalisation, inclusion, exclusion

Condiciones para la internacionalización de la educación superior: entre la inclusión y la exclusión en un mundo globalizado

Resumen
Este artículo presenta un análisis de los elementos que posibilitan o dificultan el desarrollo de las instituciones de educación superior dentro de un entorno internacional, teniendo en cuenta la particularidad de los distintos contextos sociales y los fines de la educación superior. Para ello, se analiza el concepto de globalización y sus características, destacando los procesos de inclusión y exclusión que ha generado y su impacto en las acciones educativas. Asimismo, se discuten los propósitos de la educación superior y sus transformaciones como consecuencia de las demandas de un mundo interconectado tecnológicamente y de sociedades cada vez más plurales. De esta manera, la reflexión conceptual se realiza en torno a la relación entre globalización, educación superior e internacionalización, y se concluye con los indicadores que favorecen la inclusión de las instituciones en las dinámicas internacionales, considerando no sólo sus condiciones internas, sino también aquellas relacionadas con la sociedad en la que se desenvuelven. Por lo tanto, se destaca una perspectiva de la internacionalización que involucra factores institucionales, culturales, sociales, económicos y educativos que facilitan u obstaculizan una integración en el mundo global.

Palabras clave
globalización, educación superior, internacionalización, inclusión, exclusión

Globalisation and Educational Processes

In recent decades, processes of social change have been generated as a result of transformations in several areas: technology, economics and social policy. These changes have manifested themselves in various ways, such as a greater interconnection among countries, faster information flows and real-time news about what is happening in other parts of the world. New information and communication technologies (ICTs) facilitate links between societies and an awareness of other cultures.

While economic and political relationships among countries are nothing new, they take on a different dimension in a globalised world. From the late 15th century to the mid 20th century, trade links fostered cultural exchanges and power relationships among countries, which came closer together and coexisted amid confrontation, integration and imposition (Beck, 1998; García, 2000; Friedman, 2006). However, the relationships currently being established among nations demand the construction of a new paradigm, in which the characteristic features of this global reality need to be defined (Martin & Schumann, 1998; García, 2000; Bauman, 2001; Rivero, 2006). These can be classified into the following categories:

a) Technological revolution. ICTs offer an immediate connection with what is happening anywhere in the world, and this has led to changes in the ways we relate to each other. The advent of the Internet and advances made in communication devices have led to information being available at any time. This revolution also impacts on personal and work-related habits, and changes production and coexistence systems.

b) Market extension. Being constantly interconnected has facilitated trade expansion and the union of regions to form common markets, such as the European Union (EU), the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the common market of Latin-American countries (Mercosur). This opening enables a large-scale exchange, in which trade barriers disappear and market rules govern relationships among countries.

c) Dominance of an economic-social model. Global-scale trade liberalisation has given rise to just one way of understanding economic and social policy: the neoliberal one. From this perspective, the state is no longer absolutely responsible for the welfare of its citizens; it becomes an agent that regulates the actions of private agents in a logic of competition. While the state has sovereignty over the control of economic activities and social welfare policies, such sovereignty is becoming increasingly subordinated to the overriding economic forces of agents external to a particular territory.

d) Enlargement of borders. A consequence of the three previous categories is that borders, which once delimited the powers of states within particular territories, are now permeable and no longer clearly defined. While it is possible to distinguish the geographical extent of a nation's territory, trade dynamics, technological advances and the opening of markets have led borders between countries to become relative, since they are now dependent on economic actions.

A consequence of globalisation is the transformation of other processes, such as migration, coexisting with things that are different, the shaping of culturally diverse societies and the inclusion/exclusion of people on local and global scales.

Access to the benefits provided by ICTs, the advantages of breaking down trade barriers and the chance to move from one place to another without any restrictions are globalisation conditions that are only within reach of a certain few, and they give rise to a new polarisation (Bauman, 2001). In this disparity, some have unprecedented freedom to move around irrespective of physical barriers and to act at a distance, thus enabling them to invest in any stock exchange or through any branch agent by eliminating all geographical distances. Likewise, cross-national companies are able to produce in one country, pay taxes in another, demand costs for infrastructure creation in a third country and draw on a workforce where it is economically most advantageous (Beck, 1998). Globalisation has also allowed people to become more mobile; they are able to travel to several countries in short spaces of time and be in Tokyo, the United States and somewhere in Europe all in the same week.

In contrast, the World Development Report (2009) specifies that production is concentrated in big cities, advanced regions and wealthy nations. In countries like Brazil, China and India, it shows that poverty rates in developing states are twice as high as those in the most developed states. Similarly, more than 1 billion people on the planet subsist on less than 2% of the world's wealth.

Consequently, technological advances and the ability to move from one place to another, to expand commercial links and to seek out the most suitable resources to benefit from the enlargement of borders are only available to a minority of people worldwide. The others have to find ways simply to get by and to secure better standards of living, which is reflected in migration. According to the World Migration Report (2010), the number of international migrants has increased sharply in recent decades. Furthermore, it states that if the migrant population continues to grow at same rate as it has in the last 20 years, the number of migrants could reach 405 million by 2050. It is estimated that the workforce in the economically most developed countries will amount to almost 600 million by 2050, whereas the workforce in the least developed countries is expected to increase by 3 billion by 2020 and 3.6 billion by 2040. As a result, the report calculates that the demand for migrant workers will probably increase in the developed world due to ageing populations and the need to attract highly qualified people.

In this context, the conditions of inequality are obvious. People with the chance of getting a well paid job, access to education and the necessary resources to develop in a highly interconnected world are those who can exercise their right to movement, personal growth and freedom by overcoming all the physical and media barriers that define today's world.

The diversity of societies and the constant changes that they are experiencing as a consequence of globalisation mean that there is a need for training processes that allow individuals to learn to coexist with differences and to develop in a dynamic environment. In short, people need to adapt and change. In order to cope in a global world, individuals should ideally have the following competencies (Leiva, 2009):

1. A knowledge of global society. A sound knowledge of what is happening in the world and of the international socioeconomic and political situation.

2. An understanding of technology. A knowledge of new technological trends and the opportunities they offer in different areas.

3. A command of languages. A particular command of English and the ability to get by in other languages, which will allow individuals to have a more in-depth knowledge of other cultures and to communicate more effectively.

4. International experience. This is important, and may take the form of either studying or working abroad. This is a prerequisite for gaining a broader vision of the world.

In theory, the development of these competencies within an educational process allows individuals to adapt better and to operate in a global world, thus responding to its demands. However, such competencies are gained through continuous educational processes and specific instruction that are only within reach of a certain few. The coverage and quality of primary education, in which the basic competencies for living and coexisting are learnt, is a pending issue. In 2007, the number of primary school age children across the globe without schooling was 72 million; furthermore, if current trends are taken into account, 56 million children may still be deprived of schooling by 2015 (UNESCO, 2010). In addition, there are significant differences in the attainment of quality, meaning that the learning of basic competencies is unequal both within and among countries.

The forces of globalisation open up educational opportunities and offer the tools for a more effective use of time, space and knowledge. However, people with no schooling, bad health and food conditions and an impoverished environment are excluded from these opportunities and remain on the sidelines of the welfare that others enjoy. Therefore, they struggle to obtain some kind of benefit from the spaces of subordination that are still free. On this point, higher education has both an economic function and a social function.

The Purposes of Higher Education in a Globalised Context

In the World Declaration on Higher Education (1998), it was agreed that the main mission of this level of education is to educate, train and undertake research. Within this objective, there are specific references to the training of highly qualified diploma holders, the construction of an open space that promotes lifelong learning, the generation and dissemination of knowledge, and the contribution to understanding, interpreting, fostering and disseminating national, regional, international and historical cultures. Higher education's mission also involves inculcating certain values in young people, such as democratic citizenship based on debate, the promotion of criticism and objectivity, and contributions to the development and improvement of education at all levels, mainly by training teaching staff.

Consequently, higher education holds the power to effect change through basic teaching, research and knowledge dissemination activities. It shapes the educational sphere within which economically-related professional competences are developed, as are those related to social values, critical capacity and social transformation. In higher education, actions are taken to contribute to narrowing the inequality gap, to foster values such as tolerance, democracy and equality, and to promote scientific innovation aimed at creating knowledge and solving problems.

UNESCO (2004) mentioned that the factors that led to a re-think of training priorities in higher education were the proliferation of multinational companies; new ways of providing educational services such as distance education and instruction through virtual media; the enormous diversity of qualifications and certificates; an increase in student mobility and in educational programmes based on international cooperation; the need for lifelong learning; and an increase in private investment in education.

The global reality places certain demands on higher education; these demands are connected with the requirements of today's economy, the transformation of knowledge, the short-lived validity of some information and the need to use ICTs to facilitate instructional processes. In this respect, higher education has taken on the role of educating to respond to new economic schemes and of creating knowledge (Altbach, 2006), as well as teaching, learning and a service to society through the engagement of the public sector and private enterprise (Knight, 2011).

The 2009 World Congress on Higher Education, besides ratifying the missions and functions of higher education declared in 1998, highlighted its social responsibility in terms of creating participation spaces for all stakeholders intervening in educational actions and knowledge generation. Emphasis was placed on the need to strengthen access to and the equity and quality of higher education, which implies both financial and educational support for the most marginal communities, the strengthening of teacher training and the educational planning of basic teaching. In addition, mention was made of the need to use networks and collaborations among institutions to contribute to mutual understanding and to promote a culture of peace, student exchanges and international cooperation through mechanisms that ensure multilateral and multicultural collaboration, as well as an increase in regional cooperation with regard to recognising qualifications.

The new challenges for higher education involve an acknowledgement of the local needs of institutions as well as international cooperation to help them meet those needs. Making full use of the global network is a key aspect in the quest for an equitable education and the reduction of disparities among, between and within institutions.

However, the relationship between higher education institutions and globalisation is complex. While there is an acknowledgment of the fact that these should respond to a local reality in a global context, the conditions in which internationalisation presents itself as a means of attaining that objective are questionable, both in terms of their aims and meaning.

Conditions for the Internationalisation of Institutions

In essence, universities respond to national interests or, in other words, to their local needs. In this respect, internationalisation responds to each institution's specific objectives. So, while some universities may not be international, all of them are subject to the same globalisation processes (Scott, 2000); they are affected by the characteristics of the era in which they operate.

Consequently, if internationalisation is taken as the capacity to operate in a social, economic and technologically interconnected world, then they require certain conditions to contribute to the attainment of universities' objectives and their development. In a reality where the polarisation of inequalities is global, the capacity to become internationalised varies among institutions and among people, in such a way that those with qualities concordant with the characteristics of globalisation have a greater chance of inclusion in international dynamics than those operating in a less favourable social and economic context.

The factors determining the conditions for higher education institutions to become internationalised are manifold. On a micro level, Agnew and van Balkom (2009) identified student motivation, an institution's demand for international experiences and the extent to which lecturers take part in international activities. On a meso level, a priority strategy includes noteworthy aspects such as financial support, an institution's mission and its link to culture. The macro level includes specific state funding, the relationship between graduates and the business community, students' preparation to join the worldwide labour force and the extent to which curricula include the construction of the international community.

Under this logic, Altbach and Knight (2007) mention that certain countries are admitting more and more international students into their universities in order to gain prestige and generate income. In the European Union, for example, academic internationalisation is part of economic and political integration. Currently, the Bologna Plan has harmonised academic issues in order to ensure compatible structures, transferable credits and equality in qualifications. In accordance with the afore-mentioned authors' analysis, the tendency towards internationalisation is on the up; however, there are a number of elements that may facilitate or hinder it, such as:

Political realities and national security. A fear of terrorism, limitations on studying certain topics or visa requirements.

Government policies and the cost of studies. Policies on the cost of tutoring and paperwork for visas and other documents.

Enlargement of national capacity. An interest in studying abroad or enrolling on international programmes may decrease as countries increase higher education access requirements, particularly on masters' and doctoral programmes.

English. The growing use of English as a vehicular language in research and teaching may arouse interest in international programmes.

Internationalisation of the curriculum. Students are able to find useful international programmes in keeping with their interests.

e-Learning. The international recognition of degrees will make the role of distance education broader.

Private sector. Private education is the fastest growing segment, though only a part of it is international.

Quality assurance and monitoring. This is the problem that assessors on an international scale have criticised the most, although the necessary measures to solve it have not yet been taken.

Student mobility and the chance for institutions, people and governments to support internationalisation processes are conditioned by personal, institutional, political and financial factors. These refer to valuing one or more languages above others, the training priority in certain disciplines and professional degrees more closely linked to technological and economic development, and limitations on a financial and social scale that means that some people will have access to education while others will not.

In regions like Latin America and Africa (Ávila, 2007; Otieno, 2009), some progress has been made on the conditions for internationalisation in line with the characteristics that this process entails, but in comparison to the United States and Europe, the achievements have been slow. These conditions represent challenges that can be summed up as:

Institutional disadvantages. A lack of organisational strategies and polices aimed at internationalisation and of funding focused on that process.

Quality of educational processes. In the case of Latin-American institutions, international programmes do not explicitly address improvements in quality. In Africa, there is some concern about the low quality of African universities' academic programmes, which gives rise to mistrust when it comes to choosing the region's universities and hinders their internationalisation.

Incomplete internationalisation strategies. A lack of an international vision of the higher education system as a whole, without it focusing solely on people. In Latin-American institutions, strategies that encompass all educational dimensions are required: teaching, educational programmes and a focus on knowledge. In the case of Africa, what stands out is a lack of cooperation in the field of research and of the region's representation of research, meaning that its status is marginal.

Student mobility. In both regions, there is a need to promote mobility programmes and systems that facilitate student exchanges and the recognition of studies undertaken in different countries.

The elements that facilitate or hinder the internationalisation of higher education institutions are varied; it is therefore necessary to specify certain nuances that are country and region dependent. It is evident that, in a region like the European Union, where economic and political integration processes have been consolidated, an exchange of educational processes is more feasible. Likewise, the economic, political and social stability of a region favourably conditions internationalisation processes.

The conditions of intercommunication among institutions can be divided into three structural levels of education: the system, the institution and people. In each one, inclusion and exclusion processes inherent to the characteristics of internationalisation are established. The analysis performed by Altbach (2006) and Teichler (2004) points out that internationalisation currently takes place among equals or, in other words, among institutions, countries and regions with similar economic, political and cultural systems. In this context, universities located in societies with developed economies, technological production, access to information systems and similar codes of values and languages (command of English as a first or second language and knowledge production concordant with market needs) will be *included* in a global world. Thus, those that have the capacities to blend with the dominant forms of internationalisation will be able to be included, but not all of them will manage to achieve that. On the basis of the *north-south* divide (included-excluded), systems will try to join in by encouraging student and academic mobility, access to information technology and scientific media, and by constructing a curriculum focusing on the demands of the global reality, although none of this will provide an assurance of a quality education that responds to the characteristics and needs of the most immediate context.

The complexity of the higher education, globalisation and internationalisation relationship is thus revealed. On the one hand, internationalisation tends to increase the permeability of established borders as a result of the particular characteristics of globalisation, and to respond to the demands of the dominant world market. On the other, the functions of higher education – aimed at strengthening national cultures, fostering critical capacities and contributing to the development of more egalitarian societies in regional contexts – are hindered in the quest for inclusion in international education spaces and the advantages that they bring.

An Inclusive View of Internationalisation: Some Indicators

The conditions in which many higher education institutions worldwide are currently working do not meet the necessary requirements for effective internationalisation. While globalisation has made the limits imposed by borders more flexible, facilitating freer trade relations and enabling people's mobility, the impact has not been the same for every citizen around the world; in the case of education, the situation is no different.

To achieve an internationalisation that does not exclude people, institutions or countries, it is necessary to re-think the characteristics that are currently considered crucial for internationalisation. While they have so far been those that the global reality itself has demanded, it is considered essential to adopt a critical stance in favour of a more inclusive, comprehensive internationalisation. Thus, the following indicators are established as part of a more inclusive view of internationalisation:

1. *Political will*. This should be present not only on a national scale, but also on an international scale, to ensure that efforts to improve the quality of education and to allocate more funding to this level of education are not addressed solely at the institutions of one nation. Rather, the higher education situation in countries that have greater difficulties in terms of becoming internationalised should be analysed more.

2. *Integral socioeconomic attention*. To ensure that higher education institutions manage to overcome their problems of interconnecting with others on regional and international scales,

it is necessary, in a parallel and joint manner, to attend to the problems that populations are experiencing, which affect their access to education and their integration into society. Taking account of the relationship between higher education and the context, cooperative policies on a global scale are required to address the problems of the context in which higher education is located, by considering the education-society relationship.

3. *Assessment of knowledge in keeping with the contexts*. Although learning and having a knowledge of English or technological advances have been considered as necessary conditions for operating in global dynamics, it is essential to draw on knowledge areas that are relevant in the societies where the institutions are located. This will become possible as the economic processes with the power to move resources from one place to another begin to draw on the particular characteristics of the societies in which they invest, employ labour and make their trading profits. This should be done in a way that does not make these societies feel as if they are in a relationship of exploitation, but rather of exchange.

4. *Mutual mobility*. While borders have become permeable for trade exchanges, this is not necessarily the case for people. The obstacles impeding the free movement of individuals are becoming greater, and mobility options have to go through several filters involving an assessment of the type of person who wants to be in a country other than his or her own. In this respect, a promotion of mobility is required beyond the stigmas that point towards an institution or country as being the most appropriate one for undertaking a course of study. It is within a logic of intercultural exchange where there are notable benefits of undertaking a course of study or research internships in countries that, due to prejudice, are not considered academically attractive. This will require greater mobility of lecturers and researchers, through whom institutions will enhance their teaching and research processes.

5. *Involvement of all socioeducational stakeholders*. Those responsible for granting public or private funding, institutional authorities, the student and academic community and the representatives of various labour market sectors, as well as those involved in scientific, economic and cultural areas, should democratically participate in decisions taken on higher education.

Conclusions

To ensure that the internationalisation of education does not become an area in which the processes of exclusion and social inequality are replicated, it is essential to perform an analysis of the determining factors and of the contexts in which the intention is to globally connect educational processes. The importance of higher education as a means of combatting social inequalities and fostering the scientific, technological and social growth of a society is an objective that must not be overlooked.

While globalisation offers the potential for growth through the development of ICTs, the liberation of markets and the enlargement of borders, it must be said that these aspects only reach a minority of people. Consequently, in order to train citizens that are critical, proactive and open to difference, the internationalisation of higher education should be considered in terms that encompass the differences among countries and their respective needs, and not just the demands of the market.

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